



INTERDISCIPLINARY NATIONAL SEMINAR  
on  
**MIGRATION & DEVELOPMENT : OPPORTUNITIES  
& CHALLENGES**  
Jointly Organized by  
Hindi Vidya Prachar Samiti's  
**RAMNIRANJAN JHUNJHUNWALA COLLEGE**  
Ghatkopar (W), Mumbai- 400086, Maharashtra, India  
and  
**INTERNATIONAL INSTITUTE FOR POPULATION SCIENCES (IIPS),  
Mumbai**

4<sup>th</sup> & 5<sup>th</sup> January, 2013



# Proceedings

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# **QUALITY OF LIFE OF THE MIGRATED CONSTRUCTION WORKERS IN MUMBAI.**

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## **Introduction:**

The World Health Organization (WHO) defined health in its broader sense in 1946 as "a state of complete physical, mental, and social well-being and not merely the absence of disease or infirmity. Health is affected by several factors. The surroundings of a person at the place of work as well as residence, plays the most important role in maintaining the health of that person. Migration to Mumbai has always remained a matter of serious concern to researchers, planners and policy makers. Mumbai has a long history of migration and migration has remained the major force behind the city's very rapid population growth since its inception. It was the first Indian city to experience the economical, technological, and social changes associated with the growth of capitalism in India. The 2011 census showed an upward trend in the migration to the city. The objective of the study is to critically analyze the quality of life of the migrated construction workers in Mumbai, keeping their health conditions at the core of the study. The paper is based on primary data collection, wherein a sample of 30 construction workers was chosen. The survey was conducted at two sites- Redevelopment of Gopal Co-operative Housing Society Limited at Liberty Garden and MHADA project of B.G. Shirke at Charkop-Marve Link Road, both, in Malad (West) area. The paper will analyse the health status of the workers and will also try to bring out the factors behind the observed health status. The surveyed workers are mostly living in temporary huts. These people lack basic amenities and facilities and their overall quality of life is low. This paper will also focus on their problems and recommend some solutions for the same.

## **Literature Review:-**

World Health Organization (WHO, 1997) has stated that, "Happiness; life satisfaction; well-being; self-actualization; freedom from want; objective functioning; 'a state of complete physical, mental and social well-being not merely the absence of disease' are the components of measuring the quality of a person's life".

A Report by Indian National Commission for Enterprises in the Unorganized Sector (INCEUS, N.A.), states that the construction industry involves a large number of women workers, a number of them young mothers with infant children. Surveys in the construction industry have found that crèche facilities are not available on worksites. An all India study and many state level studies have noted the lack of welfare measures such as crèches for children, rest –rooms for workers, separate toilets for women and potable drinking water. If housing was provided it was generally unfit for

human living. Further it was found that there were no complaints from the workers or the labor administrators. One of the consequences of not having adequate crèche facility was that children were often exposed to the unhygienic environment which primarily affected their health and caused several skin disorders, due to their sensitive skin which, is always covered with the cement or the pebbles containing limestone. The children who were able to walk and run (4 to 6 years of age) were engaged in helping the workers and over time were inducted into the workforce. In fact the workers begin their working life very young and continue till old age without any provision for old age benefits.

Herrle and Schmitz, (2009) have talked about the ugly face of large cities especially in India. According to them, the workers who give the city a face it has today are completely neglected. They do not have proper access even to the basic facilities of life.

Singh, Hinze and Coble,(1999) have stated that construction workers are at great risk to injury, disability and early death as a result of exposure to health and safety hazards at work (Centre to Protect Rights, 1993).

### **Methodology:-**

This paper is mainly based on Primary Data collection. With sample size 30 the survey was conducted at two sites- **Redevelopment of Gopal Co-operative Housing Society Limited and MHADA project of B.G. Shirke**. Some information is also collected from books and internet as well.

### **Location of Study Areas:-**

The study area chosen is Malad (West) area which is suburb of Mumbai city. In Malad, two construction sites were selected at different locations. One at Liberty Garden and the other at Charkop-Marve Link road. The former was a redevelopment site and the latter was a new construction. Both were residential areas and residential buildings.



**MHADA PROJECT at Malad GOPAL CO-OP HSG. SOC LTD at Malad.**

*Location of  
Malad (West)  
area in Mumbai.*

### **Discussion:-**

According to the Census of India, (1991), a work is defined as participation in any economically productive activity with or without compensation, wages or profit. Such participation may be physical and/or mental in nature. Work involves not only actual

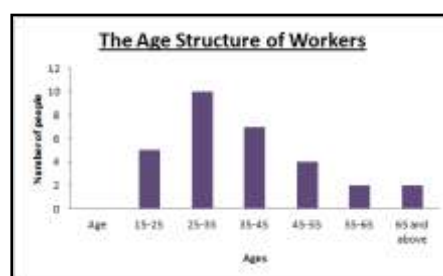
work but also includes effective supervision and direction of work. It even includes part time help or unpaid work on farm, family enterprise or in any other economic activity. All persons engaged in ‘work’ as defined above are ‘workers’. Thus a construction worker is every person who works on the construction site, helps in the construction of structures and does take in laborious as well supervision tasks and is paid for the same.

When the term ‘HEALTH’ is considered, for a layman it only includes various diseases,.

As mentioned by Herrle and Schmitz,(2009), about the condition of the people who have actually given the city the face it has; it was important to consider whether there were any improvements in the health from the past or not. To fulfill this, a survey of about twenty questions was conducted. The questions covered aspects like age, education, and native place, nature of meal, sources of drinking water, monthly income and overall happiness.

### **Analytical Results:-**

1. The age structure of the workers was taken into account. It was found that maximum number i.e. 10 fell in the age group of 25-35 years and the minimum number i.e.; 2 fell in both 55-65 years and above 60 years age groups. This implies that the workforce engaged in construction is of the most productive age. This implies that the areas from where these workers have migrated suffer a loss of productive age group.(Figure 1)



**Figure 1**

2. The educational qualifications were also considered. It was found that most of the workers (11) had taken primary education whereas only 3 of them had taken higher secondary education. This implies that the level of education of the construction workers is very low. This further implies that since the educational level of the workers is low, they are forced to do such type of unskilled jobs.



**Figure 2**

The main implication of this is that the awareness and knowledge among the workers about the health aspect and that about its importance is very less rather absent. As we know that Mumbai suffers from scarcity of jobs of both types- skilled as well as unskilled, the migrated workers have to engage themselves in construction sector. This is because this sector is developing on a very fast pace and one finds at least one site in every lane, which makes it easier to find jobs at these sites.(Figure 2)

3. The native places of the workers were also considered to know the region from where they usually migrate. It was found that most of them i.e. 20 workers came from Uttar Pradesh from places like Jaunpur, Kanpur and other villages. It implies that most of the migrated construction workers are from North India. This may also imply that North India lacks sufficient employment for the unskilled workers and thus such people are forced to move out to other areas to earn their livelihood. This also gives us an idea about the direction of the flow of remittances within India. If, the workers carried some of the air borne diseases to Mumbai, it would be made clear that the region(the place of their origin) is also suffering from that disease, but, in these cases, it was not found so.(Figure 3)

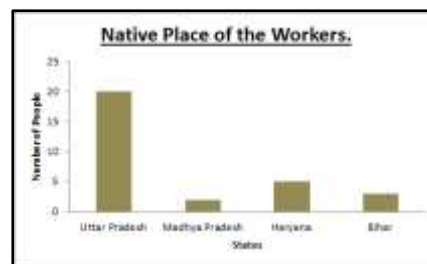


Figure 3

4. The marital status of the construction workers were considered to know the condition of their social life. It was found that maximum number of workers i.e. 20, were married and 10 workers were unmarried. This tells us that the workers could have a well settled life only if they were employed somewhere in and around their area. (Figure 4)



Figure 4

5. The number of family members was also taken into account. It was found that most of the workers (15) had 10 to 15 members in their family whereas only 3 workers had 1 to 5 members in their family. This was accounted to know the number of people who are dependent on the part of the salary that these workers send to their family. (Figure 5)



Figure 5

6. The year of migration of the workers was asked. It was found that most of them i.e. 17 workers migrated between 2000 and 2010 and the only 4 of them migrated between 1990 and 2000. This implies that the employment conditions in the northern parts of India were not as bad as in the 2000s, but 9 workers have migrated FIG & since 2010 to the present year.

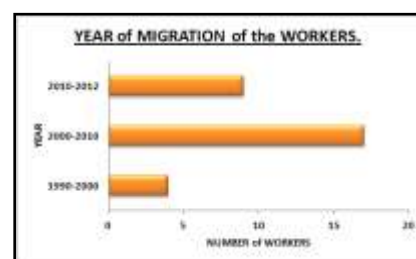


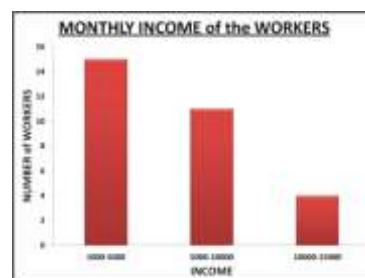
Figure 6

This implies that if, within 2 years 9 workers have already migrated, the rate of migration has increased in the present decade. This may be due to the rapid industrialization and urbanization that is taking place in north India. In this



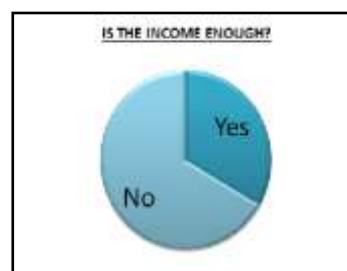
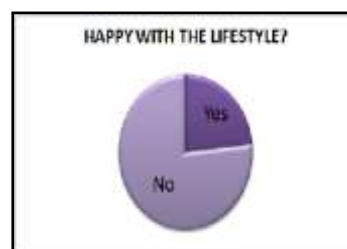
scenario, the unskilled labourers do not find jobs and are thus forced to migrate to other parts of the country.(Figure 6)

7. The income of the workers is a very important factor that decides their quality of life. It was found that the highest income was Rs. 15,000 and the lowest was Rs. 3,000. The income of these workers is not fixed for a month. It depends upon the number of hours for which they work and are paid at the end of each day. Hence, if a worker falls ill or fails to do a particular task allotted to him, he will lose some amount from his daily wages. Hence, in literal terms, they cannot even afford to fall ill. The supervisor of the workers enjoys just one added advantage of having a fixed income and he gets it on monthly basis. Actually he is the one who gets the maximum income of Rs. 15,000 and the rest of the workers get less than him. The unique feature of the income of these workers is that they do not save even a penny out of what they get and this is one of the main reasons for the economic crisis that they face all round the year. (Figure 7)



**Figure 7**

8. The above two questions are very much inter related to each other. Most of the workers were not happy with their income and their lifestyle. This implies that even though the workers are earning here (in Mumbai) by putting in a lot of their physical strength and all the hard work, the money that they send to their family is not sufficient for their living. This further implies that the amount that they keep for themselves is also not enough. Hence their standard of living is affected. This also means that the workers may show signs of happiness on some occasions; they are actually upset from within. This is because they always feel homesick and are obsessed with ways of earning more money so that they can give a better life to themselves and their family. (Figure 8a and 8b)

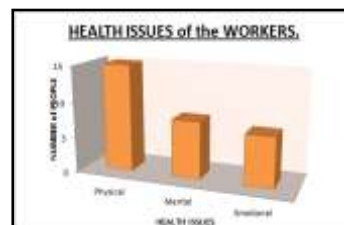


**Figure 8 a (top)**  
**Figure 8 b (bottom)**

9. The term health is inclusive of the three important aspects viz. physical mental and emotional. Thus, the health conditions of the past 6 months, from the day of survey were considered. These were then divided into three broad categories. It was found that most of the workers suffered from physical health problems like body pains (due to heavy work), dysentery, cold and cough and fever (due to changes in the season from summer to rains). Some suffered from mental issues like irritability due to lack of hygiene, cleanliness and other such problems.

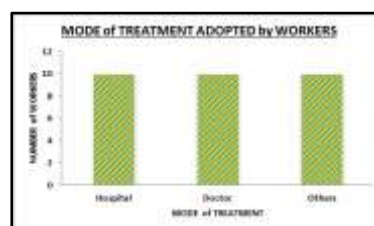


Among the women the mental issues are more prevalent. This is because, even though they have migrated to Mumbai along with their husbands, they find harder to adjust and adapt than their male counterparts. This is majorly due to unavailability of proper sanitation and other facilities which are essentially required by women. This is further accelerated if the women are not involved in construction as workers along with men and sit in the temporary and tiny huts constructed on the sites itself. Since, most of the workers are from the rural areas of north-India, it is obvious that the women are highly restricted from exploring the surroundings which, if allowed, could actually help the womenfolk to reduce their anxiety, irritability and boredom. The emotional issues include homesickness and the guilt of not have done much for the family due to which the families are suffering financial crisis. (Figure 9)



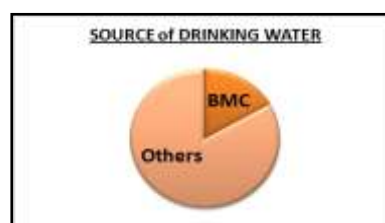
**Figure 9**

10. To check on the awareness amongst the workers and to know whether the workers have been taking care of their illness in a proper manner or not, a question regarding the mode of treatment adopted by them was also raised. It was found that there were three modes of treatment viz. going to the hospital, going to a private doctor or dispensary and going to a local chemist and druggist and asking for the medicines. Equal weight age is found among all the three modes. Some workers including pregnant women preferred to go to the hospital directly as Government hospitals are cheaper than any other private doctor. Also, they knew the importance of the care required during maternity. Some felt that if they chose to go to the hospitals, they would have to get forcefully admitted and this simply increases the hospital bill and they may also lose on the wages for the days they were admitted. Some felt that it is not at all necessary to go anywhere; going to the chemist would help them overcome the problems. This helps to earn as well as to recover at the same time. Actually, if the disease is just local cough and cold, the workers prefer to go the chemist and take medicines on the chemist's prescription. If he suggests them to go the doctor, will they do so, and if the doctor suggests them to go to the hospital, the workers do so. (Figure 10)



**Figure 10**

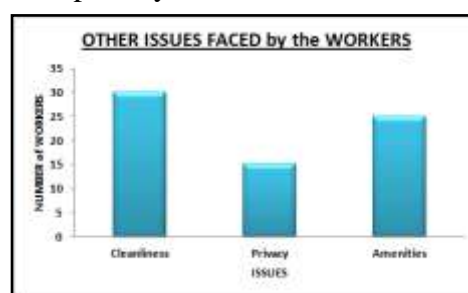
11. The source of drinking water was considered to know the quality of one of the most basic necessities for the workers. It was found that only one site among the two had a BMC tap for water supply. The other site did not have a proper tap, and hence the workers had to bring the water from other places like the local pious, etc which



**Figure 11**

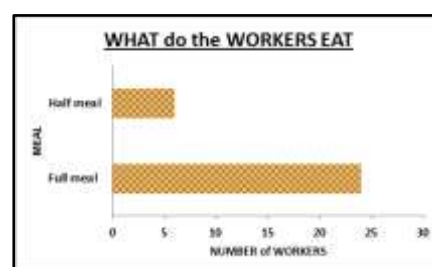
were not reliable. This leads to health issues among the workers especially during the monsoons. (Figure 11)

12. Apart from the health issues mentioned above, there were many other issues faced by the workers at the site i.e. the place where they stay. It was found that there were three major issues faced by them viz. lack of cleanliness, lack of privacy and lack of amenities like proper toilets, bathrooms, clean and safe drinking water and proper housing facilities. When compared it was found that most of the workers complained about lack of cleanliness, some complained about lack of amenities and few complained about lack of privacy. Actually this question received a mixed response hence, it can be said that almost all workers suffer from all the three issues. The differences are seen due to differential viewpoint of each worker. Females mostly face the problem of lack of privacy and that of amenities, improper toilets in particular. The health of all the workers, children in particular is affected badly due to improper sources of drinking water. Due to poor housing facilities, the entire family, new born babies in particular are badly affected by the changes in seasonal conditions. Lack of cleanliness is affecting their health very badly. The effect is accelerated in the monsoon season, due to the spread of Dengue, Malaria and other such diseases. Improper source of drinking water causes several waterborne diseases like Cholera, Typhoid and Jaundice. This is further more accelerated when the workers do not pay due attention to their health. (Figure 12)



**Figure 12**

13. To examine the quality of life of the workers further, their meals were also taken into account. It was found that most of the workers have a full meal of dal, rice, chapatti and vegetable whereas only some of them have a half meal i.e., combination of any of the two (dal-rice, chapatti-vegetable, etc.). From this it is clear that the workers take full care that they are having a full nutritious meal even if there is shortage of money. However one does not find fruits or dairy items in their meal which is also very important for one's nutrition. Actually, the workers are well aware that nutritious food is very much required for the body. This need is further increased due to the type of heavy physical activity that they do everyday. On asking they straight away reply "we have to eat the required nutrition, or else we cannot work". Also, as the workers are migrants from Northern states of India particularly, Uttar Pradesh, they have the habit of having a full meal since their



**Figure 13**

childhood. Hence, they are ready to adjust with the other factors, but they can in no way adjust with their food habits. (Figure 13)

14. One of the best things is that all the workers at both the sites get breaks in between their working hours. They get 2 breaks- one is the lunch break and the other is tea break in the evening. This helps the workers to relax and recreate.

### **Summary of Findings and Conclusion:**

The most important observation which was made at the sites was about the poor housing facilities. The material used for the construction of their houses included asbestos sheets and thick plastic sheets. Their houses lacked the basic facilities of a kitchen and basic furniture. Their houses were broken, some were shattered due to the monsoons (the survey was done during the monsoon season), and thus, such people had to build their houses- which were nothing but, temporary tents on one of the floors of the incomplete constructed buildings and thus had to be shifted from time to time; if the need arose. Their houses were full of bed bugs and red ants. Rats are a major problem and during winter, the workers find it very difficult to save themselves from the wrath of cold breezes. All this creates a threat for them which is greater in the case of their children.

As far as cleanliness is concerned it was observed that, the garbage collection at the construction sites is very poor rather absent. All the garbage that is generated has to be thrown away by the workers themselves. This creates heaps of garbage in the campus because none of the workers are concerned until the supervisor or the manager asks them to do so; leading to breeding of mosquitoes and flies and other types of insects and infections.

After analyzing the conditions of various aspects of the workers at the construction site, it can be said that the overall quality of life of the construction workers is poor. This is because they lack the basic requirements of healthy living viz. proper housing, hygiene and access to clean water, proper medical facilities, etc.

It should be noted that, the income levels of the workers is quite low and above that, the workers spend a major portion of their income only on their food and the rest of it is used for other purposes. Thus, we see that one of the major factors for a good quality of life is 'savings' which is not at all found among the class of construction workers. This restricts them from developing further and in turn their standard of living and quality of life remains stagnant at a much lower level. The low educational levels are also a major indicator of their quality of life being poor. Actually, it is their low educational levels which are restricting them from finding a new job, good income and securing their present as well as future. The development of these factors will show an improvement in the quality of their life which is rarely possible due to their unskilled nature.

### **Recommendations:**

After analyzing the conditions following things can be recommended:

Firstly, if the state or nay city or area for that matter is saturated, it should not allow illegal immigration. This will prevent the quality of life the immigrants from getting worse than what it was earlier.

Secondly, if any state allows immigration it should make it a point to provide all the basic requirements catering to the needs of human living.

Thirdly, the Government must undertake several measures and set up committees to who regularly check the living conditions of unskilled workers, especially, if they are immigrants by taking up surveys, free health check-up camps especially for pregnant female workers, free counseling for workers who suffer from an emotional issue, etc. this will help the workers to know about their health conditions; it will also help the workers to save the amount of money that they might otherwise spend on doctors, in hospitals or to buy medicines; it will automatically give a warning to the owners of the construction projects and thy will make it appoint to provide clean drinking water, proper sanitation and hygiene and maintain cleanliness.

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## **INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION AND ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT**

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International migration occurs when the citizens of a country cross their national boundaries and stay in the host countries for a certain period of time for various purposes especially for employment and education. This will have a significant developmental impact on the guest as well as the host countries; economically, politically and socially. When it comes to migration and development, both are said to be interdependent on each other because of the link which exists between them .According to the International Organization of Migration (2008), there are more than 200 million migrants around the world today and there is enough evidence to show

that the rate of international migration has actually increased at a time when the world is getting more globalised. The total number of citizens that have emigrated from India is about 10 million, which works out to just about a per cent of her population.

### **International migration from independent India**

Three distinct types of labour migration have been taking place from India since independence:

- People with technical skills and professional expertise migrate to countries such as the USA, Canada, UK and Australia as permanent migrants (since the early 1950s).
- Unskilled and semi-skilled workers migrate to oil exporting countries of the Middle East on temporary contracts, especially following the oil price increases of 1973–74 and 1979.
- The third phase of international migration has no any limitations. Due to globalization and liberalization policy of the government, the volume of international migration has spread all over the world. The main reason for the phenomenal increase in the volume of international migration in the 1990s is the economic reform in the Indian Economy and Information Technology revolution.

But unlike these earlier waves, migration patterns from India today portray a paradigm shift. Not only the UK, the US, Australia, Canada and the Gulf but a large number of countries in the European Union, countries in Africa and Asia are emerging major destinations for Indian emigrants. Moreover, India is not only seen as a source of getting manpower, it also continues to be considered a must destination for internationally renowned educational institutions to woo the Indian students. This provides foreign exchange to the education exporting institutions/ countries and enhances students' educational and economic profile. India is not only seen as an emigration country today, it also attracts a large number of people from across the nations in Africa, Asia and even in the West.

### **Causes of International migration**

Given the diversity in the nature of migration in India, the causes are also bound to vary. Migration is influenced both by the pattern of development and the social structure. Most migration literature makes a distinction between 'pull' and 'push' factors, which, however, do not operate in isolation of one another. Economic incentives are the prime determinants for people to migrate from one country to the other. Generally, people tend to improve their economic prospects by migrating; sometimes they are forced to migrate due to extreme poverty or unemployment. Economic migrants flock in the places where employment opportunities are abundant and flee from those places where economic opportunities are shrinking. Silicon Valley in the US, for example, has become a hub for IT professionals in the late 20th century for it provided immense opportunities to the people. It has attracted professionals and knowledge workers from all around the world. Economic migrants are not always pushed by the opportunity-deficient home economies; many times they are pulled by

the receiving countries to avert the negative impact of labour or skill shortages arising due to reasons such as demographic imbalance or massive expansion of economic activities. They contribute employment generation and economic prosperity of the host societies. However, their contribution in the domestic economy is sometimes undermined by receiving countries due to political hype or some other reasons.

### **Social and demographic impact of international migration**

Empirical evidence to assess the demographic consequences of international migration from India is limited. Evidence available in the case of Kerala highlights the following:

- Migration has had a direct effect in reducing the population growth in the state since the 1950s. In 1981–91, nearly a fifth of the natural increase of population was removed from the state through migration.
- Migration has reduced the working age population in the state and consequently increased the proportion of children and the elderly. Migration has contributed to the prevalence of large numbers of very small families in the state. Migration has had a very significant impact on the proportion of population below the poverty line in Kerala during the 1990s.
- Another prominent impact, which migration, especially, male migration to the Middle East, has had, is in relation to the effects on women left behind. This is especially so in the case of those who are married. A number of studies conducted during the past three decades have concluded that one of the major problems encountered by wives of emigrants is loneliness. The extent of such loneliness is reported to be more severe among younger wives whose husbands migrated immediately after the marriage. Such solitude had given rise to mental tension in the wives of those migrated during the 1970s and 80s. Such mental tensions seem to have been reduced in the 1990s. This could mainly be attributed to the availability of quicker means of communication, new responsibilities, roles, and leisure activities for women.
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### **Economic impact of international migration**

The economic impact of international migration on India has been primarily shaped by two key channels - financial and human capital.

The oil boom-induced Gulf migration in the early 1970s is when efforts at attracting inflows from Non-Resident Indians (NRIs) began. Since then **financial remittance** has emerged as an important part of India's balance of payments. It is increasingly recognized that substantial gains from remittances can be realized in terms of growth, investment, human capital formation, technological advancement and poverty reduction, if it is utilized effectively. More precisely, that gain from remittances can be realized at both the macro level (effects on the national economy) and the micro level (to the recipient region and households). The developmental effects of remittances depend mainly on the magnitude of its value and on how productively the receiving economy and household use it.

**At macro level**, the most direct and significant impact of remittances is on the volume of foreign exchange reserves. Since remittances are the part of balance of payment (BOP) account, the increase in it can reduce the BOP deficit (particularly current account deficit) of the country. This can create conducive environment for foreign investment in the country. All of these have positive impact on the overall GDP of the country as a whole. However, there are some negative incentive effects acting at macro level. If remittances are relatively large and a large share is spent on non-tradable (particularly housing and land) - the country would experience an appreciation of real exchange rate, rendering export less competitive.

**At the micro level** (regional and household level), remittances have had a considerable impact on regional economies within India. The most recognizable example is that of Kerala. A study for Kerala concludes that remittances to Kerala's economy are around 21 per cent of the state income in the 1990s. It also reports that an increase in per capita income as a result of remittances has contributed to an increase in consumption expenditure in Kerala. At the household level, the migrant's family can utilize the money to raise their standard of life by investing in consumption, education, health and some other productive activities. All of these expenditures have multiplier effect.

A second channel through which international migration has affected India is its **human capital**. The effects of skilled migration have been ambiguous. On the positive side, the success of India migrants overseas has been good for India's reputation. In addition, this segment of the diaspora has woven a web of cross-national networks, thereby facilitating the flow of tacit information, commercial and business ideas, and technologies into India. On the other hand, the loss of significant numbers of the highly skilled has undoubtedly had negative effects as well, perhaps most manifest in reducing the supply of professionals with the managerial and technical capabilities to run institutions and organisations, be they colleges or hospitals, statistical systems or research laboratories.

### **Conclusion and Recommendations**

Thus remittances are not simply foreign exchange reserves which can be used to finance balance of trade deficit or the current account deficit but also a counterpart in terms of source of external development finance. It means remittances within the control of the government should be utilized to finance higher level of investment rather than consumption, if the objective is to maximize development benefits. But for this to be applicable in reality there is a need of the appropriate government policies on mobilizing and attracting migrant's remittances and redirecting them to formal channels. The government policies might be regarding providing fiscal incentives such as removing restrictions on repatriation of profits and eliminating needless licensing requirements. Apart from this, another important policy option for maximizing the development benefits of remittances is to channel remittances to small and micro enterprises through financial intermediaries as deposits rather than



expecting migrant's to directly invest. In this case, the policy focus might be to induce micro finance institutions to capture remittances to be in turn used to fuel productive activities. There is also a need to improve the infrastructure (physical as well as human) of the country so that remittances reach at higher level trajectory. The higher level trajectory is needed for the capital and technological scarce economy like India. With the presence of adequate remittances as foreign exchange reserve, India can finance its need of capital for its economic development

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## **RURAL-URBAN MIGRATION: DIMENSIONS, CAUSES, ISSUES AND POLICIES**

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### **Introduction:**

Migration and urbanization are direct manifestations of the process of economic development in space, particularly in the contemporary phase of globalization. Understanding the causes and consequences of the former in terms of the changes in the distribution of population and economic activities, along with the success and failures of the interventions by state and other organizations would be extremely important for evaluating the available policy options and exploring areas of possible strategic intervention. It would be important to look at migration not always as a negative phenomenon - reflecting misery and lack of livelihood opportunities in the out-migrating regions and absence of basic amenities and health hazards in immigrating regions. It needs to be seen also as an opportunity being taken up by people to improve their socio-economic conditions. There are evidences that this is currently being taken up by skilled and better off sections. A large number of science and technology personnel in backward regions are locating themselves in a handful of cities and developed regions, analogous to the trends and pattern in international migration. While a section of the elite and highly skilled persons are “increasingly enjoying “benefits of migration, barriers to poorer migrants are increasing.” It should be possible to “use urban dynamics to help reduce poverty” and make migration an instrument in the strategy of poverty alleviation and hence be incorporated into a programme for meeting the first and the most important target under MDG. It is important to harness the potential of migration in the context of development and poverty alleviation. It would, therefore, make sense to discuss measures to promote orderly migration instead of considering proposals to discourage mobility of population.

**People leave their places of birth and residence due to many reasons. These reasons can be put into two broad categories:**

**(i) Push factor:** these cause people to leave their place of residence or origin;

a. People leave their place of residence due to poverty, high population pressure on the land, lack of basic infrastructural facilities like health care, education.

b. Apart from these factors, natural disasters such as, flood, drought, cyclonic Storms, earthquake, tsunami, wars and local conflicts also give extra push to migrate.

**(ii) Pull factors:** factors which attract the people from different places.

a. These are the better job opportunities, availability of regular work and relatively higher wages.

- b. Better opportunities for education, better health facilities and sources of entertainment, etc.

### **Urban Growth and Rural to Urban Migration:**

Population in the urban areas expands due to the following three factors: natural growth of population, rural to urban migration and reclassification of rural areas as urban in course of time. Around two-fifth of the total urban growth in the Third World is accounted by the rural-to-urban migration. The process can be identified as 'over-urbanization' as long as (1) rural-urban migration leads to misallocation of labour between rural and urban sectors in the sense that it raises urban unemployment, underemployment and poverty, and (2) rural-urban migration increases the social cost for providing for a country's growing population. In fact, in developing countries the natural growth of urban population is not significantly lower than its rural counterpart although fertility rate declined considerably in most of the developed countries because of significant changes in the socio-economic life styles of the urban population. In the Indian case although the urban birth and death rates are found to be much lower than their rural counterparts for the periods 1971-80 and 1981-89, the urban rates of natural increase were only marginally lower than the rural rates.

**Table 1: Decomposition of Urban Growth:**

Components of Urban Growth	1961-71	1971-81	1981-91	1991-01
1. Natural Increase	64.6	51.3	61.3	59.4
2a. Population of new towns or less declassified towns	13.8	14.8	9.4	6.2
2b. Increase due to expansion in urban areas and merging of towns	2.9	14.2	7.6	13.0
3. Net Migration	18.7	19.6	21.7	21.0

**Source:** Based on population census data; see Kundu (2006).

### **Factors Affecting Rural to Urban Migration:**

While a large number of empirical studies on migration have been conducted on the basis of field surveys in urban destinations, the focus of researches is primarily on migrants and in some studies non-migrants are added for the sake of comparison. Therefore, urban specificities which migrants have been pulled by or pushed to are not analyzed per se although some of the important factors related to the livelihoods of migrants, such as urban labour market and living conditions are investigated within the scope of individual researches. Also, the majority of the migration researches set its unit of analyses either at the national level or local areas selected and demarcated by the researchers. Thus, the intermediate level, particularly district level analysis is

almost absent. This is considered critical since district is an important unit for capturing migration flows as defined in census data on migration.

### **Regional imbalances Unemployment and migration:**

This trend of rising unemployment is compounded by the existence of regional imbalances in development within the country, which have collectively accelerated the phenomenon of migration. All theories of migration concede that migration occurs when the region of origin lacks the opportunities which the destination promises. It is inherently a combination of pull and push factors. Variation in economic development across regions is a primary motive for migration to greener pastures. The rural poor are concentrated in eastern India, and in the rainfall-dependant parts of central and western India, which continue to have low agricultural productivity, while the bulk of the jobs are being created in western and southern India.

Inter-state labour migration is an important feature of the Indian economy. Most of this movement has been from the most populous and poorest states with net in-migration being higher for the more developed states. Gujarat and Bihar provide an interesting contrast in terms of migration. The population entering Bihar was 364,337 and that exiting the state was more than three times higher at 1,226,839. (Census 1991) In contrast, the in-coming population for Gujarat was doubles that of Bihar at 716,190 and the out-going population 305,738, a quarter of the population leaving Bihar. Further, there exist intra-district movements. In Surat, labourers from the eastern talukas move to the irrigated western talukas like Ucchal and Nirzar, which are irrigated by the Ukai project. Census 2001 migration tables have not yet been released.)

**Conclusion:** Migration rates defined in terms of the gross decadal inflow of population as percentage of total population at the place of destination does not seem to be high in a large number of districts. The intra-state rates are substantially larger than the inter-state rates. Secondly, the male and female migration rates are closely inter-connected irrespective of whether they migrate from the rural areas within the state or outside the state. This would suggest that women usually migrate as accompanists of the males though several other micro surveys have noted that like the migration of single males, single-females are also increasingly moving out in search of jobs. Though many of the relatively poor and backward states actually show large population mobility, which is primarily in search of a livelihood, the mobility of especially male population is also seen to be prominent in the relatively advanced states like Maharashtra and Gujarat.

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## **YOUTH MIGRATION: BRAIN DRAIN v/s BRAIN GAIN.**

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### **Youth Migration: Brain Drain v/s Brain Gain**

Migration is the shift of people from one place to another for taking up permanent or temporary residence in some other country. It is the decision to shift from place of origin to place of destination in search of better material and social conditions and improve prospects for family and self. The history of migration goes back to the migration of health professionals and workers from underdeveloped to developed countries, the pace accelerated after globalization when people from all fields started moving out. International migration is a complex phenomenon impacting both- the country of origin and country of destination. The decision to migrate can be voluntary or forced. Greater tendencies of migration have been observed on the part of youth. Though there is no universally acceptable definition of youth but generally it comprises of individuals in the age group of 18 to 30 years.

The reasons for youth migration can be categorized under push and pull factors. The factors like poor medical facilities, lack of jobs, low wages, limited opportunities, discrimination, natural calamities, political instability etc. push the workers out of country whereas the factors like good jobs, higher salaries, better living and working conditions, educational facilities for their children, good environment, security and family links etc. in developed countries pull them to these countries. There are many types of migration but permanent v/s temporary is relevant for our discussion. Permanent migration is for very long period of time when highly skilled labour takes up employment and finally the citizenship of some other country while temporary is for short period of time, where in labour comes back after finishing the job, training or education. The former leads to brain drain and latter to brain gain.

Migration of youth can be analyzed as costs and benefits to the parent and host countries. The cost is in the form of brain drain and benefit is as brain gain. Brain drain is not a recent phenomenon but has assumed serious dimensions in recent times. Youth migration is of serious concern for developing countries as it has a negative impact on the economy and development of that country. The exodus of highly talented professionals is nothing short of deserting by them of the parent country. This flight of human capital also considered as brain circulation is a permanent wastage of those resources which are spent by parent country on the upbringing, education and training of their youth. Such countries not only loose these talented people for ever but are also unable to make development in various fields due to lack of skilled professionals. The trend these days is to acquire skill where it is cheaper and more efficient and sell it for high rewards elsewhere. According to rough estimates 3.5% of world population is of international migrants and the number is likely to go up. E.g. in India more than 50% of IIT graduates go abroad and contribute to outside growth instead of serving their own country, where there is a great need for specialized engineers. This is a gross wastage of resources as their education is highly subsidized the country. United Nations Population Fund estimates that people between 15 and 30 years age group account for one third of migrants. Brain drain has serious implications and calls for proper policy formulation because when migration is permanent it has serious implications.

For quite some time migration was considered a permanent loss but in recent times the thinking has undergone a change leading to talk on brain gain. When migration is not permanent; workers return home after learning new techniques from abroad. Return migration and chain migrations shift skills from one country to another, with implications for both. According to U.N. News Centre drain of migrants taking their skills to new countries can serve as engine of growth in those countries. There is also gain in the form of remittances that migrant workers send to their family members back home. Such remittances not only augment foreign exchange reserves but also help in poverty eradication. These remittances are invested in education, health and in housing sectors rather than on food and other items. Sometimes they themselves also make direct investments. For e.g. in Kerala, where there is a high rate of migration,

there is less child labour, greater schooling and starting of capital intensive enterprises. There is said to be the local multiplier effect of these activities. Migration of people creates employment opportunities to other not so qualified countrymen locally and also abroad.

Mass migration also lowers the cost of migration. Brain drain induces the host country to improve its educational quality to reap the benefits of large inflow of people. It raises human quality of returning students. The developing countries may also start additional training programmes and thus provide incentives for professionals to stay back. A World Bank study shows that an average increase of 10% of emigrants in the total population of a developing country can reduce poverty by 1.6 percentage point using an international poverty line of USD 1 per day. Also economic analysis shows that an increase in temporary migration in developed countries can produce gains worth \$ 150 billion per year equally shared between developed and developing countries. As long as the size of return migrants is larger than the permanent migrants, there are positive effects on aggregate and per capita human capital in developing countries. Thus, there is brain gain. In India over the past decade or so many skilled professionals have come back to re-establish themselves and are thriving also. The push factor has been shrinking. The job opportunities abroad have declined. The pull factor has become more strong with fast growing sectors like finance, medicine and information technology etc. generating ample employment opportunities to lure youth to come back. It has been estimated that 3,00,000 Indians will return in next four years.

International migration has provided opportunities to the host and also to the countries of origin. Historical evidence shows that immigrants have made tremendous contributions in the development of their countries of destination in social, cultural and mainly economic areas. At the same time there is also the positive impact on the home country. The incomes sent back home is a solid base for the local development. Brain drain and brain gain have brought forth another very important aspect – that related to women. They have been taking up such jobs in countries of destination which they could not take up back at home. At the same time they have started enjoying more decision making powers in both the countries. The issues of brain drain, brain gain, brain circulation and brain development etc. are the realities of the day. These are the threats and also the opportunities for the home and host countries which they have to accept and frame policies and programmes accordingly.

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## **Vulnerability to Global Climate Change: A Cause of Forced Human Migration**

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### **Introduction:**

The increasing levels of greenhouse gas emissions, leading to global warming, are fostering the process of climate change. The projections developed by the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) shows that the world will be threatened by devastating natural disasters, severe food and water shortages, resource shortages, outbreak of deadly epidemics, widespread changes in precipitation patterns, etc. We have already entered a period of unprecedented changes in the global climate and the above mentioned catastrophes are very obvious in the coming future. All these consequences are enough for vulnerable human populations to leave their native areas and migrate to safer places. IPCC, in its report, in 2001, on vulnerability, impacts and adaptations, mentions the studies showing how the human populations have used migration as an adaptive strategy to adverse environmental conditions. Evidences of climate –induced human migrations can be traced well back in 1930s, in the case of rural Eastern Oklahoma, when there was a climate related impacts on the agriculture leading to crop failures, in the rural parts which resulted in migration of population from this region.

These human migrations can lead to social and political tension in the receiving countries as it puts tremendous pressure on the already scarce resources. The climate –induced migrations and its impacts will be observed in various parts of the world, but according to studies the greatest challenges will be faced by the regions like South Asia, Africa and Europe. The IPCC warns that, coastal areas, particularly heavily

populated mega-delta regions in South, East and South-east Asia, will be at high risk due to increased flooding from sea, as sea level rise and in some deltas, flooding from the rivers. Bangladesh, for instance, will be threatened by devastating floods and other damages from abrupt monsoons, melting glaciers and the tropical cyclones that originate in the Bay of Bengal. This will force people from Bangladesh and the small islands in the Bay of Bengal to migrate inlands and the neighbouring countries. India is already facing the problems of Bangladeshi migrants and in future will struggle to cope with the surges of displaced population from Bangladesh.

### **Sea Level Rise (SLR):**

The global warming which is leading to melting of polar ice caps and glaciers, is increasing the total volume of the seas and oceans, leading to sea level rise. Another factor is that, the warming of the atmosphere leads to warming of the oceans through heat transfer which makes the ocean expand i.e. the warm water has a larger volume than the cold water and thus the sea level rises. A huge number of human population resides along the coasts of the world. These coastal populations are growing twice as fast as the global populations. Hence, the number of people that are at the risk of being affected by SLR is large and increasing. The most likely effects of SLR which will influence migration are increasing flood frequencies, erosion, inundation and increasing salinity of land.

Vulnerability of population to SLR is combination of various factors like, the presence of low lying areas, population on small islands, availability of economic resources, access to mitigation techniques etc. Clearly, the regions which are most vulnerable to SLR include coastal areas and small islands. Some of the small island countries at risk of SLR are, the Maldives, Kiribati, Marshall Islands, Tuvalu, etc.

### **Storms and Cyclones:**

The effects of storms, cyclones and hurricanes are not been directly examined as these are not considered the strong factors leading to permanent migration. Like any other sudden-onset disasters, storms and cyclones are likely to lead to temporary distress migration, a forced migration, after which people generally return to the disaster site to rebuild their livelihood. But in that case also, people may find it difficult to reconstruct their agricultural lands because of increased salinity of soils due to saline sea water and may opt to find a better place.

In 1998, for example, a severe hurricane, called as Hurricane Mitch, struck Central America. In the hardest hit country, Honduras, thousands of people were killed and thousands other were left with significant loss and no livelihood. In this case, a wide scale migration was observed within the region and to the United States.

The effects of climate change on the cyclonic pattern are uncertain. The IPCC estimates a 5-10% increase in the peak intensities and 20-30% increase in the

precipitation rates during it, which is going to intensify the storm and cyclonic activities, which in turn will influence the pattern of human migrations.

### **Droughts and Famines:**

Increasing temperatures worldwide, due to global warming and climate change, in addition to other environmental factors, are leading to extreme climatic conditions in some areas. Some regions of the world are facing the problems of droughts and famines, more particularly the African countries. Recent studies in Africa, shows that the rural populations have adopted some strategies to cope up with the recurring droughts that incorporate migration. In Western Sudan, for instance, male members of the families have often migrated to other regions in search of wage labour, at the times of low rainfall that affect agricultural production in their native areas. In the dryland areas of Ethiopia, people have been migrating to other better places when their food and other resources have been exhausted. Land degradation due to droughts and large scale famines have always influenced the migration patterns in Sub-Saharan countries of Africa.

### **Case Studies**

#### **Migrations of Rural Eastern Oklahoma:**

Migration of population was observed in the rural Eastern Oklahoma in 1930s, during a period of unusually harsh climatic conditions, which resulted in the failure of major crops in this region. The major crops of this region were cotton and corn. Cotton is a cash crop and was the principal source of generating wealth, for people of this region. The prolonged droughts in the year 1934 and 1946 lead to almost complete and widespread failure of this major crop. In addition to this there were also some other factors like, some social, political and economic changes were occurring during this time, which include mechanization of agriculture and severe economic recession, etc. This has lead to a large scale migration of population, out of Oklahoma, one-third of which migrated to California.

#### **Migrations of Vietnam:**

A large parts of Vietnam's population is directly dependant on the environmental conditions for their livelihood and it is a country which is more prone to water-related disasters. Some of these disasters are supposed to be intensifying due to the global climate change. According to the study conducted by World Bank, Vietnam will be one of the countries most severely affected by sea level rise.

Sea level rise and flooding are the major environmental problems of this country. Major impacts caused by flooding in the Mekong River Delta, is a prime factor for migration and displacement of population in this part. Mekong River Delta is very important part of this country, which supports more than quarter of population and provides a major portion of cultivated land, producing good share in country's GDP. Half of the Vietnam's rice production comes from this delta region, which contributes to highest percentage of country's rice export. Mekong River Delta also has a lion's

share in fish- shrimp harvest and fruit crop production of Vietnam. People are directly dependent on their agriculture for their livelihood and thus are more vulnerable to successive flooding events, which destroys their crop. Hence, they are forced to migrate elsewhere, in search of an alternative livelihood.

### **Conclusion:**

The knowledge and research about the relation between the climate change and human migration is still scant. Research on adaptations to climate change should be more focused on the migration, displacement and the resettlement of the population. Because, as already discussed, migration of population is leading to social, political and economical stress and ecological stress as well, in the receiving areas. It is putting tremendous pressure on the economy and the natural resources, which are already scarce.

In addition to reducing the emissions of green house gases, to check or lower down the process of global warming and climate change, we need to formulate the adaptive strategies of the communities which are more based on the carrying capacity of the environment. Carrying capacity can be enhanced or diminished, thus supporting more or fewer population. In case of radically altered environments, in which the carrying capacity of the environment is completely declined due to sea level rise or desertification or any other sudden, unavoidable disaster, strategies should be more focused on improving resettlement processes, which will surely check the forced migration.

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## **DYNAMICS OF FEMALE MIGRATION IN INDIA**

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### **Introduction:**

Census of India is the single largest source of data on migration characteristics for the people of India. Various surveys conducted by the NSSO are also the important sources of migration data. Migration Pattern of male and female affects relative roles and economic relationships. It is important to understand the patterns of female migration in India. Female migration is largely determined by social and economic factors. The 14th issue of the report titled “Women and men in India-2012” published on October 31, 2012, shows that the trend of migration is getting more popular within women in comparison to men both in rural and urban areas.

The study on women’s migration is gaining momentum albeit largely with respect to the areas of employment (Singh, 1984, Shanti, 1991, Sundari 2004). Migration research itself finds low priority among Indian Demographers (Bhagat 2008). The study of female migration also faces a gender bias in the analysis of migration patterns where the economic and social contribution of females is secondary to women. Though the focus has shifted while studying migration from males to women, there study is based

### **Method:**

The data is collected mainly from Census of India 1991 and 2001 and NSSO 55<sup>th</sup> Round (1999-2000) and NSSO 64<sup>th</sup> Round (2007-2008). Other sources of secondary data include published literature from the Internet, journals, books etc.

### **Limitations of the study:**

The data is limited and moreover the cause of migration to be selected by the responded is limited to only one reason as a choice in data collection. This could result into an overall view of the reasons for migration. However, choice of options in order of preference would give more insights into data on female migration while data collection and result into better understanding of intricacies of female migration in India.

## Trends in Migration of Women in India:

As per data obtained from different NSS rounds, the migration rates increased from 35.1 per cent in 1983 to 47.7 percent in 2008 in case of rural areas while in urban areas the same increased from 36.6 percent to 45.6 percent during the same period.

**Table 1-Trends of Women Migration in India (Women Migration per 1000 persons)**

Round Year	Category of Persons			
	Rural		Urban	
	Males	Females	Males	Females
64 <sup>th</sup> (July 2007 – June 2008)	54 (5.4%)	477(47.7%)	259 (25.9%)	456 (45.6%)
55 <sup>th</sup> (July 1999 – January 2000)	69 (6.9%)	426 (42.6%)	257 (25.7%)	418 (41.8%)
49 <sup>th</sup> (Jan –June 1992)	65 (6.5%)	401 (40.1%)	239 (23.9%)	382 (38.2%)
43 <sup>rd</sup> (July 1987 – June 98)	74 (7.4%)	398(39.8%)	268 (26.8%)	396 (39.6%)
38 <sup>th</sup> (Jan – Dec 1983)	72(7.2%)	351 (35.1%)	270 (27%)	366 (36.6%)

**Source:** Statement 4.3: Migration rates (per 1000 persons) obtained from different NSS rounds) National Sample Survey Organization (2008), Migration in India, July, 2007 to June, 2008, 64<sup>th</sup> Round, Government of India, New Delhi.

Table1 shows an increasing trend in migration of women since 1993 in both rural and urban areas. However, migration of males shows a downward trend. The migration rates decreased from 7.2 percent in 1983 to 5.4 percent in rural areas and in case of urban areas it reduced from 27 percent in 1983 to 25.9 percent in 2008. As per the Census of India, 2001, the total population stood at 1,028,610,328.

**Table 2- Trends of Migration of Women in India**

	Total Migrants	Males	Females
In-migration by place of birth and sex	307,149,736	90,410,496	216,739,240
Migrants by Place of Last Residence			
Total population All duration	314,541,350	93,361,809	221,179,541
10 to 19 years	101,092,520	19,875,240	81,217,280
20 years and above	69,471,092	16,731,962	52,739,130

**Source:** Data Highlights – Table D1, D2 & D3 Census of India 2001

Table 2 reveals that out of the total population of 1,028.6 million persons in India as at the 2001 Census, about 307 million (or 29.9%) were reported as migrants born

outside the village/town of their enumeration. Out of these migrants about 216.7 million were females, outnumbering their male counterparts (90.4 million), mostly due to change of their residence due to marriage. Those who had migrated to the place of enumeration from within the district or the state were about 181.7 million and 76.8 million respectively. The balance 48.4 million migrants were from other States or Union Territories including about 6.1 million from abroad. Similarly, in migrants by place of last residence, females outnumber male migrants with respect to different durations.

### Pattern of Migration

The 14th issue of the report titled “Women and men in India-2012” published on October 31, 2012 says that the share of rural migrant females stood at a high 47.7% as compared with a paltry 5.4% to their male counterparts. The pattern is similarly evident among urban female migrants as well. As against 25.9% of urban men, 45.6% of urban women have migrated.

**Table 3 -Distribution (per 1000) of internal migrants over the four types of rural-urban migration streams as per NSS 55<sup>th</sup> round and NSS 64<sup>th</sup> round**

category of migrants	migration stream				all
	rural to rural	urban to rural	rural to urban	urban to urban	
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
<b>NSS 55<sup>th</sup> round (1999-2000)</b>					
male	323	107	344	226	1000
female	703	52	144	101	1000
person	618	64	188	129	1000
<b>NSS 64<sup>th</sup> round (2007-08)</b>					
male	272	89	390	248	1000
female	700	49	148	103	1000
person	617	57	195	131	1000

**Source:** Statement 4.9: Migration rates (per 1000 persons) obtained from different NSS rounds) National Sample Survey Organization (2008), Migration in India, July, 2007 to June, 2008, 64<sup>th</sup> Round, Government of India, New Delhi.

It is seen in table 3 that as per the estimates obtained from NSS 64<sup>th</sup> round survey, nearly 60 per cent of urban male migrants and 59 per cent of urban female migrants had migrated from rural areas. The rural to- rural migration stream was dominated by intra-district migration (72 per cent) and nearly 96 per cent in the rural-to-rural migration was through intra-State migration.

The data on NSSO 55<sup>th</sup> Round Household Survey is extremely useful to study the magnitude and pattern of internal female migration.

**The NSSO 64<sup>th</sup> round (July 2007 – June 2008) highlighted the following:**



- In India, nearly 29 per cent of the persons were migrants with significant rural-urban and male-female differentials.
- In rural areas nearly 48 per cent of the females were migrants while the male migration rate was only 5 per cent, and in the urban areas, the male migration rate was nearly 26 per cent compared to female migration rate of 46 per cent.
- Nearly 60 per cent of urban male migrants and 59 per cent of urban female migrants had migrated from rural areas.
- A higher percentage of the persons were found to be engaged in economic activities after migration: for females it increased from 20 per cent to 33 per cent in rural areas and from 8 per cent to 14 per cent in urban areas.
- Out-migration rate (proportion of out-migration in the population) for females were much higher compared to males in both the rural and urban areas. It was 17 per cent among rural females and 11 per cent among urban females.
- Nearly 89 per cent rural female outmigrants had residence within the State.
- The amount of remittances from the female out-migrants from both the rural and urban areas was lower compared to their male counterparts, irrespective of whether the female out-migrants are residing in India or abroad.
- Nearly 97 per cent of the rural female migrants and 89 per cent of the urban female migrants moved permanently.

#### **Educational status of female migrants:**

As per the NSSO 64<sup>th</sup> Round, 2007-2008, the female migration rates for the '*not literates*' in rural and urban areas were significantly higher: 56 per cent in the rural and 47 per cent in the urban areas. Migration rates for females in both rural and urban areas were significantly high among those with education level '*graduate and above*' (63 per cent among rural females and 56 per cent among urban females). Among those with education level '*diploma/certificate*', migration rate was 61 per cent for rural females and 56 per cent for urban females.

#### **Reasons for Migration of women**

In India over the ages, women are the ones who were suppose to migrate when they get married but adding a new trend now, rural women are migrating to urban areas with marriage, as now parents are open to urban culture that has more opportunities and freedom.

**Table 4 - Distribution (per 1000) of migrants by reason for migration during 1993,1999-2000 and 2007-08**

reason for migration	migrated in			
	rural areas		urban areas	
	male	female	male	female
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
<b>49<sup>th</sup> round (1993)</b>				
employment related reasons	477	83	415	49
studies	41	11	180	70
marriage	23	616	9	317
movement of parents/earning member	208	237	283	495
other reasons (incl. n.r.)	251	53	113	69
all	1000	1000	1000	1000
<b>55<sup>th</sup> round (1999-2000)</b>				
employment related reasons	303	10	519	30
studies	53	4	62	13
marriage	94	888	16	585
movement of parents/earning member	260	63	270	310
other reasons (incl. n.r.)	290	35	133	62
all	1000	1000	1000	1000
<b>64<sup>th</sup> round (2007-08)</b>				
employment related reasons	286	7	557	27
studies	107	5	68	22
marriage	94	912	14	608
movement of parents/earning member	221	44	252	294
other reasons (incl. n.r.)	292	32	109	49
all	1000	1000	1000	1000

**Source:** Statement 4.13: National Sample Survey Organization (2008), Migration in India, July, 2007 to June, 2008, 64<sup>th</sup> Round, Government of India, New Delhi.

According to the NSSO 64<sup>th</sup> Round data (table 4), the most prominent reason for female migration in both the rural and urban areas was marriage: for 91 per cent of rural female migrants and 61 per cent of the urban female migrants the reason was marriage. It is observed that, for females, *marriage* remained the prime factor for migration for the other three migration streams also, viz., for urban-to-rural (74 per cent), for rural-to-urban (63 per cent) and for urban-to-urban (59 per cent), though in these cases of migration streams the share of the reason *movement of parents/earning member* for migration was also quite significant: it being 15 per cent for urban-to-rural migration, 28 per cent for rural-to-urban migration and 31 per cent for urban-to-urban migration. As women get married within the close circle, a high proportion of 60-70 percent of migration takes place within the same district (Shanthi, 2006). Female migrants from other states (Inter-state) is high which could be due to reasons like marriage and employment. Another 15-30% of migration takes place outside the district but within the same state, obviously for caste/class/religion/language reasons. Thus 85-95% of female migration takes place within the state.

In Inter-state migration i.e. female migrants from other states, Haryana (16.3%), Punjab (15.8%) and Maharashtra (15.2%) top the list with more than 15% of the migrants from other states. The reasons could be numerous. These states are prosperous states and due to this, these states attract migrants from other nearby backward states both men and women-women in the status of spouse or as employment seekers.

### **Sex-ratio of Migrants**

The demographic parameter of Sex ratio of the population is also equally vital in dynamics of female migration. According to the provisional Population count of 2011, sex ratio of India is 940.

The sex-ratio has been declining from 1078 in 1991 to 1072 in 2001 especially in all types of internal migration. This indicates increasing participation of women in the internal migration India. Also, the census report of 1991 and 2001 indicates that there is an increasing trend of participation of females in migration in all categories of migration. The highest number of migration is observed in rural to urban category compared to rural to rural which is observed to be lowest.

### **Suggestions:**

There is an urgent need to look at the policies for migrant and particularly for female migrants which should ensure empower them. There is a dearth of studies on female migrants in India and hence more and more studies are required to understand the details of female migration. The Central and States governments should create more livelihood opportunities for the rural people within rural areas.

There is an increased urban ward migration which requires multifacilities like sanitation, water, housing, infrastructure and education to be provided with much greater attention. Women influence and contribute substantially to the lives of all people and hence there is a need to spread awareness on the issues related to female migration in India.

### **Conclusion:**

Globalization has opened up a range of new opportunities for women yet women predominate and tend to work in female occupations including domestic work, garment industry, nursing and teaching. In India, women in the migrant households do play an important role in family survival but unfortunately they remain invisible in the official data because of the way the concepts are defined and data is collected. Even if included in studies, women are treated as dependents and their contributions are ignored.

Due to modernization, development and increasing autonomy of women, the volume and rate of female migration would increase mainly for economic reasons in the future. Since independent migration of females is on the increase, and as women play a great role in family maintenance, the policy planners should be pro-active in addressing the problems faced by them.

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## **THE LINK BETWEEN MIGRATION AND HEALTH—A SHORT REVIEW OF LITERATURE**

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### **Introduction**

The importance of addressing the health and well-being of migrants has been receiving greater attention, in recent years, at both international and regional levels. In 2008 the Sixty-First World Health Assembly Resolution on the Health of Migrants called upon participating nations to “promote migrant-inclusive health policies and to promote equitable access to health promotion and care for migrants.”

Migration is an old age phenomena that happens due to political, economic and social factors. But a systemic analysis of human spatial mobility is comparatively a new thing, which has gathered momentum in the last two decades. Migration takes place due to various economic and individual reasons, and shaped by specific socio-demographic structure. Age, sex, education, attainment, occupation and income determine the context in which migration takes place. There is lack of systematic information and health impact assessment among the migrant population, but their health risks are predetermined by certain factors at the destination areas.

- **Government Related Factors** such as national policy, community development, public services and housing.
- **Employer related factors** such as work safety, insurance coverage, health related benefits.
- **Health sector related factors** such as preventive network, health service provision, availability of health infrastructure and prices.
- **Individual related factors** such as social support at destination areas, health beliefs, health behaviour and help seeking behaviour, impact the individual and collective health risks of migrant.

### **Types of Migration**

Broadly speaking, migration is of two different types—internal and international. Both the types can be either *voluntary* or forced. Migration is voluntary or forced on the basis of the factors that propel migration at the point of origin. In the case of voluntary migration, the decision to migrate is taken as a part of an informed choice made by the prospective migrant, while in the case of forced migration, conflict, political violence, armed conflict, development-induced displacement, are major reasons for migration. There is no agreed definition of who is a migrant. As summarised by Decosas and Adrien,(1997) Haour Knipe and Rector(1996),

Lurie(1998)<sup>1</sup> “migrants may be defined by their legal status or ethnicity --- and may be categorized as labour migrants, refugee, resettlement, internal or international migration.”

### **Health and migration**

Migrants have always been conceptualized as *problematic* in the context of policies both nationally and internationally. This mindset has led to complex public health issues posed by migration. At the same time the health of migrants has become a serious public policy issue as they represent most vulnerable and marginalised group of population. The magnitude of migration, forced or voluntary, regular and irregular clearly suggests that migration has the potential to pose public health challenges. Migration can expose individual and groups in many settings at health risks. Many individuals and groups in certain settings remain excluded from the benefits of health and healthcare. (Banerjee and et al, 2005).

#### **Causal Factors Affecting Migrant’s Health:**

- Overcrowded living conditions which facilitate increased transmission of infectious diseases
- Poor nutritional status( and consequent lowered immunity) due to lack of food before, during and after displacement
- Inadequate quantities and quality of water to sustain health and allow personal hygiene
- Poor environmental sanitation
- Inadequate Shelter

These factors are interrelated and their impact changes as per the social and economic status of migrants at the destination areas as well as the place of origin. Some of the literature also distinguishes between “healthy migrant effect” and the “exhausted migrant effects” (Bollini and Sein, 1998)<sup>2</sup>. It has been found that migrant workers are selected for their good health and better working ability but later in life or next generations do not enjoy these benefits but end up with substantial disease burden and inability.

### **Degrees of Vulnerability among Types of Migrants affecting Health**

Vulnerability can be understood as a state of being exposed to or susceptibility to danger or abuse. The vulnerability which is primarily premised on the *alien status*<sup>3</sup> of the migrant gets complicated by the combination of factors at the area of destination. Various survey and studies have shown that migrants are disadvantaged relative to the native population regarding employment, education and health. They suffer mainly three types of vulnerability, economic, political and social. The economic vulnerability of the migrant is consequence of the informal work arrangement from

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<sup>1</sup> As cited from UNAIDS, Migrants right to Health, 2001.

<sup>2</sup> As cited from UNAIDS working paper, Migrants Right to Health, March 2005

<sup>3</sup> More apparent in the case of international migration.

the employers' end. Employer prefers to employ migrant labours with lower wage replacing local workers. (Bremen, 1995)<sup>4</sup>. Political vulnerability comes due to denial of voting powers and participation in local governance. Social vulnerability is reflected in the experience of discrimination, social distance and feeling of alienation in the host area/destination. A bias against the migrants may translate into health provider neglect which in turn perpetuates poor migrant health.

In the case of international migrants, one of the most important determining factors that pose barriers to accessing health services is the question of their legal status in the host areas. National health-care plans often discriminate against temporary migrants and especially undocumented ones by making only emergency care available for non-citizens. This forces migrants to delay health-seeking till the condition is sufficiently hazardous to justify going to emergency clinics. Another factor which prevents irregular international migrants from seeking healthcare and treatment is the fear of their illegal status being discovered (WHO 2003). In the case of internal labour migrants, their informal work arrangements<sup>5</sup> in the city debars them access to adequate curative care. (Census, 2001)

### **Internal Migrants in India and their Health Needs**

Internal migration by place of birth has increased in India, from 1991 (838.5 in millions) to 2001 (1,028 in millions). Following figures clearly shows that there has been an increase in the internal migration between the two census periods.

Migrants	1999	2001
Intra-state		
Intra –district	136.2	181.7
Inter- districts	59.1	76.8
Inter-state	27.4	42.3

**Source:** Census, 2001

During the 2001 census period, 14.4 million people migrated within the country for work purposes either to cities or areas with higher expected economic gains. The National Commission on Rural Labour (NCRL) estimates the number of internal labour migrants in rural areas in India alone at around 10 million (including roughly 4.5 million inter-state migrants and 6 million intra-state migrants). A large number of migrants work in the urban informal manufacturing construction, services or transport sectors and are employed as casual labourers, head loaders, rickshaw pullers and hawkers (Dev, 2002). Migrant workers predominate in the lower income labour market with higher risks of exposure to unsafe working conditions. (Allotey Pascal, 2003).

<sup>4</sup> As referred in Chandrima B Chatrjee, Identities in Motion, 2006, CEHET.

<sup>5</sup> Other factors like cost of healthcare, linguistic problem, no social support system are equally important.



In the case of internal migration among poor labourers, their susceptibility to health problems results from their peripheral socio-economic existence in the host areas. Since they are absorbed in the informal economy, they exist as undocumented labour in most cases and are not covered by labour welfare schemes. Poor living conditions such as lack of proper water supply, poor drainage system and unhealthy practices and deplorable sanitary conditions expose the migrants to various kinds of health risks predetermined by their standard of living and their choice of occupation (Sundar et al, 2000; VHAI, 2000, Ray 1993). A health survey among displaced Kashmiri Pandits reveals that the affected population shows multiple signs of deteriorating health like high incidence of serious and potentially fatal diseases (Norwegian Refugee Council, 2005). Migrant labour is more susceptible to HIV/AIDS infection

### **Women Migrants and Children**

Contrary to the popular perception that a typical migrant is a male, the ILO Migrant Workers Report, 1999 note that about half of migrant population worldwide (90 million) is female. According to the 2001 Census, 42.4 million migrants out of the total 65.4 million female migrants in India, mentioned marriage as the main reason to migrate within the country. As associated migrants, women suffer greater vulnerability due to reduced economic choices and lack of social support in the new area of destination. Women and children in an irregular situation are doubly vulnerable owing to their lack of proper legal status and high risk of sexual exploitation. The low health status of women can be seen from indicators such as antenatal care age, prevalence of anaemia, prevalence of reproductive tract infections and violence against women (Kundu, 2002). Children suffer from malnutrition and low immunization when their parents are in perpetual low-income uncertain jobs that necessitate frequent shifts based on concentration of work (Sundar et al, 2000).

### **Summary**

The relationship between health and migration is very complex and is predetermined by a number of factors both at host areas and the transit place. The problem becomes more severe due to the fact that migrants don't form a homogeneous group and therefore their health needs vary. As health is a basic right and migrant labour fulfils the critical labour supply gap and in the process help in economic gains, therefore the health needs of migrant population cannot be overlooked. There is also need to study the "healthy migrant effect" and why it is short lived. There is a lack of good comparative data on a number of health conditions, and there are significant differences in the incidence of known conditions *among* and *within* various migrant groups. More research work need to be done to discuss the myth and realities associated with migration and health. This paper is just a glance on the vast issues related with the migration and health seeking behaviour of different migrant groups.

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## **WOMEN LABOUR MARKET & MIGRATION IN INDIA**

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### **Introduction**

Migration takes place from one area to another in search of improved livelihoods in terms of employment, education and other facilities. Migration is an intrinsic part of development and so are the changes that development brings about in the role and status of women. Earlier the focus on migration research was on males. But recently, the focus has shifted more on females which is known as *feminization of migration*. In many countries, women's education still lags behind that of men. Few women are entrepreneurs, investors, lawyers, journalists, physicians, scientists, academicians, or politicians. Although the situation is changing, women still lack a voice in decision making, especially, in the most important areas of economic, civil or political life. The country is in a transitional phase of the development, especially, since the economic liberalization started in 1991 & followed in 2001. The rapid pace of development in social, economic and other spheres is bound to influence the mobility and migration of population in general and, females in particular. The migration data of 2011 census gives an opportunity to throw more light on the internal female migration in India. Female migration is for economic reasons like employment, education etc.

Migration refers to the movement of persons from the place of origin to another destination with a permanent change in residence for a number of reasons like social, cultural, economic and non-economic factors. It plays the important role in population growth, improving economic and the social condition of the people. Needless to emphasize the situation of women with regards to voluntary female migration due to the socio-cultural and patriarchal factors that foreclose such independence. The marginalization of women's concerns in the context of migration is related to the overall socio-economic status of women, the non-recognition and undervaluation of their work. Large magnitude of females' migration linked to marriage and other associated reasons have curtailed any economic significance being attached to the gender dimensions of labour migration. It was only by the mid 1980's that the female migration received some attention and, their contribution to labour, largely in the unorganized sector, came into focus. Generally, people move out of their usual place of residence to big cities in search of employment and better economic opportunity.

On closer inspection, many of these movements were marriage-related or to accompany spouses [Memon, 2005]. Migration increasingly offers women education and career opportunity that may not be available, or be denied them at home, as well as alternatives to marriage, the traditional role of home maker and some of the more negative cultural practices relating to women. These opportunities include domestic work in other household [Momsen, 1999]. Female migration cannot be understood without relating to the dynamics of gender relations in the family and labor market. Women are neglected due to their secondary migrant status, which basically emanates from the assumption of the subsidiary income earning position of women. The traditional image of women as tied to home and family is not true for the working masses, which form a majority of the population. Women labour migration is increasingly a means through which asymmetrical, intersecting relations pertaining to gender, caste and class are structured and negotiated. This is particularly important in the context of major economic changes, which have implications for the mobility and structural position of women. The intensity of female labour migration has generally been accepted to increase over the past few decades, especially, with the changes in the economic structure [Neetha, 2004].

Pattern and causes of women migration are changing in India. An increasing proportion of women are moving towards urban areas, particularly to big cities for reasons other than marriage. The femininity ratio of urban population is continuously improving in India. The femininity ratio of migrant population is found to be higher than femininity ratio of non-migrant population. A very high incidence of marginalization and invisibility of labour and employment among migrant women is found than in migrant male. Distribution of workers among employment related women migrants by occupational divisions showed that majority of women workers were found to concentrate in the bottom and top of the occupational hierarchy. Majority of the illiterate and semi-literate migrant women were clustering in

occupational categories of transport, production and related works and service works. The women with educational level above matriculate were heavily concentrating in professional, technical and related works and clerical categories. Cities with a higher proportion of rural women migrant workers have a heavy concentration of women migrant workers in low grade, low paid, informal sector jobs, whereas, cities with urban women migrants have an overwhelming proportion of migrant women workers in professional, technical and related work categories. But the wages were low and the work was seasonal in nature/ of short duration. Consequently, they faced the problem of an uncertain livelihood. Two respondents worked in a bidi factory on piece- rate wages basis. One respondent each was having a shop in a village and worked in a bidi factory. One female migrant worked with Social Welfare Department and another was engaged in the sale and purchase of goats.

### **Objectives**

- To study the women migration in labour market.
- To bring about the awareness to the society on social, educational, geographical, occupational.
- The current employment status.
- Role of female migrant workers within their family decision.
- Nature and extent of intra house hold gender bias or discrimination experienced by them in matters of consumption and disposal of income
- The policy implications & recommendations on female migrants.

### **Rational**

- Women are still clearly under-represented in public life.
- There exists a strong link between the existence of role models and the emergence of decision making.
- On the other hand, women, as they have not historically been present as independent personality, do often lack close role models.
- Role models are people that either by their attitude, their behavior or by their actions are able to arouse desire in other individuals and who help make a choice more credible.
- Role models are persons that by their attitudes, behaviors and actions establish the desirability and credibility of a choice namely, in this case becoming a decision making authority for themselves without any compelling reasons.

### **Research Methodology**

**Primary Data:** Questionnaire survey was conducted – population size

1500 respondents from various categories which includes educated as well as school dropouts from Delhi, Gujarat, Maharashtra (Mumbai, Pune), Chennai, Bangalore. Random interviews with the people intending to go or and recently returned back labour migrants were contacted interviewed.

### **Secondary Data**

Journals and Publications from various departments related to women growth in India as well as Global level

### **Demographical Representation of Facts**

Sex : Female Respondent  
Age Group : Between 23-40 years  
Duration of migration : 1year to 10years  
Nature of migration : Represented in the table  
Level of Education : School dropout & educated women

<b>QUESTIONS TABLE</b>	<b>YES</b>	<b>NO</b>
When I faced with the challenge I can work with it	82%	18%
I want to be financially independent	63%	37%
Trying new place is attractive even if failure is significant	16%	84%
Gain independence & control destiny	63%	37%
Migration due to Business	34%	66%
Is migration an individual decision or not	05%	95%
Migration due to marriage	82%	18%
Migration due to children's education	80%	20%
Migration due to individual Occupation	23%	77%
Consumption of Female earning families	89%	11%
Migration due to natural calamities	09%	91%

### **Findings**

The socio-economic, geographical profiles of migrant women play a significant role in influencing the supply of labour force in the urban centers. Their backgrounds do vary from women to women but with certain visible and discernible commonalities. 82% of the respondent has accepted irrespective of their education & financial position they are willing to accept challenges & face with confidence. Any hardship these women were willing to accept the same. Women in current scenario would like to be independent financially. 63% have migrated to various metro cities due to financial independence. Their opinion was the can be independent & self sufficient.

Study shows that women in last 5 years have accepted to migrate to different cities for better living even though lot of hardship & failure is accepted. Survey proved that out of 1500 respondent 16% have migrated to different cities on their own anticipating failure & have successfully established another city. As per the survey 63% of the

women respondent feels the decision of migrating to another cities or states or countries is the right decision because they can have control over their destiny rather than blaming the fate or the failure of their decision in staying in the same place as the women of ancient times.

Husband setting the business in another cities were a common features amongst the women respondent. Out of 34% women respondent 29% had stated due to husbands business they had to migrate to another cities even though they had stable & steady income. 5% women had sighted their views that they wanted to set up business so they migrated to metro cities.

05% of the respondent opined migration is an individual decision & 95% of the respondent opined that it was due to some external compulsion namely children's education, husbands transfer or occupation etc.

In Indian societies it's generally the women who leave her maternal home & shift to her matrimonial home. Even though education & employment has become a common feature of the day yet Indian families are conservative. 82% of the total respondent opined that they have migrated to cities after marriage. They were forced to shift their living to the matrimonial city.

The study revealed 23% respondent migrated to metro cities due to their individual occupation. Especially handicrafts, textiles, technology etc the scopes were high in metro cities than in village. Hence job opportunity & other parameters were high in city. Hence the decision of migration is made by the women respondent.

The survey portrayed 89% of the women's earning were consumed by the families. Due to standard of living & inflation currently single earner in the family is not sufficient if a decent living is required to be provided to the children & the aged members in the family. Only 11% opined that they are able to save but during contingencies they may be required to withdraw certain extent.

When natural calamities struck in Gujarat & tsunami in Chennai there were families which were forced to migrate to another cities. 9% of the total respondent was from these categories. They narrated the incidence on what conditions & how quick decision & action was required to be implemented.

## **Gaps**

### **Other Difficulties Faced by the Sample Women**

The other difficulties faced by these migrant women were as follows:

- The three major problems faced by them were that of incomplete job, inadequate income and food security, which are inter-related, Due to lower and insufficient earnings they are unable to fulfill their daily requirements not to talk of enjoying

decent living. Moreover, most of them have to incur regular health expenses which impose an extra burden on them

- Almost all the female migrants found it difficult to visit their native places quite frequently due to lack of money. The study also brought to notice the fact that majority of the respondents visited their native places only once in a year due to high train/bus fares. Moreover, train reservation poses another problem for them due to their illiteracy. The reduction in the number of unreserved compartments adds to their miseries.
- Due to paucity of funds they are not able to send/remit money for their left behind parents or relatives. They are often worried about them and get frustrated whenever they are reminded of the situation at their parent's homes. Their illiteracy is a serious problem creating communication gap.
- Almost all the respondents with the exception of two lived in the rented accommodation and faced the problem of high rents. Besides high rent they also faced the problem of lack of sewerage and drinking water facilities and lived in unhygienic conditions.

### **Policy Issues and Suggestions**

The above- mentioned pattern of female migration and the status of their work, earnings and personal well- being has their policy implication. Migration policy should not aim at supporting migrants, but should combine migration with development. Some of the major issues in this context has been summarized below.

- **Gender-focused and Issue- Specific Strategy** Our study broadly indicates that the process of development in some of the states has been slow and uneven there and, therefore, is not sufficient enough to absorb the additional labour force productively by providing the illiterate, landless and unemployed women and other members of their households the opportunities for earning their livelihoods. It is time for these states to reorient their poverty alleviation strategies by making them more gender- focused and issue- specific **9**.
- **Food Based Intervention** Since poor migrant workers families suffer from food insecurity, there is a need to make food accessible to them through PDS. Access to food can be improved through a more effective PDS, through grain bank scheme, or through ' food for work' scheme **10**.
- **Organizational Initiatives** There is also a need for organizational initiatives to mobilize and organize them. No doubt, it is an uphill task to develop group sensitivity among migrant women workers having short- term interests (i. e. earning as much as can) belonging to different communities, having distinct cultural and religious backgrounds. Further, since this sub- sector of services is dominated by women, as in case of any other female labour, the social problem of organizing them is high.
- **Role of NGOs** Poor migrant women workers lack bargaining strength. Their ignorance, illiteracy, coupled with alien environment and short-term interests make them more vulnerable and prone to exploitation. Here in comes the role of NGOs. It becomes essential those more interactive sessions should be organized

by NGOS with the migrant Delhi where they are currently working and also to sensitize them about their rights.

- **Empowerment of Women** Above all there is a need to identify means and ways to empower these women in the slum areas & improving service delivery by bringing about such institutional reforms that will strengthen the relationship of accountability ---between policymakers, providers, and citizens. One of the main problems is the absence of regular employment and incomes. These women migrated to Delhi after marriage and expected to get rid of these problems. Although the problem of ‘uncertainty of work’ persists yet the pangs of hunger have been overcome to a large extent. All the migrant women covered under the study sample agreed that they are certainly ‘better-off’ and would not like to go back to their roots. When they were asked during interviews whether they were satisfied with their living conditions in Delhi or not, the women were of the view that they were unable to answer this question because what they know is that they have to adjust and there was no other alternative available to them. However, they live in deplorable, unhygienic conditions with lack of sewerage and clean drinking water facilities and are vulnerable to diseases. They have to pay higher prices for food as migrants fail to get ration cards. There is no provision of sick or medical leave for women workers, no crèche facilities for their children. Some NGOs need to alleviate their personal sufferings and to provide them at least a minimum medical care and nutrition.

### **Conclusion:**

Migration is a social a phenomena which is influenced by both underdevelopment as well as development. Female migration in India is an area which needs further exploration and research in order to understand the causes and consequences better. Needless to say that the majority of the female migration in India is due to family reasons like marriage and family moved. But still a significant proportion of women are migrating to metro cities like Mumbai, Delhi, Chennai, Bangalore and Hyderabad for economic reasons like employment, business and education. With modernization, development and increasing autonomy of women, it is expected that the volume and rate of female migration would increase in future mostly for economic reasons. The study shows that most of the female migrants which are moving to cities are either illiterate or semi-literate. Hence, there is need for migration policies which focuses on the empowerment and development of women in terms of education and income. Female education is the key for empowerment of women in terms of making the decision to migrate as well as getting a better job at the destination. There is dearth of data on focusing causes and consequences of female migration in India. Although female migration for economic reasons seems to be limited, the transformation of labour force structure, particularly with opening up of gender segregated labour market, a significant proportion of female migrants engage themselves in various economic activities. In a nutshell, the significance of economic factors in determining female migration should be given greater importance in migration studies.

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## **BRAIN - DRAIN VERSUS BRAIN GAIN WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO INDIA.**

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### **Introduction:**

In the global era, the free movement of capital goods, technology, information and highly skilled labour has become a key component of economic growth. In competitive age every country tries to increase their market share in international trade, the developed countries attracting the best and brightest mind from developing countries to win the competition. With a well-educated and large work force India, is an important provider of highly skilled specialties for many developed economies. In the last years, the numbers of Indian migrants, especially highly skilled migrants, have increased considerably in our globalized world. The departure abroad of a large number of well-trained Indian s naturally has led to concerns about “brain drain” in India. In 2010, India with an estimated stock of 11.4 million emigrants was the second emigration country in the world, behind Mexico (11.9million). In absolute terms, India is among the countries, which lose most highly skilled workers to foreign markets. In 2000, India was, for example, the first sending country of physicians with 57,383 or 9.9% of the total number of physicians trained in the country going abroad (Bhargava, Docquier, and Moullan 2010). India and the Philippines supply most foreign-trained doctors and nurses to the OECD, notably to English-speaking

countries. The emigration of health professionals has negative effects on India, especially in rural areas where the density of doctors is lower than in urban areas. Despite increasing internal demand; India still has a very low density of doctors (0.6 per thousand people in 2004) compared with 3 in the US and 2 in Canada. Compared with other large origin countries, India records higher expatriation rate of doctors: 8%; while the expatriation rate of, say, Chinese doctors is about 1%. This does not prevent, of course, India from having a large and powerful modern health sector; as in other countries, the migration of health professionals may coexist with a dynamic urban sector and the inequitable social distribution of medical resources at the country level.

However, in spite of the high number of Indian specialists going abroad, the problem of brain drains is not a generalized phenomenon in India because only a few sectors deal with its negative consequences. One of the most affected sectors is genetic engineering and biotechnology, which copes with shortages of junior staff, as approximately 90% of post-graduates in this field go to the US after the completion of their studies in India.

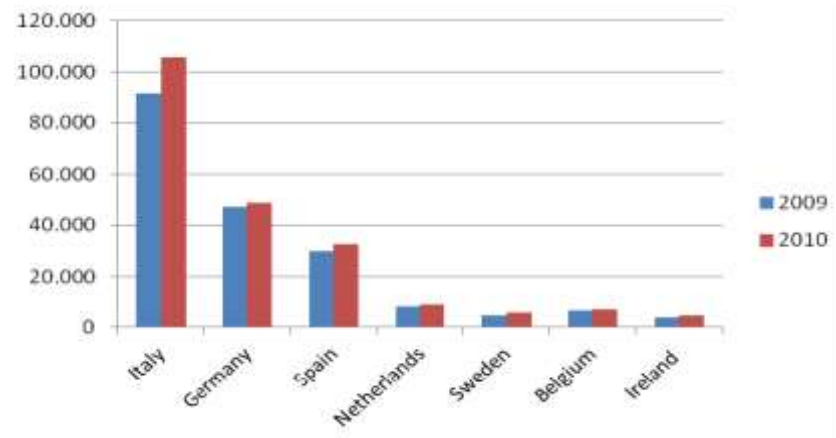
The available data on the numbers of highly skilled Indian emigrants suggest that the country does not suffer seriously from brain drain. The effects of this phenomenon should be moderate then because the relative numbers show that India is among the least affected countries by such emigration. In 2000, the emigration rate of tertiary-educated population from India had estimated at 4.3%. This is low, as with other emerging economies and certainly compared to small countries like Guyana, which has 89% of its tertiary-educated population abroad, or Grenada and Jamaica with a highly skilled emigration rate of 85.1%. Here an attempt has made to how dose India converted her problem of brain –drain in to brain –gain and win win position in the world economy.

### **Evaluation of Indian Migration Trend:**

The geographical distributions of Indian migrant destination countries are define by the level of qualification. The migration flows of the highly skilled are oriented towards traditional Indian destinations, namely: the US, Canada, and the UK and more recently toward non-English speaking EU countries. This wave is accelerating by Indian integration into the world economy. Semi-skilled and unskilled Indian workers are predominantly concentrated in the high-income countries of the Gulf Cooperation Council. These migrants have been viewed as key providers of remittances. Current emigrants from India show an evolution of Indian labour migration, confirmed by the presence of highly-skilled flows towards the Gulf, a destination traditionally reserved for unskilled and semi-skilled Indians. The same trend is recorded regarding highly skilled flows towards the US, Canada, Australia and Europe where unskilled Indian migrants mix with more qualified categories. The highly skilled nationals of India are most prominent in the United Kingdom. Among 12,852permits issued for Indian highly skilled workers in 2010, 5,615 or 44% is issue

by the UK. Italy is the first European destination for seasonal workers. In 2010, Italy issued 3,479 permits accounting for 92% of Indian seasonal workers in the EU.

**Figure. 1 Evolution of Indian migrant stock in the main European destinations in 2009 compared to 2010**



**Source:** Population Database-Eurostat, International migration.

Expansion of higher education especially science and technology is major source of emigration in abroad from India. Nowadays, the number of universities in India has grown some 35 times comparing to 500 colleges and 20 universities before independence, which are enrolling more than 12 million students, more than 10 times before independence.

The internationalization of knowledge creation and the rapid expansion of R&D activities determined the diversification of receiving countries for professionals and skilled workers from India. Traditional migration streams of highly skilled Indian were directed toward the United States and the UK. In the 2000s, new non-English-speaking destinations emerged in Europe such as Italy, France, Germany, and other European countries. The number of skilled Indian migrants moving to U.S. Canada, Australia, and Europe where unskilled Indian migrants mix with categories that are more qualified.

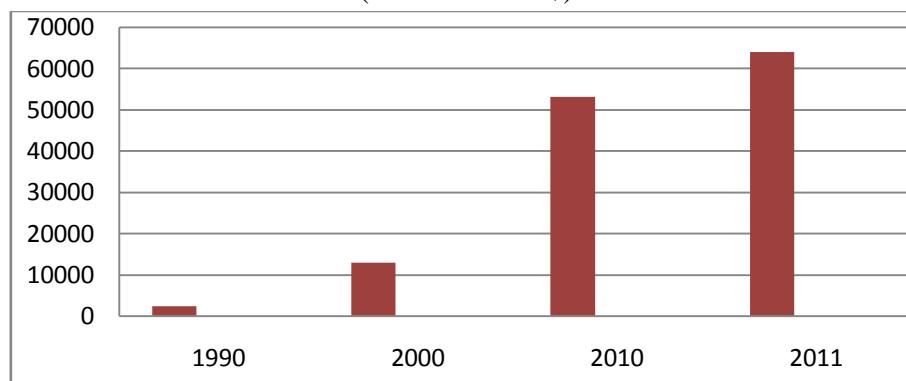
### **Converting Indian brain drain into brain gain:**

The brain drain is effectively an export of human resources such as – “education services” which has inadvertently “become a money machine for countries such as the US contributing over \$7bn to the US economy”. However, it is important to note the knowledge and wealth generated is twofold, both the country of origin and host country, who acquire an additional human capital to fill labour gaps thus increasing economic development. The country of origin exporting their skilled and highly educated workforce benefit from a brain gain both in terms of the increase in the labour power they possess, but also in the fact “skilled migrants leaving the country generate increased demand for higher level education amongst the population”. Furthermore, the sending back of remittances increases economic development in the

country and standard of living. Thus, in the end brain drain may be converting into brain gain: something particularly relevant to India.

**1) In the term of remittance:** the role of the overseas Indian community in the development of the homeland concerned only financial resources. Estimated at 30 million and with a presence in 189 countries, the Indian Diaspora produces an annual economic income of about \$400 billion, almost 30 percent of India's GDP. Desai, Kapur and McHale (2001) found that the 1 million Indians in the United States who represent only 0.1 percent of India's population earn the equivalent of about 10% of India's national income. The estimated volume of remittances in 2010 was \$55 billion or 3.9% as a share of GDP. Despite the economic crisis since 2008, the volume of remittances has remained resilient due to the geographical diversification of Indian migrants. After a 1% fall off in 2009 compared to 2008(\$49.9 billion), in 2010 the total amount climbed to \$55 billion. Comparing to other regions that were suffering from a decrease in remittance inflows, India continued to receive an increasing volume of remittances. Mexico, for example saw a reduction of 16% in 2009 (\$22 billion) and in 2010 with a lower level of remittances than before the crisis. Naturally, these financial resources contributed to development processes in India.

Fig: 2 Remittance Inflows in India (in Million US\$)



From the above figure it is clear that India's remittances increased from 2384 million US\$ to 64 billion US\$ within two decades, which is helpful in development of Indian economy.

## **2) Transition to a knowledge economy:**

The contribution of US-based Indian IT specialists to the growth of the software industry in India is an illustration of a win-win scenario, in which the international mobility of Indian skilled professionals has helped India's transition to a knowledge economy, has led to the development, and has increased the innovation capacity of the host country. Currently, about 14% of India's net domestic product is composed of knowledge intensive activities, mostly in the services sector. The Indian IT-BPO industry has today become a growth engine for the economy, contributing substantially to GDP growth, urban employment, and exports. The success and achievements of Indian expatriates helped the origin country to create an image of a

young and open India. The Indian IT-BPO industry had revenues of \$71.7 billion in 2009, with the IT software and services industry accounting for \$60 billion of these revenues. During this period, direct employment, Increased nearly 2.23 million, an addition of 226,000 employees, while indirect job increased 8 million. As a proportion of national GDP, sector revenues have increased from 1.2% in 1998 to 5.8% in 2009. Export revenues are estimate at \$47.3 billion in 2009, representing 66% of the total IT-BPO industry revenues. Software and services exports are expected to constitute more than 99 percent of total exports, employing over 1.76 million employees.

Despite the fact that the US, with a 60% share, is the largest export, market for Indian IT-BPO services, and the European market is gaining ground in India's software and IT services exports. This trend shows that the recent settlement of Indians in Europe has led to an increase in Indian exports. Europe has discovered, like the US before it, the quality of India IT products and services.

**Table 1. Exports market distribution for Indian IT-BPO**

Market	2005	2006	2007	2008
America	68.30%	67.18%	61.40%	60%
Europa	23.10%	25.13%	30.10%	31%
Rest of work	8.6%	7.69%	8.50%	9%

**Source:** Indian IT-BPO Industry 2009: NASSCOM Analysis

Indian IT specialists settled abroad are bringing benefits for both home and for host country. India accelerated its transition to a knowledge economy taking advantage of the updated skills of its highly skilled workers abroad and the entrepreneurial networks that they established there. From the receiving country's perspective, Indian professionals mitigate labour shortage problems in knowledge-intensive sectors and play a crucial role in the reinforcement of the innovation capacity of the host country.

### **3) Growing bilateral investment flows between the country of origin and destinations countries:**

The success of Indians abroad and the economic evolution of India have boosted the confidence of overseas investors. In 2008, India received a high amount (US\$ 41.5 billion), partly due to the size and growth of its economy, but largely because of the relatively higher number of science and engineering personnel that India possessed compared to other countries. Thanks to Indian prowess in ICTs achieved due to its Diasporas, a growing number of well-known Companies like Microsoft, IBM, Hughes Software, Intel, Oracle, GE, and CISCO established R&D centers in India. The number of centers related to ICTs grew from fewer than 100 in 2003 to about 750 by the end of 2009 (UNESCO Science Report 2010).Overseas Indian professionals played a crucial role in the development of IT industry at home helping India to become the world's leading exporter of IT services. Today, investment flows are not only a one-way movement directed toward India but a two-way. Business networks

established by Indian migrants in their countries of destination facilitate capital circulation between India and its foreign partners. The biggest companies from India, in pursuit of technology, start also to invest abroad. Foreign direct investment outflows from India increased from just \$2 million in 1993 to US\$ 19 billion in 2009. There are many examples of Indian companies that have invested abroad i.e. Tata Steel took control of the major British industrial corporation Corus; Bharat Forge has taken over forging companies in Germany, the UK, and the US; and Suzlon has taken over wind turbine companies in Germany. The diversification of business partners due to the presence of Indian migrants in Europe has also led to increased trade between India and the EU.

#### **4) International Trade Effects:**

Indians abroad represent an important market for products from India. Their contribution to the expansion of trade relations is possible through direct or indirect effects. Direct effects come from expatriates' demands for Indian products. Besides their own consumption, they may induce new consumption habits in the host country. An example is the influence of Indian and sub-continental migrants on UK nutritional patterns. The Indian community in the UK has changed general consumption and cuisine patterns. Indian migrants have demonstrably affected and contributing to the promotion of local goods such as basmati rice, Indian films, etc. The growing consumption of Basmati rice in the UK due to Diasporas influence is a key driver of growth of Basmati rice exports. In 2010, the import into the EU from India was estimate at €33.2 billion and agricultural products represented 8%<sup>33</sup>. On the one hand, Indians abroad create a new demand for Indian products and on the other hand, the native population is encouraged to consume as well. During the last few years, Indo-EU trade relations have been strengthened. The EU is India is largest trading partner and its main source of foreign direct investment.

Available data shows a dramatic increase in EU-Indian trade. The EU represents 21% of India's total exports and 16% of India's total imports. India accounts for a small but rapidly growing share of EU trade: 2.4% of the EU's total exports and 1.9% of the EU's total imports. In 2008, India became the tenth largest trading partner of the EU evolving from fifteenth in 2002. The presence of Indian professionals in Europe is an important element is taking into account, then, in exploring the potential for more EU-India collaboration in terms of trade and investment.

The indirect role of overseas Indians in trade expansion is expressing through the importance of networks, as a source of information and business contacts. Due to their knowledge of the business environment in the host country and the home country, Indian professionals can provide updated information about local rules and regulations, not to mention inputs for market penetration strategies. Indian doctors settled in the UK permitted India to make a name in the health care sector just as their compatriots settled in the US contributed to India's role in the leadership of the global IT industry. This positive image from the UK led to the development of medical tourism in India. According to the Indian Ministry of Tourism, this market was estimate at \$330 million in 2004 and it generated approximately\$2 billion in 2010.

Between 2002 and 2009, the number of medical tourists increased from 150,000 in 2002 to 500,000 in 2009. Apart from healthcare services, this category of tourists generated other revenues for India by visiting famous sites in India and by buying traditional products.

### **Conclusion:**

This paper underlined how Indian expatriates offer opportunities for mutually beneficial growth in both origin and destination countries. These professionals contribute not only to the development of the country where they live and work but also to the economy of the country of origin. Indian human capital abroad can be advantage by India to take advantage of its resources but also by destination countries for the fulfillment of skill shortages. With a large number of young and educated people, India plays a major role in international migration. In the context of the intensification of a global knowledge economy, the demographic trends, and the changes induced by the crisis, the EU could take advantage of Indian migrants turning towards European destinations. Development perspectives thus opened for India explain the win-win scenario for India and the EU, on the one hand, and, on the other hand, by employment perspective for the EU member States. The Bangalore cluster is a relevant example of win-win scenario. It played a crucial role in the development of the Indian IT industry, as well as of IT companies from Silicon Valley. The destination country took advantage of the knowledge of Indian specialists while the origin countries benefited from foreign direct investment and, from the Diaspora networks, which facilitated the emergence of India as preferred outsourcing destination. In order to continue to take advantage of the international mobility of highly skilled Indians, India, and Europe have to cooperate in the formulation of joint measures taking into account the interests of all stakeholders: country of origin, country of destination and the migrants themselves.

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## **ISSUES AND PROBLEMS OF MIGRANT WOMEN WORKERS**

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It is a general perception that migration helps in increasing the standard of living of the migrant workers and in turn helps the national income to grow. Economists, sociologists. Planners and policy makers delight in flaunting on remittances by emigrant workers which add to precious national reserves but they fail to visualize the human face of migration which discounts their miseries.

The trauma faced by women workers going to the foreign lands with different language and culture have to bear sometimes the cruelty of the recruiting agents sometimes be satisfied with a little amount of remunerations for extensive hard work.



There are heart- rending reports on migrant women fleeing from the aggressive behaviorism of their recruiting agents and middlemen.

My paper focuses on the women migrant workers, drawn from Airoli, Rabale and Ghansoli. Agents and contractors who employed them to work in construction unit and residential place retained control over their work and life. It also delves into issues and problems concerning the migrant women workforce.

### **Data and methods**

The basis of the paper is the in depth survey of 50 workers who were met in Airoli, Rabale and Ghansoli, working as domestic help and construction workers. A detailed questionnaire was used to elicit Information from the workers and the data collected have been supplemented with the details derived from the observation and the informal discussions with the women. Discussion with their friends, neighbors and relatives also formed major part of the database. The investigator personally visited the households and the places in these areas to compile information.

### **The workforce**

A very small section of the migrant workers get absorbed over a period of time permanent workers. Women from the agricultural and the fishing community in Surat, Saushrashtra, Tamil Nadu, Orissa, Dharwar, Goa, Konkan, Kerala, Bijapur and Gulbarga form a major section of the workforce recruited by these agents. From these the bulk of women migrate to secure work in Mumbai which had been a steady source of employment for this region for several years.

These women are recruited from a varied geographical zone but have a common denominator. They all come from poor households. They belong to the families that were dependent on agriculture or fishing activities. The traditional scope was limited and it was no longer feasible to accommodate the increasing population into an occupation that had fewer direct job opportunities. This led the women awaiting for an opportunity for some agents or relatives who had been subjected to drudgery outside the state to liberate them from everyday misery of domestic fights, drunkenness and hunger. Even the aggressive attitude of the middlemen or agents didn't dampen their spirit and that showed and explained the situational strategy of the ;lives of women and the elements of force that made it vital for them to look for work even in conditions that were far from congenial.

There is no denying a fact that the post land reforms, development process have benefitted some landless population but new techniques and methods has thrown them jobless. In Bijapur, Gulbarga, Tamil Nadu, Orissa and Saurashtra because of the scanty rain or inundation on availability of less drinking water most of women have to migrate. Distress migration has been a regular resort of the poor in less favored regions, more so in areas that force chronic water supply. Under these circumstances, the workforce unit today constitute of a large number of women from impoverished

families. Some women had been working for period as short as 10 months while some others were for more than a decade. These workers form a part of the 93% of the workforce comprising unorganized labour. They are provided neither minimum wages nor the basic minimum facilities stipulated by govt. through various legislation specifically meant for the contract labour and the interstate migrant labour.

The problems of the unorganized sectors have become more significant today when liberalization and globalization have come to center stage. The proponents of the new economic policy hail it as an attempt to make the economy more productive and globally competitive.

The vast mass of unorganized workforce has to be seen in the complex formation, at one end of the spectrum, many of them had ill paid jobs working in slave like conditions and at other end, a minuscule section enjoy the same status as the organized workers, high wages and amenable condition of work.

In the sample of women workers, 59.5% of the workers were in the age group of 19-28 and rest of them were in age group of above 28. Majority of them were employed on daily wage basis. Only street vendors had no fixed income. The domestic servants and the construction workers were made to work for long hours as they were oblivious about prospect of such jobs.

### **Causes of migration**

It appeared on the basis of the questionnaire that the places from where the migrant workers hailed faced stark poverty. Many of them would have perished because of hunger, disease and starvation. In some cases they did not want to work in their village out of humiliation and so preferred to go off to work in units far away as that would be less humiliating and embarrassing and opened a new horizon for them.

Some women workers who were met made the choice to migrate on their own. There was no patriarch controlling their exodus from the village. It was aspiration of these young women to break free from the clutches of traditional stereotypes and to have economic empowerment, which provided the impetus for their migration to the towns.

### **Difficulties at work**

In case of the construction workers, the conditions of the migrant women were dependent on the contractors and the agents. It is they who decided the wages as well as the period of the employment. As most of the women came from either fishing or daily wage earning agricultural labour families with little industrial experience, the contractors could exploit them. Majority of them were ignorant of legislation as regards limit on hours of work and issue of minimum wages and therefore the contractors could exploit them to the hilt.

The vulnerable financial conditions of the families of the women made it easier for the contractors to tilt the scale in their favor and to the great disadvantage of the women who were denied even the basic freedom.

In fact it was found that a large section of the women were unaware of the recruitment terms and they were unconcerned about it as well. Therefore, it was found that the whole network of the agents and subagents and the latter's close link with the communities from where the workers were recruited facilitated easy transit of the worker from the village to the unit.

In Airoli, Rabale and Ghansoli the situation of the construction laborers were not different. In all aspects they do not maintain the records of the contract workers, their hours of work or holidays. Women in most units were denied the freedom to talk until given permission by the agents. The conditions at the workplace were as bad as anywhere and even the wages were not uniform. The women workers were exposed to a great occupational hazard of the work environment with very little compensation and often leading to the wiping of the hard earned money in abject conditions. This reveals the unprotected nature of the employment of these workers. The plight of the domestic workers of Airoli, Rabale and Ghansoli were not as miserable as the construction workers. These domestic workers were mostly engaged in the household job like scrubbing, cleaning of utensils, washing clothes, sweeping the house, mopping the floor, cooking or assisting the employer in the kitchen and in the market. Besides these, in some households the domestic workers had to look after the small children or accompany them to the school and also attend to the odd jobs like purchasing the milk, watering the plants and cleaning cars etc. the plight was deplorable as several people employed each of them at the same time. Most of them were dependent on their employers not mostly for wages but for also for a few favors like loans, old clothes and food. Domestic workers are paid in cash and kind.

Employers pay shockingly low wages as owners feel that they are maintained by providing them with food and in some household's shelter too. In these areas full timers work between 8 to 12 hours. They seldom enjoy weekly, monthly or yearly holidays. They also do not have any enjoyment or job protection or security as these matters depends on the whims and fancies of the employer. The socio-economic conditions of the women domestic workers was rather sad and deplorable. In most of the cases the husband of the women domestic workers were either unemployed or underemployed. Their family lives were marked by frequent quarrels and disorganization. In most cases the husband came home drunk and created more tension and agony to the women folk. Sometimes they mortgaged even their mangalsutras for pretty sums. Marital separation or desertation by husbands was common. They lived in slums on tenements along with their community people or relatives for safety.

The children either went to the local corporation school or they dropped out from the school in order to look after smaller children. As their income were dependent on the daily business, they were victims of the stress and depression. They lived in the vicinity of the multiple selling opportunities.

**Problems faced**

Majority of them suffer from several health problems. They developed cracked hands and feet, which became sore due to continuous work in water using strong abrasive powder and soaps and by carrying heavy things. They also suffered from anemia, malnutrition, body aches and general weakness. All these came from their long hours of the continuous works. The non-availability of the clean potable water was invariably the reason for the large number of incidence of stomach ailments and jaundice affecting the workers. The extremely unsatisfactory working conditions in the dormitories of the unit cause urinary tract infections. The inadequate number of the toilets available to the workers and lack of provision and lack of enough water for their daily needs caused many problems.

The difficulties however were not limited on the physical and financial plane but had an emotional dimension too. They tend to get worried about their near and dear ones, husbands, sons and daughters, who lived far away from them in their poverty stricken surroundings. They had no mental peace as they kept thinking about their family members as they were coping with daily travails. In absence of the regular communication, their illiteracy became hindrance and they had to be dependent on other for sending letters home.

From a metropolitan town like Mumbai, travelling home on a regular basis could not be dreamt of for the high rail fare witnessing periodic hikes. The numbers of unreserved train compartments have reduced thus making travel more problematic. Before migrating, the women are required to make some arrangements for someone to take over their household responsibilities and work and also look after their family members.

**Conclusion:**

The landless women have migrated to Mumbai to hedge against insecure livelihoods. Though such decisions have made many women migrants better off, self-reliant and overcame the pangs of hunger themselves and their families such migration was not there without its social cost. The cost was there in terms of ill being, physically distancing from the families, increased tensions for being away from their families and thoughts about the gloomy future ahead. The government should have enlightened NGO's taking up the challenges of women workers. We should also have NGO like (SEPOM) in Thailand for this large unorganized but important section of the society.

Efforts are being made in many Indian cities and towns where migration has become the fact of life to organize women migrant workers in different spheres. However, this is not easy task because the women migrant labors themselves need to be educated and strengthened. The male dominated trade unions do not lend support since they do not consider unregistered workers in their ambit.

The voluntary agencies and social action groups although working with women domestic workers trying to help them come out of the oppression, but have met with limited success. Women constitute a significant part of the work force of India but they lag behind men in terms of level and quality of employment.

The main focus of the policies of the government with regard to women labour has been to remove the handicaps. It is directed towards strengthening their bargaining capacity to impose their wages and work conditions, to enhance their skills and to open up better employment opportunities for them. A separate cell called, women labor cell is functioning in the ministry of the labour to address their problems. The maternity benefit act 1961 and equal remuneration act 1976 are the protective and anti-exploitative legislation, which have been expected to protect and safeguard the interest of the women.

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### ***RURAL OUT MIGRATION OF LABOURERS AND EFFECTIVENESS OF MANREGA***

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#### **INTRODUCTION**

Rural urban migration is regarded as a natural process of economic transformation from agriculture to industry that occurs during the development process. (Todaro (1969) Norton and Alwang (1993) Lewis (1954) But in many countries rural urban migration is found to be accelerating without alarming presence of 'pull' factors. This has lead to unemployment, poverty and other problems in urban areas. (Harries Todaro 1970).The capacity of the cities and towns to assimilate the migrants by providing employment, access to land, basic amenities etc is limited. (Amitabh Kundu 2006).

It has also been pointed out that such migration from rural areas may lead to labour shortages to agriculture. (Subramaniam, Guruswami et al 2009) and agricultural distress and the concentration of the rural economy almost exclusively on agriculture could be forcing migration of people (attached to agriculture) to other economic sectors and regions in the short to medium term. It has also been pointed out that most of the rural masses have migrated towards the urban cities due to employment and poverty reasons.

With an objective of redistribution of wealth and generation of meaningful employment National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (NREGA) has been introduced in India. NREGA was enacted during a time when more than a decade of sustained high growth in GDP experienced in the 1980s and the 1990s was perceived not to have made a sufficient weakening in poverty and unemployment in the rural India.

Purpose of the paper is to investigate how far MNREGA has been successful in generating employment in rural areas. The study wants to find out how far MNREGA has helped to reduce excess rural out migration. Plan of the paper is as follows. In section 2 rural urban migration and its determinants are examined. It has been found that employment being the important determinant of rural urban migration. Section three studies impact of rural urban migration on rural as well as urban economies. Section 4 examines effectiveness of MNREGA in generation of employment and its impact on migration. Section 5 concludes.

## II

Rural out migration in India is showing increasing trends over the years.(Ministry of Urban Development 2012).As per census estimates, between 1991-2001, about 5.3 crs. People migrated from one village to another. The number of migrants from villages to towns was about 2.1 crs.

### **Percentage of employment oriented migrants by streams of migration**

	Total	Male	Female
Rural to rural	4.9	25.3	1.3
Rural to urban	10.9	25.9	2.8
Urban to rural	28.3	55.2	4.1
Urban to urban	19.5	38.8	3.6

**Source:** Census of India 2001, Migration Tables.

Majority of the male from both the rural and urban areas migrated out for employment related reasons which accounted for nearly 80 per cent of the out-migrants from the rural areas and 71 per cent of the out-migrants from the urban areas.(NSSO 64<sup>th</sup> round) It has been pointed out by studies using both secondary and primary data that migration is an important route out of poverty. (Priya Deshingkar and Shaheen Akter 2009)

## III

Unregulated migration to metropolitan cities in India has caused overcrowding of cities. Migration of skilled people may result into underdevelopment of that region. Poor, landless, illiterate and unskilled agricultural labours and poor farmers from backward state move to the urban cities like Kolkata, Mumbai, New Delhi, Chennai and other big towns, which fails them to minimum employment it leads to urban slums and footpath dwelling and very poor level of living. 2.3% of urban households

had no living accommodation, 35.1 per cent had access to one room, and 29.5 per cent to two rooms. Thus, about 67 per cent of India's urban households lived in accommodation of two rooms or less, and 37 per cent in one room or had no roof. (census2001) India's slum population is projected to rise to 93.06 million by 2011, or 7.75 percent of the total population (report of an expert committee set up by the housing and urban poverty alleviation ministry). Most of the slum settlements lack water and sanitation systems and are often located in high-risk areas of cities. (Report on Indian urban infrastructure and services 2011).

Through generation of employment and incomes for unskilled labours in the villages MNREGA has played prominent role in reducing distressed migration of labours and reduction in poverty. As pointed out by P. Sainath "MGNREGS has a salutary effect on rural urban migration as people find work in their villages".

#### IV

The National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (NREGA) was passed by the Parliament in August 2005 and it was enforced from 2<sup>nd</sup> Feb 2006. It treats employment as a right. It guarantees wage employment on public works to any adult who is willing to do unskilled manual work for 100 days in a year at minimum wages as prescribed in the Minimum Wages Act, 1948. NREGS was implemented in phases across rural India. In February 2006, it was launched in 200 backward districts in India. An additional 130 districts were covered in year 2007-08 in the II Phase. The rest of the districts came under NREGS in third Phase in year 2008-09.

- Some of its unique features include time-bound employment guarantee and wage payment within 15 days.
- prohibition of the use of contractors and machinery to enhance direct benefits of the programme to the participants, and
- a mandatory 33% participation for women.

The two conditions for the adults of a household to apply are:

1. They must be living in a rural area.
2. They must be willing to undertake unskilled manual labour for which they would receive the minimum wage which cannot be less than Rs.60.

At the national level, average wage paid under MGNREGA increased from Rs.65 in 2006-07 to Rs. 90.2 in 2009-10.

MNREGA generated employment and incomes for rural poor people.

#### **MNREGA in Nutshell**

	2006-07	2007-08	2008-09	2009-10
Government's Expenditure on MNREGAS as a % of GDP (in current prices )	0.22	0.35	0.53	0.65

Number (million) of households provided with employment under MGNREGS	21.0	33.9	45.1	52.6
Person days of employment provided per household under MGNREGS	43.0	42.0	48.0	53.9
Number (million) of households provided with 100 days of employment under MGNREGS	-----	-----	6.5	7.1
Wage (Rs.) paid per day of employment	65.0	75.0	84.1	90.2
Total wage income generated by MGNREGS (million Rs.)	58825	107692	182004	255793
Total wage income earned from employment in agriculture (million Rs.)	793600	908600	1030884	1152759
Increase (per cent) in wage income of rural households attributable to MGNREGS	7.4	11.8	17.7	22.2

**Source:** Ministry of statistics and Programme implementation reports GOI

### Works completed under MNREGA

	2008-09	2000-10
Rural Connectivity	225069	355022
Flood control and protection	62554	95954
Water Conservation and water harvesting	248167	629833
Drought proofing	75433	115885
Micro irrigation works	66173	151655
Provision of irrigation facility to land owned	238088	360831
Renovation o fold water bodies	92519	162762
Land development	189517	342465

Wages of female casual workers increased by 8% more in NREGA districts compared to non-NREGA districts. NREGA has improved the situation of women workers by providing higher wages and more opportunities. (Mehtabul Azam 2012)

Despite the incomplete and deficient implementation, MGNREGS has relatively brought very substantial gains in wage incomes for the poor households in rural areas. In 2009-10, for example, MGNREGS increased the combined wage income of poor households in rural India by as much as 22 % beyond what they would have otherwise earned.

### Conclusion:



MNREGA has generated employment in the backward regions. It has generated incomes in the rural economies. Through works undertaken it has developed and strengthened rural infrastructure.

This has helped to reduced migration. Though the primary aim of the Act is to provide welfare for the section of the population that does not even earn the minimum wage- the fact that it can also curb distress migration is just a positive secondary impact of the Act.

In India migrants are not required to register themselves either to their home place or at the place of the destination no exact data on migration is available.

Effectiveness of MNREGA depends on how efficiently it is implemented.

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### **PERCEPTIVE SOCIO-ECONOMIC CONSEQUENCES OF MIGRATION IN MUMBAI METROPOLITAN REGION**

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## **Introduction**

The populations of countries all around the world are becoming increasingly urbanized. The pace of urbanization in less developed countries before fifties was very slow. However after this period the rate increased substantially (Mc Catty M.2004). India is not exception to the developing countries in terms of migration in urban area. Migration in Mumbai metropolitan region is growing fast over the period of time. Migrants within and outside of state are entering in region and search many skilled and unskilled jobs. Workers migrate in city up to the point where their expected utility in city is equal to their utility in rural area ( Zenou Yves 2007).Workers improve their skills over the period of time by doing number of activities. They earn substantial income by involving different activities. There are number of services demanded in region by different sectors. Some services are getting best rewards for efforts. Most of the migrants engaged in services which are needed to elite class. People from rural area as well as from Mumbai city are migrating in the extended suburbs. They demand number of services at different locations in region. They have need of various services such as water supply, housing, transport etc. They are ready to pay substantial amount of money for such services. Such process of migration is continuous and it is increasing over the period of time. Migrants are from Ratnagiri, Satara, Solapur, Marathwada etc. in the region. Whereas some migrants are from outside of state such as Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, Karnataka etc. Most of the migrants are entering in region for better livelihood and employment. Most of the migrants are searching new places for residence which are cheap. Similarly such places are less expensive in terms of standard of living. Government is also promoting development of region to reduce congestion in Mumbai city. Navi- Mumbai city is created to reduce the congestion in Mumbai city. It is modern and planned city of the region. Now Vasai-Virar is also developing fast. There is easy access and transport facility to Mumbai city. Migrants are putting pressure on existing amenities and services. Some residents of Mumbai city are also shifting to suburbs to enjoy healthy atmosphere, less congestion and more space. In Mumbai region, pressures on infrastructure services reduce the quality of life. Migration in region has affected on the number of services such as water supply, solid waste, housing, transportation etc. Slums in region are growing fast. The drinking water supply is completely inadequate. Water is not supplied to slums and new residential areas. There is continuous pressure on existing water supply. The supply of water is not increasing with increasing in population in region. Migrants are paying much higher price for drinking water in region.

Most of the solid waste is not collected regularly in region. All the slums and new residential area is out of service of collection and transportation of solid waste. Migrants cannot force municipal council or corporation to collect and transport solid waste. Slums in region are flooded with solid waste. Municipal corporations cannot provide services at the doorstep of poor people. The municipal corporation must provide services at doorstep. But all the municipal corporations have inadequate solid waste collection system. Migrants are not paying money for such services.

Transportation of solid waste is inadequate and it is not collected regularly from different places. Therefore solid waste is lying at different places in region. It creates air pollution and leads to diseases among migrants. Solid waste is not processed because Municipal Corporation does not have the technique and resources to process waste. Dumping grounds are not managed properly. Sometime migrants live near the dumping grounds. Due to inadequate housing, most of the slums are mushrooming in region. Government is neglecting basic services to poor people in slums. State government policies make migrants vulnerable. First part of the paper explains about the migration in Metropolitan region. Migration in Mumbai city is second part of the paper. Third part of the paper explains about problems of migration in Mumbai Metropolitan Region. Second last part explains about regression result and last part explains about policy implication and conclusion.

### **Data and methodology:**

We have collected data of population from census of 1961 to 2011. The population data of each municipal corporation is available at each municipal corporation's website. We have referred city development reports of MCGM, TMC, NMMC, KDMC, MBMC and UMC. The growth of population is calculated with simple growth rate over the period of time. All the commercial units and theaters, municipal welfare centers are calculated in proportion with population. We have used two econometric models such as ordinary regression and Tobit regression. This is mainly because of multicollinearity in regression results. We have used STATA @12 for data analysis and projection of units in region.

### **MMRDA:**

In order to have planned development across the Mumbai city, MMRDA has been set up on 1<sup>st</sup> March 1975. In the North, it is extended up to Vashi. To the east side, some parts of Thane district comes under this region. It comprises as Kalyan, Bhiwandi and Ulhasnagar. In the North side, the Vasai tahasil is the boundary of region. The southern boundaries have been extended up to Pen and Alibag tahasil of Raigad district. The southern part of metropolitan region is Panvel, Karjat, Khalapur, Pen, and Alibag tahasil. There are eight municipal corporations in region such as GMMC, TMC, UMC, NMMC, NBMC, MBMC, VVMC and KDMC. Based on the current population, Vasai-Virar is declared as the municipal corporation. Other than these municipal corporations, there are 15 municipal towns and seven non-municipal urban centers. In metropolitan region, total 995 villages are located; urbanization in metropolitan region is growing fast.

**Table 1 Growth of population in MMRDA**

Year	City	percent	Suburb	percent	Ext.suburb	percent	Total	Percent
1901	775968	83.62	71491	7.70	80497	8.67	927956	100.00
1911	979445	85.26	82042	7.14	87270	7.60	1148757	100.00
1921	1175914	85.18	118243	8.57	86291	6.25	1380448	100.00
1931	1161383	83.09	141132	10.10	95297	6.82	1397812	100.00
1941	1489883	82.71	205285	11.40	106188	5.89	1801356	100.00

1951	2329020	77.78	510250	17.04	155174	5.18	2994444	100.00
1961	2771933	66.76	1036585	24.97	343538	8.27	4152056	100.00
1971	3070378	51.43	2166864	36.29	733333	12.28	5970575	100.00
1981	3285040	39.85	3522517	42.73	1435848	17.42	8243405	100.00
1991	3174889	31.99	4167681	41.99	2583321	26.03	9925891	100.00

**Source:** MHDR (2010)

In 1901, population of Mumbai city was 83.62 percent of region. In 1991, it is observed as 31.99 percent of total population. Now extended suburbs are growing fast in terms of infrastructure and facilities. The suburban region has grown significantly. In suburbs, population was only 7.70 percent in 1901. But in 1991, it is observed as 41.99 percent. From 1981, suburbs have overtaken city in terms of population. In extended suburbs, population was observed as 8.67 percent in 1901. But in 1991, it is observed a 26.03 percent. In the extended suburbs population has grown three times and it is expected to grow further. We need to examine the growth of population in Mumbai city.

#### **Migration in Mumbai city:**

Mumbai city has grown commercially over the period of time. It is made up of seven islands. In 1862, seven islands were coupled together by reclamation. Britishers developed Mumbai port by building docks, trading posts. In 1708, they made Mumbai as headquarter of British rule. Over the period of time, Mumbai city has seen as only commercial center. Government of Maharashtra took many initiatives for land reclamation. After British rules, many business men such as Parsis, Gujarati and Marwari's entered in city and started business across the country and outside of country. Most of the businessman established trading companies and settled with national and international trade. Government developed trading network, established railway network, educational institutions, banks, hospitals etc in city. In the 20<sup>th</sup> century, Mumbai emerged as the financial capital of the country. Over the period of time, Mumbai has witnessed as the large change in population. Migration as well as natural increase in population is responsible for overall increase in population.

**Table 2: Population and migrants in Mumbai city**

Migration	1961	1971	181	1991	2001
Total population (number)	4152056	5970575	8243405	9925891	11978450
Total migration (percent)	2667130 (64.23)	3373384 (56.50)	4229276 (51.30)	3696764 (37.24)	5185429 (43.28)

**Source:** Census reports

In 1961, 64.23 percent of the population in city is classified as migrants. In 1991, the lowest (37.24 percent) is classified as migrant population. In 2001 census, around 43.28 percent of the population was migrant. Now people do not migrate to city but

they migrate in extended suburbs and Thane district. Urbanization and migration is going hand together. Rural migrant's population dreams for better life and jobs in city. Most of the time, they do not find skilled jobs in region.

**Table 3 Migration to Greater Mumbai**

Migration	1961	1971	1981	1991	2001
Maharashtra	41.64	41.57	42.23	41.20	37.40
Up	12.01	13.46	15.90	19.28	24.28
Bihar	0.22	0.41	0.80	1.40	3.50
Orissa	0.08	0.13	0.22	0.37	0.77
West Bengal	0.49	0.61	0.79	1.11	2.01
Gujarat	16.90	14.85	13.46	11.89	9.58
Madhya Pradesh	0.87	0.90	0.97	0.99	1.14
Karnataka	0.44	7.34	7.19	6.55	5.83
Andhra Pradesh	3.38	3.02	2.70	2.30	2.41
Kerala	2.76	3.60	3.33	2.93	2.21
Tamilnadu	3.20	3.27	3.37	3.49	3.14
Goa	3.11	2.29	1.54	1.06	0.63
Rajasthan	1.94	2.59	2.68	3.26	3.87
Punjab	1.23	0.95	0.87	0.77	0.56
Haryana	-	0.32	0.29	0.37	0.33
Delhi	0.30	0.38	0.46	0.49	0.52
North East states	0.04	0.04	0.08	0.22	0.13
Other North East	0.09	0.27	0.19	0.25	0.24
Pakistan	4.17	3.05	2.06	1.32	0.75
Nepal	0.33	0.37	0.32	0.35	0.40
Bangladesh	-	-	0.06	0.04	0.03
Other Asian	0.41	0.35	0.27	0.24	0.14
Other countries	0.34	0.29	0.23	0.16	0.11

**Source:** MHDR (2010)

Migration from different district of Maharashtra was 41.64 percent in 1961. In 2001, it is reported as 37.40 percent. It means migration has not increased over the period of time. From Uttar Pradesh, Migration was 12.01 percent in 1961. But in 2001, it has increased up to 24.28 percent. It is double over the period of time. Migration from Bihar has increased from 0.22 percent to 3.50 percent from 1961 to 2001. From Orissa, it has increased from 0.08 to 0.77 percent from 1961 to 2001. From Gujarat, migration has declined from 16.90 percent to 9.58 percent from 1961 to 2001. Gujarat is developing fast because of industrialization. People find job in their own state only. Migration from Madhya Pradesh has increased from 0.87 percent to 1.14 percent from 1961 to 2001. From Karnataka, migration has declined in 2001 census. It is observed as 5.83 percent. But in 1991, it was 6.55 percent. Migration from Andhra Pradesh has declined from 3.38 percent to 2.41 percent from 1961 to 2001. There is slight decline

in migration in Mumbai. Migration from Tamilnadu is remained same over the period of time. Migration from Goa has declined from 3.11 percent to 0.63 percent from 1961 to 2001. Migration from Rajasthan has increased from 1.94 percent to 3.87 percent. There are fewer jobs available in state. Therefore people migrate to city. Migration from Punjab has declined over the period of time. Migration from Pakistan has declined from 4.17 percent to 0.75 percent from 1961 to 2001. Migration from Nepal has not increased much over the period of time. Migration from Asian and other countries has declined in the city. Mumbai city is not friendly for foreigners.

**Table 4: In and out migration in Mumbai city**

District	In Migration					Out migration			
	1961	1971	1981	1991	2001	1971	1981	1991	2001
Ratnagiri	44.52	40.29	35.21	34.14	31.59	23.17	17.59	17.15	5.40
Satara	12.65	10.47	10.67	10.86	11.22	6.24	7.11	8.14	2.17
Pune	10.60	10.41	10.89	10.72	10.12	15.28	15.20	11.94	10.82
Kolaba	9.83	9.27	8.40	8.28	8.23	8.56	7.09	9.86	4.26
Sangli	0.00	3.65	4.12	4.25	4.29	2.43	2.65	2.78	0.98
Thane	4.08	3.97	3.75	3.18	3.16	26.74	33.82	28.03	66.11
Nasik	3.65	3.52	3.37	3.22	2.97	4.26	4.09	4.93	3.36
Ahmednagar	3.49	3.58	3.98	3.62	3.50	3.07	2.52	3.06	1.42
Kolhapur	3.31	4.02	3.92	3.92	4.19	3.45	2.94	3.53	1.33
Solapur	2.27	2.80	3.56	3.81	3.91	1.51	1.41	2.35	0.57
Jalgaon	1.30	1.98	1.93	1.90	1.90	0.92	0.91	1.40	0.35
Aurangabad	0.00	2.39	5.26	6.26	6.84	1.20	1.68	2.85	1.42
Amravati	0.00	1.57	1.95	2.34	2.67	1.18	1.16	1.91	0.86
Nagpur	0.00	0.86	0.93	1.01	1.16	1.55	1.31	1.38	0.72
Others	4.30	1.22	2.07	2.50	4.24	0.44	0.54	0.70	0.23
District total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

**Source:** As per table 3

Migration from Ratnagiri has declined from 44.52 percent to 31.59 percent from 1961 to 2001. Migration in city from Satara, Pune, Kolaba has not changed over the period of time. Some parts of Sangali is drought prone region, most of the people migrate in city for work. From Thane district, migration has declined. This may be because Thane city is developing fast. Modern transport facilities help migrants to stay in Thane and work at nearest places. Migration from Nasik, Ahmednagar, Kolhapur has not changed much over the five decades. Migration from Solapur has increased in city. It has increased from 2.27 percent to 3.81 percent from 1961 to 2001 in city. Migration from Aurangabad district has increased very fast over the decade. In 2001, it is reported as 6.26 percent. Migration from Nagpur city is 1.16 percent in 2001 census. Out migration from city is also popular. Migration to Ratnagiri is 5.40 percent in 2001 census but it was 23.17 percent in 1971. Outmigration in Thane district was 26.74 percent in 1971 but in 2001, it is observed as 66.11 percent. Thane city is well

connected by railway and buses. Therefore people migrate from Mumbai to Thane. Almost all other district shows the decline of out migration from Mumbai. Mumbai city shows the better facilities and work opportunities. Therefore people are less likely to migrate to the other districts of state.

**Table 5: Migration from rural to urban areas to greater Mumbai (Percent)**

Total lifetime migrants	1961	1971	1981	1991	2001
Lifetime	64.24	56.86	51.46	37.46	43.70
Rural	58.13	64.17	66.03	67.65	68.47
Urban	33.16	31.51	31.28	30.04	26.15
Within state	41.64	41.94	42.47	41.32	37.59
Rural	74.82	78.74	76.33	77.49	74.33
Urban	24.92	20.95	23.64	22.42	20.79
Outside state	53.07	54.50	54.87	56.50	61.01
Rural	50.83	57.14	61.27	63.06	66.42
Urban	42.93	41.69	38.63	36.77	30.05
International	5.25	3.56	2.65	2.01	1.40

**Source:** As per table above table

Lifetime migration in city has declined from 64.24 percent to 43.70 percent in city. It is observed from 1961 to 2001. Rural migration has increased from 58.13 percent to 68.47 percent. It means more people are migrating for better jobs and standard of living in city.

From urban area, migration has declined from 33.16 percent to 26.15 percent. It means more cities are developing and people are not willing to shift in Mumbai city from other urban areas. It is because of higher pressure of infrastructure facilities and lower quality of life. Migration within state has not changed over the period of time. Migration within state from urban area has declined from 24.92 percent to 20.79 percent. It means other small cities in state such as Pune, Nasik and Aurangabad are developing fast. Therefore people do not migrate in Mumbai city. They migrate in other cities. From outside of the state migration has increased from 53.07 percent to 61.01 percent from 1961 to 2001. From the rural area, outside state migration has increased from 50.83 percent to 66.42 percent. There are no jobs in rural areas. People migrate in city and get better off. From urban area, migration has declined from 42.93 percent to 30.05 percent from 1961 to 2001. Migration from other countries has declined from 5.25 percent to 1.40 percent. City is not friendly for migrants from other countries. Basic infrastructure facilities are low (MCGM 1995).

**Table 6: Migration and population growth in different municipal corporations**

Municipal corporation	population (2001)	Percent	2011	Percent	Area	Density (per km <sup>2</sup> )
MCGM	11978450	77.44	12478447	72.22	603.4	20694
NMMC	704002	4.55	1119477	6.48	163	4319
KDMC	1193512	7.72	1546381	8.95	137.15	8702
MBMC	520388	3.36	814655	4.72	88.75	5863
BNMC	598741	3.87	811329	4.70	28.31	21149
UMC	473731	3.06	506937	2.93	27.54	17201
Total	15468824	100.00	17277226	100.00		

**Source:** census 2011

Population in MCGM has declined over the decade. It has declined from 77.44 percent to 72.22 percent. People are migrating in Thane district. In Mira-Bhaynder sub region population has increased from 3.36 percent to 4.72 percent. It has increased from 2001 to 2011 period. Due to well connectivity of railway, people are migrating from Mumbai as well as from outside and inside of state. People are migrating for better standard of living. Numbers of housing project are attracting people from different parts of state and outside of state. Therefore it is expected to cause a phenomenal growth of population. In Kalyan–Dombivali Municipal Corporation, population has grown from 7.72 percent to 8.95 percent. It has grown rapidly because of railway connectivity. It is the nearest place from Mumbai and housing is available at lowest price. Population in Navi Mumbai has grown from 4.55 percent to 6.48 percent over the decade. There are number of projects such as JNPT, CIDCO housing projects, international air port etc. are planned. Therefore there is rise in investment in infrastructure. Therefore it attracts people to migrate in city.

### **Problems of migration:**

In metropolitan region, population is rising fast and it has created different problems. We are focusing only on the water supply, solid waste and e-waste. Such issues are related with day today life of population.

**Table 7 Water demand according to the regions in Maharashtra (2008-09)**

Regions	Type of municipal corporation or area	Water demand (MLD)
Greater Mumbai	Zone 1	603
	Zone 2	766
	Zone 3	854
	Zone 4	789
	Zone 5	454
	Zone 6	501
	<b>Total</b>	<b>3967</b>
Thane district	Thane	378.77
	Kalyan-Dombivali	238.16



	Ulhasnagar	121.31
	New Mumbai	228.53
	Mira-Bhayandar	121.87
	Bhiwandi-Nizampur	117.69
	<b>Total</b>	<b>1206.33</b>

**Source:** Compiled from data

Water demand in zone 3 is higher in Mumbai city. The lowest water demand is observed from zone 5. Total demand of drinking water in Mumbai city is 3967 mld (Rode, Sanjay 2008). But water supplied is 3550mld. There is continuous deficit of drinking water in city. Slums are remained without drinking water. Low pressures, low water, lack of quality of water are the major issues. In Thane Municipal Corporation, the water demand is 378.77 mld. In Kalyan –Dombivali municipal corporation water is demanded of 238.76mld. In Ulhasnagar Municipal Corporation, water demand is 228.53 mld. In Mira Bhaynder municipal corporation water demand is growing and it is demanded as 121.87 mld. In Bhiwandi –Nizampur Municipal Corporation water demand is 117.69 mld. Total water demand in Thane district by Municipal Corporation is 1206.33 mld (Rode, Sanjay 2009).

**Table 8: Water demand according to units (MLD)**

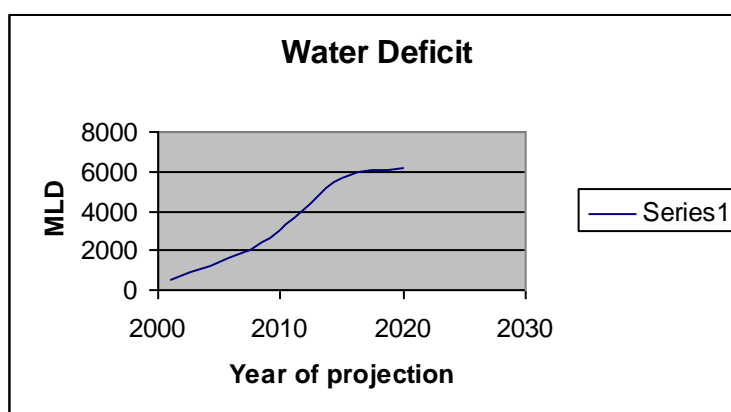
Type of unit	Greater Mumbai	Thane District
Population	3463.64	859.9
Small and large Industries	297.41	310.83
Hotels, Restaurants Shops	101.8	6.09
Garages	13.92	10.90
Theatres and malls	1.18	3.49
Public and private Hospitals	10.45	2.49
Fire stations and hydrants	55.95	6.71
Educational institutions	21.56	1.66
Parks and gardens	0.64	3.92
Total	3966.55	1205.99

**Source:** Compiled from data

If we see the water demand by component then population demand 3463.64 mld water in Mumbai city but Thane city it is 859.9 mld. Small and large industries demand water of 297.41 mld in Mumbai. In Thane district, it is 310.83mld. Numbers of industries in Thane district are more. Therefore water demand is more. Hotel restaurants, shops are demanding 101.8mld water in Mumbai city. Hotel and restaurants required water on continuous basis. Therefore water demand is more. But in Thane, it is 6.09 mld. The garages are demanding 13.92 mld water in Mumbai but in Thane district, it is 10.90 mld. Theaters and malls are demanding 1.18mld water

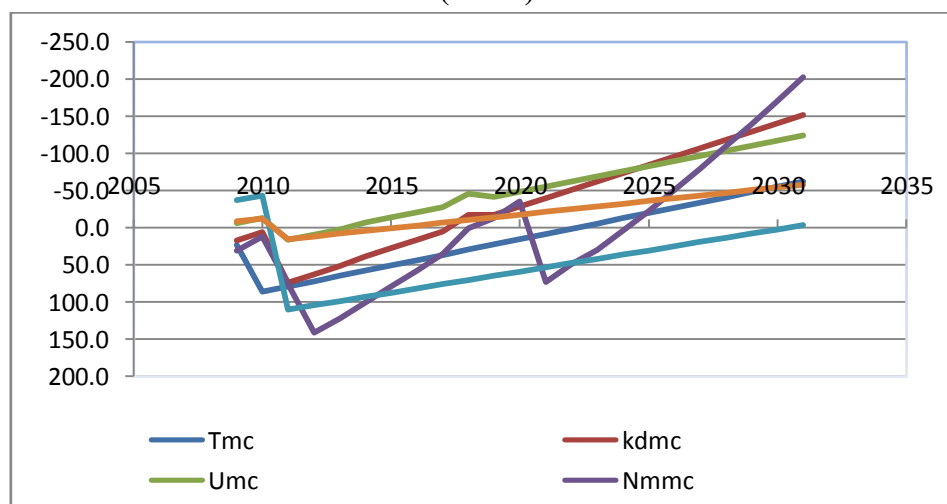
whereas in Thane it is demanded as 3.49 mld. The public and private hospitals are demanding 10.45 mld water in Mumbai whereas in Thane district it is 2.49 mld. Fires and hydrants are demanding 55.95mld water in Mumbai whereas in Thane it is 6.71 mld. Educational institutions, 21.56 mld water is demanded whereas in Thane city, it is 1.66mld. Parks and gardens, the water demand is 0.64 mld. In Thane, it is 3.92mld. Total water demand in Mumbai is 3966.5mld whereas in municipal corporations of Thane district, it is 1205.99 mld. Water deficit is continuously declining in Mumbai and Thane district. From the following figure, we can show that deficit of drinking water in municipal corporation of Thane is increasing.

**Figure 1 Water deficit in the Greater Mumbai**



Water deficit in Mumbai city is already observed. It is around 4000 MLD in city at current period. It increases up to 6000mld till 2020. The water supply schemes are not announced till that period. Therefore the water deficit will rise continuously. Increase in migration in Mumbai city and Municipal Corporation of Thane district leads to water shortage

**Figure 3: Deficit of drinking water in municipal corporations in Thane district (MLD)**



Deficit in drinking water is rising in all municipal corporations of Thane district. Drinking water in KDMC is observed as 150mld till 2030. In Navi Mumbai Municipal Corporation, drinking water deficit is observed as 200 mld in 2030. Population will rise and if the water supply schemes are not announced then it will lead to deficit of drinking water. In Mira Bhaynder Municipal Corporation, water supply deficit is not observed till 2030. There is adequate provision of drinking water for growing population and other units.

### **E-waste:**

We have calculated e-waste based on per capita norms. In all municipal corporations, the e-waste is calculated on per capita norms. We have calculated it with number of units and population in each municipal corporation of region.

**Table 9: Estimation of e-waste in Municipal Corporation (MT) (2012)**

Municipal Corporation	Total e-waste	Percent
Greater Mumbai	31622.40	66.62
Thane	3598.59	7.58
Kalyan-Dombivali	3282.73	6.92
Ulhasnagar	1769.15	3.73
Navi-Mumbai	3254.11	6.86
Mira-Bhayandar	2006.64	4.23
Bhiwandi-Nizampur	1935.18	4.08
Total	47468.80	100.00

**Source:** Compiled from data

In Greater Mumbai, the e-waste calculated is 31622.40mt. It is 66.62 percent of Municipal Corporation of metropolitan region. Population in Mumbai city is very high therefore e-waste generated is also higher. In Thane Municipal Corporation, e-waste calculated is 3598.59mt. It is just 7.58 percent of total e-waste in region. It is highest in terms of all other municipal corporations in region. In Kalyan-Dombivali Municipal Corporation, e-waste is calculated as 3282.73 mt.

In Ulhasnagar Municipal Corporation, e-waste is calculated as 1769.15mt. It is only 3.73 percent of total e-waste in region. It is observed as the lowest in region. The reason is that population and the other units are low. There is less growth of units and population. But it is different case in other municipal corporations. In Navi-Mumbai municipal corporation e-waste is calculated as 3254.11 MT. It is 6.86 percent of the total e-waste. In Mira-Bhaynder, the e-waste generated is 2006.64MT. It is only 4.23 percent of total e-waste in region. In Bhiwandi-Nizampur Municipal Corporation,

total 1935.18 MT e-waste is calculated. It is 4.08 percent of the total e-waste in region.

Total e-waste in all seven municipal corporations is observed as 47468.80 MT. It is huge e-waste generated in region. This is because rising income, technology use etc. But region do not have proper processing unit of e-waste. E waste is not collected, exchanged etc. It creates air, water and soil pollution in region.

**Table 10: E-waste estimated for future period (MT per year)**

Municipal Corporation	2021	2031	2041	2051
Mumbai	46663.20	63163.20	79663.20	96163.20
Thane	4969.94	6406.34	7842.74	9279.14
Kalyan-Dombivali	4466.52	5686.52	6906.52	8126.52
Ulhasnagar	2825.46	3897.86	4970.26	6042.66
Navi-Mumbai	4202.31	5154.91	6107.51	7060.11
Mira-Bhayandar	2961.02	3907.12	4853.22	5799.32
Bhiwandi-Nizampur	2797.27	3670.27	4543.27	5416.27

**Source:** Compiled from data

An e-waste in Mumbai city in 2021 is observed as 46663MT per year. But in 2051, it is observed as 96163.20MT. It is highest because high population growth and density. In Thane, e-waste in 2021 is calculated as 4969.94 Mt. In 2051, it is calculated as 9279.14MT. In Thane population is rising slowly. Therefore e-waste is also expected to rise. In Kalyan-Dombivali Municipal Corporation, e-waste is calculated as 4466.52MT in 2021. In 2051, it is estimated as 8126.52MT per year. In Ulhasnagar Municipal Corporation, e-waste is calculated as 2825MT in 2021. In 2051, it is calculated as 6042.66MT. In Navi-Mumbai, e-waste in 2021 is calculated as 4202.31MT. In 2051, it is calculated as 7060.11MT. In Mira-Bhaynder Municipal Corporation, e-waste in 2021 is calculated as 2961.02MT. In the year 2051, e-waste is calculated as 5799.32MT. In Bhiwandi-Nizampur Municipal Corporation, e-waste in 2021 is calculated as 2797.27MT. In 2051, it is calculated as 5416.27MT. In this municipal corporation, e-waste is less and it will grow very slowly. Population growth is very slow in this municipal corporation.

#### **Solid waste:**

Solid waste is calculated as 0.40 k.g per capita waste per day in region. Solid waste is continuously rising in region due to growth of population. All the high income households are creating maximum solid waste. In Mumbai city, 8837.01MT solid waste is estimated in current period. It is 65.15 percent of all total solid waste in all seven municipal corporations. In Thane Municipal Corporation, 1061.34 MT solid wastes are estimated. It is similar with Navi Mumbai Municipal Corporation.

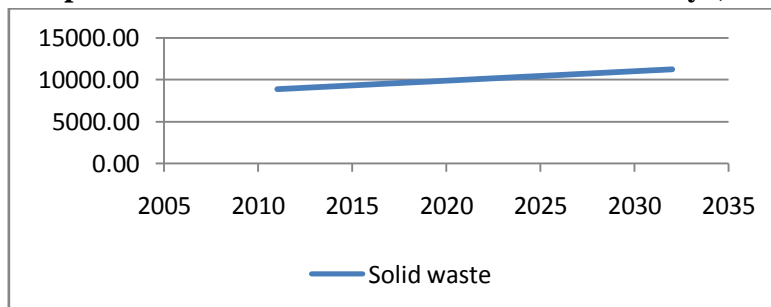
**Table 11 Solid waste according to Municipal Corporations**

Municipal Corporation	Solid waste(Metric Tons)	Percent
Mumbai	8837.01	65.15
Thane	1061.34	7.82
Kalyan–Dombivali	969.59	7.15
Ulhasnagar	546.54	4.03
Navi-Mumbai	955.62	7.04
Mira-Bhayandar	612.26	4.51
Bhiwandi-Nizampur	583.02	4.29
Total	13565.38	100.00

**Source:** Compiled from data

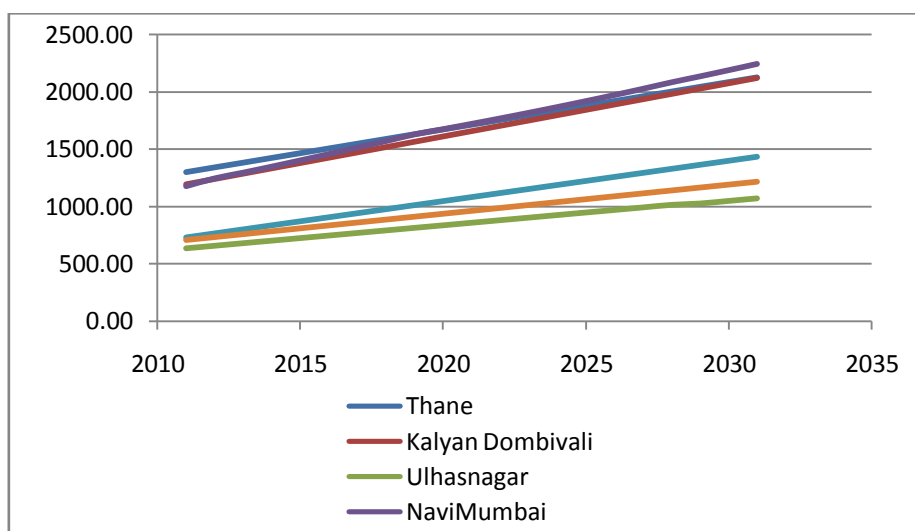
In Kalyan-Dombivali municipal corporation total solid waste is calculated as 969.59MT. It is 7.15 percent of total solid waste in region. In Ulhasnagar, 546.54MT solid waste is estimated. In Navi Mumbai, solid waste is estimated as 955.62MT. It is 7.04 percent of total waste in region. In Mira-Bhayander Municipal Corporation solid waste generated is 612.26 MT. In Bhiwandi-Nizampur Municipal Corporation, solid waste calculated as 583.02MT. It is lowest (4.29 percent) as compare to whole solid waste in all seven municipal corporations.

**Graph 3. Generation of solid waste in Mumbai city (MT)**



It is observed that 10 thousand MT in 2030 solid waste will get generated in Mumbai city. In 2035, solid waste will get touch to 12 thousand MT. It will increase because increase in population, commercial units and municipal centers etc. We have also estimated the solid waste in municipal corporations of Thane district.

**Graph 4 Generation of solid waste in municipal corporations of Thane district (MT)**



Solid waste in all seven municipal corporations is growing fast. In Mira Bhaynder, Bhiwandi, Ulhasnagar municipal corporation solid waste will be below 1500MT till 2030. But in Kalyan Dombivali, Navi Mumbai, and Thane Municipal Corporation, it will be above 2000 MT till 2030. Incomes, standard of living, consumption of goods are the factors behind the rise of solid waste. In Thane Municipal Corporation, solid waste will continuously rise.

### Sewage treatment

Sewage treatment is inadequate in all corporations. Drinking water is supplied to all the municipal corporations but 80 percent of water is generated as waste water. It is not processed but put in the drainage. It pollutes the environment in surrounding area.

**Table 12: Sewage generation in Metropolitan Region (2012)**

Municipal corporation	Sewage (MLD)	Percent
MCGM	2584.9	73.77
TMC	289.6	8.26
NMMC	182.4	5.21
KDMC	204	5.82
MBMC	72.8	2.08
UMC	89.6	2.56
BNMC	80.8	2.31
Total	3503.2	100.00

**Source:** Computed from data

In MCGM sewage is 2584.9MLD. It is 73.77 percent of total sewage. In TMC, sewage is 289.6MLD. It is highest in Thane district. In NMMC, sewage generated is 182.4mld. It is 5.21 percent. In KDMC, the sewage is 204mld which is 5.82 percent of all municipal corporations. In MBMC, the sewage is 72.8mld. It is only 2.08 percent and lowest in the region. In UMC, sewage is 89.6 percent. It is calculated as 2.56 percent of total sewage of all seven municipal corporations. In BNMC, sewage

generated is 80.8 MLD. It is 2.31 percent of all sewage generated in all seven municipal corporations. Total sewage generated in all seven municipal corporations is 3503.2mld.

**Table 13: Sewage generation according to types (MLD)**

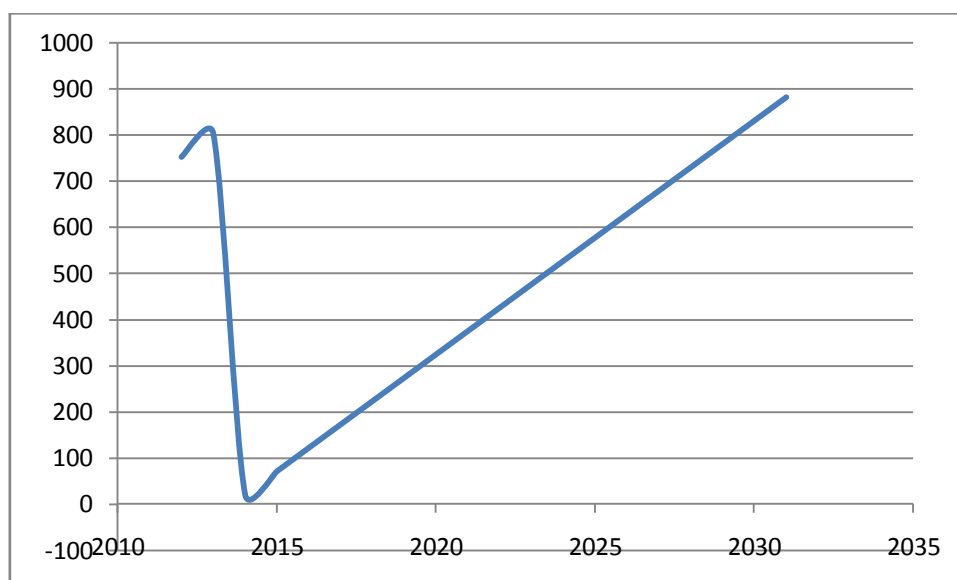
Unit	Mumbai city	Percent	Thane district	Percent
Population	2256.34	87.32	819.92	71.36
Large & small Industry	193.54	7.49	296.32	25.79
Hotels, restaurants & shops	66.15	2.56	5.74	0.50
Garages	9.04	0.35	10.34	0.90
Theaters & malls	0.77	0.03	3.33	0.29
Public and private hospitals	6.71	0.20	2.29	0.20
Fire station & hydrants	36.43	1.41	6.43	0.56
Educational institutions	13.95	0.54	4.94	0.13
Parks gardens	0.25	0.01	3.68	0.32
Total	2583.18	100.00	1149	100.00

**Source:** Computed from data

As compare to unit, in Mumbai population contributes 2256.32mld sewage whereas in Municipal Corporations of Thane district it is 819.92 mld. In large and small industry, sewage generated in Mumbai city is 193.54mld. In Thane, it is 296.32mld. Restaurants and shops contribute 66.15mld sewage in Mumbai city but in Thane it is only 5.64 mld. Garages in Mumbai contribute 9.04 mld sewage whereas in Thane district it is 10.34 mld. Theatures and malls contribute 0.77 mld in Mumbai whereas Thane it is 3.33 mld sewage. Public and private hospitals contribute 36.43 mld sewage in Mumbai city, whereas in Thane, it is 6.43 mld. Educational institutions contribute 13.95mld sewage in Mumbai and in Thane, it is 4.95mld. Parks and gardens are contributing negligible because they are water recipients.

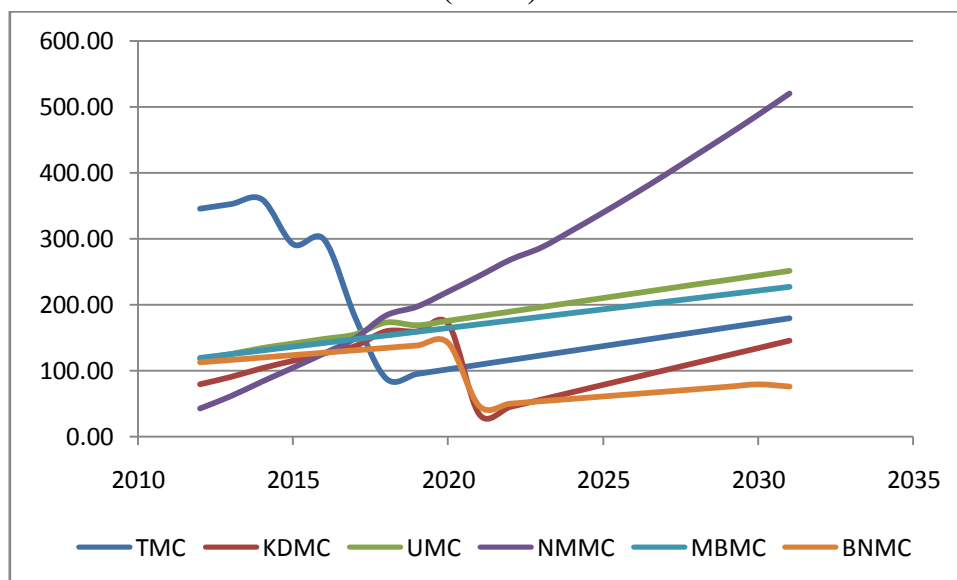
Therefore total sewage in Mumbai city is calculated as 2583 MLD. In Thane district, all six municipal corporations contribute 1149 MLD sewage.

**Figure 1: Sewage treatment deficit in MCGM (MLD)**



Such sewage generation is continuously increasing because of rising population and water supply. In Mumbai city, it is observed as lowest but it will rise if the sewage treatment projects are not completed. It will touch 900 MLD in 2030. There are many projects are announced for sewage treatment. But there is problem of environmental clearance to such projects. Municipal Corporation has to cut trees. But there is oppose to cut of many trees for sewage treatment.

**Figure 2: Sewage treatment deficit in Municipal corporations of Thane district (MLD)**



In Thane district, sewage by all the municipal corporations is rising fast. In NMMC, it is observed as 500 MT in 2030. In Thane Municipal Corporation, sewage will be below 100mld till 2018. But it will be below 200mld till 2030. In Bhiwandi-Nizampur Municipal Corporation, sewage will be below 100mld till 2030. Population and other units are not growing in this municipal corporation; Water supply is less therefore sewage will be less.



### Regression result:

We have used ordinary and Tobit regression (Greene, W. H. 2003) to examine the co-related factors with water supply in municipal corporations. We have calculated the demand of water by different units. The total water demand is regressed on the different units which are demanding water in Mumbai and Thane district. We found the following positive and negative co-relation factors.

**Table 14: regression results for water supply in Mumbai and Thane district**

Variables	Greater Mumbai Municipal Corporation		Thane district	
	(Tobit)		(OLS)	
	Co-efficient	Z test	Co-efficient	Z test
Population	0.00* (0.00)	257.69	0.29*** (0.11)	2.58
Hotel and restaurants	0.20* (0.00)	21.89	208.88* (18.66)	11.07
Cinema house and theatres	0.02* (0.00)	9.62	-	-
Educational institutions	0.00 (0.00)	0.93	94.22** (32.50)	2.90
Small and large Industrial Units	0.03* (0.00)	4.59	0.99* (0.00)	771.11
Fire stations	-0.02* (0.00)	-4.05	-	-
Constant	0.49 (0.28)	1.75	-59.36 (0.67)	-87.64
L R Chi2=221.75 Prob>chi2=0.00 Log Likelihood =-330.54			R square =1.00 Adjusted R square =1.00 Root MSE=0.04	

Regression result shows that water supply in Mumbai city is positively co-related to population, hotels and restaurants, cinema houses and theaters, small and large industrial units. All the units are increasing with population. Therefore they are positively co-related. But it is negatively co-related to the fire hydrants. Numbers of fire cases are less in city. Therefore water demand is negatively co-related to fire hydrants in city. The tobit model shows that in Thane district, water supply in all the municipal corporation is positively co-related to population, hotels and restaurants, educational institutions and small and large industrial units. All the units are growing in all the municipal corporations. Therefore they are positively co-related to water demand.

### Solid waste in Mumbai city:

We have calculated the solid waste on per capita basis. It has been added as total sewage by different units. At the last the total sewage is regressed on different units. We found the following co-relation of solid waste in Mumbai city.

**Table 15: Regression results of solid waste for Mumbai city**

Variables	Coefficient	Standard errors	T test
Population	-0.05	0.04	-1.21
Municipal dispensaries	217.84*	1.85	117.68
Private centerities	0.06	0.05	1.22
Private market	0.15**	0.05	2.96
Permitted factories	-0.29*	0.05	-5.11
Fire hydrants	-0.06	0.04	-1.44
Municipal industrial estate	-0.22*	0.05	-4.32
Municipal recreation centers	-0.09	0.05	-1.75
Government welfare centers	0.12***	0.04	2.6
Municipal welfare centers	217.91*	1.85	117.53
Constant	5238.74	229.88	22.79
R <sup>2</sup> square=1 Adjusted R <sup>2</sup> =1 Root MSE= 0.0005			

Above table shows that solid waste in Mumbai city is positively co-related to municipal dispensaries, private markets, government and municipal welfare centers. All the units are increasing with population and creating more solid waste in city. But solid waste is negatively co-related to permit factories, municipal industrial estates in Mumbai city. In terms of number, they are declining. Therefore less solid waste is observed for future period.

**Table 16 Regression result of solid waste in Thane district**

Variables	Co-efficient	Standard error	T test
Population	1.12*	0.08	12.59
Industry	0.7**	0.18	3.74
Health Institutions	0.48	0.77	0.62
Shops	0.75	0.85	0.87
Hotels	2.02*	0.05	34.19
Theaters	1.74***	0.76	2.29
Primary schools	1.42**	0.53	2.64
Secondary schools	0.64	0.58	1.1
Colleges	-0.23	0.86	-0.27
Post graduation institutions	0.45	0.71	0.64
Constant	-0.94**	37.31	-2.52
R <sup>2</sup> =1.00 Adj R <sup>2</sup> =1.00 Root MSE=0.008			

Solid waste in Municipal Corporation of thane district is positively co-related to population, industry, hotels, theaters, primary schools. All the units are growing and it leads to more solid waste.

E-waste in metropolitan region:

We have estimated the e-waste on the basis of per capita. We have estimated total e-waste in whole metropolitan region and then we have regressed it on different units. We found the following co-relation with different factors.

**Table 17: Regression result of e-waste in MMRDA region**

Variables	Co-efficient (Standard error)	T test
Population	1.68*(0.00)	2005.75
Constant	-14856.28(53.00)	-280.27
R-square=1.00 Adjusted R-square = 1.00 Root MSE=78.48		

E-waste in metropolitan region is positively co-related to population in metropolitan region. This is because population is using the mobile phones, laptops, computers, watches and calculators etc. Over the period of time such e-waste is expected to rise in region.

### **Policies**

Population in Mumbai city is declining slowly but it is continuously increasing in municipal corporations of Thane district. Mumbai, at present is in reverse gear. It is currently lagging behind on both fronts-economic growth and quality of life (Mackinsey report 2003). Population growth in Navi-Mumbai, Vasai-Virar, Ulhasnagar, Kalyan-Dombivali and Mira Bhaynder is continuously rising fast. The transportation facilities and affordable housing are the causes of the migration. But migrants from within and outside of state are growing in metropolitan region. Therefore migration in region is a continuous process. It is difficult to control migration in region. But government can provide number of facilities to migrants. Government must open the technical centers to provide technical training to migrants. It will improve their earning capacity. Government must invest in housing projects. Affordable housing in metropolitan region is must. Government must take help of private sector and make the houses at lower price to poor population in region. There is need to have more investment in infrastructure facilities. Government must build more transportation projects in metropolitan region. It will help to reduce the congestion in Mumbai city. Planning and investment are crucial and there is need of private sector involvement in different projects in region. All the people of region should get drinking water on regular basis. There is need for more water supplies to rising population. Public private partnership is required in water supply. Government and Municipal Corporation must plan more water supply scheme to its growing population. Most of the municipal corporations are not collecting, segregating and processing solid waste. At different points, there is need to collect all sewage and segregation it at household level. Municipal Corporation must recruit more people for

waste collection and transportation. It will improve health of people in metropolitan region. There is need of e-waste collection and processing unit. Now use of electronic waste is rising fast. But municipal corporations do not have e-waste processing units. It will lead to more air, water and soil pollution in region. All municipal corporations must treat the sewage in their respective area. There is need of investment in sewage treatment plants. It will certainly reduce the environmental pollution in region. Government and Metropolitan region must plan for green and clean region. All steps will improve the quality of life in region.

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## **SURPLUS LABOUR AND RURAL TO URBAN MIGRATION: EVIDENCE FROM NEPAL**

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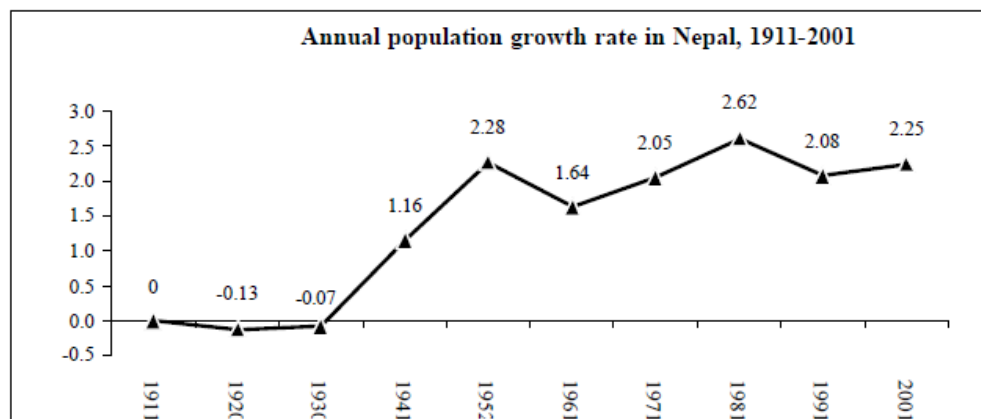
### **Demographic Background of Nepal**

In 2003, Nepal's population is estimated to have reached 25.1 million with a density of 179 persons per square kilometer [United Nations, 2003]. Nepal ranked 143rd in human development index of 2003 [UNDP, 2003]. Every two in five persons in Nepal lives below absolute poverty line and every other person in the rural area is poor

(NPC, 2003). Very high unemployment and underemployment rates of 17.4 and 32.3 per cent (NPC, 2003) have compelled people to remain either under severe poverty or migrate to other places within and outside the country for better opportunity for livelihood. The population of Nepal grew at an annual rate of 2.25 per cent between 1991 and 2001 (Figure 1) with a sex ratio of 99.8. Nepal has a huge population of females in the reproductive age group (49.2%) with high fertility rate (4.1 children per woman).

Marriage among girls before the age of 18 years is prevalent. Population momentum created by the young age population (39.4% below 15 years) will contribute more to population growth and migration in the country. Eighteen per cent of all births is attributed to women under 20 years of age in Nepal (United Nations, 2003). This may severely limit the scope of reducing population growth rate and poverty in Nepal.

**Figure 1**



Nepal is an agricultural economy providing livelihood to three fourth of the population and accounting for about one-third of its Gross Domestic Product (GDP) (CIA, 2010). However, over the last few years, Nepal has witnessed structural transformation from a rural based economy to an urban based economy. According to the CIA Fact Book, agriculture employed 76 % of the Nepali work force in 2009 compared to 93 percent in 1981. Also, in 2009, only 35 percent of the country's GDP was derived from the agricultural sector compared to 62 percent in 1981 (Sharma, 1989). This 17% change in the work force and almost double the change in Nepal's GDP in three decades shows that Nepal is slowly but steadily transforming into an urban based economy. People have been migrating to the capital city of Kathmandu with the hope of getting higher wages and to Tarai in order to exploit the increasing commercial opportunities with India (Sharma, 1989).

This paper aims to evaluate the policies and trends in the rural urban migration in Nepal. The most important economic theory that applies to the rural-urban transformation is the Arthur Lewis Two-Sector Model.

### **An Examination of Arthur Lewis's Two-Sector Development Model**

In 1954, in an article entitled Economic Development with Unlimited Supplies of Labour, Nobel Prize winner Sir Arthur Lewis described a mechanism that drives economic development.

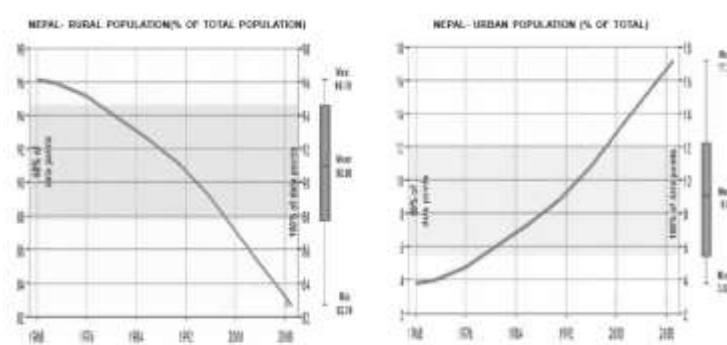
Arthur Lewis described economic development as a result of structural change in two major sectors of a developing economy. He referred the traditional agricultural sector as ‘subsistence sector’ , which is characterized by an abundant, unskilled, and overpopulated labour force whose marginal productivity of labour (MPL) is close to zero and a modern sector as ‘capitalist sector’ which is characterized by higher wages, advanced technique of production and a positive marginal productivity of labour. (Bhattarai, S. and Kulkarni, K., 2011)

For example, if there were ten people working in the field to produce 600 units of food, but only six of them were actually needed to produce it, the additional four labourers would not add anything to the production and therefore would have a zero marginal productivity. Also, the additional four labourers would drive down the wage to subsistence level (Hendricks and Kulkarni, 2008). According to Lewis, if the four extra labourers were relocated to work in the industrial sector, the marginal productivity of those individuals would be positive leading to a higher wage than subsistence level. The positive marginal productivity would help increase the country’s gross domestic product leading to economic development (Hendricks and Kulkarni, 2008). Positive labour productivity pressures industry to utilize more labour, which drives up wage rate in a limited urban labour pool. This encourages labour migration from the rural agricultural sector into the industrial sector.

### Two-Sector Model Application to Nepal

Nepal is experiencing a structural change from a rural agricultural sector to an urban industrial sector. Therefore, it is a perfect place to test the two-sector model. Over the last three decades, Nepal has experienced massive internal migration. Most of the migration trends have been rural to urban migration. A higher wage rate and a better standard of living have given an incentive for people to make the transition.

**Figure 2** below shows the rural- urban migration data in Nepal from 1961-2008.



Source: Trading Economics, <http://www.tradingeconomics.com>

It is seen figure 2 that over the years in Nepal the rural population growth has been gradually declining as shown by the downward sloping curve. On the other hand, the upward sloping curve shows the continuous increase in urban population. Kathmandu has been the main recipient of these migrants. It is the main political and administrative center, a major tourist gateway, and an economically strategic location in the country (Thapa /Murayama, 2010). People do not have access to these services at other locations in the country, which forces them to either migrate or commute on a regular basis.

Apart from the higher wages, people have chosen to move to the urban areas for variety of other reasons. Other urban growth drivers have been attributed to public service accessibility, land market and most importantly for political situations.

Migration to Kathmandu is appealing for public service accessibility. Services available in Kathmandu such as transportation, electricity, education, drinking water, health services, commercial services, waste disposal, etc are important factors that people take into consideration before migrating (Thapa and Murayama, 2010). These services are very hard to find in other areas in the country. Land market over the last decade has also been a very important reason for migration. With urbanization, the price of land has increased exceptionally in the Kathmandu Valley. People are moving to Kathmandu to speculate in the real estate market by acquiring the undeveloped lands with scattered ownerships, and later develop the land and put on sale (Thapa and Murayama, 2010).

### **Migration Streams (KC, 1998)**

The 2001 census of Nepal has provided enough information to calculate four streams of migration within the country. In Nepal, the major streams of internal migration are rural-to- rural (68.2%) and rural-to-urban (25.5% in 2001 and 31.2% in 1996).

Nepal still has an overwhelming rural-to-rural migration. Rural-to-urban migration is gaining more visibility in districts with large urban areas such as Kathmandu (71.8%), Kaski (82.7%), Lalitpur (56.6%), and Bhaktapur (44.6%). Internal migrants to urban areas has increased over time from 13.4 per cent in 1971, 16.3 per cent in 1981, 17.2 per cent in 1991 and 26.8 % in 2001.

**Table 1**

**Rural-urban, urban-urban, rural-rural and urban-rural migration streams by sub-regions, Nepal, 2001**

Region	Migration Streams								Total Stream
	Rural-Urban		Urban-Urban		Rural-Rural		Urban-Rural		
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	
Mountain	2,150	4.5	188	0.4	42,364	89.0	2,884	6.1	47,586
Eastern	1,523	9.1	81	0.5	14,522	86.5	656	3.9	16,782
Central	627	4.7	107	0.8	11,483	85.6	1,204	9.0	13,421
Western					3,516	93.7	237	6.3	3,753
Mid-Western					3,999	95.2	200	4.8	4,199
Far-Western					8,844	93.8	587	6.2	9,431
Hill	424,801	38.8	60,031	5.5	565,527	51.6	44,851	4.1	1,095,210
Eastern	16,500	11.4	1,529	1.1	118,905	82.2	7,659	5.3	144,593
Central	334,951	52.3	53,097	8.3	225,908	35.3	26,246	4.1	640,202
Western	61,673	29.4	4,495	2.1	136,518	65.1	6,860	3.3	209,546
Mid-Western	9,107	12.8	580	0.8	58,657	82.6	2,677	3.8	71,021
Far-Western	2,570	8.6	330	1.1	25,539	85.6	1,409	4.7	29,848
Tarai	319,334	17.9	21,206	1.2	1,389,956	77.8	55,770	3.1	1,786,266
Eastern	114,262	20.5	7,927	1.4	420,504	75.4	14,841	2.7	557,534
Central	74,202	17.5	6,232	1.5	328,274	77.5	14,846	3.5	423,554
Western	44,475	13.8	2,930	0.9	265,278	82.0	10,714	3.3	323,397
Mid-Western	27,480	14.2	1,876	1.0	157,394	81.2	7,022	3.6	193,772
Far-Western	58,915	20.5	2,241	0.8	218,506	75.9	8,347	2.9	288,009
Total	746,285	25.5	81,425	2.8	1,997,847	68.2	103,505	3.5	2,929,062

**Source:** CBS,2002



## Reasons for Migration (KC, 1998)

**Table 2** explains the reasons for migration

Percentage distribution of internal and foreign migrants by reasons of residence, Nepal, 2001			
Reasons	Percent	Inter-District Migrants	Foreign Born
Trading	6.03	5.53	8.43
Agriculture	15.79	18.08	4.77
Employment	10.58	11.50	6.13
Study/Training	9.33	10.34	4.47
Marriage	26.95	22.99	45.99
Others	31.32	31.55	30.21
Total Number	3,537,155	2,929,064	608,092
<b>Males</b>			
Trading	10.26	8.61	22.24
Agriculture	21.25	22.84	9.66
Employment	20.65	21.13	17.12
Study/Training	13.89	14.69	8.06
Others	33.96	32.72	42.91
<b>Females</b>			
Trading	2.87	2.97	2.49
Agriculture	11.71	14.12	2.66
Employment	3.05	3.49	1.40
Study/Training	5.92	6.72	2.92
Marriage	47.10	42.13	65.79
Others	29.35	30.58	24.74

Source : CBS, 2002.

The 2001 census included five main reasons for migration such as trading, agriculture, employment, study/training and marriage (CBS, 2002). The dominant reason for migration of females was marriage (47.1%). As a result of this, all other reasons for migration were dominantly in favour of males because males did not report marriage as one of their reasons for migration.

## Migration to Urban Areas (KC,1998)

Nepal has at present 58 designated urban centres with a total population of 3,227,879. Out of this total, 95.6 per cent are native born and 4.4 per cent are foreign born (Table 15.14). Out of the total native born (3,085,104), 73.2 per cent (2,257,392) were internal migrants from other districts in rural areas, whereas 24.2 per cent migrated from other municipalities. These numbers and associated proportions are strictly based on the definition of internal migrants migrating or crossing the boundary of one district of birth place to another district of enumeration at the time of the census in 2001.

**Table 3**

Population by place of birth by municipalities, Nepal, 2001

Towns	Total Population	Native Born Population	Native Born as % of Total Population	Non-Migrants in the Same District	Non-Migrants as % of Native Born	Internal Migrants from VDC of Other Districts	Internal Migrants as % of Native Born	Internal Migrants from Towns of Other Districts	% of Internal Migrants from Towns of Other Districts	Foreign Born Population	Foreign Born Population as % of Total Population
Mountain Towns (2)	43,705	43,539	99.62	41,201	94.63	2,150	4.94	188	0.43	166	0.38
Col. %	1.4	1.4		1.8		0.3		0.2		0.1	
Hill Towns (22)	720,311	706,113	98.03	574,307	81.33	119,348	16.90	12,457	1.76	14,198	1.97
Col. %	22.3	22.9		25.4		16.0		15.3		9.9	
Valley Towns (5)	995,966	965,809	96.97	612,781	63.45	305,453	31.63	47,574	4.93	30,157	3.03
Col. %	30.9	31.3		27.1		40.9		58.4		21.1	
Tarai Towns (29)	1,467,897	1,369,643	93.31	1,029,103	75.14	319,334	23.32	21,206	1.55	98,254	6.69
Col. %	45.5	44.4		45.6		42.8		26.0		68.8	
All Towns (58)	3,227,879	3,085,104	95.58	2,257,392	73.17	746,285	24.19	81,425	2.64	142,775	4.42
Total %	100.0	100.0		100.0		100.0		100.0		100.0	

**Source:** CBS 2002

Tarai has 29 urban centres with 45.5 per cent of the total urban population of Nepal. The Kathmandu Valley with five urban centres including Kathmandu (the capital) has 30.9 per cent of the total urban population. The hill except the Kathmandu Valley has only 22.3 per cent of the total urban population even though it has 22 urban centres. The mountain zone has only two urban centres possessing only 1.4 per cent of the urban population in the country.

For the sake of simplicity, four groups of towns belonging to three ecological zones and one separate region of Kathmandu Valley have been referred here. Ninety five per cent of populations living in two urban areas of mountain were non-migrants. Internal migrants from rural areas of other districts constituted 31.6 per cent in Kathmandu Valley towns followed by 23.3 per cent in Tarai towns and 16.9 per cent in hill towns. Internal migrants to Kathmandu Valley towns from urban areas of other districts were only about 5 per cent. Internal migrants coming from urban areas of other district to other zones constituted less than two per cent.

Looking at individual towns in the hill, almost one quarter of the population in Illam, Dhankuta, and Udayapur comprised of internal migrants from both rural and urban areas of other districts.

Hetauda (33.5%), Pokhara (30.9%) and Birendranagar (29.5%) have been the destination of migrants from their neighbouring districts.

In Kathmandu Valley, Kathmandu city had almost 42 per cent internal migrants from both rural and urban areas of other districts (44% with foreign born) in 2001. If intra-

district migration were to be considered, this city had more than 50 per cent in-migrants in 2001. Of the total Valley in-migrants, Kathmandu city alone received 78.6 per cent of the total rural migrants and 64.8 per cent of the urban migrants from other districts. Except Bhaktapur, other cities of the Kathmandu Valley such as Lalitpur (32%), Madhyapur (27.6) and Kirtipur (23.2%) have been receiving increasing proportion of in-migrants during the last decade.

Among the 22 hill towns, Pokhara in the western hill has 36.4 per cent of all rural in-migrants and 24.6 per cent of all urban in-migrants of other districts followed by Hetauda with 16.1 per cent from rural and 23.7 per cent from urban. Biratnagar, Dharan and Butwal are the Tarai towns with more proportion of in-migrants among the Tarai towns. Among towns in the Tarai zone, Butwal (49%), Bharatpur (42.6%), Dharan (41.3%) and Itahari (41.6%) have been the most dominant in receiving internal migrants. Many other towns in the Tarai zone have internal migrants exceeding 25 per cent. Birgunj, Gaur, Siddharthanagar, Bhadrapur, Nepalgunj, Kapilbastu, Kalaiya, Malangwa, Jaleswor, Bhadrapur, Mechinagar, Biratnagar, Lahan, Siraha, Janakpur and Damak have foreign born migrants exceeding five per cent of their respective total population. Even Lalitpur in the Valley has 7.5 per cent foreign born migrants. In the hill towns Banepa and Hetauda have about 5 per cent foreign born migrants.

**Table 4 Duration of Migration (KC, 1998)**

**Internal migration by duration of stay for ecological zones, Nepal, 2001**

Ecological Zones	Duration of Stay				Total
	< 1 Year	1-5 Years	6-10 Years	> 10 Years	
<b>Both sexes</b>					
Mountain	7.7	33.4	21.6	37.3	47,587
Hill	6.5	34.1	24.2	35.3	1,095,210
Tarai	3.8	24.7	21.9	49.7	1,786,266
Nepal	4.9	28.3	22.7	44.1	2,929,063
<b>Males</b>					
Mountain	5.3	29.0	21.3	44.4	31,420
Hill	5.5	31.1	24.1	39.3	609,116
Tarai	3.5	25.3	23.0	48.1	958,183
Nepal	4.3	27.6	23.4	44.7	1,598,719
<b>Females</b>					
Mountain	12.3	42.1	22.1	23.5	16,167
Hill	7.8	37.7	24.3	30.2	486,094
Tarai	4.1	24.0	20.5	51.4	828,083
Nepal	5.5	29.2	21.9	43.3	1,330,344

Source : CBS, 2002.

Internal migration in Nepal has been very much a permanent phenomenon as 44.1 per cent of the total inter-district migrants were living in the destination for more than 10 years in 2001 (CBS, 2002). Those staying in the destination for 1-5 and 6-10 years respectively comprised 28.3 and 22.7 per cent (CBS, 2002). Migrants staying less than 1 year were 4.9 per cent. Two third of the total migrants were living in the destination for more than 6 years, whereas 56 per cent had been living since the last ten years (Table 4) . Especially, females in Tarai (51.4%) reported to have resided at the place of enumeration for more than ten years. Generally, migration in Tarai is more permanent than in other regions.

## Conclusion

Lewis' two sector model explains migration trends of Nepal economy from the traditional agricultural sector to a modern industrial sector.

Every two in five persons in Nepal lives below absolute poverty line and every other person in the rural area is poor. The absolute number of people below the poverty line will not decrease because of runaway population growth rate. Only those under extreme poverty will remain in the villages but a large majority will migrate.

High unemployment and underemployment will force people to remain either under severe poverty or migrate to other places within and outside the country for better opportunity for livelihood.

Urban areas will be the destination of more than 50 per cent in -migrants. This will create a severe shortage of services and security in urban areas, especially in the valley towns. Consequences rather than causes of migration in the urban areas, especially in the Kathmandu Valley would be an important topic for immediate attention for policy makers in Nepal.

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### **Female Migration in India: A Census Study (1991-2001)**

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#### **Introduction:**

Migration is one of the three basic components of population growth of any ages and plays an important role in improving the economic and social conditions of the people. Migration is a process of cultural evolution also. Migrants bring new ideas, skills and host of cultural practices related to food, dance and music and other life styles as well. Sometimes, they are easily absorbed in the host culture, but in several times they are thought to be a source of conflict, and the cultural differences are exploited to increase the tension between the migrants and host communities. However, conflicts between migrants and host communities are rooted in the competition for jobs between these two groups of people. Thus, the politicization of migrants and also of the migration policy is a logical out come. (Bhagat, 2005)

Migration to women meant an increase in the spatial mobility and various opportunities to savor urban life, which differs from their confined rural life in cast settlement. In past, most of the female migration used to be dependent migration. Females used to be migrating with their family members or with husband etc. It means, their migration is dependent upon other family members. But now situation has started changing. Women are migrating independently; subsequently the reasons are also changing. Previously, mostly the reasons were migration for marriage or

family moved, but now women are also migrating for the employment, education etc. The scholars call this change in migration as “feminization of migration”.

### **Review of Literature:**

Migration plays an important role in changing the composition of any country's population. It is as important as fertility and mortality. Man can control the fertility and mortality for development. But we cannot achieve development by stopping or controlling the process of migration. Most of the studies in migration focused on male migration and female migration is somewhat neglected from the focuses.

Premi (1980) finds that higher percentage of women migrating from rural to rural destinations compared to rural to urban destinations. Comparison of female migrants in rural to urban migration seems to be associated with distance involved in migration and the size of city. Evidence indicates that larger cities less likely are women to migrate.

In the post-independent India, women who have been earning salaried remunerative occupation and professions are increasing substantially. Women are working in almost all types of jobs. So, the traditional role of housewife has gradually changed into working women and housewife. (Anand, 2003)

In Indian context, it is also not clear whether wage employment has helped female migrants to overcome poverty since for an outsider there is nothing emancipating in bad working conditions, low wages, over-work and discrimination. Limited research studies that are available in Indian context for the earlier periods indicates that these women are exposed more to the risk of sexual harassment and exploitation (Acharya, 1987 and Saradamoni, 1995).

### **Data source:**

The present study is based on migration data provided by census during 1991 and 2001. The volumes of migration tables of D- series from census of 1991 and 2001 are used for analysis for 15 major states of India.

### **Age and Sex difference in migration in India:**

Sex is one of the important factors that affect on migration. General trend found in the field of migration for male and females is that males are more dominating in migration as compare to women. In traditional societies like India it is observed that female migration proportionately less than that of males. But in case of short distance it is observed high.

### **Inter State Migrants in India 1991 & 2001 (%)**

Age -group	1991		2001	
	Males	Females	Males	Females
All ages	33.47	66.53	33.00	67.00
0-14	52.61	47.39	52.63	47.37
15-19	29.15	70.85	54.96	45.04
20-24	15.10	84.90	14.84	85.16
25-29	19.52	80.48	19.22	80.78
30-34	40.20	59.80	39.85	60.15
35-39	52.79	47.21	52.46	47.54
40-59	59.24	40.76	58.69	41.31
60+	45.90	54.10	44.35	55.65

**Source:** Table D-2, census of India 2001

In case of female migration in 1991 it can be observed that in age group of 20-24 and 25-29 proportion of female migration is increasing. It may be because of marriage. Because in this age mostly women will get married and migrate to husband's place. There may be some women who are migrating for the reason for employment, education or others too. In case of male migration age group 20-25 and 40-59 is showing quiet high proportion of male migrants may be because these age groups are more suitable for work or employment. In age group of 0-14 migration is little higher. May be most of children will migrate with their parents. In the age group of 60+ the proportion is reduced for both sex and decades.

In 2001, it is observed that in all ages the percentage of female migrants is more (67%) than that of male migrants (33%). In age of marriage that is between 20-25 migration among the women is increasing about 85 per cent for 20-24 and 81 per cent for 25-29. As we moves to the higher ages among the males the percentage is increasing. In the age group from 35-59 male migration is showing significant increase.

### **Educational level of female migrants:**

Mobility and migration are a part of development, resorted by people to improve their life situations. However, often times, the characteristic features of migrants and circumstances that propel such movement from conditions of poverty, remorselessness and deprivation weaken the entire attempt and add on to their vulnerabilities. Women, both as migrants and non-migrants, face specific life conditions that tend to highlight their vulnerability stemming from predominant patriarchal notions and stereotypes that influence their public and private spaces. (Rastogi)

People are migrating for getting better opportunities, better wages. It can be easily possible if the people who are migrating are well educated and skilled. The opportunities and wages for the skilled and educated workers are better than unskilled and illiterate migrants. Education plays an important and effective role in mobility

and development both. The low educational level of migrants in general is highlighted with proportion of women who are illiterate or literate below matriculation being significant. Segments with graduates and above migrant women are located in urban to urban streams both among internal migrants and inter state migrants.

Since migrant women are by and large illiterate or even if educated very few of them have gone beyond primary levels of schooling, their access to formal skill/training also remains low. In agriculture, processing and grading of various products, cashew, tobacco, prawn, and fish and so on, instances abound in literature as to how skill transmission occurs. Less educated or illiterate migrant workers will not get better wages as compare to skilled, educated migrant workers.

#### **Educational Level of Female Migrants: 1991 & 2001 (%)**

States	Illiterate		Literate but below Matric/Secondary		Matric/Secondary but below graduate		Graduate and above other than technical degree	
	1991	2001	1991	2001	1991	2001	1991	2001
Andhra Pradesh	63.23	47.56	25.89	34.09	8.46	14.08	2.42	4.27
Bihar	77.31	66.54	15.05	21.17	6.08	9.81	1.56	2.48
Delhi	45.94	37.72	27.38	30.93	15.00	17.97	11.68	13.39
Gujarat	41.21	44.38	35.17	35.28	17.14	15.46	6.47	4.88
Haryana	58.85	41.71	25.65	33.90	11.38	17.94	4.12	6.44
Karnataka	55.52	42.67	31.87	33.37	10.16	18.34	2.45	5.62
Kerala	19.56	19.34	52.56	40.60	22.66	30.50	5.22	9.56
Maharashtra	49.94	49.28	37.25	37.27	9.83	9.16	2.98	4.29
Madhya Pradesh	69.78	36.17	22.16	40.38	5.33	17.47	2.73	5.99
Orrisa	61.08	45.67	30.74	35.77	6.20	14.05	1.99	4.51
Punjab	48.74	60.30	30.61	19.63	15.81	15.83	4.84	4.24
Rajasthan	78.78	59.44	15.17	31.16	3.98	6.47	2.08	2.94
Tamil Nadu	44.67	31.91	38.09	41.13	13.61	20.37	3.63	6.59
Uttar Pradesh	73.41	60.10	17.41	24.98	6.47	10.68	2.71	4.23
West Bengal	53.53	39.65	37.73	46.26	6.17	9.96	2.58	4.13

Table gives the idea about the educational level of female migrants in study area in 1991 and 2001. For convenience here we had converted the seven categories in four categories. Among the illiterate female migrants Rajasthan is showing the highest 78.78% in 1991. Bihar and Uttar Pradesh follow it. Kerala is showing the



lowest percentage (19.56 & 19.34 %) among the illiterate migrants. Among the literate but below Matric/secondary level educated female migrants Kerala is showing the highest percentage (52.56 & 40.60%) in both decades. Kerala is having quiet good educational attainment among the women.

Among women, who are educated Metric/Secondary but below graduate, again Kerala is showing the highest percentage of women migrants educated (22.66 & 30.50%) in both decades. Followed by Gujarat and Punjab which is 17.14% and 15.81% respectively in 1991 and Tamil Nadu (20.37%) and Karnataka (18.34%) in 2001. Madhya Pradesh is having the lowest percentage of educated migrant women in this category which is 5.33% in 1991 and Rajasthan 6.47% in 2001. In the category of comparatively higher education Delhi is showing highest female migrants in Graduate and above other than technical degree, 11.68% and 13.39% in 1991 and 2001. Bihar is showing the lowest percent of educated female migrants 1.56% in 1991 and 2.48% in 2001.

### **Employment as a reason for migration:**

Women who are migrating are mostly will be dependent migrants. Their mobility is depending on the other family members. It is found that getting job for women is easy than for male. Most of the migrant women will work in the unorganized and informal sectors. In India very less proportion of women is migrating for the employment reason.

**Female Migration for 'Employment' in 1991-2001 (%)**

States	1991	2001
Andhra Pradesh	9.59	7.51
Bihar	2.64	1.90
Delhi	3.72	5.08
Gujarat	8.75	4.86
Haryana	4.13	7.54
Karnataka	6.60	8.49
Kerala	12.83	14.74
Madhya Pradesh	3.48	3.56
Maharashtra	3.91	7.73
Orissa	3.15	4.48
Punjab	6.84	8.89
Rajasthan	3.20	4.19
Tamil Nadu	7.18	8.01
Uttar Pradesh	3.39	7.60
West Bengal	7.11	8.63

The table shows that overall very less proportion of women are migrating for employment. In 1991 Kerala is showing highest percentage of women, migrating for employment (13%). May be due to better status of women, more empowerment in Kerala. Andhra Pradesh and Gujarat that is 9.59% and 8.75% respectively follow it. Again Gujarat, Andhra Pradesh are good in the development. Level of education is also good. Andhra Pradesh is having good IT industry which is providing well paid jobs to educated women. It may be one reason for this high percentage of women migrants to Andhra Pradesh.

Bihar is showing the lowest proportion of women who are migrating for the reason of employment because educational level, employment opportunities, status of women is not at good. So, fewer women are migrating to Bihar for employment. Most of the women will be engaged in household and agricultural work. It may be unpaid also. Orissa, Rajasthan that is 3.15% characteristics like Bihar.

In 1991 3.91% women migrated for employment to Maharashtra, which increased by 7.73% in 2001. This increase is quiet noticeable (about 3%). It may be because of changing condition in Maharashtra. Also Mumbai is industrial, business and commercial center and 'oasis of opportunities'.

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## **EMIGRATION FROM INDIA AND UTILIZATION OF REMITTANCES AT HOUSEHOLD LEVEL**

Imtiyaz Ali

### **Introduction**

A fundamental characteristic of people is their movement from place to place. The right to move was recognized globally over a half century ago with the adaption of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. The declaration states in Article 13 “Everyone has the right to freedom of movement and residence within the borders of each state” and everyone has the right to leave any country, including his own, and to return to his country.”(International migration report, 2002)

Migration is a natural phenomenon which has been in practice for ages. People migrate from one place to another in search of livelihood or for a better standard of living. In this context, International migration is not new. History tells us about trade relations between different countries of the world. Increased international connectivity has accelerated the process as there is an increase in flow of information, capital and people as never before in human history. Further, the liberalized immigration policies of some of the developed countries have accelerated the pace of international migration of both men and women for settlement and temporary residence. (Zlotnic, 1998)

International migration occurs when the citizens of a country cross their national boundaries and stay in the host countries for a certain period of time for various purposes especially for employment and education. In fact, migration with the help of remittances, can contribute positively to the development activity of a country, including economic growth, poverty reduction, social development and technological process (Singh and Hari, 2011).

Migration from India has taken place from the very dawn of civilization and there is hardly any part of the earth where Indians are not found today. But, never before in history had India witnessed such massive movements of people from country to other parts of the world as in the 19th and 20th centuries (Rajan, 2003). Estimated at over 27 million, India has the world’s second largest overseas community- next only to china. Overseas Indian constitutes a significant and successful economic, social and cultural force in the world. Since, independence, two distinct streams of migration have left India: people with professional expertise of technical qualifications emigrating to industrialized countries, and semi-skilled and skilled workers emigrating to the Middle East. Most of The out-migrants are from Kerala, Tamil Nadu, Andhra Pradesh, Gujarat, Goa and Punjab. In the context of India International migration can be described in two parameters: first one is quality emigration and the other one is poverty driven emigration which is basically forced through the social networking. For instance people from Uttar Pradesh (East) and Bihar move to Gulf countries through social networking. Many of their friends and relatives have been working in these countries and through them these people get the advantage of work related information .Thus, through bonds of kinship, friendship and shared community origin many people adapt migration routes.

### ***History of emigration***

Migration is a product not of discrete and unconnected factors in sending and receiving countries, but of historical connections between the countries. It is not fortuitous; it is systematic (Bonacich and Cheng 1984). International migration is divided into two broad periods: the pre independence period and post independence period. In pre – independence period, migration is divided into indentured labour migration (1834-1910), emigration under the **kangani** system (1910-1935) and free migration (1936-47). Indentured was a half between slavery and free labour, but also different from peonage and serfdom. It was peculiarly adapted, like slavery, to the recruitment of labour through migration. Indentured labour to Mauritius and Fiji was part of a global process of labour migration from India , which began after the abolition of slavery and the next period , so called kangani system involved a short term( usually 30 days) contract, generally rather than written. It received its name because of the peculiarly important role of the kangani, or the head man, who was both the recruiter and the field foreman. Sent by an employer or association of estate owners to bring back his friends, neighbors, and relatives in his home district, the kangani undertook to provide food, clothing and transit for the recruits in connection with their overseas trip. And the other one is free migration (1936-1947). And after independence: there are two clearly different kinds of labour migration taking place from India since independence: (i) Persons with technical skills and professional expertise migrate to countries such as the USA, Canada, the UK and Australia, as permanent migrant. (ii) Unskilled and semi skilled workers migrate to oil exporting countries of the Middle- East on temporary works contracts, especially following the oil price increases of 1973-74 and 1979.

### ***Remittances:***

The main benefits of international out-migration are remittances. They facilitate to bring more foreign exchange and scope for higher levels of savings and investments in the country. The World Bank estimates for 2008 put India in the lead at \$52 billion, with China and Mexico close behind at \$49 billion and \$26 billion, respectively (World Bank, 2009). Remittances generate both micro and macro-economic effects. In microeconomic terms, remittances make an important welfare contribution to the receiving household, besides providing a cushion during an economic downturn or following natural disasters. They also generate ripple effects impacting extended family and community beyond the receiving household due to increased consumption. In macroeconomic terms, remittances provide a stable flow of funds that is often counter-cyclical and an important source of foreign exchange for many countries (Singh & Hari, 2011). The economic power of remittances by the migrant's acts as a source of capital and support influencing millions of households around the world. According to 'Human Development Report- (2009)' - financial remittances are vital in improving the livelihoods of millions of people in developing countries. Empirically, an international remittance adds to household's welfare, nutrition, food, health and living condition in places of origin. Income from migration may bridge the gap between the consumption need and income flow of households to help them overcome

the vulnerability of income failure and provide a higher security to a household regarding their basic needs (Ellis, 2005).

Remittances, as a portion of a migrant worker's earnings sent back from the destination of employment to the origin of the migrant, play a central role in the livelihood of many households and have become a focal point in the ongoing debate concerning the viability and sustainability of this livelihood option. The role and importance of remittances in the international migration of skilled workers from developing countries like India and others, has been widely studied and recognized for its contribution towards foreign exchange earnings and macroeconomic stability (De Haan, 1999).

Remittances are basically the amount of money earned by the migrants, and their propensity to remit. Lucas and Stark (1988) studied remittances on a household level and hypothesized the main determinants to be "pure altruism", "pure self-interest" and "tempered altruism or enlightened self-interest" (De Haan, 1999). It is natural to assume that remittances are sent to the family left behind due to altruistic feelings of the migrant. This can be modeled in a Becker type setting where a migrant derives positive utility from the consumption of their family. The migrant thus cares about poverty, shocks, etc. of the family and consequently sends remittances. In this case, there is a positive relationship between adverse conditions of the receiving household and remittances sent (Lucas and Stark, 1988).

Remittances may also decrease if there are other remitters in the family, as the migrant might feel less accountable if s/he knows that the family is supported by others. In contrast to altruism, self-interest may also be a motivation to remit. The remittances from migration play a vital role in providing sustenance for the poor, and indeed, migration is the dominant livelihood strategy (Lucas and Stark, 1988)

At the household-level, there has also been a debate in the literature regarding the effect of migration and remittances on the household poverty status. Early studies, from 1970s to early 1990s, have often reached largely pessimistic views regarding those effects. This group of research emphasized the cycle of household dependency caused by remittances flows and how remittances lead to a disruption of traditional household economics without providing a sustainable source of income. The additional household income from remittances was believed to be mainly spent on consumption or non-productive investments (Sasin 2008). Also, many studies highlighted that remittance-income leads to substituting work with leisure or to raising reservation wage of non-migrants; thus, causing a reduction in labor force participation. Hence, overall there has been a belief that only short-term gains might be realized from migration and remittances flow (Ballard 2001; Collayer 2004; Funkhauser 1992; Killingsworth 1983).

Later on, with the exponential growth of the volumes of remittances worldwide, more recent studies started to highlight the evidence supporting the positive impact of migration and remittances on living standards and human capital (Gunter and van der Hoeven 2004, Rapport and Docquier 2006; World bank 2008).

The National Sample Survey (2010) estimates that, International migrants on an average sent Rs. 57,100 (about \$1,418) in 2007-08, while remittances sent by internal migrants was around Rs. 14,600 (about \$363). Moreover, remittances are sent almost 5 times in a year through international and internal migrants. The data for international remittances seems to be underestimated as well, since India received \$37 billion in remittances in 2007 and \$50 billion in 2008, or between \$3,700 and \$5,000 on average per international migrant.

### **Need of the Study**

It is evident from the literature that remittances do provide a much needed livelihood option during periods of stress and are utilized for several purposes, including, productive and social purposes. However, in the past, relatively little attention has been focused on the question of how remittances are used by households and the impact of the remitted money on the livelihoods of the migrants. Due to the lack of official data available for estimating remittances from rural-urban migrants, accurate analysis of remittance utilization is inadequate (Lucas and Stark).

Fortunately, for the very first time international migration data were captured in NSSO 64<sup>th</sup> round. The present engagement therefore, is an investigation towards combining emigration data at the macro level and an attempt is made to assess the varied activities in which remittances are used. Given the background that at the micro level (regional and household level, especially household level), remittances have had a considerable impact on the economic status of people in India; the study tries to assess the use of remittances by the receiving household. As per the NSSO, 2010 report, it is found that remittances are being used predominantly for social and consumption purposes, they are also used for productive purposes related to investment in agriculture and non-farm activities, all in the context of semi-arid areas (NSSO, 2010)

The study therefore grabs the wonderful opportunity of exploring the recent data, provided the fact that there are not enough studies taken up on the subject. It is necessary to see the impact of remittances from international out migrant on the socio-economic condition of people in India and different states.

### **Objectives**

1. To study the characteristics of international migrants and migrant's households.

2. To understand the utilization of remittances received by migrant households in selected state.
3. To study the factor associated with emigration.
4. To study the factor associated with households receiving remittances.

### **Data Source and Methodology:**

#### ***Data Source***

Census of India is the single largest source of data on migration characteristics for the people of India but in terms of emigrants' characteristics, we rely on the survey report (NSS). The National Sample Survey (NSS) is conducted by the National Sample Survey Organization (NSSO), which is wing of Ministry of Statistics and Programme Implementation, Government of India. The 64<sup>th</sup> round based on the survey on *Employment & Unemployment and Migration Particulars* (Schedule 10.2) of NSS was conducted during 1 July, 2007 to 30 June, 2008. The nationally representative survey includes 125,578 households (79,091 households in rural areas and 46,487 households in urban areas) which together have 572,254 individuals. The report has many interesting findings on internal and international migration and remittances in India, for instance the survey finds that 0.38 per cent of Indians, about 4 million, have migrated out of the country. This is smaller than the 10 million Indian international migrants that we have from destination country data (*Migration and Remittances Fact book, 2008*). However, origin country surveys often underestimate the extent of cross-border migration, as these do not capture entire families that have moved and the other one is related with remittances, emigrants send larger amount of remittances on average than internal migrants. For the analysis ten states namely, Kerala, Punjab Andhra Pradesh, Tamil Nadu, Gujarat, Maharashtra, Rajasthan, Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, Rajasthan has been selected based on the high prevalence of emigration from these states.

#### ***Definition and concept used in the study:***

***Emigrant households:*** The household whose member (de facto) is a migrant in overseas.

***Remittances:*** In NSS, the term remittance is defined as- these are the transfers, either in cash or in kind, to the households by their former member who had migrated out. However, if such transfers were in the form of loans, these were not considered as remittances. The valuations of remittances received in kind were done by considering the market value of the kind remittances received by the households. If the cash remittances were in any foreign currency, exchange value of cash remittances in Indian rupee were arrived at to determine the amount of remittances.

It has to be noted that for the use of remittances only the first priority has been considered. For instance, if the respondent reported the use of remittances in food, education and consumer durables respectively, we took the first priority (food) as the use of remittances.

**Monthly Per Capita Consumer Expenditure (MPCE):** The variable Monthly per Capita Consumer Expenditure (MPCE) Quintile distribution was obtained by dividing the total monthly household expenditure by the household size and then distributing the households into five equal quintiles. The quintiles are defined as lowest, lower, medium, higher and highest.

**Migration Rate:** Migration rate, for any category of persons (say for rural or urban, male or female, social group), has been estimated as the number of migrants belonging to that category per 1000 persons in that category.

## **Methodology**

**Bi-variate and multivariate techniques have been used to fulfill the purpose of the study.** Logistic regression analysis is used to construct the model to examine the independent association of various factors to emigrant household (Where, migration status is taken as dependent variable and coded as '0' non emigrant households and '1' emigrant households respectively) and received remittances (Where, sent remittances are taken as dependent variable and coded as '0' no and '1' yes respectively). Statistical test used is binary logistic regression and level of significance was set at  $p < .05$ . Odds ratio (OR) are calculated as a measurement of association between independent variable and outcome.

The analysis begin with simple cross tabulation in the required manner as a bi- variate analysis and binary logistic regression is used for assessing the characteristics of emigrant and non emigrant households and show the variation of sent remittances by in socio-economic variables.

## **Results and Discussion**

The present study is divided into the four sections namely (i) study the characteristics of emigrants, (ii) Utilization of remittances, (iii) factor associated with emigration and lastly households receiving remittances.

Table1 shows that emigration rate by different background characteristics. It is seen that International migration rate is 26 per 1000 population in India. Further it is lowest among scheduled tribes (5 per 1000 population) followed by scheduled caste (12 per thousand population), others backward classes (38 per thousand population). It is clear from the figure that the socially disadvantage have the least opportunity to move internationally.

Table 2 provides the percent distribution of migrants by their age-groups in selected states of India. It is evident that more than two-third of the emigrants belongs to age group 15-34 followed by persons from 35-59 age groups. The fact suggests that that the individuals from the working age population has the maximum tendency to migrate internationally. The present distribution of emigrants by place of residence according to their sex and caste is provided in table 3. It is found that among males



more than half of the migrants (55 per cent) belong to Other Backward Castes (OBCs) whereas almost 61 per cent of the emigrant women are from other castes and one in every third emigrant women is OBC.

Percentage distribution of emigrants by different background characteristics are depicted in table 4. It is found that male emigrants are much higher compared to their female counterparts. The state of Gujarat shows a substantially higher percentage of female emigrants (36 per cent), this may be due to marriage related reasons. The states of Maharashtra (30 per cent), Andhra Pradesh (23 per cent) and Uttar Pradesh (20 per cent) are other states which have a higher percentage of female emigrants than the other selected states. Compared to all the other states the highest percentages of male emigrants are from Tamil Nadu (93.4 per cent) and Rajasthan (90 per cent). Results for caste-wise analysis shows that percentage of scheduled castes (24 per cent) are much higher in Punjab and percentage of other backward classes is much higher in Tamil Nadu (82 per cent) and Kerala (69 per cent) compared to other selected state. The results are consistent from the earlier studies for instance, according to the study conducted by CDS (Center for Development Studies) educationally backward Muslims from the Thrissur – Malappuram region (in north Kerala) provide the backbone of emigration and Tamil Nadu is close to Kerala either geographically or political point of view so social and cultural network played a significant role in increasing the number of emigrant in other backward classes.

Mostly people emigrate for better opportunities like jobs and higher studies but percentage reporting migration of parent/earning member of the family and marriage related migration is very high in Gujarat (16 per cent) compared to other selected state because emigration is a very old phenomenon in Gujarat starting with Indus Valley Civilization, (3250-1750 BC), here emigration is only qualitative because Gujarati's are a merchant and shopkeepers not laborers. Surprisingly, almost 3 per cent of the emigrants reported the forced migration as their cause of crossing international boundaries. Among all the states Rajasthan (80 per cent), Bihar (80 per cent) followed by Tamil Nadu (85 per cent) reported the highest percentage of remittances receiving states.

Table 5, 6 and 7 show the percentage of households reporting use of remittances who have received remittances from emigrants by state, social groups and religion. Out of those households who received remittances in India, 55 per cent use them for food (based on their first priority) followed by debt repayment (18 %), health (7%). Surprisingly, very less per cent of households reported to use the remittances for education. Compared to the other states utilization of remittances in repayment of debt is very high in Andhra Pradesh (32.2%) and Tamil Nadu (30.7%).

Literature suggests that the remittances are expected to reduce poverty as they may be directly received by the poor. The impact of remittances on reduction of poverty can be understood from both micro and macro perspectives. Uruci and Gedeshi (2003)

using survey of long-term legal immigrants find that the majority of the international migrants (69.7 %) send their money in order to meet “the essential needs of the family.”

In the context of Kerala (one of the top remittances receiving states of India and 21.5 per cent of total emigrants from India) and Andhra Pradesh (11.2 % total emigrants from India) and Tamil Nadu (9.38% total emigrants from India) has utilized the remittances in first priority is food and secondly used for debt repayment (Table 5). Although the impact of remittances on the reduction of poverty at macro and micro level can't be said straight forward be proved from the present study as there is no formal framework to capture this impact. However, one may argue that the remittances reduce poverty and hunger of a particular household, directly contributing to household's income and fulfilling the basic needs of survival.

Table 6 and table 7 shows the first priority to use remittances among scheduled caste is (45.9%) and Muslim community is food (72.4%). This data shows that scheduled caste is much better economic condition to Muslim and Sachar Committee also says in their report. (Sachar Committee (2006), based on social, economic and educational status of India Muslim), report is first of its kind revealing the backwardness of Indian Muslims, according to Sachar Committee report some of the major concerns are: the status of Indian Muslims are the below the condition of scheduled caste and scheduled tribes.)

Table 8 exhibits that factor associated with emigrants in urban and rural areas separately by some selected background characteristics. The regression analysis reveals that in rural India, Muslims (OR: 6.1) and other castes (OR: 6.5) are more likely to emigrate compared to Hindus. Among social groups, scheduled caste, backward caste and other caste have a high probability (i.e. more than eight times, fifteen times and six times in scheduled caste, backward caste and others respectively) to emigrant than scheduled tribes. Results with respect to MPCE show that, households belonging to lower, medium quintile, higher and highest quintile are significantly more likely to emigrants than lowest quintile. In household type, agriculture labour household are less likely to emigrant than self employed in non agricultural. Further, self- employed in agriculture and other rural household have more likelihood to emigrant than self employed in non agricultural households A similar pattern has been observed for the urban areas as well for instance, household belonging to lower quintile are less likely to emigrant than lowest quintile. Casual labour are not significantly associated with the emigration status whereas other labour household are more likely to emigrant (i.e. more than five times) than those who are self employed in non agricultural work.

Table 9 provides factor associated with household receiving remittances. The regression analysis implies that those belonging to others religion are half likely to send remittances (OR: 0.52) compared to Hindus in rural areas. Furthermore female are significantly much less likely (OR: .03) to send remittances back to their family

compared to male counterparts. It is found that age has a positive association with sending remittances to their families. For example, emigrants belonging to age group 15-30 years and 46 and above have more likely to send remittances (i.e. 1.2 times and three times respectively) compare to the younger age group (15-30 years). Similar pattern is also evident for urban areas too. Contrarily to the rural areas, in urban areas Higher and highest quintile have less probability to send remittances compared to the lowest to those belonging to the lowest group. Among household type, other –labor urban are 2.1 times more likely to receive remittances compared to those who are self employed.

## Conclusion

From the above analysis it can be concluded that after examining and analyzing the data of 64<sup>th</sup> round of NSS, a major proportion of the remittances goes to meet the necessities for the basic survival, i.e. food of the population residing in the home country. One of the key finding of the study states that emigration is high in the more developed states compared to the less developed states in India. Further, the male emigration is much higher than the female in all the selected states. Most of the emigration takes place among the working age population.

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**Table 1: Migration Rate according to a social group in India, NSSO, and 2007-08\***

Caste	International out migration rate per 1000 population
Scheduled Tribes	4.8
Scheduled Castes	11.8
Other Backward Classes	27.3
Others	37.9
Total	25.5

\*Source: Author own calculation based on NSS data

**Table 2: Percentage distribution of emigrants by age group in selected states of India, NSSO, 2007-08 (N=5167) \***

States	0-14 years	15-34 years	35-59 years	60 and above
Punjab	1.8	57.7	37.5	3.1
Rajasthan	3.7	51.0	45.4	0.0
Uttar Pradesh	3.4	53.4	43.1	0.1
Bihar	4.9	62.2	32.8	0.1
Gujarat	6.8	47.0	45.3	0.9
Maharashtra	1.5	66.2	32.1	0.2
Andhra Pradesh	1.4	66.9	31.6	0.1
Kerala	1.2	47.6	50.3	0.8
Tamil Nadu	0.2	61.4	37.4	1.1
<b>India</b>	2.0	54.9	42.3	0.9

**Table 3: Percent distribution of emigrants by place of residence according to sex and caste, NSSO, 2007-08\***

Social Group	Rural			Urban			Total		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total

	N=20 53	N=35 1	N=24 04	N=21 74	N=58 9	N=27 63	N= 4227	N=94 0	N=51 67
ST	1.1	1.2	1.1	0.4	1.3	0.6	0.9	1.3	1
SC	9.5	11.3	9.8	2.7	3.9	3	7.5	7.8	7.5
OBC	60.8	38.5	57.5	42	19.4	36.3	55.1	29.6	50.4
Others	28.6	49	31.6	54.8	75.4	60.1	36.6	61.3	41.1

**Table 4: Percent distribution of emigrants by background characteristics in selected states and India, NSSO, 2007-08\***

State	P	R	UP	B	G	M	AP	K	TN	India
<i>Sex</i>										
Male	81.6	90.2	79.8	82.1	64.5	70.5	76.9	87.1	93.4	4227
Female	18.4	9.8	20.2	17.9	35.5	29.5	23.1	12.9	6.6	940
<i>Caste</i>										
SC	23.5	20.1	11.4	2.0	2.6	1.6	12.5	1.0	7.8	388
ST	0.0	3.0	0.2	9.9	1.4	0.0	2.2	0.1	0.0	121
OBC	13.8	46.6	54.7	54.2	21.1	17.2	35.6	69.1	81.5	2084
Others	62.7	30.3	33.7	33.9	74.9	81.2	49.8	29.8	10.7	2574
<i>Reason for migration</i>										
Employment	70.7	88.3	78.3	86.5	43.6	68.2	76.9	87.2	93.3	4195
Marriage	10.6	2.0	16.9	4.8	19.0	14.1	14.1	6.9	3.3	321
Migration of parent	10.6	8.7	4.7	8.4	16.3	8.7	4.4	3.9	1.9	438
Forced migration	0.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	2.6	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	3
Studies	4.4	1.1	0.2	0.2	17.2	8.1	4.6	0.7	1.5	146
Others	3.4	0.0	0.0	0.2	1.4	1.0	0.0	1.3	0.0	53
<i>Sent Remittances</i>										
Yes	55.2	79.3	71.3	79.9	25.4	36.4	53.9	73.1	85.2	3323
No	44.8	20.7	28.7	20.1	74.6	63.6	46.1	26.9	14.8	1844

Note: The abbreviation refers to P: Punjab, R: Rajasthan, UP: Uttar Pradesh, B: Bihar, G: Gujarat, M: Maharashtra, AP: Andhra Pradesh, K: Kerala, TN: Tamil Nadu

**Table 5: Percentage distribution of households reporting use of remittances out of those who have received remittances from emigrants by state in India, NSSO, 2007-08\***

States	P	R	UP	B	G	M	AP	K	TN	INDI A	IMI
Food	48.4	53.9	59.3	64.1	54.3	64	42	62	45.4	55.8	67.6
Education	1.1	1.3	0	0	2.3	0	0.8	0.7	0.3	0.6	1.2
Household											
Durable	1.6	0	0	0	0	3.5	0.3	0.6	0.4	0.6	0.8
Marriage	5.0	4.1	0	0.6	0.9	0.4	1	1.6	1	2	2.3
Health	5.6	2.8	16.4	14.7	14.7	19.1	6.5	5.9	4.6	7.3	7.6
Other											
Consumer											
Durable	9.1	4.6	9	7.8	8.6	2.4	1.8	5.1	5.8	5.9	9.9
Improving											
Housing											
Condition	6.2	1.1	4.1	2.8	6.6	1.1	5.8	3.8	3.7	4.3	3.7

Debt	10.8	25.7	9.4	7.2	3.2	3.4	32.2	17.1	30.7	17.6	2.6
Financing											
Capital	2.5	0	0	0	0.5	0.3	0.6	0	0	0.3	0.4
Entrepreneurial Activity	0.4	0	0	0	0	0.2	0.8	0.8	0.1	0.1	0.1
Saving	5.1	3.9	0.3	0.8	5	3.3	7.9	6.4	6.4	3.6	1.3
Others	4.3	2.6	1.6	2.1	3.8	2.4	0.3	1.7	1.7	1.9	2.4

Note: The abbreviation refers to P: Punjab, R: Rajasthan, UP: Uttar Pradesh, B: Bihar, G: Gujarat, M: Maharashtra, AP: Andhra Pradesh, K: Kerala, TN: Tamil Nadu, IMI: Use of Internal Migrant

**Table 6: Percentage distribution of households reporting use of remittances out of those who have received remittances from emigrants by social group in India, NSSO, 2007-08\***

Use of remittances	ST (%)	SC (%)	OBC (%)	Others (%)	India
Food	57.4	45.9	59.9	51.1	1734.0
Education	0.0	1.0	0.4	1.0	29.0
Household Durable	0.0	0.5	0.2	1.2	29.0
Marriage	0.1	1.8	1.1	3.6	70.0
Health	23.2	8.0	5.3	10.2	188.0
Other Consumer Durable	6.0	1.3	5.1	8.5	206.0
Improving Housing Condition	0.4	3.0	3.5	6.1	144.0
Debt	12.0	32.9	20.4	9.3	380.0
Financing Capital	0.1	2.4	0.0	0.3	14.0
Entrepreneurial Activity	0.1	0.0	0.2	0.0	6.0
Saving	0.6	1.5	2.4	6.1	191.0
Others	0.1	1.7	1.5	2.6	69.0
Total	100	100	100	100	3,060

**Table7: Percentage distribution of households reporting use of remittances out of those who have received remittances from emigrants by religion in India, NSSO, 2007-08\***

Use of remittances	Hindu	Muslim	Christian	Sikh	Jain	Buddhist	Zoroastrian	Others	Total
					100.				
Food	46.5	72.4	53.5	45.1	0	87.9	39.8	32.4	55.8
Education	1.0	0.3	0.5	0.2	0.0	0.0	44.9	0.0	0.6
Household Durable	0.6	0.2	1.2	1.6	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.6
Marriage	1.6	1.2	3.8	6.6	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	2.0
Health	7.4	7.4	7.7	5.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	7.3
Other Consumer Durable	4.8	3.8	15.4	10.9	0.0	12.1	0.0	67.6	5.9
Improving Housing Condition	5.5	2.4	3.6	6.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	4.3

Debt	25.3	9.4	12.1	9.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	17.6
Financing									
Capital	0.4	0.0	0.0	2.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.3
Entrepreneurial Activity	0.2	0.1	0.0	0.6	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1
Saving	5.1	1.1	2.3	6.5	0.0	0.0	15.3	0.0	3.6
Others	1.8	1.9	0.0	5.8	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.9

**Table 8: Odd Ratios of factor associated with emigration in urban and rural India (Rural: N=44831; Urban N= 31953) \***

Background Characteristics	Rural	Urban
<b>Religion</b>		
Hindu®		1.00
Muslim	6.15***	3.82***
Others	6.52***	3.00***
<b>Social Group</b>		
ST®	1.00	1.00
SC	8.13***	2.76**
Other Backward Classes	15.24***	8.68***
Others	6.75***	7.80***
<b>Quintile (MPCE)</b>		
Lowest®	1.00	1.00
Lower	2.23***	0.45*
Medium	2.80***	0.94
Higher	5.34***	1.87*
Highest	14.87***	4.82***
<b>Household-Type(Rural)</b>		
Self employed <sup>1</sup> ®	1.00	1.00
Agriculture labour	0.71**	-
Other labour	0.88	-
Self employed in agriculture	1.95***	-
Other-rural	2.52***	-
Regular wage/Salary earning	-	0.64***
Casual labour	-	0.73
Other-labour urban	-	5.48***
Pseudo R <sup>2</sup>	<b>0.2113</b>	<b>0.1724</b>

Notes: 1 For rural areas: in agricultural sector

\*p<.0.1, \*\*p<.05, \*\*\*p<.01

®= Reference category

**Table 9: Odd Ratios of factor associated with emigrants who sent remittances in rural and urban India (Rural: N=2404; Urban N= 2763) \***

Background characteristic	Rural	Urban
<b>Religion</b>		
Hindu®	1.00	1.00
Muslim	0.91	2.08***
Others	0.52**	1.12
<b>Sex</b>		

Male®	1.00	1.00
Female	0.04***	0.06***
<b>Social Group</b>		
ST/SC®	1.00	1.00
Other Backward Classes	1.20	1.33
Others	1.28	0.62
<b>Age</b>		
15-30 yrs®	1.00	1.00
31-45 yrs	1.68***	1.42*
46 and above	3.23***	1.56
<b>Quintile(MPCE)</b>		
Lowest®	1.00	1.00
Lower	0.95	0.55
Medium	1.20	0.65
Higher	1.08	0.41***
Highest	0.56	0.26***
<b>Household-Type(Rural)</b>		
Self employed in non agriculture®	1.00	1.00
Agriculture labour	0.75	-
Other labour	1.14	-
Self employed in agriculture	1.03	-
Other-rural	1.00	-
Regular wage/Salary earning	-	1.14
Casual labour	-	1.89
Other-labour urban	-	2.10***
Pseudo R2	0.2533	0.3071

Notes: 1 For rural areas: in the agricultural sector

\*p<.0.1, \*\*p<.05, \*\*\*p<.01

®= Reference category

**\*Source: Author own calculation based on NSS Data**

## **MIGRATION AND URBANIZATION – CHALLENGES AND CRISES.**

### **Karen Miranda**

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### **Introduction:**

This paper concentrates on economic growth and capital /collective culture in the city. It highlights how capital accumulation and capital culture has led to change and continuity among the communities, by focusing on how urban growth and land use



has led to socio-cultural and economic problems among the inhabitants in the city and how globalization has led to marginalization, displacement, gentrification....

The release of the English translation of Mannel Castell's book *The Urban Question* (1972) was influential in crystallizing the critical challenge to both Weberian urban managerialism and the human ecology of the Chicago school. The urban question refers to the organization of the means of collective consumption at the basis of the daily life of all social groups, housing, education, health, culture, commerce transport etc (Castells 1978). David Harvey (1990) has also been an influential critic of the post modern condition. Harvey sees only fragmentation and urban destruction and the end of community.

### **Challenges and Crises:**

While Marxist urban studies placed a concern with urban inequality and social justice at the fore front of their analyses of the city, there have also been efforts to consider the lived dimensions of urbanism. Social difference/division are now appearing in the urban landscape in new and disturbing ways. In particular, there has been an increase in surveillance and segregation which works against the acceptance and fostering of diversity (Stevenson (2003, 2009).

Today as we live in a capital culture, dominated by market Capitalist economies, 'people around us live in meaningful social worlds. These worlds are inhabited by persons who share relatively distinctive traits (like ethnicity or occupations), and who tend to interact especially with one another, and who manifest a relatively distinct set of beliefs and behaviours. Social worlds and subcultures are roughly synonymous'(Flanagan 1999).

Ben Fine and Alfredo Saad-Filho (2004) 'Capital' states, that in Marx's Theory of Accumulation and Crises, 'market Capitalist economies are chronically unstable because of the conflicting forces of extraction, realization and accumulation of surplus value under competitive conditions. This instability is structural, and even the best economic policies cannot avoid it completely. It shows that competition forces every capital to find ways to increase labour productivity. This generally involves technical changes that increase the degree of mechanization, the integration between labour processes within and across firms, and the potential scale of production. But these processes are always uneven and wasteful. They are associated with large fixed capital investment, speculation, labour market shifts, deskilling, structural unemployment, bankruptcy, crisis and the creation of unsatisfied and basic needs in spite of the ready availability of the means to avoid them.

David Harvey (1985) 'The Urbanization of capital' also states that 'The greater the labour surplus and the more rapid its rate of expansion, the easier it is for capital to control the struggle in the workplace. The principal of the reserve army under capitalisim is one of Marx's most telling insights. Migrations of labour and capital as well as the various mobilization processes by means of which "unused" elements in

the population are drawn into the workforce are manifestation of this basic need for a relative surplus population. But we also have to consider the costs of reproduction of labour power at a standard of living which reflects a whole host of cultural, historical, moral and environmental consideration’.

Rudel (2009) states that as human societies industrialized and become more built up, a process of resource partitioning takes place first the individuals and corporations lay claim to natural resources. This process of resource partitioning moves into a second stage when in response to the increasing intensity and scale of commercial land uses, government begin to zone regions for specific types of human uses claims that same lands become parks dedicated to recreation while other lands become zones reserved for industrial enterprises. Especially in major metropolitan areas, same zones become the exclusive preserves of the upper classes who work to exclude noxious land uses from the zones in which they live and work. In this sense land use patterns become patchy. Not surprisingly environmentally abusive land uses accumulate in places where the poor reside and environmental inequalities begin to follow the same geographical dividing lines as social inequalities. In this way increasing spatial heterogeneity contributes over time to increase in social stratification and environmental injustice.

Scholars like Mile Christopher Mele , Jan Lin ,John Friedman, Sharon Zukin, have also used the Marxist tradition to understand how capital growth and capital culture has led to marginalization, displacement, gentrification ... We cannot speak about cities, without understanding how cities use culture as an economic base, how capitalizing on culture spills over into the privatization and militarization of public space, and how the power of culture is related to the aesthetics of fear. In this presentation I would like to highlight the challenges and crises that we are all facing today.

#### **A) Redistribution to Recognition:**

Struggle for recognition is fast becoming the paradigmatic form of political conflict in the twentieth Century. Demands for recognition of difference fuel struggles of groups mobilized under the banners of nationality, ethnicity, race, gender and sexuality. People who are subject to both cultural injustice and economic injustice need both recognition and redistribution. (Seidman2004).

#### **B) Space and Deprivation:**

Large number of city’s population does not have legal tenure over the land and they occupy. In 1971 the slum population was about 1.25 million. Data collected in 1985 suggest that they constitute more than half of the city’s population, though they occupied only 2,525 of its 43,000 hectares of land. Today, more than a decade later 6% of Bombay land houses more than 50% of its populations. Another 12,000 hectares out of 43,000 is used for private residential housing. The 1985 data indicate

that there were 10,000 hectares of vacant land in possession of private builders, and about ninety landlords owned 55% of this vacant land.

Two factors, the concentration of ownership and the price of property reinforce inequities in land and housing. These also make for fictitious scarcity, speculation and capital accumulation through rent. Prices in south Bombay, on and around Marine Drive, were twenty-seven times higher than in the northern Bombay suburb of Bhayandar. In 1993-94 real - estate prices in south Bombay were higher than in downtown Tokyo and Manhattan. The provision of services has gone hand with class determinants. Adequate to better services are thus made available to residents of housing colonies and upper-class apartment blocks spatial concentration of transport networks, which has resulted in the rich being subsidized by the poor in this matter.

Land has always been a marketable commodity in Bombay, and it has been the private –public collaboration that has created a superfluous scarcity. This gave an opportunity for the private sector to hike up prices of built apartment blocks. Most of these slums are built on encroached land of private landlords (50%), state government land (25%) and municipal corporation land, and the rest on central government land.

Additionally, nearly 1 million live on pavements and 2 million live in old rundown building structures known as chawls Data from the 1991 census suggests that more than 50% of migrants settled in the city within the past twenty years . This led to growth of identity movements in the city such as the Shiv Sena –political movements with chauvinist and fascist tendencies in the late sixties and seventies it put forward the so-called sons of soil politics, from the eighties onward it mobilized the population in terms of religious identity (Seg bers 2007).

### **C) Politics of difference:**

‘Today the emerging concern with diversity focused on how empowerment, oppression and exclusion work through regimes difference’ in other words, on the dynamic relationship between identity and power. Urban culture has come to be conceptualized by many as ‘a diversity of sub –cultures’ This outcome is one that has had considerable implications for the practice of urban politics and the analysis of power relatives as well as for strategic interventions and processes such as urban planning and development. The focus on diversity and identity has made it conceptually possible to see that different groups may use, experience and relate to the same urban spaces in a range of ways often at the same time. And that these spaces have a relationship to any number of often-competing identities and subject positions. One space, different uses and different meanings, all of which are framing a range of identities, including being makers of belonging. It can be argued that these uses of space may, in turn be contrary to the ways in which planners expected the space to be used. In addition, an individual may use the same space differently at different times according to their changing situation and in line with their own shifting subjectivity. As they drive various (frequently contradictory) meanings from

their relationships with this space, they are not necessarily the passive victims or recipients of dominant ideologies and oppressive power relations. Space and neighborhood communities are a central factor for the positive sense of self and for the construction of their personal and cultural identities. Their home are also symbols of success and a means of maintaining cultural, religious and personal lentis with the past'(Stevenson (2003, 2009).

### **Conclusion:**

Today the global capitalist interact with local communities and there is interplay of cultural economic, political and religious networks that operate at local, trans-local, and transnational social scales but which intersect in particular places at particular times. A closer study of this interplay will enable urban researchers to explain the formation of new 'subject positions' and give due attention the multiple patterns of accommodation and resistance to dominant power relations and discursive spaces, particularly the patterns of dominance entailed in the current discourse on globalization itself.

### **End notes:**

1. Mile Christopher Mele states 'Until the early 1980s, the efforts of capitalists to profit through manipulation of the urban housing market were frustrated by the dual phenomena of increasing suburbanization and the declining industrial economic base of older cities recently however the post industrial economy has provided new opportunities in the urban housing market for place entrepreneurs. Throughout the many and varying episodes of post war restructuring capital accumulation through urban space has propelled the efforts of entrepreneurs. Producers of urban space – the real estate industry, speculators and developers restructure neighborhoods through investment or disinvestment in the built environment. For place entrepreneurs or producers housing exists briefly as a commodity that is speculated upon, bought, sold and developed for purposes of accumulation. Entrepreneurs invest in the undervalued commodity of low income housing stock when structural shifts in the regional economy, such as the emergence of global corporate services, create an auspicious environment for reinvestment in DE valorized inner –city neighborhoods.

Although urban accumulation is the instrumental to capitalist control of the production of space, social and cultural reinvention is equally important to the control over the use and consumption of place. . The particular qualities that make place are often embedded in use of particular buildings such as neighborhood bars, ethnic groceries or notorious apartment buildings changes in ownership of buildings often intact changes in their use, thereby threatening to erase existing identity that is tied to a particular place.

Reinvention is a broader effort to control the consumption of space. First, the production of specific urban images or city myths attracts new investment in the built environment. In addition to developers, quasi –governmental and public institutions such as chambers of commerce.....Invention of new meanings of place that are tied to "higher and better " uses attracts consumers who are willing and able to pay

higher rents. Additionally, reinvention legitimizes the entire process of urban restructuring and masks the class conflict that is inherent in the restructuring of working class neighborhoods. Neighborhood improvements such as those made to parks, streets and public buildings, are articulated as bettering the quality of life for all residents. Such improvements, however beneficial are often used to justify and exculpate the social cost of residential displacement that is the consequence of redevelopment efforts. Finally the desired image of a neighborhood as promulgated by public and private actors is contingent upon such processes as de industrialization and more recently globalization.

2. Sharon Zukin's work in the 1990's. The material development of the urban built environment is not ignored but the analytical focus has shifted to the production and interpretation of cultural symbols and homes that incindate the modern city. Sharon Zukin remind us that individuals and groups make sense of and experience the places where they shop, socialize and live thereby shaping the urban environment.

These experiences may be as diverse as the groups who inhabit the city. Thus while certain powerful urban actors such as planners and real estate developers use culture to realize profits from urban development, their ability to shape how we experience the city is limited.

Along with passivity, community resistance is another reaction to the manipulation of cultural themes and symbols to sell place.

3. Christopher Mele points out, individuals and groups may contest real estate developer's use of local cultural forms such as art, music and even styles of social protest to package a community for high –end consumption. The redevelopment of New York's now highly popular so .....neighborhood in the 1970's for example was largely due to real estate developers who capitalized on the area's artistic appeal and city policies that allowed manufacturing lofts to be rezoned residential. By the 1980's the artists themselves had been displaced. On New York's lower east side a long history of political antagonism toward the real estate industry fostered a culture of insurgency among squatters, homesteaders, and low income residents many of whom were associated with the local artist community.

As Mele shows, real estate developers sought to appropriate and "fame" this insurgent culture as a selling point for middle-class rental apartments. Community resistance tended contribute to the corporate sanitized version of the neighborhood's identity showing culture is a powerful yet contested force in urban development.

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## MIGRATION AND RURAL DEVELOPMENT

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### Objective:

- **To consider the relationship between migration from rural area and rural development .**
- **To find out the key routes through which internal migration impact rural development.**
- **How to stop people from migrating in rural areas.**

**Human migration** (derived from Latin: *migratio*) is physical movement by humans from one area to another, sometimes over long distances or in large groups. Only a few nomadic people have retained this form of lifestyle in modern times. Migration has continued under the form of both voluntary migration within one's region, country, or beyond and involuntary migration (which includes the slave trade, trafficking in human beings and ethnic cleansing). People who migrate into a territory are called immigrants, while at the departure point they are called emigrants. Small populations migrating to develop a territory considered void of settlement depending on historical setting, circumstances and perspective are referred to as settlers or colonists, while populations displaced by immigration and colonization are called refugees.

According to the International Organization for Migration's World Migration Report 2010, the number of international migrants was estimated at 214 million in 2010. While some modern migration is a byproduct of wars (for example, emigration from Iraq and Bosnia to the US and UK), political conflicts (for example, some emigration from Zimbabwe to the UK), and natural disasters (for example, emigration from Montserrat to the UK following the eruption of the island's volcano), contemporary migration is predominantly economically motivated. International migration similarly motivated by economic disparities and opportunities occurs within the EU, where legal barriers to migration between member countries have been wholly or partially lifted. Countries with higher prevailing wage levels, such as France, Germany, Italy and the UK are net recipients of immigration from lower-wage member countries such as Greece, Hungary, Lithuania, Poland and Romania. Some contemporary economic migration occurs even where the migrant becomes illegally resident in their destination country and therefore at major disadvantage in the employment market.

Forced migration has been a means of social control under authoritarian regimes, yet free-initiative migration is a powerful factor in social adjustment and the growth of urban populations.

In December 2003, The Global Commission on International Migration (GCIM) was launched with the support of Secretary-General of the United Nations Kofi Annan and several countries, with an independent 19-member commission, a threefold mandate and a finite lifespan ending December 2005. Its report, based on regional consultation meetings with stakeholders and scientific reports from leading international migration experts, was published and presented to Kofi Annan on 5 October 2005.

International migration challenges at the global level are addressed through the Global Migration Group, established in 2006.

Different types of migration include:

Seasonal human migration mainly related to agriculture and tourism to urban places  
Rural to urban, more common in developing countries as industrialization takes effect (urbanization)

Urban to rural, more common in developed countries due to a higher cost of urban living (suburbanization)

International migration

<sup>1</sup>Early humans migrated due to many factors such as changing climate and landscape and inadequate food supply.

Manning distinguishes three major types of migration: labor migration, refugee migrations, and urbanization. Industrialization encouraged migration wherever it appeared. The increasingly global economy globalized the labor market. The Atlantic slave trade diminished sharply after 1820, which gave rise to self-bound contract labor migration from Europe and Asia to plantations. Overpopulation, open agricultural frontiers, and rising industrial centers attracted voluntary migrants. Moreover, migration was significantly made easier by improved transportation techniques.

Both factors contributed to migration, as some countries favored their own ethnicities over outsiders and other countries appeared to be considerably more welcoming. The United States experienced considerable internal migration related to industrialization, including its African American population. **Internal migration** occurs when peoples cross state boundaries and stay in the host state for some minimum length of time. <sup>1</sup>Many people leave their home countries in order to look for economic opportunities in another country. Education is another reason for international migration, as students pursue their studies abroad. These migrants can also be divided into two large groups, permanent and temporary. Permanent migrants intend to establish their permanent residence in a new country and possibly obtain that country's citizenship. Similarly, the countries which receive these migrants are often grouped into four categories: traditional settlement countries, European countries which encouraged labour migration after World War II, European countries which receive a significant portion of their immigrant populations from their former colonies, and countries



which formerly were points of emigration but have recently emerged as immigrant destinations.

### **Incentives for migration**

#### **Push Factors**

Poor Medical Care

Few opportunities

Primitive Conditions

Political fear

Religious discrimination

Natural disasters

Bullying

#### **Pull Factors**

Enjoyment

Education

Security

Family Links

Lower crime

India has seen an upsurge in economic growth since 1991. internal migration has picked up rapidly during the 1990s. Compared to intra-state (short distance) movement, inter-state (long distance) migration has grown faster. higher per capita income and larger dominance of non-agricultural sector show not only high in-migration but also high out-migration rates. On the contrary, migration rates are higher in households.

Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes do not show higher mobility compared to other population categories. Introduction reduce governmental expenditure in order to reduce fiscal deficit, opening up of the economy economic policy believed that economic reforms would increase internal migration. The leading to increased pull factors conducive for accelerated rural to urban migration. Cottage industries and impoverish rural population leading to increased rural-urban migration.

Although migration is emerging an important phenomenon from economic, political and public health points of views, migration research finds low priority among survey. migration by monthly per capita consumer expenditure (MPCE), and migration of the socially disadvantaged ethnic groups known as a Scheduled Castes<sup>2</sup> and Scheduled Tribes.

The 2011 Census estimates that 83.3 crore people, about 69 percent of the country's total population of 121 crore, continue to live in rural India. Land and water resources. The expansion of income opportunities in the farm sector and For achieving rural development, the present Presently, seven major flagship programmes are being implemented to develop rural areas..

They are: Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (MGNREGA), National Rural Livelihood Mission (NRLM), Indira Awas Yojana (IAY), National Rural Drinking Water Programme (NRDWP) and Total Sanitation Campaign (TSP), Integrated Watershed Development Programme (IWDP), Pradhan Mantri Grameen Sadak Yojana (PMGSY) and Rural electrification, including separation of agricultural feeders and Rajiv Gandhi Grameen Vidyutikaran Yojana (RGGVY). Gainful employment opportunities and to improve the quality of lives of rural masses.

As long as cities offer better opportunities for livelihoods, rural-urban migration cannot be stopped. When rural areas become the focus of planning to increase capacity to provide development for the population that resides in them then and only then can rural-urban migration be reduced.

Rural development has always been neglected in developing countries. Agricultural products-yielding income is taken to develop the urban sector regarding the rural sector- last. If only rural development being last is put first, can rural-urban migration be stopped. Again the concept of developing the centre to trickle down development to the rural sector should be discouraged. Further more, the basic human needs that promotes comfort ability are provided in the rural areas, also job opportunities (making agriculture a lucrative business) would slow migration. I believe building dormitory towns around the urban core would serve as a check to rural-urban migration. Why would we want to stop rural to urban migration? Protection of private property rights of rural smallholders can be one way to contain rural to urban migration.

In many countries rural areas have reached their saturation levels in terms of offering new agri-based jobs. The surplus rural labour is forced to seek employment opportunities in urban areas. Here integrated planning efforts could play a key role in guiding population distribution at the national level.

if one third of the resources devoted to the development of the so-called urban areas are committed to the planning of rural areas, then the rural-urban migration song will be on a positive note. There can never be a well planned city that can survive ten years with neglected rural areas around.

Develop the rural areas, create job, decent living standard and security therein and see how many people care about choked cities Rural-urban should work as a perfect symbiosis between two ways of life which should be complementary to each other. Better employment, better services and better business opportunities are the driving forces for Urban-Rural migration. When government's attention shifts to developing rural areas through creating better job opportunities and providing better service and facilities, the migration will not only stop, it will reverse. If this alarming rate of migration continues the city will start facing the over-population risks including the

high crime rate, higher urban unemployment rates, environmental problems, pressure on housing and public services. When looking at the world's developed urban centers we will notice another pattern of migration. Upper and upper-middle class population are now escaping cities to suburbs and surrounding towns and villages looking for cheaper cleaner and quieter areas to live in. This will cause a loss of the city's vibrant character and will worsen things by bringing even more socio-economic problems.

The main reasons for the rural to urban migration are searching employment and better education facilities. For the purpose of reduce or control the rural to urban migration it is important to introduce new areas for urban development with required facilities. Good examples are resettlement scheme of Gal Oya river basin, Uda Walawa river basin, Mahaweli River basin in Sri Lanka. Concentration of population in these areas need more urban facilities. Once the facilities are provided migration will be reduce.

As long as the concentration of social and economic opportunities and resources in urban centers continues, tackling urban migration will remain a herculean task. In Nigeria where I live, structural and power-sharing flaws between the three tiers of governance (federal, state and local government) make it almost impossible for true decentralization to take place, with spiraling effects on the capacity of local governments to provide essential services to rural people. Allured by the city's promise of a better life, compounded by the absence of basic services in rural areas, massive influx of people to city centers is increasing at a scale rarely seen elsewhere.

Urban population explosion also accounts for the shortage of housing in urban areas, forcing migrants to seek shelter in slums and informal settlements. These migrants are often the victims of repeated forced Rural -Urban migration can never stopped because discrepancy will always be there. Across the globe, especially in Africa, government, private organizations and NGOs concentrates and establish their resources in the urban centers which has brought about through Infrastructure development, good housing, good health care delivery, education, good transportation and communication system, security, electricity, employment creation, good standard of living and many more. Rural development or provision of rural facilities cannot stop this drift because of people's psyche about the city. The rural exodus seems to take a fresh impetus as the rapid economic growth in India, China and parts of Latin America attracts increasing numbers of rural to urban centers.

Rural residents make up more than half (60 percent) of the population in developing countries, but this share will fall to 44 percent by 2030 with continued migration to cities, the report said. Chile, for example, has reduced the number of migrants to the cities by stimulating rural employment through the promotion of fruit crops and processing enterprises, export-oriented. One of the reasons that attract people to cities is the quest for better wages. But Ethiopia has found that investments in fertilizers,

new technologies and farming could reduce levels of the differences between rural and urban wages - and thus reduce migration flows.

The rural exodus is generally concentrated in capital cities and some major cities. it is possible to counter this trend by creating medium-sized cities based on growth in services and agricultural production.

More generally, governments should invest in education and access to technology and physical and social infrastructure in rural areas so that people can enjoy the same facilities as the city dwellers.

my take is that you can't stop rural-urban migration but you can definitely reduce the magnitude by which it happens.

An example of this could be found in the development of Bamboo Industry in China that has brought prosperity and reduced the levels of local rural poverty. Conversely, the current global economic crisis has brought higher unemployment rates to many developed countries, that haven't been seen in a decade or so.

Solution to stop migration from rural areas for rural development.

As long as cities offer better opportunities for livelihoods, rural-urban migration cannot be stopped:

- Further more, the basic human needs that promotes comfort ability are provided in the rural areas, also job opportunities (making agriculture a lucrative business) would slow migration?
- Protection of private property rights of rural smallholders can be one way to contain rural to urban migration of
- Offering new agro-based jobs.

Planning efforts I

- If one third of the resources devoted to the development of the so-called urban areas are committed to the planning of rural areas, then the rural-urban migration song will be on a positive note. There can never be a well planned city that can survive ten years with neglected rural areas around.
- Offer better job opportunities in rural areas and solve the problem of disguised unemployment
- Encourage shelf help group and micro finance in rural for the rural poor.
- Introduced Knowledge economy in agriculture.
- Make education compulsory in rural areas..
- It is also important to set up big industry and education institution in the rural area. Transportation and ITC facilities should be available in the rural area.
- Develop the rural areas i.e. good schools, colleges roads, transport, communication, street lights etc
- Create job, decent living standard and security

- Rural-urban should work as a perfect symbiosis between two ways of life which should be complementary to each other
- Government's attention shifts to developing rural areas
- Better education facilities
- Concentration of population in these areas needs more urban facilities. Once the facilities are provided migration will be reduce
- Governments should invest in education and access to technology and physical and social infrastructure in rural areas so that people can enjoy the same facilities as the city dwellers, Most importantly we cannot ignore agricultural development in a country like India because India is highly populated and agriculture being labour intensive we have to develop our agricultural sector and work at improving the life of rural poor
- Infrastructural, economic, social, physical, cultural etc improvements in rural areas; as people in the rural areas are mostly attracted to the lifestyles of the urban dwellers.

### **Conclusion:**

- If this alarming rate of migration continues the city will start facing the over-population risks including the high crime rate, higher urban unemployment rates, environmental problems, pressure on housing and public services. When looking at the worlds developed urban centers we will notice another pattern of migration. Upper and upper-middle class population are now escaping cities to suburbs and surrounding towns and villages looking for cheaper cleaner and quieter areas to live in. This will cause a loss of the city's vibrant character and will worsen things by bringing even more socio-economic problems.
- The rural people needs to be involved in the establishments of their infrastructural needs and the provision of these needs through community-Development initiatives among others

The time to be serious about rural development is now or there will be a tremendous migration from rural areas to urban areas and this will definitely effect the development of agricultural and rural areas'. This will definitely effect the development of Indian economy.

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## **FROM BRAIN DRAIN TO BRAIN GAIN**

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### **Introduction:**

The progress of the 21<sup>st</sup> century depends on the exponential growth of the 'Knowledge' sector. There is no doubt that developing countries and especially India will have to attract and encourage more appropriate investment in its education sector. It will have to woo the 'intellectuals' especially the global talent of Indian origin to come back to India and the India universities and establish world class centers of learning.

The reverse brain drain policy needs to be implemented with a lot of vision and wisdom. There is need to review the causes of brain drain and implement effectively a new and fresh 'Brain Gain Policy'. Both the government of India and the administrators in the Higher Education Institutions {HEIs} have to collaborate and work in unison to attract the excellent faculty abroad so that more centers of excellence (COEs) can be established. It is not just important to impart knowledge but to encourage more 'path breaking' innovative research which can help in the growth process and in the development of the economy.

This paper tries to analyze the following:

1. The causes of brain drain and the colossal economic loss that the economy has suffered on account of it.
2. The newly introduced 'Brain Gain policy' of the Ministry of Human Resource Development which will help to user in new innovative ideas in the education sector.
3. The policies formulated by a number of Higher Education Institution (HEIs) to attract world class academicians and researchers.

### **BRAIN DRAIN:**

**Causes and Consequences:-** The emigration of people from one country to another in search of new pastures has been prevalent for a long time. The concept of 'brain drain' was coined by the Royal Society to describe emigration of scientists and technologists to North America from post war Europe.

The flight of human capital is a common problem among the developing Nations, especially former colonies of Africa, Island of Caribbean, East Germany and Soviet Union. In 2007, China was the biggest contributor of emigrants. There are basically two types of emigrants – (1) the emigration of highly skilled intellectuals and (2) students who go for higher education abroad and stay on. Table1 shows the trend of increasing foreign scholars in the USA.

**Table 1**  
**Emigration of Foreign Scholars to USA**

<b>YEAR</b>	<b>EMIGRATION IN PERCENTAGE</b>
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1993 – 94	18.6
1998 – 99	16.8
2004 – 05	19.0
2006 – 07	20.5

On account of ‘brain drain’ the losses to the developing nations are mounting. According to the UNDP estimates, India loses \$2 billion annually due to emigration of computer experts to the USA. Besides , Indian students going abroad for higher studies costs India foreign exchange outflow of \$10 billion annually.

When Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru, the first Prime Minister of the country, encouraged the setting up of the HEIs like IITs and IIMs as well as IISc, he believed that the scholars from these institutions would contribute to nation building. From the ‘temples of learning’ it was expected that India would be able to have the finest of ‘brains’, the most scholarly intellectuals who would develop technologies which would help rapid industrialization of the economy, who would help to develop managerial skills to harness abundant resources, so that the Indian economy would develop at a rapid rate. But that was not to be ! A large number of the trained engineers, technocrats and scientists decided to emigrate, especially in the 1980s and 1990s.

They were attracted not only by the pay packages but also by the intellectual freedom that the western countries offered to them. Besides, the hygienic environment , peaceful surroundings and in general the high quality of life were added ‘perks’ to these emigrants.

In the foreign universities, the academicians are assigned comparatively less teaching work. They are given complete autonomy to carry out their research work. There is hardly any political interference in the centers of learning. Besides the infrastructural facilities are world class and the opportunities for carrying out research, publishing papers in reputed journals, receiving awards and recognition for ‘path breaking’ innovate ideas are available in plenty. Therefore it is evident that if India has to attract these academicians, it will have to introduce a policy which will be attractive both in terms of pay package as well as in terms of intellectual freedom.

### **Indian Scenario in Education**

India as an emerging market economy has been recording a fairly fast rate of GDP growth of around 6% per annum. As against this, the developed countries are growing at a relatively lower rate of around 3% per annum. Therefore the demand for more investment in the education sector in India is growing.

At present there is a huge gap in the Gross Enrollment Ratio (GER) and the appointment of teaching faculty in the Indian Universities. At the end of the 10<sup>th</sup> plan, there were only 4.92 lakh faculty for 140 lakh students in the universities. India has the demographic advantage of a 'young' population. It is estimated that the GER of 18-24 age group will be 30% by 2020.(2010-12%) i.e.40 million students, an increase of 24 million.

At present in the HEIs 21% - 35% posts are vacant. The appointment of faculty has been increasing at a snails pace of 2.28% between 2005-2009. According to EDGE – 2011\* Report, GER has increased by 6.2% between 2005-2009.

The National Knowledge Commission estimates that there is an urgent need to set up at least 1,500 universities to take the GER to 15%. Therefore there is need for private participation in HEIs. The government has not allowed Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) in the education sector. But it has facilitated the entry of global universities like London School of Economics, Harvard etc., through training programmes and dual degree programmes. Therefore the 'Brain gain' momentum is increasing in the Indian Universities.\*Ernst & Young EDGE 2011 Report

### **Obstacles to Brain Gain**

In most of the Indian Universities 'knowledge' is not nurtured. There is more emphasis on 'dissemination' of knowledge rather than on 'creation' of knowledge. The compensation package offered to the academicians in the universities is incomparable. In India there is very little emphasis on research. It is a 'grey' area because in some subjects there is complete absence of research. Besides there is lack of research support both in terms of monetary support as well as infrastructure. There is no easy access to data base. I.T capability is poor and statistical information is not easily available. There is also no support of research assistants or access to companies and industries.

On account of government and bureaucracy, there is rigidity in the work place. There are too many rules and regulations which stifle the freedom of the academicians. As Dr.Prashant Kale, Associate Prof.of Strategic Management, Jones School of Business, Rice University and Fellow, Mack centre for Technology and Innovation, Wharton School states," the faculty abroad are involved in teaching just for 80 – 100 hours in a year. i.e., 15-16 days, rest of the time they devote to research. He is also of the opinion that the remuneration package for professors is not attractive enough, 100% - 200% rise in salaries for Professors has not taken place, in spite of 300% rise in the private sector.\*2Therefore there is an urgent need to create the right ambience if 'Brain gain' momentum has to be sustained.

### **Brain Gain Policy:-**

In a notification the MHRD states – "India is taking giant steps in the field of education and you can be a part of it"



The MHRD has realized that if 'young' India needs to consolidate then, ushering in new ideas in the education sector is necessary. According to the EDGE report 2011 by Ernst and Young the government plans to set up the Nalanda university and 14 other Innovation universities as centres of excellence (COE).

To man these universities they are now scouting for knowledge talent around the world. They will be offering them the right kind of incentives like attractive pay packages, complete autonomy, freedom in research and publication, in patenting and structuring the pedagogy.

They will provide good infrastructural facilities, research assistants, allow them the freedom to fix their remuneration and in general encourage the global talent to nurture new ideas and innovation.

The 'Brain gain' policy also will provide research endowment of Rs.200 cr. to each of the Innovation universities annually. There will also be no audit of the CAG so that bureaucratic interference will be absent. The researchers will be allowed to establish Chair of Studies to be occupied by professors of eminence.

In order to attract highly skilled knowledge workers they will be offered tenured services. They will also be provided with high quality life on the campus where the families will enjoy good housing facilities, schools, entertainment and leisure facilities.

One of the objectives of the policy is to attract academicians of Indian origin. Therefore the Ministry proposes to amend the Citizenship Act – 1955 and 2003. In fact in 2005 the persons of Indian origin (PIO) with foreign citizenship can opt for CIO – Citizenship of Indian origin which gives them lifelong visa to India. This will facilitate the academicians from abroad to visit India as 'visiting faculty' and perhaps in the long run migrate to India.

Much of the success of the 'Brain gain' policy will depend upon whether professors involved in 'path breaking' research in industry will be attracted to India or not. The policy hopes to attract eminent scientists, researchers, academicians, Nobel Prize winners to guide and promote these Innovation universities and help achieve world class standards. The entire framework of the policy shows that it is a far cry from the indifference that the government showed to eminent professors earlier. Dr. Sadanand Nanjundiah, Prof. of Physics at Central Connecticut State University, had thought of coming back to India in 1985. Accordingly he sought assistance from MHRD, GOI and Indian Embassy, in Washington. While the latter never responded, the former sent him a rude reply that 'India did not need services of people like him'.<sup>3</sup>To-day the MHRD has realized the importance of wooing the global talent, given the educational needs of a developing nation. In fact, in 2011, the then minister of HRD, Mr. Kapil Sibal in a special edition of MHRD newsletter brought out and the occasion

of Pravasi Bharatiya Diwas said, “ The knowledge sector in India needs the creative potential and the strategic vision of global talent, particularly those of Indian origin”  
\*4.

### **Incentives Offered by HEIs.**

In the 1970s or 1980s even when there was no clear policy to woo the best of the Indian academics, there were some who on their own preferred to come back and contribute in Nation building. Amongst them, Dr.Ashok Jhunjhunwala, the renowned professor at the Department of Electrical Engineering, (IIT –M) returned with a MS and Phd degree from the University of Maine.Around the same time, Dr.Sudhir Jain, Director IIT. Gandhinagar, returned with a Phd from CalTech to teach at IIT-Kanpur. He emphatically says “I have been an earthquake safety activist and of late an academic administrator. In both areas, India provided me with great opportunities to do things that gave me the greatest satisfaction. “\*5

To-day many more academics are ready to take the plunge. The various HEIs are welcoming them with open arms and with numerous attractive packages. Directors like Dr. Sudhir Jain, whenever they go abroad, make presentations to Indian graduates and post doctoral fellows in various universities like Harvard, Princeton, MIT, Stanford and CalTech at US, EPFL – Switzerland, NUS and NJU in Singapore, among others.

To help the return of the Indian Diaspora number of HEIs have various programmes. For instance, IIT Kharagpur appoints ‘magnet’ faculty to persuade the return of the academics. They also offer a research grant of Rs.10 cr, complete freedom, research assistance of PhD students and post doctoral follows.

IIT – Kozhikode have initiated a prize for best research paper and have a slew of fellowship programmes – Ramalingaswami Re-entry fellowship, Ramalingam fellowship programme of Rs.75000 fellowship and Rs.5 lakh research grant.

IIT – B has gone a step further and offer Rs.10 lakhs as seed grant, even before writing the research proposal. In addition to this, Rs.20 lakhs for equipment, patenting cost and protection of Intellectual property rights (IPR). They have also been establishing good rapport with industries for generating funds for research and development. So also they have been tapping government funds for relevant research in themes like healthcare, climate, aerospace etc.,

Dr.Rajan Banerjee, Dean of Research and Development explains how the monetary compensation is very attractive for research scholars at IIT – B. They are joining bonuses, supported by their alumni amounting to Rs.1 lakh per year, for the first 3 years as a top-up to the salary. Besides providing free housing, schooling for their children and medical facilities, the institute encourages the faculty to teach at universities abroad. The faculty are allowed to provide consultancy, where they are

allowed to keep 70 percent of the money they generate. If the products and processes are invented and commercialized then 70% of the licensing revenue are retained by the faculty. Infact Dr.Banerjee says, ‘the income of some of our faculty from consulting and licensing runs into several crores.’\*6

At the Indian School of Business (ISB) the researches are encouraged to publish in top-tier journals and give talks at seminars and conferences. The Institute pays for travel. This has attracted over 100 teaching faculty from various universities abroad to spend a term teaching and researching at the school. This is a win – win situation for both the faculty who can test the waters at the Institute and decide whether to return or not and for the students who get to interact with ‘global brains’ and exchange ideas.

In fact, in many of the HEIs, the academics are visiting faculty like in IIITs, IIMS, IIIT, Bangalore and ISB. Those who cannot visit use the distant mode of teaching. For instance, the alumni of the College of Engineering Pune, who are in faculty positions in the USA, help the institute by conducting courses through video-conferencing.

#### **UGC Programme:**

The UGC has introduced a unique programme called ‘operation faculty recharge’. It envisages that in the next 5 years it will try to induct highly talented candidates through global competitive selection. In its ‘Encore’ programme they have provided contingency grant of Rs.1 lakh to the NRI /PIOs plus Rs.80,000 per month salary. It also hopes to share revenues from intellectual property with the researchers.

The ultimate aim is to establish Centres of Excellence (COEs) .For instance at the Amity University, the faculty are attracted to do research in core subjects. It is believed that 30 Indian professors will be joining and will focus on their areas of interest.

#### **Conclusion:**

India has come a long way from the problems of brain drain. It needs to focus on a sustained policy of Brain Gain. This will encourage the education sector to become the sunrise sector of the economy. In the long run the best talent and the brightest brains will be nurtured who will help to increase development prospects of India and allow it to emerge as a strong global power.

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## **HUMAN MIGRATION AND DEVELOPMENT: SOME DIMENSIONS**

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### **Introduction:**

Human migration is physical movement by humans from one area to another, sometimes over long distances or in large groups. The movement of populations in modern times has continued under the form of both voluntary migration within one's region, country, or beyond, and involuntary migration (which includes the slave trade, Human traffic in human beings and ethnic cleansing). People who migrate are called migrants or more specifically, emigrants, immigrants, or settlers, depending on historical setting, circumstances and perspective.

Labour migration presents both challenges and opportunities in a globalized world today. At individual and household levels it provides major livelihood strategy for many people who may not find such outlet domestically. For the state migration provides possible tool to promote development and reduce poverty. As the scale, scope and complexity of the phenomenon has grown, states and other stakeholders have become aware of the challenges and opportunities with the growing realization that there are economic, social and cultural benefits to be realized and negative consequences are to be minimized.

Migration of people to other countries in search of employment has occurred all through history and it is by no means a new phenomenon. But the recent movement of labour on temporary basis, first to the inter regional and later within international, has certain distinctive features.

### **Objectives of the Study:**

- 1) To bring under sharp focus the importance of labour migration in an era of globalization.
- 2) To review the main features and types of labour migration.
- 3) To assess the gains from labour migration from developed to developing countries.
- 4) To examine the root causes and its effects on developing economy.

### **Meaning and Nature of Human Migration:**

An international migrant worker is defined by the 1990 United Nations (UN) International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of their Families as: ***“a person, who is to be engaged, is engaged or has been engaged in remunerated activity in a State of which he or she is not a national.”***

*Migration is the crossing of the boundary of a political or administrative unit for a certain minimum period of time. It includes the movement of refugees, displaced persons, uprooted people as well as economic migrants.*

*Labour migration is generally defined as a cross-border movement for purposes of employment in a foreign country.*

However, there is no universally accepted definition of labour migration. The term **“economic migrant”** is sometimes used as an equivalent to the term **labour migrant** or migrant worker. However, the two concepts may cover different categories. The term “labour migrant” can be used restrictively to only cover movement for the purpose of employment, while “economic migrant” can be used either in a narrow sense, which includes only movement for the purpose of employment, or in a broader sense that includes persons entering a State to perform other types of economic activities such as investors or business travelers. Classification of labour migration is usually based on the duration of activities, as well as on the distinctions made by receiving countries in their regulatory framework where conditions of admission and stay are established. Depending on the category, procedures of admission can be more or less cumbersome and conditions of stay more or less generous. Persons entering a country for job training are included in some labour migration classifications but excluded from others. Although the purpose of a trainee’s movement is not employment, some consider that these schemes should be included; because they are employment- based and can have important labour market implications.

1. International instruments such as the UN and International Labour Organization (ILO) Conventions use different definitions: According to the United Nations Convention on the Protection of the Rights of all Migrant Workers and Members of their Families, a migrant worker is a person who is to be engaged, is engaged, or has been engaged in a remunerated activity in a State of which he or she is not a citizen. A “migrant worker” is defined in the ILO instruments as a person who migrates from one country to another (or who has migrated from one country to another) with a view to being employed otherwise than on his own account, and includes any person regularly admitted as a migrant for employment. While in the United Nations Convention on the Protection of the Rights of all Migrant Workers and Members of their Families self-employed workers are included, they are not covered by the ILO instruments related to migrant workers’ protection.

2. The concept and definition of labour migration often reflects current national policy perspectives and varies between countries and over time. One reason for confusion about who falls under the category of “migrant worker” results from ambiguous definitions of “employment” or “remunerated activity” in the receiving country.
3. The United Nations Convention on the Protection of the Rights of all Migrant Workers and Members of their Families simply refers to remunerated activity in a foreign country without specifying the source of remuneration. However, more restrictive stipulations are sometimes used. For example, the 1997 UN World Population Report states that the activities must be remunerated within the host country. This effectively excludes business visitors, treaty traders, or seconded foreign workers who continue to be paid in their country of origin.
4. The General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS) does not consider the movement of service providers as labour migration. The distinction made in this international agreement is based on the fact that service providers do not compete for jobs in the labour market and do not hold a worker employer relationship with the service importer in the receiving countries. Indeed, their relations are defined not by an employment contract but by a contract to deliver specific services.

#### **Facts and Features of Human Migration:**

1. Over the 45 years, the number of persons living outside their country of birth has more than doubled from an estimated 75 million in 1960 to nearly 191 million in 2006.
2. Roughly 90 million of this figure constitutes migrant workers.
3. Migration has fast become a global issue. No one country on its own can deal with the challenges migration poses. Cooperation among states is essential
4. Female labour migrants constitute almost half of the total migrant stock at the world level.
5. According to the World Bank remittance flows to developing countries were estimated to reach \$ 283 billion in 2008.
6. Labour Migration linked to globalization policy – trade, communication and provision of services.

India’s focus is on skilled migration, whereas Sri Lanka’s female labourers constitute the bulk of those going abroad for work. Migrant labourers from Pakistan and Bangladesh are essentially unskilled workers, as it is the case from Nepal, which was relatively a late entrant in this kind of a labour market. The average age of migrants is between 20-35 years, which represents the most productive age group of workers.

A major challenge facing the region is the demographic change that is taking place where one-third of the people are below the age of 20 years. The next 15-20 years will be critical due to the ‘youth bulge’ (ages 15-24) that are becoming evident in the region. This is a ‘volatile’ age group, which will decline in numbers only after 2020. World history shows that when country’s population of youth goes up by 17% there is always political instability of one kind or the other.

Globally women comprise about half of the total migrant workers. The contribution of women to the migrant labour force is an issue that has been largely overlooked / neglected in the region. In some developing countries, like Sri Lanka, female migrant workers out-number male migrant workers by at least two-to-one. Poverty is usually the main, though not the sole cause for migration of women.

Recent trends suggests that women workers going abroad will increase in the future, despite the ban on women labourers going abroad from Nepal and Bangladesh. Women migrants who go to work abroad from countries where restrictions exist usually face 'double jeopardy' in terms of violation of their labour rights both within the **sending** and **receiving** countries. Sending countries usually treat them as irregular migrants and they are therefore unrecognized as a labour force and remain unprotected; while in the receiving countries they are denied their labour rights in the absence of multilateral / bilateral labour agreements. As irregular migrants those women end up paying more than men for going abroad since they need to rely more on unlicensed brokers and pay excesses to other unscrupulous elements to circumvent official regulations in the sending and transit countries.

The labour market is not static and indigenization takes place on a regular basis. Given the fluid nature of the labour market, sending countries need to monitor the developments and take appropriate measure if they are to gain from labour migration. In 2001-2002, Nepali labourers were only accepted by Malaysia and South Korea after Bangladeshi labourers were rejected. Although the shift in policy opened new opportunities for Nepali workers, it closed the door for migrant labourers from Bangladesh. Similarly, Iraq was one of the major labour absorbing market for Pakistan manpower up to 1990, but due to sanctions imposed on Iraq after the first Gulf War the labour market has never picked up to that level again.

The Government of UAE has adopted a policy that if the original visas is for Asian worker, the company can replace him with an Arab, but if it is originally issued for an Arab it cannot be given to a non-Arab but only to an Arab. The UAE has also adopted new visa policies that requires foreign workers to have at least matriculated/High School education, which would affect a significant portion of the unskilled labour force from South Asia. And Saudi Arabia has imposed restriction visas for foreign limousine/taxi drivers in favor of local citizens, and the policy will soon extend to barbers and tailors.

### **Types of Human Migration:**

In December 2003, **The Global Commission on International Migration (GCIM)** was launched with the support of Secretary-General of the United Nations Kofi Annan and several countries, with an independent 19-member Commission, a threefold mandate and a finite life-span ending December 2005. Its report, based on regional consultation meetings with stakeholders and scientific reports from leading

international migration experts, was published and presented to Kofi Annan on 5 October 2005.

For countries of origin, in addition to the possibility of providing some relief from unemployment and absorbing an increase in the labour force, it can provide a form of developmental support, especially through remittances, transfer of know-how, and creation of business and trade networks. For receiving countries facing labour shortages, immigration can alleviate labour scarcity, facilitate occupational mobility, and add to the human capital stock of the receiving countries.

**Some of the major types of migration are:-**

- a. Internal Migration and International Migration**
- b. Legal and Illegal Migration**
- c. Regular and Irregular Migration**
- d. Temporary and Permanent Migration**
- e. Skilled and Unskilled Migration**
- f. Voluntary and Forced Migration**

**Causes of Human Migration:**

This is a complex issue, which cannot be generalized easily. The traditional explanation of migration as a movement from poor to rich nations is too simplified. There are both economic and non-economic factors affecting these flows. We shall mention a few here.

While the liberalization of international flows of goods, capital, and information is well underway, progress toward the freer movement of persons is harder to achieve. Indeed, the impact of migration on countries of origin and destination is more controversial, and States are more concerned about losing their sovereignty in this matter. Differences in employment opportunities and living standards between countries increased education and broader access to information on living conditions and employment opportunities abroad established inter-country networks based on family, culture, and history. On the demand side, changing demographics and labour market needs in many industrialized countries will put pressure on many governments to consider more open approaches to labour migration.

Labor migration may have enormous potential for countries at both ends of the migration spectrum. For countries of origin, in addition to the possibility of providing some relief from unemployment and absorbing an increase in the labour force, it can provide a form of developmental support, especially through remittances, transfer of know-how, and creation of business and trade networks. For receiving countries facing labour shortages, immigration can alleviate labour scarcity, facilitate occupational mobility, and add to the human capital stock of the receiving countries. In the context of demographic changes, labour migration can help receiving countries to maintain workforce levels.



The pull from higher wages in receiving countries. High levels of unemployment and poverty in source countries act as a push factor in the decision to emigrate. The economic disparities among groups of Asian countries have been cited as a major factor in this connection with per capita incomes ranging from a low of US\$ 200 in the poorest countries to around US\$35-40,000 in the advanced countries. For instance, Japan, the Republic of Korea, the Taiwan province of China, Singapore and Hong Kong SAR had record growth during the 1970s and 1980s leading to what has been described as 'the East Asian economic miracle'. These countries have achieved more or less full-employment in different stages.

Networks of friends and relatives already working in destination countries serve as sources of information and anchor communities for newcomers.

Some are interested in visiting other lands from a sense of adventure or for exploration and the emerging demand for labour may provide the required opportunity.

Fleeing from persecution and armed conflict. As a safety valve for domestic unemployment and aspirations of educated workers for higher wages.

Some countries have targets for labour emigration. For example, Indonesia in its Five-Year Plans has generally included targets for sending workers overseas. Following the economic crisis of 1997, Thailand announced sending 250,000 workers abroad as one of the emergency unemployment relief measures. Given the magnitude of unemployment in some sending countries, it is unlikely that emigration of national workers has really produced much relief at home except perhaps for small Pacific Island economies.

This is the major benefit received by labour sending countries. In the early eighties, remittances contributed significantly to the balance of payments of countries such as Pakistan and Sri Lanka. The ILO has stated: "Migrant workers send remittances to their home countries of US\$ 73 billion every year, usually from relatively modest earnings. Migrant worker remittances represent the second biggest international monetary trade flow, exceeded only by petroleum exports. For many countries, remittances represent greater sources of foreign exchange than total foreign direct investment or foreign aid.

There is no clear evidence that this is a major factor in the decision to promote migration of national workers. ILO research has shown that the evidence on the actual extent of skill acquisition and the relevance of such skills to the local situation are not clear. Trainee schemes are being used by countries such as the Republic of Korea and Japan to hire migrant workers from Asian countries. Yet research in Korea has shown that these schemes are in reality disguised cheap labour mechanisms

In a number of cases, the migrants have no choice. They may simply be forced out because of armed conflict, persecution at home or environmental degradation. The large inflow of migrants from Myanmar to Thailand and from Afghanistan to Pakistan, are examples of dislocations caused by armed conflict and suppression of ethnic groups.

Demographic changes in fast growing economies have created serious labour shortages. Globalization is a major driving force of international labour migration.

### **Gains from Human Migration:**

We live in a liberal world where markets are allowed to work. There are free flows internationally of manufactured goods and services, free flows of technology and intellectual property rights, and free flows of capital. Yet the flow of labor is severely restricted, and the rich countries are becoming not more liberal but less liberal.

This makes no economic sense at all. Greater international labor mobility - particularly of low-skilled labor - would benefit everyone, host countries and sending countries alike.

1. It would raise total output and incomes in the rich, host countries;
2. It would increase efficiency in the use of the world's resources all around, in rich and poor countries;
3. It would increase the supply of entrepreneurship and reinvigorate the sclerotic economies of Western Europe and Japan and help to sustain growth in North America;
4. It would stimulate the creation of small business;
5. It would increase savings, investment, and human capital formation in the rich countries;
6. It would accelerate the pace of innovation;
7. It would increase the flow of remittances to poor countries;
8. Accelerating the growth of per capita income in both groups of countries. E.g. Think of the growth of Western Europe in the 1960s, the growth in the Middle East in the 1970s and, for that matter, the growth in the United States in the late 19th and early 20th centuries. All of these periods of rapid growth were fueled by large-scale immigration.
9. Finally, for those of you who are worried about social security entitlements in your old age, immigration will alleviate the economic problems associated with the aging population in rich countries.

The pull from higher wages in receiving countries is the basic cause. High levels of unemployment and poverty in source countries act as a push factor in the decision to emigrate. The economic disparities among groups of Asian countries have been cited as a major factor in this connection with per capita incomes ranging from a low of US\$ 200 in the poorest countries to around US\$35-40,000 in the advanced countries. For instance, Japan, the Republic of Korea, the Taiwan province of China, Singapore

and Hong Kong had record growth during the 1970s and 1980s leading to what has been described as 'the East Asian economic miracle.

These countries have achieved more or less full-employment in different stages. Lured by friends and relatives and social networks, Networks of friends and relatives already working in destination countries serve as sources of information and anchor communities for newcomers. In search of adventure, exploration, curiosity some are interested in visiting other lands from a sense of adventure or for exploration and the emerging demand for labour may provide the required opportunity.

In a number of cases, the migrants have no choice. They may simply be forced out because of armed conflict, persecution at home or environmental degradation. The large inflow of migrants from Myanmar to Thailand and from Afghanistan to Pakistan, are examples of dislocations caused by armed conflict and suppression of ethnic groups.

### **Effects of Human Migration:**

The effects of labour migration varies from country to country. Economic migration can have different effects resulting from the volume, composition, and Characteristics of the migratory flows as well as the context in which the flows take place. Effects will also vary depending on the skill level, geographical source, employment situation, age, and gender of the migrants. Other variables are the duration of stay, the organized or spontaneous nature of the movements, their legal or irregular character as well as the stages of development, and the demographic and labour market conditions in both sending and receiving countries.

For countries of origin, in addition to the possibility of providing some relief from unemployment and absorbing an increase in the labour force, it can provide a form of developmental support, especially through remittances, transfer of know-how, and creation of business and trade networks.

For receiving countries facing labour shortages, immigration can alleviate labour scarcity, facilitate occupational mobility, and add to the human capital stock of the receiving countries.

Migrant workers increase the crime rates in host countries and bring various diseases. Migrant workers steal jobs from the local population.

### **Problems of Human Migration:**

Migrant workers are often subjected to neglect, harassment and violation of rights both in the sending and receiving countries since sending states are reluctant to take up the issue seriously for fear of loss of labour market. Inadequate investment by these states to develop institutional structures to look after the welfare of migrant workers and establish effective regulatory framework to check corruptions and exploitations often makes it appear like the states are acting like freeloaders at the cost of the migrant workers who invest their own resources to bring in so much financial benefits and their newly acquired skills to the region. In the receiving countries,

embassies of the South Asian countries are not proactive enough to deal with the problems faced by migrant labourers and in most cases these embassies are till equipped to handle complaints due to lack of adequate manpower and resources from their home countries.

The real issue is the transparency and accountability in the sending country itself. South Asian countries do not rate very high on the governance scale, and where corruption is concerned there is usually a nexus between bureaucracy and politicians since they are often in collusion to exploit the process for their personal benefit. In Nepal, government officials these days want to go to the Department of Labour than to the Customs Department as it now a most sought after place of employment as there is money to be made from the innocent labourers waiting to go abroad. This example may not be an exception, but the general rule in many South Asian countries.

The violations of rights of migrant labourers start at home by agents and recruitment agencies in the sending and these continue in the receiving countries. As most of the migrant workers come from rural areas these people have very little access to and knowledge of pre-departure information. They have to rely on informal agents without official designation, who often operate without the best of intentions. The lack of adequate information and inadequate knowledge of money transaction, customs and culture often leave migrant workers in a quandary in the country of destination. Some of the common problems faced by them include: seizure of personal documents; contract substitution or irregular job placement that leaves them employed in a job they are least suited; deteriorating wage rates and work conditions that may lead to workers facing non-payment, or irregular payment, or lack of payment for overtime, work without holidays, lack of health care, and poor accommodations.

The question of access to justice system of migrant workers is a matter of serious concern. In the whole discourse on labour migration, an UNIFEM study on Nepal found that the rights based approach was missing and women, in particular, were looked upon as sexual symbols. Amazingly it was found 67 percent of the decision makers admit that they don't have knowledge of migrant workers, not just women. This may be the common scenario of the South Asian justice system as well.

The use of terminology for protection of migrant workers is very tricky, especially when it comes to women migrant workers. In some countries, the concept of protection has been used to bar the women from going out to seek meaningful employment. Crucial distinction is often not made between protecting the migrant women workers and migrant

Women's right of employment and choice of profession. In the past, the NGOs in Bangladesh concentrated too much on trafficking and didn't give adequate attention on the women's right to migrate. This is a long-drawn struggle with governments and

NGOs in the region. The migration discourse that was camouflaged with trafficking discourse is something that has been overcome in Bangladesh and the same can be done in other South Asian countries as well. In Bangladesh, whoever was going as a labour migrant were treated as trafficking person, with the women migrants suffering the consequences. When the men migrants faced problem, it was seen as a labour rights violation. When a woman faced problem, it was seen as a trafficking problem. The dichotomy that 'men migrate and women traffic' has to be broken in the mindset of people when dealing with migration.

Additionally, as far as women migration is concerned, the line between migration and trafficking has been blurred, especially for the poor people. The hope of coming out of poverty is so strong that families even ask the girls to go abroad without even without knowing where they are going or what they will be doing.

The migrant workers do not have any mechanisms to protect their interest in the receiving countries since there is no scope for bargaining between employer and employee, including the right to form unions. These are some basic right established in the 1990. They are some of the ideals that should go into workers protection. And upon return hardly any of the South Asian states have made preparation for rehabilitation of the workers. There is also an absence of access to information and credit so that the money they bring can be put to good use.

### **Policy Implications and Options:**

The preceding analysis has shown that Asian countries have a long way to go to ensure adequate protection to migrant workers who are contributing in a major way to the economic development and prosperity in the region. The basic elements of a policy agenda towards this end are outlined below.

Management of migration flows is crucial because international labour migration is likely to increase in the future. There is general agreement that migration in the future is likely to increase rather than decrease and it should not be thought of as a transient or temporary phenomenon. Therefore, labour-receiving countries should attempt to formulate a suitable migration policy based on longer run considerations of their labour market needs and basic human rights of migrant workers rather than on ad hoc decisions. Incentives and taxes may be levied on enterprises to discourage the perpetuation of low productive non-competitive industries based on cheap unskilled foreign workers. At the same time, migrant-sending countries should attempt to reduce undue dependence on overseas employment through efforts to reduce emigration pressures at home. In this regard, ILO has developed detailed guidelines for formulation of migration policies for labour-sending and -receiving countries.

Given the international nature of migration processes, it is imperative to pursue bilateral and regional consultations. Orderly migration policies consistent with the basic rights of migrant workers are possible only when there is cooperation between sending and receiving countries. Yet labour-receiving countries in the region have

shown a high degree of aversion to formulation of bilateral agreements to obtain labour or provide social security to foreign workers. The Bangkok Symposium on Irregular/Undocumented Migration, which called for a regional mechanism is an encouraging step in this context, although much more work remains to be done on evolving such a mechanism.

The Asia-Pacific Consultations and the Manila Process – both sponsored by the International Organization for Migration – are important consultative processes among governments in the region. It would be necessary to make them more transparent and to include other actors such as employers, workers and civil society organizations in them. The countries in the region can draw upon international good practices in Western Europe with guest worker schemes to identify suitable policies and practices.

It is imperative that countries should ensure the **basic human rights** of all migrant workers, whatever their legal status. These are protected by fundamental human rights instruments of the UN including the Universal Declaration of Human Rights even if countries have not ratified the migrant-specific Conventions.

Migration policy consistent with worker rights and human dignity Therefore priority consideration should be given to supporting and ratifying ILO and UN Conventions or enacting legislation consistent with the spirit and letter of these instruments. At the same time, more effective regulation of the recruitment industry is needed to prevent malpractices and other abuses. Governments should also simplify procedures and regulations to facilitate migration.

National and international NGOs already play an important role in providing protection and redress to migrant workers, especially women workers, in receiving countries but the role of social partners has been limited. I have already discussed in detail the role of trade unions in this respect in section 5.4. While regional consultations and networking can obviously help, it is at the national level that trade unions have to actively support migrant workers and promote their rights. At the same time, formation of migrant associations should be encouraged. There are several organizations of female domestic workers in Hong Kong (China).

Trade unions should actively lease with them for effective support. Employers also need to share social responsibility for the plight of migrant workers, and provide them equal treatment in respect of pay and working conditions. Employers' organisations can also exert pressure on the recruitment industry and employers of foreign workers to prevent abuses. Networking among employers' and workers' organisations in sending and receiving countries should be attempted.

Public information campaigns on the risks and dangers of irregular migration and the phenomenon of migrant trafficking and related abuses should be launched as a

preventive measure. Asian countries can coordinate information networking to generate better information on all aspects of migration, both documented and irregular. Trade unions can play an important role in this context.

### **Conclusions:**

It is commonly recognized that governments require an appropriate knowledge base to effectively manage migration. It is also acknowledged that is particularly so in the area of labour migration. However, to be fully productive and meaningful, these national efforts need to be complemented by broader regional and global endeavors with the support of appropriate international bodies to promote labour Migration Policies.

Micro level case studies indicate high levels of rural urban migration among females for reasons of employment. Secondary data analysis though indicative of this trend does not help us to arrive at the magnitude of such migration. Moreover, unlike in earlier years where male selective migration was predominant, the latest trend is one of family migration where both the male and female migrate, irrespective of the fact whether female employment opportunity is reckoned or not at the time of making a move. But women's labour force participation after migration steeply increases and this is evident from the NSSO 55<sup>th</sup> round data

In view of rising urban-ward migration and increased labour force participation of women after migration, questions related to sanitation, water, housing, educational and infrastructural needs require greater attention at the level of policy planning and implementation. Since women are a highly heterogeneous group migration among females should not only be understood as a poverty reducing strategy but also as a strategy of economic diversification upward mobility and desire for personal growth and autonomy. Micro level case studies are warranted to understand the intricacies involved in female migration.

Globalization has made migration much easier through better communications, dissemination of information through mass media and improved transport, among others. It is the increasing trade and investment flows in the Asian region, which facilitated interest and awareness in migration to such countries as Japan, the Republic of Korea and the Taiwan province of China, Thailand and India.

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## **MGNREGA AND RURAL-URBAN MIGRATION IN INDIA**

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### **Introduction**

Mahatma Gandhi Rural Employment Guarantee Act (MGNREGA) though notified on 7 September, 2005 was implemented in all the rural districts of India in April 2008. It is the biggest employment providing Programme ever started in a country for the development of its rural areas. It aims at providing 100 days of guaranteed wage employment in a financial year to every rural household whose adult members volunteer to undertake from the earlier employment Programmes launched by the Government of India. This scheme is on one hand demand driven and on the other treats employment as a right of the rural household. Thus the scheme provides incomes directly to the unskilled workers in the rural areas. The MGNREGAS has shown a significant improvement associated consistently the number days for which



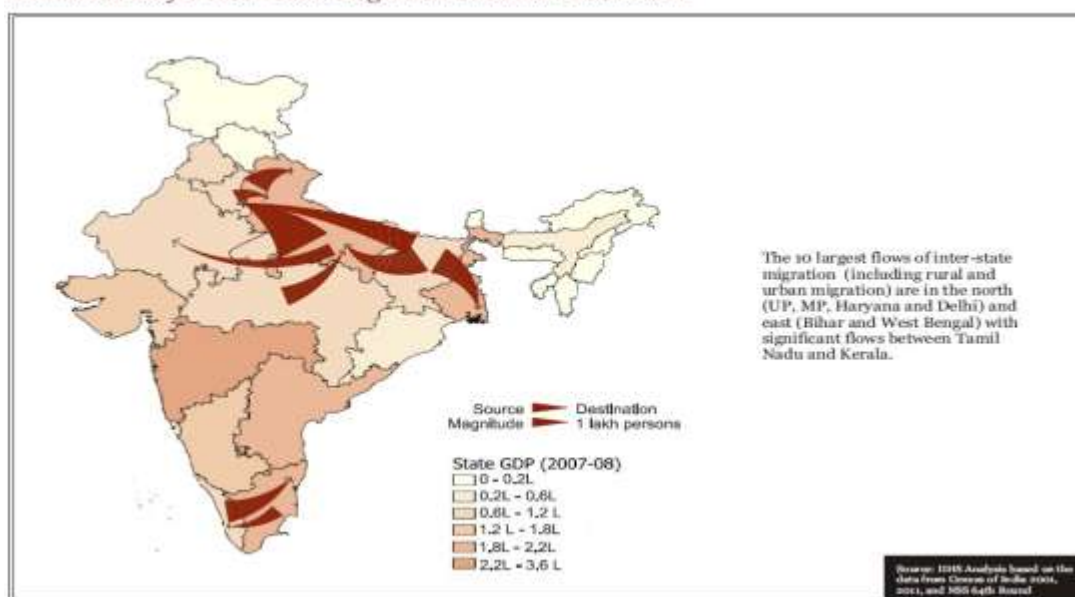
employment has been provided have also increased participation of women in it. It not only provide employment to them but by giving wage rate equal to that of a man, it has empowered the women economically as well as socially. Tamil Nadu is the first state to employ mentally ill women under the scheme which offers jobs for one member of every family in a village for 100 days a year at a minimum wage of Rs 100 a day.

Historically, information on migration has been collected since 1872. It was confined to seeking information only on place of birth till 1961. For the landless and marginal farmers who are in constant debt, migration is the only choice for livelihood. Though the migrants and their households might benefit individually, it is seen that this individual benefit occurs at the cost of net loss to both rural and urban areas and a decline in social welfare through overcrowding and increased population in urban destination areas and a greater regional concentration of wealth, income and human capital. Traditionally agriculture and related cottage industries were the only major profession in the rural areas. These professions could not absorb the ever increasing population in the rural areas.

### **Rural – Urban Migration**

As Migration as a negative force, focusing on distress migration which is what happens when people have to go to cities to find work because they cannot survive on what they can earn in their own villages. Rural Urban migration is a response to diverse economic opportunities across space However many urban problems like overburdened infrastructure, urban poverty and crime, have been blamed on this ‘rural spill over’. It also allows households to retain access to government services that are based on resident criteria such as subsidized food healthcare and education. The workers seem to prefer temporary or seasonal migration because firstly they do not have the connection to settle down in an urban area, where rent would be very high and the area itself would be quite unfamiliar and secondly if they permanently shift to the slums, they face a high risk because there is no guarantee that they will be employed throughout the year, because they participate in the informal sector. Wage Employment Programmes an important component of the anti poverty strategy have sought to achieve multiple objectives. They not only provide employment opportunities during lean agricultural seasons but also in time of floods, drought and other natural calamities. They create rural infrastructure which support further economic activity. On the basis of a large sample survey in Bihar, kerala and Uttar Pradesh, that in all the urban areas of the three states, female migrants work participation rates are generally higher among Christians and Schedule castes/ Tribe whether married or unmarried and availability of high productivity jobs in the rural areas could reduce in migration to the urban areas. It is widely accepted that people move in search of employment and also from low wage to higher wage region – a rational choice to be able to earn more and improve their standard of living.

Estimated Major Inter-State Migration Streams : 2001-2011



### **Research Objective of the Study**

- To Study the labour Migration in India
- To Identify that MGNREGA is an alternative to migration.
- To Examine the relation between Migration and Education.
- To Find out the Impact of Migration on Agriculture.

### **Research Methodology**

- This study is mainly based on primary and Secondary source. The Secondary data is obtained from books and reports on migration and rural Development.
- Gather data from the Government about MGNREGA income approximate migration data[It is an approximation because migration is not really documented well in India even in the Census]
- Conduct a survey of MGNREGA workers in the region at the active worksites.
- Use the Survey as a verification of the Government data.

### **Labour Migration in India**

Labour migration seldom involves the migrant alone. The decision to migrate is often taken within the household, with consideration of wider family and or community context. The stereotype of the individual male labour migrant is somewhat misleading in the context of India a considerable proportion of migrants are women and many migrant take their families with them. In general it is not the poorest of the poor who migrate. Migration requires capital to cover the costs of the Journey and potential unforeseen problems along the way or during the stay social networks for example knowing the employer or people in the area of destination and access to information especially work opportunities. The meaning of labour migration in India as well as its drivers vary from place to place and from migrant to migrant, it is very difficult and

often problematic to generate. Nevertheless it has increasingly been considered an important development issue in the country as shows the recent setting up of the Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act. Among the migrant in the rural areas, nearly 91 percent have migrated from the rural areas and 8 percent have migrated from the urban areas, whereas among the migrants in the urban areas, nearly 59 percent migrated from the rural areas and 40 percent from urban areas. The reason for migration for male migrant was dominated by employment related reasons, in both rural and urban areas. Nearly 29 percent of rural male migrants and 56 percent of urban male migrants have migrated due to employment related reasons. A higher percentage of the persons were found to be engaged in economic activities after migration; for males the percentage of workers have increased from 51 percent before migration to 63 percent after migration in rural areas while for females, it has increased from 20 percent to 33 percent in rural areas. For rural males, self-employment has emerged as main recourse to employment after migration. The share of self employment in total migrants have increased from 16 percent before migration to 27 percent after migration while the share of regular employees and casual labour remained almost stable in both before and after migration.

### **MGNREGA is an Alternative to Migration**

One of the significant objectives of the MGNREGA is to arrest out- migration of unskilled landless labour force from the rural areas to urban areas by ensuring up to 100 days of wage employment within their native jurisdiction so that these guaranteed wage employment can be judiciously and rationally utilized by the landless peasants during lean and distress seasons. As far as possible the work site is to be within a five Km radius of the applicant's village. In case it is not it must be provided within the Block and the labourers must be paid 10 percent of their wages as extra wages to meet the additional travel and living expenses MGNREGA too could become a predictable source of local employment and therefore reduces distress migration. In this respect MGNREGA contrasts with previous employment programmes such as Jawahar Rozgar Yojana or Sampoorna Grameen Rozgar Yojana MGNREGA will have significant positive impact on seasonal rural-urban migration by providing rural workers with employment during the lean season. The lack of exact official data on migration is a matter that should be corrected as soon as possible as it is quite important to quantify this as accurately as possible as rural-urban migration can become quite a problem for both the source and destination areas.

### **Relation Between Migration and Education**

The villagers tend to migrate along with their families hoping that they might be able to employ their children in cities. This is not only exposing the children to the hazards of child labor but also leading to children dropping out of school during the academic year which shows the how migration was directly connected to lack of education for children. People did say that if there were residential schools for 10 – 14 year old children then more parent would keep their children in school. It was found that some of the villagers spent their MGNREGA income to improve the quality of education of

their wards by paying the admission fee, purchasing books, providing tuitions, buying of school uniform, bicycle etc. Due to the construction of a connecting road children got better connectivity to go to school by bicycle or on foot and now children are more regular in terms of attending the school. There is a clear tendency of using the additional wage income for the education of children, It builds a case of inherent demand for children's better education Most of the MGNREGA benefited families utilized their income for accessing children's education or supplementing with additional facilities to improve the quality of education.

### **Impact of Migration on Agriculture**

The MGNREGA income in wages has two dimension. The families owning small agricultural land which is insufficient to generate food security for the whole of the year or create additional surplus of cash to meet other basis needs, families are supplementing agricultural income with wage income of MGNREGA. There are large numbers of small land holding families having low agricultural produce; MGNREGA income provides a significant value addition to meet their higher order needs critical for their survival or growth and development of their family. There are families who are completely landless and depend on wage labour look for work in agriculture sector or civil works. In the off season of agriculture sector or civil works. In the offseason of agriculture, such families migrate to towns. Civil works opened up in village have given them option to earn in the village even if the wage rates are lower in the MGNREGA civil works. Even if the younger family members migrate as skilled laborers, middle aged unskilled family members prefer to stay in the village and work under MGNREGA. This apart the guaranteed employment under MGNREGA has restrained the usual seasonal labour migration which had become the mainstay of farming in agriculturally progressive but labour starved states. This has caused acute shortage of labor for agriculture affecting plantations in the southern states, notably Kerala, Punjab and the cultivation of labor intensive crops like rice wheat and sugarcane. The farmers are forced to incur additional expenses for using machines and energy for doing farm operations which were earlier performed manually by migratory labour at far lower costs.

### **Conclusion**

Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Programme (MGNREGP) in India that was launched in the year 2005 as a social security measure aimed at providing employment security to the poor in villages. The MGNREGA was also meant to use this labour to construct rural infrastructure that is clearly wanting in India. The National Rural Employment Guarantee Act guarantee 100 days of work to all households. The aspect of MGNREGA where it can be used to curb rural- urban migration is conditional on that it is being implemented well in that region, otherwise if work is not supplied if wages aren't paid on time and if money is just being siphoned off , then workers will have no incentive to stop migration. However it should be clear that the primary aim of the Act is to provide welfare for the section of the population that does not even earn the minimum wage – the fact that it can also

curb distress migration is just a positive secondary impact of the Act. Therefore if it can be used to curb rural – urban migration then it will be yet another benefit from this Act, which can actually do something concrete in poverty alleviation and rural development in the long run.

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### **INDIAN MIGRATION: BRAIN DRAIN VERSUS BRAIN GAIN**

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#### **Introduction**

The numbers of Indian migrants, especially highly-skilled migrants, have increased considerably in our globalized world. The departure abroad of a large number of well-trained Indians naturally has led to concerns about “BRAIN DRAIN” in India. In 2010, India with an estimated stock of 11.4 million emigrants was the second emigration country in the world, behind Mexico (11.9 million) in absolute terms; India is among the countries which lose most highly-skilled workers to foreign markets. In 2000, India was, for example, the first sending country of physicians with 57,383 or 9.9% of the total number of physicians trained in the country going abroad (Bhargava, Docquier, and Moullan 2010). India and the Philippines supply most foreign-trained doctors and nurses to the OECD, notably to English-speaking countries.

The emigration of health professionals has negative effects on India, especially in rural areas where the density of doctors is lower than in urban areas. Despite increasing internal demand, India still has a very low density of doctors (0.6 per thousand people in 2004) compared with 3 in the US and in Canada. Compared with other large origin countries, India records higher expatriation rate of doctors: 8%; while the expatriation rate of, say, Chinese doctors is about 1%. This does not prevent, of course, India from having a large and powerful modern health sector; as in other countries, the migration of health professionals may coexist with a dynamic urban sector and the inequitable social distribution of medical resources at the country level.

However, in spite of the high number of Indian specialists going abroad, the problem of brain drain is not a generalized phenomenon in India because only a few sectors deal with its negative consequences. One of the most affected sectors is genetic engineering and biotechnology which copes with shortages of junior staff, as approximately 90% of post-graduates in this field go to the US after the completion of their studies in India.

### **Indian Migration Flows**

The geographical distribution of Indian migrant destination countries is defined by the level of qualification. The migration flows of the highly-skilled are oriented towards traditional Indian destinations, namely: the US, Canada, UK and more recently toward non-English speaking EU countries. This wave was accelerated by Indian integration into the world economy.

Semi-skilled and unskilled Indian workers are predominantly concentrated in the high-income countries of the Gulf Cooperation Council. These migrants have also been viewed for a long time as key providers of remittances. In 2009, enrolment in higher education in India was only 16% compared to 89% in the United States, 55% in France and 24% in China. Despite the low rate of enrolment in higher education, in absolute terms, India is the third largest higher-education system in the world, behind only the United States and China. Higher education in India evolved considerably after independence in terms of the number of universities as well as in terms of access to higher education. Nowadays, the number of universities in India has grown some 35 times comparing to 500 colleges and 20 universities before independence which are enrolling more than 11 million students, more than 10 times before independence. Before independence education was limited and elitist: the current system is though more open with from 30-40% of enrolments from coming from the lower castes, and with women representing some 35% of the total number of students.

### **Indians in the Context of a Knowledge Economy India is “Brain” Reservoir in the New Economy**

The growth in knowledge intensive activities in the developed world has led to a growing demand for S&E professionals. With an important reserve of trained people

in this domain, India is becoming a major supplier of human capital for the advanced economies. India is sending large numbers of these specialists compared to other important origin countries. A relevant example is the number of Indian students in science and engineering enrolled in US undergraduate degree programs. India, China, and South Korea are the top countries of origin for foreign students in the United States in science and engineering: India with 68,000 students in 2009 accounts for the largest number of foreign students here, followed by China with 54 000 students. Together these countries account for almost 47% of all foreign science and engineering student enrolled in U.S universities Germany is also recruiting foreign students from India, notably in engineering and computer sciences. The United States remain the most important host country of highly-skilled Indian migrants with more than 80% of Indian skilled migration to all developed countries. In the host countries, Indian migrants are among the best educated and highest-earning groups.

### **Indian Students: An Important Source of Labour for Developed Economies**

An important place in the flows of well-trained Indian migrants is taken by Indian students. India, for example, accounts for 5.5% of the 2.8 million students studying outside their home-country. After China (421,100), the country sends the greatest number of students abroad: 153,300. In 2009, the EU-27 hosted 1.6 million foreign students in tertiary education.<sup>13</sup> 53,930 were Indian citizens. The first destination was the UK (42,406) followed by Germany (3,629), Cyprus (1,588) and France (1,252) According to the table below, in 2009, India was behind only China in sending students in the EU-27. The other two main countries of origin were Morocco with 44,800 students and the United States with 32,100 students. Nigeria and Brazil, the two non-Asian big demographic pools send only, respectively half and one third of India's numbers.

**Table: 1 Main countries of origin of non-national students in the EU member states**

<b>Foreign students in EU-27 (In Thousands)</b>	<b>2006</b>	<b>2007</b>	<b>2008</b>	<b>2009</b>	<b>Total</b>
Europe	38380	56630	59960	60814	65330
Africa	13420	24130	24600	24200	25300
Morocco	3820	4790	4630	4420	4480
Algeria	1490	2320	2180	2020	2070
Nigeria	350	1930	2200	2330	2750
Asia	18300	37610	40550	41350	45930
China	1860	11350	11750	11580	12360
India	660	3310	3930	4310	5390
Japan	1070	1270	1240	1050	1030
America	6300	11040	12160	12430	14110
USA	2270	2980	3220	3080	3210
Canada	580	1010	1080	1080	1150
Brazil	680	1130	1290	1460	1760

Oceania	290	740	770	701	711
Australia	210	530	560	520	521
Unknown nat.	2090	4750	4980	7245	4029

**SOURCE:** EUROSTATS

According to the US Department of Homeland Security India was, in 2009, the first country of origin among foreign students enrolled in US universities: indeed, 16% of all foreign students were Indian. Engineering is a favorite career choice for a large number of students at the undergraduate level in India. It is estimated that, in 2008, 350,000 engineering degrees, 23,000 engineering masters degrees and about 1,100 PhD's were awarded in India itself. Due to their preference for science and engineering disciplines, international Indian students are a potential source to fill labor shortages in host country's knowledge-intensive sectors. Their top three fields of study are: engineering; Maths and computer science; and business and management.

### **The Shift in the Global Distribution of Knowledge**

India is not only a supplier of skilled manpower. It is also a key player in knowledge creation. According to the UNESCO Science Report 2010, a shift in global influence in the stock of world knowledge was recorded. Asian countries now contribute more to the world GERD. Thanks; above all, to China, India and the Republic of Korea, Asia's world share world GERD grew from 1.6% in 2002 to 2.2% in 2007 while the participation of the Triad decreased during this same period. India registers good results in terms of economic growth and investment in knowledge. Tertiary education and R&D activities are at the heart of public policy.

A priority here is the improvement in terms of the quality and quantity of human resource in science and engineering. Government efforts in science and technology are expressed by the initiative to establish 30 new universities in India, increasing the number of enrolled students from fewer than 15 million in 2007 to 21 million by 2012 (UNESCO Science Report 2010).

### **Diversification of destinations for Indian human capital**

The internationalization of knowledge creation and the rapid expansion of R&D activities determined the diversification of receiving countries for professionals and skilled workers from India. Traditional migration streams of highly-skilled Indian were directed toward the United States and the UK. In the 2000s, new non-English-speaking destinations emerged in Europe such as Italy, France, Germany and other European countries. The number of skilled Indian migrants moving to Australia, Canada, and New Zealand also increased.

**Increase in the immigration of Indian migrants to the EU due to favorable policies:** Over the last few years, the EU has been seeking to put in place measures which comprise effective integration policies addressing education and labour market issues. This is proven by the number of Indian immigrants who acquired EU



citizenship. In 2006, 20,600 (2.8%) of 735,000 citizens granted by the European countries were Indians. In 2008, in a context of lower immigration figures, 15,200 Indians acquired citizenship of an EU Member State which represents 2.2% of the total number of acquisitions recorded in the EU. In 2009 this number doubled. Among 776,000 naturalized persons, 4% were Indian citizens, making Indians the third largest group after Moroccans (7.7%) and Turkish citizens (6.7%) to become citizens of an EU member State (Population Database - Eurostat).

**India a supplier of young and well trained-people for European countries:** With the global reliance upon skilled people and new demographic conjuncture, the EU is increasingly likely to draw on the available pool of young and well-trained Indians. In order to sustain growth and to address population ageing issues, the EU has to consider the capacity of India in terms of human capital formation. Increasing economic interdependence among nations, growing demand for skilled labour in the knowledge economy not to mention demographic trends are all strengthening the position of India as a major supplier of young, educated and qualified manpower for the EU. Owing to its demographic profile and its English-speaking population, India, with its large reserves of highly-skilled workers, has emerged as one of the most prominent country to fill the supply gaps in the labour-deficient economies of the developed world. Taking into account EU economic objectives coupled with demographic and ageing effects, Member States have put in place selective immigration policies aimed at attracting highly-skilled professionals and tertiary-level international students from South

**The Economic downturn resets the flows of highly-skilled Indians:** The OECD countries economic downturn since 2008 has revealed new trends in migration flows from India. Anecdotal evidence indicates that the number of Indian immigrants increased in Europe after the beginning of the crisis, to the detriment of the United States. At the same time, due to current favorable economic conditions at home, many Indian professionals settled abroad decided to return to India.

**The favorable situations at home return migration:** Driven by a multi-dimensional force of economic growth, India is becoming more attractive to its highly-skilled migrants. The economic growth rate, the improvement of living and working conditions in the home country and the deteriorating growth of advanced economies coupled with the feeling of nostalgia motivate many skilled Indian migrants to return. India has been the second fastest-growing economy in the world, second only to China, averaging over 6 percent growth per year over the past decade and a half. During the global recession, 2008-09, China and India witnessed slightly slower rates of growth, consequently their economies continued to catch up even during the crisis. While most of the world's economies including the US and the EU are dealing with the recession, India's GDP still grew 4.9% in 2008, 9.1% in 2009 and 9.7% in 2010. The United States witnessed a decrease of 2.7% in 2009 and a slight growth of 2.9% in 2010 (World Bank Data). EU economic growth also suffered from the 2008 global

economic and financial crisis. Real GDP contracted by 4.3 % in 2009 and recorded a moderate increase of 1.9% in 2010 (Eurostat statistics).

**After the crisis peak of 2008 Indian migrants preferred EU countries to the US:**

Even though the US recorded superior economic growth in 2010, compared to the EU, Indian migrants seem more attracted by European countries. Beyond economic conditions in host countries, there are other factors that explain the current orientation of highly-skilled flows of Indian migrants towards Europe such as the possibility of getting the status of permanent resident lower school fees more easily and the possibility of integrating into the local labour market after graduation. It is important to note that due to the current European sovereign debt crisis, these aspects may deteriorate temporarily.

**Table: 2 Indian Immigrant Stock in EU in 2008 and 2009**

2008			2009		
Indian immigrants stock	Total immigrants EU27	% of Total immigrants	EU27 Indian immigrants stock	Total immigrants EU27	% of Total Immigrants
477383	30800000	1.5%	518645	31800000	1.6%

**Source:** Eurostat Migration Data and OECD International Migration Database

The same trend stuck in 2010. According to Eurostat data, the stock of Indian migrants in the main European destinations continued to grow.

As already mentioned, due to the ongoing European crisis Indian migrants inflows might decline and consequently the stock of Indian migrants in 2011. In 2009, Indians were the biggest group of third-country nationals receiving authorizations to reside in the EU. In 2010 the Indian group was overtaken by US citizens who obtained 213,428 new resident permits (27% of them came for studies).

**Converting Indian Brain Drain into Brain Gain**

There is increasing awareness that migration can benefit both the ‘sending’ and the ‘receiving’ country. In the long run brain drain may be converted into brain gain: something particularly relevant to India. Until recently, the role of the overseas Indian community in the development of the homeland concerned only financial resources. Estimated at 30 million and with a presence in 189 countries, the Indian Diaspora produces an annual economic income of about \$400 billion, almost 30 percent of India’s GDP. Desai, Kapur and McHale (2001) found that the 1 million Indians in the United States who represent only 0.1 percent of India’s population earn the equivalent of about 10% of India’s national income. The estimated volume of remittances in 2010 was \$55 billion or 3.9% as a share of GDP. Despite the economic crisis since 2008, the volume of remittances has remained resilient due to the geographical diversification of Indian migrants. After a 1% fall off in 2009 compared to 2008 (\$49.9 billion), in 2010 the total amount climbed to \$55 billion. Comparing to other regions which were suffering from a decrease in remittance inflows, India continued

to receive an increasing volume of remittances: Mexico, for example saw a reduction of 16% in 2009 (\$22 billion) and in 2010 with a lower level of remittances than before the crisis.

**Transition to a knowledge economy:** The contribution of US-based Indian IT specialists to the growth of the software industry in India is an illustration of a win-win scenario, in which the international mobility of Indian skilled professionals has helped India's transition to a knowledge economy and has led to the development and has increased the innovation capacity of the host country. Currently, about 14% of India's net domestic product is composed of knowledge intensive activities, mostly in the services sector. The IT-BPO industry in India has today become a growth engine for the economy, contributing substantially to GDP growth, urban employment and exports. The success and achievements of Indian expatriates helped the origin country to create an image of a young and open India.

### **International Trade Effects**

As far as international trade effect is concerned, Indians abroad represent an important market for products from India. Their contribution to the expansion of trade relations can be made through direct or through indirect effects. Besides their own consumption, they may induce new consumption habits in the host country. The Indian community in the UK has changed general consumption and cuisine patterns. Indian migrants have demonstrably affect and contribute to the promotion of local goods such as basmati rice, Indian films, etc. The growing consumption of Basmati rice in the UK due to diaspora influence is a key driver of growth of Basmati rice exports. In 2010, the imports into the EU from India were estimated at €33.2 billion and agricultural products represented 8%. On the one hand, Indians abroad create a new demand for Indian products and on the other hand, the native population is encouraged to consume as well.

### **Conclusion**

So, this paper underlined how Indian migration is problematic in the coming future for the sake of economic growth and development of the country. There has been continuous growth of trends in migration from the developing nations to the developed countries and India is not exception for that. In the present paper we have discussed that statistical numbers are alarming to the country and needs to be prevented, through reverse BRAIN DRAIN. It is possible through the strong steps by the Government and awareness amongst the people of patriotism and to render their talent to the Indians.

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**DO THE FEMALES IN INDIA MIGRATE FOR EMPLOYMENT? (RECENT EVIDENCES FROM NSSO DATA)**

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**Introduction**

In a broader sense migration is shift from one geographical area to another geographical area. Due to globalization there has been scale rise in the movement of women (single) for employment from rural to urban areas. The increased labour mobility of women brought into discussion on the one hand and whether there was really any autonomy in the decision to take up job away from home and on the other, and what impact it had on women's empowerment, that is, improvement in their social and economic status were the topic of discussion (Connell et al., 1976; Kabeer;

2000; Hugo, 2000; Chatavanich, 2001). Migration has become a universal phenomenon in modern globalization era, because of rapid increase of transport and communication, in case of India the process of urbanization and industrialization. In most countries, it has been observed that industrialization and economic development has been accompanied by large-scale movements of people from villages to towns, from towns to other towns and from one country to another country. By the end of the early 20th centuries, migrations began to be promoted by industrialization and urbanization. Though the process of migration is derived by social, cultural, political, personal and natural forces but on viewing centrally the main force appears as economic phenomena, which reflect the special attention in terms of employment and unemployment or labour force. Migrants are always in search of improved livelihood, in term of education, employments and other facilities. In case of India, female migration was very poor because of patriarchal societies, that why rate of development was very slow over period of time. But by the end of 20th century or early 21st century, liberalization and globalization has opened up a range of new opportunities comes and also increase the freedom and level of education. The marginalization of women's concerns in the context of migration is related to the overall socio-economic status of women, the non-recognition and undervaluation of their work. Large magnitude of females' migration linked to marriage and other associated reasons have curtailed any economic significance being attached to the gender dimensions of labour migration. It was only by the mid 1990's (Opened liberalization) that the female migration received some attention and, their contribution to labour force participation, largely in the unorganized sector, came into focus. It is observed the women migrants actively participate in labour market as survival strategies. Seasonal rural migration by rural women also increased due to economic participation of women in those regions where male migrants had left behind their families. Internal migration females is an important factor influencing socio-economic development of the country as it has greater potential for poverty reduction, bringing social change an important factor to meet the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). Female migration is largely driven by social and family-related reasons rather than economic motivation. Many researchers have concluded that migration of females is largely caused by marriage or as dependent (Premi, 1980). Prasad et al (2009) observed that the main reason for migration to Greater Mumbai was for employment followed by marriage and transfer. It seems pattern of migration of female shifted from associational to autonomous migration, from marriage related reasons to economic reasons. Migration of female for economic reasons should greatly explain in the push-pull framework. Globalization has opened up a range of new opportunities for women still women predominate and tend to work in female occupations including domestic work garment industry nursing and teaching.

### **Review of Literature**

Despite the rising number of female migrants, women are not given equal importance as compared to men in migration, since they are still not perceived as equal actors

worthy of being accounted for. Majority of women migrate legally merely as a part of family reunions. Generally women migrate. Their migration may be associational (through marriage) or women may be independent migrants. Women may be compelled to migrate owing to their economic condition, in search of better work opportunities or may be marriage and traditional patriarchal norms. Women are more mobile than men over shorter than over long distance (Ravenstein, 1885). Higher percentage of women migrates from rural to rural destination compared to rural to urban destination. The comparison of female migrants in rural to urban stream seems to be associated with the distance involved in migration (Premi 1980). The main motive of this type of female migration is to seek and enter the labour market, work as domestic servant and seek other manual job. But they failed to pinpoint the rural stress. Karlekar (1979) found that here is a continuum of female employment in traditional occupation (scavenging and sweeping). Females 'marriage' is a major reason for migration but interestingly enough 'employment' becomes more important with increase in distance among females also in India. At the same time, migration will continue to change the face of planet and female migrants will continue to play an important part in those changes. A case study on migrants to Delhi sponsored by UNESCO indicates that a majority of the autonomous female migrants to Delhi were never married young women of less than 25 years of age. Although employment or education was the main reason, "marriage" was cited as the underlying factor for migration. Female migration cannot be understood without relating to the dynamics of gender relations in the family and labor market. Women are neglected due to their secondary migrant status, which basically emanates from the assumption of the subsidiary income earning position of women. The traditional image of women as tied to home and family is not true for the working masses, which form a majority of the population. Women labour migration is increasingly a means through which asymmetrical, intersecting relations pertaining to gender, caste and class are structured and negotiated. With trade liberalization and globalization opening up of export processing zones there is increase in female migration linked to gender specific pattern of labour demand in city like India. (Sassen-Koob, 1984; Ghosh, 2002; Shanti, 2006). This is particularly important in the context of major economic changes, which have implication for the mobility and structural position of women. The intensity of female labour migration has generally been accepted to increase over the past few decades, especially with the changes in the economic structure (Neetha, 2004). Despite the growing participation of women in extra domestic work throughout the economy, the study of the relationship between conditions in the work place, living conditions and their health has not been broadly developed with respect to the women worker.

### **Need for Study**

The studies on female migration are scanty since most of the studies focus on male migration. Hence, there is need to study the female migration especially to major states in India. Further, there is very few studies pertaining to female labour force migration in the light of NSS data. As such this is a humble attempt in this direction.

## **Objective**

1. To study the reasons for female migration (Rural and Urban) in major states of India.
2. To study the Labour force participation of women.
3. The relationship between female labour participation rate and socio-economic characteristics.

## **Data Source and Methodology**

It is well known that major source of data on migration is Census of India, but this does not provide household or individual level information. Set to this context the present study restricts itself primarily to the analysis of the unit level data from 64th round of National Sample Survey (NSS). The NSS are conducted by the National Sample Survey Organization (NSSO), which is an autonomous body of Ministry of Statistics and Programme Implementation, Government of India. Major advantage that, how much employment and unemployment, and information is available at unit level and major limitation is that only sample based survey, but census which conducts complete enumeration.

The 64th round (a stratified multi-stage design) of NSS conducted during July, 2007 to June, 2008 is based on the survey on Employment & Unemployment and Migration Particulars (Schedule 10.2). The total sample is 1, 25,578 households (79,091 in rural areas and 46,487 in urban areas) and a sample 5, 72,254 persons (3, 74,294 in rural areas and 1, 97,960 in urban areas).

The analysis begins with simple cross classification i.e. bi-variate analysis. Binary logistic regression is used for assessing the correlates between migrant women (aged 15-59 years) and their socio-economic characteristics in major states of India.

## **Result and Discussion**

To begin with it is necessary to have an idea about migration scenario in major states of India. Volume of migration and sex ratio of the migrants is presented in Table 1. It can be observed from Table 1 that there are 926 female migrants from Haryana for every 1000 males compared to 461 females in case of India. The sex ratio is as low as 161 females per 1000 migrating males in Delhi. Similarly 692 females from Kerala migrate compared to 1000 males migrants followed by 687 females from Rajasthan.

## **Migration Stream:**

**Table 2: Distribution of female migrant by migration streams in major states of India, 2007-2008**

Sr. No	State/U.T	Rural- Rural	Rural- Urban	Urban- Rural	Urban- Urban
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1	Jammu & Kashmir	79.9	9.2	4.3	6.4
2	Punjab	60.9	14.1	7.1	17.8
3	Haryana	67.8	16.4	5.7	10.1
4	Delhi	4.9	53.9	2.5	38.7
5	Rajasthan	74.9	12.8	3.8	8.5
6	Utter Pradesh	76.8	10.6	4.1	8.5
7	Bihar	83.4	8.5	4.5	3.5
8	Assam	83.9	9.3	4.3	3.5
9	West Bengal	74.2	10.9	3.5	11.2
10	Jharkhand	79.1	7.8	3.9	9.2
11	Orissa	82.9	9.4	2.4	5.1
12	Chhattisgarh	80.4	7.5	5.5	6.5
13	Madhya Pradesh	71.1	13.2	5.2	10.5
14	Gujrat	64.2	16.6	8.1	11.1
15	Maharashtra	58.1	20.5	5.5	15.9
16	Andhra Pradesh	68.2	19.1	5.1	7.6
17	Karnataka	66.1	16.8	5.2	11.8
18	Kerala	67.1	15.2	10.1	7.6
19	Tamil Nadu	52.8	23.5	8.1	15.7

Migration stream is generally of four types, rural to rural, rural to urban, urban to rural and urban to urban. In case of India rural to rural migration stream remains the most dominant among all four migration streams. It is evident from table 2 that Rural to rural migration for female is substantially high in all states of India (except Tamil Nadu-53%). In case of rural to urban female migration highest in Delhi (53.9%) followed by Tamil Nadu (23.7%), Maharashtra (20.5%) etc. Urban to rural female migration is low in all the states, because this type of migration would be seen in developed countries. In case of India, only female from southern states Kerala (10.1%) females move from urban to rural areas. In medium and long distance categories, urban to urban migration of women is more prominent than rural to urban migration. Urban to urban migrants, percentage is high for Delhi (38.7%) followed by Haryana (17.8%) and Tamil Nadu (16.2%) & lowest urban to urban migration has been Bihar (3.4%) & Orissa (3.5%).

### **Social Group**

It is evident from Table 3 that around half of the female ST migrants are from Jharkhand and one third are from Chhattisgarh. Less than 10% such migrants are from Assam, Maharashtra and Rajasthan. Further, around one fourth scheduled caste female migrant



hail from West Bengal and Delhi followed by Uttar Pradesh, Tami Nadu and Andhra Pradesh and Karnataka, while more than one third (35.81%) female SC migrants are from Delhi In case of OBC, female migrants are as high as 71% in case of Tamil Nadu followed by 63% and 60% in Kerala. The lowest percentage (around 7) being from Jammu and Kashmir and West Bengal.

**Table 3: Distribution of female migrants by social group in major states of India, 2007-2008**

Sr. No	States	ST	SC	OBC	Others
1	Jammu & Kashmir	1.8	13.9	6.7	77.6
2	Punjab	0.0	35.8	14.9	49.3
3	Haryana	0.0	20.8	26.8	52.4
4	Delhi	1.1	25.5	12.9	60.5
5	Rajasthan	8.5	18.8	51.5	21.2
6	Utter Pradesh	0.7	23.3	51.6	24.4
7	Bihar	2.3	16.4	62.9	18.4
8	Assam	9.4	2.6	48.1	40.0
9	West Bengal	6.3	27.6	7.2	58.9
10	Jharkhand	47.8	9.7	29.8	12.7
11	Orissa	21.7	16.8	37.0	24.5
12	Chhattisgarh	30.5	13.0	51.1	5.4
13	Madhya Pradesh	18.0	18.0	44.0	20.1
14	Gujarat	14.4	10.8	39.0	35.9
15	Maharashtra	8.6	12.7	37.0	41.7
16	Andhra Pradesh	6.5	22.8	42.1	28.7
17	Karnataka	5.9	22.1	43.7	28.3
18	Kerala	1.4	7.4	59.6	31.6
19	Tamil Nadu	0.6	23.2	70.9	5.3

### **REFLECTION OF YOUTH MIGRATION AND CULTURAL CRISIS IN ANITA DESAI'S BYE BYE BLACKBIRD**

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Anita Desai is one of the leading figures in the literary world. Anita Desai contributed to the Indian English Fiction. She is recognized for her action, plot the development of the novel in modern era. The fictional technique of Anita Desai is guided by several factors of her development as a novelist. Anita Desai's novel deals with the characters rather than social milieu. Desai's characters are individual men and women. Her characters are independent, frustrated, suffering with alienation, dilemma, and face cultural crisis.

In the present paper, it is proposed to study mainly the fiction of Anita Desai with the reference to the Migration of educated youth. Particularly the Indian in England. Contemporary Indian English novel portrays images of protagonists confined to rigid tradition and orthodoxy. In this study, therefore an attempt will be made to scrutinize Anita Desai's novel to show how she has depicted the problem of higher middle class educated Indians and that have come up in the contemporary India.

In this novel, Adit and Dev, Sarah and Christine Langford are the major characters. They fight for the meaningful life and accept the challenge of life. As they believe in struggle for existence. There are moments of transformation in their life. The novel is based on the theme of immigration of native Indians to England. There are clashes of ideas, tradition and cultures. This theme of the novel is simple rendering of emotions of Indians who face abnormal situation in living and partly living every moment of life in foreign land. The novel highlights the problem of the Asian emigrants in the U.K. often complicated by inter-racial marriages. It is a story of an educated Indian couple. Adit Sen, and his wife Sarah and Dev, his Bengali friend are the major characters in the novel. Adit is an Indian but his wife is an English girl, Sarah. He is settled down in England. Sarah, tries to locate or identify herself with her Indian husband. They are not happy in their domestic life. Adit is worried about his family in India. He always cherishes his anecdote and past life in India. This *homesickness* is the cause of his tragedy and problems in his married life.

The novel begins with the arrival of Dev, a young Bengali student at England. He has to take admission into London school of Economics. Dev with his background of English Literature. Adit Sen has modified to appreciate the British life. Adit is settled in England with his English wife. Therefore he tries to prove himself equal to the Britishers. He proves himself superior to the new Indian immigrants like Dev. Adit tries to persuade Dev to accept England and British cultural ways of life without being prejudiced. On his departure to India. Adit wants to change his attitude. He says:

*As though he saw the Union Jack being lowered  
in sadness at his departure and saw the Indian  
tricolor rising upon the opposite horizon. (257)*

Dev is very optimistic character who visits to England for academic purpose. Dev is critical of England and conscious of India's culture. Hence wish to impress Adit. Adit is completely alienated from Indian culture. Dev says Sanskrit hymn *richas*. Dev is happy in reciting vedic *richas* but Adit is not interested even in visiting the Victoria

Albert Museum where Indian Moghul and Rajasthan miniatures are collected. Dev has come in search of a cultural and intellectual quest.

In *Bye Bye Blackbird*, It is observed that the same spirit and desire to have taken place for migration for a better future. England was a dreamland for Indian migrants. Indians migrate there to get better education and well-paid easy jobs, for England is the land of opportunity and employment. Therefore, it is noteworthy that on one lands at England due to any change in one's heart. While living there they suppress their love towards their own home and country; they even forget temporarily their own festivals and religious ceremonies, and if not, observe them merely as a token. They are made to undermine their cultural heritage and cut their roots of birth and go to England with strong determination for their ambition to be fulfilled.

There is a sense of superiority among the Britishers. It is clearly observed that Sarah's marriage with an Indian is not accepted by British society. Even Sarah suffers from a sense of insecurity and separation from her own society.

*Sarah feels the two selves in her, the English self  
and the Indian one are only, frauds; each had  
large shadowed elements of charade about it.*  
(34)

The real problem of Sarah is that she suffers from the identity and cultural crisis. Sarah's position is very pathetic. By marrying an Indian, she had broken the unspoken code of English society. She suffers from a sense of inferiority because of her marrying an Indian and for this she has to suffer the taunts from her colleague. She fails to reconcile with Indian ethos. Sarah is in dilemma also to locate her identity. She has no complaints against her marriage with Adit. It is depicted by novelist, Desai points out:

*With her husband brought her, he seemed so  
rich to her, he seemed to have so much to give  
her-so many relations and attachments, pictures  
and stories, legends, promises and warnings.*  
(237)

Sarah represents foreign identity but in Indian context she suffers a lot. On the other hand, she is a victim of male dominance mentality. She is ready to cope up even in odd situation. Even marrying an Indian, she had become unidentified and loss her origin. She had rejected her identity. There is no mental peace and satisfaction in her life. She is taunted and abused by her own people in her own land.

Adit is a victim of homesick. He realizes that his weakness for England and decides to go back to India. Adit is conscious of his racial inferiority. He tries to dominate his wife He is a representative of male dominated society in India. Adit, with a happy job, family, English wife is well settled in his adopted country. But at the end of the novel

he decides to leave England .When Sarah decides to visit to India. India is a different cultural background and environment But she is confident of her decision. It is certain that India's all embracing and assimilating nature that can give a sense of relief from the sense of alienation-with which Sarah experienced in her own country. Adit occasionally, shows sincerity in his behavior towards his wife. At the outset Adit says that English wives are quite manageable. This remark by Adit shows a negative attitude .He loves England because it is a land of opportunity. He hates India because of the laziness of the bureaucratic system, work culture population and poverty. Even criticizes irregularity of trains and buses and beggars, flies... When he becomes nostalgic, he says:

*This time I'll go by air with a bag full of luxury goods. When I have a whole month of leave saved up. I'll go. My mother will cook hilsa fish wrapped in banana leaves for me .My sister will dress in saris and gold ornaments. I'll lie in bed till ten every morning and sit up half the night listening to the shehnai and sitar.(48)*

Adit is a practical man and lives in present. He is satisfied in his job and married life in England. So he wants to stay in England. He has a friends, social relationship and happy home family hence he openly says that he loves England .He comments:

*I like the pubs', I like the freedom a man has here: Economic freedom; I like reading posters in the tube.oh,I must take you to see my favorites. And I like the strawberries in summer. I even like the BBC. (18-19)*

Dev's resentment is caused by his unemployment but Adit is happy and loves his adopted country. He tries to improve upon Dev's pessimistic attitude towards England. The feeling of alienation reflects in his mind. Dev is consciousness about his new life and real existence. Dev says:

*You would sell your soul and your passport too, for a glimpse, at two shillings of some draughty old stately home. You'd probably vote for the Immigration laws and Mr.Oswald Mosley and the Nottinghill louts and...' (19)*

In the last chapter of the novel describes the return of the black bird to Mother land. Sarah lives the life of a cultural crisis in her own country. She feels displaced in England by marrying an Indian. She is disturbed by the anguish of shedding her own name and identity.

*The feeling of utter hopelessness bordering on despair and destruction is absent in Bye-Bye Black bird, for Sarah, although she is not very*

*sociable is involved in some kind of job outside  
her home. (Barucha: 1992:171)*

Adit recollects the golden memory of his native land .i.e. India. Memory of cultural and festival celebrations are getting hold on his mind. One day he reads news about India and Pakistan being at war. It brings the flash back of the past memories. Adit plans to join army to fight against Pakistan. Adit changes his attitude and creates a feeling of patriotism. His plan to leave England and return to India is not miracle but the reflection of cultural consciousness. Sarah is realistic and even her sense of alienation does not allow her to miserable and tragic degeneration When Adit finds himself awkward to adjust in the foreign land., he decides to go back to his Mother land. He packs up his luggage and together with Sarah leave for India Adit recognized this difficulty to belong to a foreign country to a lack of education. The life that he enjoys became boredom and he irritated and disappointed. He decides to leave England .He explains the reason to Sarah .His decision to leave England for good was rushed by the Indo-Pak War of 1965. When Indo-Pak war is declared, Adit remembers the Hindu –Muslim communal riots in India in Calcutta in 1947. When Hindus and Muslim killed, burnt and raped one another. He recollects the same tragic picture repeated again in the war .The war aggravates homesickness in Adit and urges him to leave England and he confirmed his decision to fly back home. Adit goes back to his roots where from nobody could uproot him and the title of them novel assumes its full significance.

*Make my bed and light the light,  
I will arrive late to night  
Black bird, bye-bye.*

Adits realized the uselessness of exaggeration and false survival and finally make a decision to go to India. Adit cherishes the memory of the Indian festival .Anita Desai comments: He longed with pain, to see the fire-works and oil-lamps of Diwali: night again, to join in a Holy rump of flying coloured water and powder and leaping to the music of drum.(185) Adit represents a modern educated youth of Indian society. At the end Adit accepts the reality. He is optimistic now and thinks positively about India. It is journey of self-realization and consciousness. Anita Desai has dealt with a very contemporary problem. It has still its bearing on the cultural relationship of these two nations. Adit is unable to control his sentiment and he says:

*A dilemma? Nothing of the sort! Adit snorted.  
“it’s only complicated ,worrying, thinking  
people like you who get caught in dilemmas. I  
live for the moment. I do not think. I do not  
worry. (49)*

In *Bye Bye Blackbird* we find the same spirit and desire to have taken place for migration for a better future. England was and is a dreamland for Indian migrants. Indians migrate there to get better education and lucrative comfortable jobs, for

England is “the land of opportunity” (p.9) therefore, it is noteworthy that on one lands at England due to any change in one`s heart. While living there they suppress their love towards their own home and country; they even forget temporarily their own festivals and religious ceremonies, and if not, observe them merely as a token. They are made to undermine their cultural heritage and cut their roots of birth and go to England with strong determination for their ambition to be fulfilled.

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## **RURAL-URBAN MIGRATION: PROS AND CONS**

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### **Introduction**

Migration is the movement of people from one geographical location to another, involving permanent or temporary settlement. While rural-urban migration is the movement of people from rural areas (villages) to urban areas (cities).

Migration processes have been existent throughout all regions of the world. In most of the so-called developing countries employment possibilities and housing facilities are not sufficient at all to absorb the huge influx of people moving into the cities. Asia face severe problems like unemployment, poverty, pollution and crime.

Migration is now recognized as an important factor in influencing social and economic development, especially in developing countries. There is a tremendous variation in the aggregate population size across the state. Migration is an important development issue in a country like India, treading the path of a rapid economic activity in an attempt to amalgamate with the rest of the world. However lopsided development in the country, rural-urban migration has become a major challenge in the contemporary scenario. There are reasons like a lack of employment / work opportunities or natural disasters, families after families continue to fall within the vicious circle of hunger and deprivation. The result is migration from rural areas and work in unfamiliar urban terrains.

According to 2001 census, rural to urban migration in India was 20.5 million. Effect of rural-urban migration on supply side disproportionate increase in urban job seekers growth rate compared to urban population growth. Urban labor force , rural labor force on demand side urban job creation more difficult to accomplish due to rising urban wages, compulsory employee fringe benefits etc.

### **Objectives of the Study**

1. To find out the causes and effects of rural-urban migration
2. To examine the socio-economic status of migrants

**Why Migration** – To improve socio- economic conditions of migrants and their families

### **Rural-Urban Migration**

Internal migration of poor labourers has also been on the rise in India. The poor migrants usually end up as casual labourers within the informal sector. This population is at high risk for diseases and faces reduced access to health services. In

India, 14.4 million people migrated within the country for work purposes either to cities or areas with higher expected economic gains during the 2001 census period. 25 Lakh numbers of migrants are employed in cultivation and plantations, brick-kilns, quarries, construction sites and fish processing (NCRL, 2001). Large numbers of migrants also work in the urban informal manufacturing, construction, services or transport sectors and are employed as vendor, casual labourers, head loaders, rickshaw pullers, repairmen and hawkers. The rapid change of residence due to the casual nature of work excludes them from the preventive care and their working conditions in the informal work arrangements.



### **Causes of Rural-Urban Migration:**

We should know, what are the main causes for these transformations? Why are the farmers making suicide after so much continuous effort made by the government? The answer is that either the government is busy in increasing the country's economy by the industrial growth or the policy formed for the eradication of these problems are not implemented in a compact way. MNREGA is such a prime example.

There are different reasons that cause rural-urban migration in developing countries - they are the so-called push and pull factors. They can be seen as a simultaneous analysis of factors that force migrants *out of rural areas* (push-factors) and factors that attract migrants *to urban areas* (pull factors). Factors and determinants of migration are rather diverse and they can be split up in economic and non-economic reasons: The major causes of rural-urban migration are identified as;

### **Push Factors**

- Inadequate non-agriculture jobs in the place of origin;
- Inability to grow grains / crops;
- Low wages and no assets as well as lack of land,
- Lack of adequate income;
- Large size of households;
- Small size of agriculture holding
- Modernization of farming;
- Natural disasters, drought or famine, war and conflicts
- Poor public services (such as roads, public transport, water supply or sanitation)
- Family networks in city;



### **Pull Factors**

- The attraction of the urban areas such as –income earning opportunities including jobs;
- The promise of higher expected income;
- Marriage and the existence of family and
- Support network to help find a job;
- Moving to a better climate (better lifestyle)

Apart from the above factors some are the general factors for rural-urban migration as:

- Search for better job and business opportunities;
- For socio-economic stability and security;
- Education and hope for better healthcare;
- Political and social stability;
- Better science and technologies;
- Poverty;
- Unemployment;
- Crop failures and famine;
- Inadequate social amenities and facilities in the rural areas such as pipe borne water, electricity, good roads, hospitals, schools, vocational centers

### **Effects of Rural-Urban Migration**

As more and more people arrive in the urban centre, there will be insufficient jobs for them and the unemployment rate will increase. There will be more workers chasing too few jobs this will lead to straining the resources of the government. Rural-urban migration brings pressure on urban housing and the environment as migrants arrive from rural areas they live on the streets and makeshift sub-standard accommodation before establishing themselves. The high rate of population growth in the urban areas also lessens the quality of life because it: destroys resources, such as water and forests, needed for sustenance. Rural-urban migration leads to overpopulation in the urban areas thus encouraging and raising the rate of crime in the society. Rural-urban migration also slows down the pace of development of the rural areas.

### **Policy**

There is an urgent need to formulate a planned, long-term strategy to counter the problem. Though the government has launched several anti-poverty and infrastructure generating schemes, most of the villages in India still do not have even the bare minimum amenities. The crux to solving this problem and generate full-time employment opportunities in the rural areas, government should create adequate economic opportunities close to their place of residence.

### **Concluding Remarks**

It significantly justifies the fact that the farmers are no longer depending on the agriculture. In this changing world and global scenario, they also want the change their socio-economic condition. The increase in the suicide cases of the farmers is a great cause of concern for the government and for the agricultural ministry. The government should rethink on its policy to avoid this crisis, otherwise the day is not so far when the country will be trapped in the FOOD CRISIS.

The rate of rural-urban migration is alarming in recent years and its effects are not only felt by the destination regions alone but also felt by the source regions-as facilities in the destination regions are overstretched, the source regions are virtually deserted. Unless the government provides the basic necessities of life to the rural areas and provide the productive youth in the rural areas with employment opportunities, people will continuously drift into the urban areas from the rural areas in search for better life and employment.

Several push and pull factors exist in the country which are responsible for the large-scale migration. India has high levels of regional disparity in terms of population distribution and development indicators. Most of the North Indian states are poor in infrastructure facilities and are also highly populated. Hence a large number of people from states like Uttar Pradesh, Orissa and Bihar migrate to other states in search of jobs.

Maharashtra, Gujarat, the south Indian states and other states in northern parts of the country like Haryana, Punjab and Delhi have become attractive destinations for the migrant population. Rapid urbanisation and industrialisation of these areas have generated more employment opportunities and also created better infrastructure. People migrate to these regions perceiving them as greener pastures.

### **Suggetions:**

The following suggestions were made based on the analysis and findings of this study:

1. The Government should strive to provide social amenities and facilities in the rural areas.
1. 2. The Government should also provide jobs for the citizens in the rural areas.
2. Agriculture sector must be given top priority as it employs a large number of people
3. Government must take steps to encourage private enterprise with certain limitations in rural and semi-urban areas so that educated people do not move to bigger cities in search of jobs.
4. Initiatives like PURA (Provision of Urban amenities in Rural Areas) must be promoted on a large scale to bridge the rural-urban gap in terms of infrastructure.
5. Private sector must be involved in rural infrastructure development projects by providing the incentives like tax-holidays and rebates.

6. Vocational training centers should be established in the rural areas for training of the productive youths for self employment.
7. Those youths who passed the Vocational Training, centers should be given micro-loans as a start-up capital.
8. The government must guard people particularly in the Naxalite belt.

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## **RIGHTS AND VULNERABILITY OF UNDOCUMENTED BANGLADESHI MIGRANTS IN KOLKATA**

**Ankita Siddhanta**

IIPS

Cross border Migration is a natural phenomena witnessed across developed and developing countries all over the world, much beyond documented and legal migration. A large influx of these migration undocumented migration is a regular phenomenon which in many cases brings in conflict with the aspiration of sovereignty and immigration policies of many countries. Nonetheless, the causes of these migrations may differ from place to place and time to time but the vulnerability and the suffering remains more or less the same for the undocumented migrants since they are mostly treated as unwanted and not legalized at the place of destination. This paper aims to access the social and health related vulnerability of undocumented Bangladeshi Migrants in Kolkata, mostly those residing in Madhyamgram and Garden Reach areas as these areas are dominated by Bangladeshis forming the largest group of migrants in India. One of the causal factor behind this large stream of Bangladeshi migrants coming to Kolkata is also due to the fact that West Bengal shares a long stretch of border with Bangladesh.

### **Objectives**

The main objectives of this study is:

- To see the social vulnerability of the people from Bangladesh who migrated to Kolkata in an undocumented way.

- And to perceive the health problems associated with their living conditions in a country other than their motherland, where they have migrated not in a legalized and documented way.

### **Data**

The study is based on Primary data and the methodology for data collection was mainly done in two ways:

- Focus Group Discussion with the beneficiaries, political leaders, CBOs, teachers of the regions.
- Key Informants Interview was also done with Secondary Stake Holders who were mainly the outreach workers, the peer educators and the coordinators of the projects that are operating there.

### **Discussion**

The Bangladeshi migrants mainly live in Government abandoned buildings in Garden Reach area and in slums popularly known as ‘Bastis’ in the Madhyamgram area, which is very unhygienic and devoid of amenities of the daily living. The basic facilities such as proper drinking water, toilet, schools and medicinal shops could not be seen there.

Drawing from the focus group discussion, the prominent issues that have come up are related to education of children, voting rights, standard of living, poor health status and harassment of women. The various inconveniences and problems faced by them can be further discussed under social vulnerability and health related vulnerability.

### **Social Vulnerability**

The migrants feel themselves socially excluded as they are generally not welcomed in the mainstream of the population and they also have the fear to mix up with the other local population. They become socially vulnerable when they cannot send their children to school since there has to be an identification proof of the parents. In spite of having economic potential their children get deprived of the right to education. But this is not always the same case everywhere. Not all of the migrants have the same economic stability and their financial problem forces their children to be at home. In Garden Reach area there was a school which got closed down since the parents were poor to give the school fees as well as the teachers were not getting their payment.

The Bangladeshi migrants do not have access to the social infrastructures in the city and the local areas. Further they do not possess Ration Cards, Bank accounts and thus do not have any proof of their identity which is the basic psycho-social need of any human being. They have to buy their household items and grocery needs at a quite high price since they do not have the facility of BPL cards and ration Cards. They

work as laborers and factory workers, load carriers etc and almost their full income get spent to make sufficient provision for their hunger.

### **Health Related Vulnerability**

Prevalence of fevers, dengue, dysentery, complicated pregnancy are some of the common problems faced by the migrants in these two areas. From the Key Informant Interview it was also found that cases of HIV/AIDS have been found in the areas and there have been a death also. Another migrant is under treatment who is a second time migrant to this area. Another issue which came up mainly from the interview of the secondary stake holders was the vulnerability of the women. It was highlighted that the women are majorly susceptible to physical and sexual harassments while migrating. The perpetrators of this type of harassments are mainly by the BSF jawans , moneylenders and van/rickshaw pullers. All these people take advantage of these migrants since they remain afraid and weak and mostly the cross border migration occurs without any documents.

The other health problems like dengue, dysentery and fevers are related to low hygienic conditions and poor sanitation in these areas. There is no proper toilet and no clean water facility. Waters are being used from nearby ponds for all purposes and sometimes for drinking too. Complicated pregnancies, still births as well as miscarriages are also found among the women in these areas and it was due to the poor nutrition of the women and the work load which they carry even during their pregnancies. Moreover they do not have access to hospitals and nursing homes and depend on quacks who visit the place every week. In case of emergency the political leaders and the teachers of that area have helped them to get to the hospitals but the treatment never gets completed because of monetary funds. The local leaders and the project workers are trying to make cards for them in the hospitals for checkups. They don't have money to spend on the medicines that the doctor prescribes and so they depend on the quack and homeopathic practitioners in these areas.

### **Strategies to Address the Problems and Requirements of the Bangladeshi Migrants in Kolkata**

- Poverty and illiteracy should be eliminated and they should be employed with fair jobs so that they can smoothly run their family
- The awareness, the meetings that are being done by the ongoing projects there should be done with males and females separately since the females feel shy in front of the males to talk about their problems related to health and other issues.
- They live in very densely populated areas in slums and bastis which is one of the reasons for spreading the disease. So it is suggested that steps should be taken to keep the roads, drains, sources of drinking water and the slum dwellings should be kept clean and maintained hygienically
- Free distribution of condoms and medicines should be done in those areas and these steps should be taken by the NGOs , Project officers.

- There problems should be solved in such a manner that they do not face any problem due to their undocumented migration
  - Above all documented migration in a legalized way should be promoted.
- In conclusion it can be said that their attitude never reflects want of money or employment, but they mainly wished for minimum basic facilities such as medical services, a school, clean and hygienic living place; and above all, an Identity.
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## **VULNERABILITY & MIGRANTS' RIGHTS**

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### **Introduction**

Some groups of Human beings are weak and Vulnerable either because of their nature or due to Socio, Economic and Political reasons. Among these Vulnerable includes child, women, disabled persons, aged persons and migrant workers etc. The Constitution of India has already included certain special Rights to these groups of persons. Though Special Provisions are included and Laws are made still we find that there is exploitation of these vulnerable groups in one way or other for example, Children are exploited by Child Labour, Sexual Exploitation, Crimes against Women are increasing day by day, Old age homes are increasing and Migrants are facing lot of problems within India and all over the world.

### **Objectives**

This paper is aimed to address mainly the following aspects.

- Reasons of Migration
- Constitutional Rights of Migrants
- Judicial Decisions
- Human Rights of Migrants workers

### **Data Source**

As per the Census Data published by Government of India, Ministry of Home Affairs, Office of the Registrar General and Census Commissioner, India, opportunities in Urban for Employment, Education, etc have been a pull factor attracting migrants from Rural to Urban areas and from small towns and cities to larger urban areas.<sup>1</sup>

### **Reasons for Migration**

As per the Data of Migration and Migrant Population Statistics of European Union statistics on international migration, population stocks of national and foreign (non-national) citizens, and the acquisition of citizenship, Migration is influenced by a

combination of economic, political and social factors, either in a migrant's country of origin (push factors) or in the country of destination (pull factors); historically, the relative economic prosperity and political stability of the European Union are thought to have exerted a considerable pull effect on immigrants.<sup>2</sup>

**Reasons for Migration of Migrants by Last Residence with Duration (0–9 years)  
India 2001**

Reason for Migrations	Number of Migrants		
	Persons	Males	Females
Total migrants	98,301,342	32,896,986	65,404,356
Reason for migration : work/ Employment	14,446,224	12,373,333	2,072,891
Business	1,136,372	950,245	186,127
Education	2,915,189	2,038,675	876,514
Marriage	43,100,911	679,852	42,421,059
Moved after birth	6,577,380	3,428,673	3,148,707
Moved with households	20,608,105	8,262,143	12,345,962
Other	9,517,161	5,164,065	4,353,096
Source: Table D3, Census of India 2001			

The studies and reports on migration reveals that migration is due to the following reasons:-

- For Employment
- For Education
- For Better infrastructure facilities (UP, Bihar and Orissa)
- Low and variable agricultural production
- Urbanization and Industrialization
- Marriage (Women)

In India, as per census 2001, about 307 million person have reported as migration by place of birth. Out of them about 259 million (84.2%), migrated from one part of the state to another, i.e; from one village or town to another village or town. 42 million (2%) from outside the country. The data on migration by last residence in India as per census 2001 shows that the total number of migrants has been 314 million. Out of these migrants by last residence, 268 million (85%) has been intra – state migrants, those who migrated from one are of the state to another. 41 million (13%) were interstate migrants and 5.1 million (1.6%) migrated from outside of the Country.

### **Rights of Migrants under Indian Constitution**

Part II, Article 6 and 7 of Indian Constitution deals with the Rights of Migrants. Article 6 – Rights of citizenship of certain persons who have migrated to India from Pakistan – Notwithstanding anything in article 5, a person who has migrated to the territory of India from the territory now included in Pakistan shall be deemed to be a citizen of India at the commencement of this Constitution if:

- (a) He or either of his parents or any of his grand – parents was born in India as defined in the Government of India Act, 1935 (as originally enacted); and
- (b) (i) In the case where such person has so migrated before the nineteenth day of July, 1948, he has been ordinarily resident in the territory of India since the date of his migration, or
- (ii) In the case where such person has so migrated on or after the nineteenth day of July, 1948, he has been registered as a citizen of India by an officer appointed in that behalf by the Government of the Dominion of India on an application made by him therefore to such officer before the commencement of this Constitution in the form and manner prescribed by that Government:

Provided that no person shall be so registered unless he has been resident in the territory of India for at least six months immediately preceding the date of his application.

Article 7 – Rights of citizenship of certain migrants to Pakistan- Notwithstanding anything in articles 5 and 6, a person who has after the first day of March, 1947, migrated from the territory of India to the territory now included in Pakistan shall not be deemed to be a citizen of India:

Provided that nothing in this article shall apply to a person who, after having so migrated to the territory now included in Pakistan, has returned to the territory of India under a permit for resettlement or permanent return issued by or under the authority of any law and every such person shall for the purposes of clause (b) of article 6 be deemed to have migrated to the territory of India after the nineteenth day of July, 1948.

**THE MEANING OF THE TERM ‘MIGRATED’** came for consideration before the Supreme Court in **Kulathi v. State of Kerala**.<sup>3</sup> followed in **Mashkurul Hassan v. Union of India**.<sup>4</sup> It should be noted that the Supreme Court has in this case overruled its earlier decision in **Smt. Shanno Devi v. Mangal Sain**,<sup>5</sup> in which it was held that the word ‘migrated’ meant going from one place to another with the intention of permanently residing in the latter place.

According to the Court the term ‘migrated’ used in Article 6 and 7 has to be construed with reference to the context and purpose and the prevailing political condition at the time the Constitution was being enacted. So interpreted, the word ‘migrated’ could mean nothing except voluntarily going from India to Pakistan permanently or temporarily. The majority held that the word ‘migrate’ was used in a wider sense of moving from one country to another with qualification that such movement was not for a short visit or for a special purpose.<sup>6</sup>



### **Freedom of Movement**

Article 19 of the Indian Constitution guarantees to the citizens of India six Fundamental Rights. Article 19 (d) guarantees Freedom of Movement that means to move freely throughout the territory of India. As per Article 19 (1)(d) the citizen can move not merely from one State to another but also from one place to another within the same State. This freedom cannot be curtailed by any law except within the limits prescribed under Article 19(5). The grounds of restrictions under 19(5) is only on the interest of general public and for protection of the interest of Scheduled Tribes.

In **N. B. Khare v. State of Delhi**,<sup>7</sup> the Supreme Court held that the entire territory of India is one unit for the citizens. Article 19(1)(e) guarantees every citizen of India the right to reside and settle in any part of the territory of India subject to reasonable restrictions. The object of this clause to remove internal barriers within India or any of its parts.<sup>8</sup>

### **Migration and Human rights**

Though migrants contribute to economic growth and human development in both home and host countries and enrich societies through cultural diversity, migrants are often found working in jobs that are dirty, dangerous and degrading. There is too much of discrimination, exploitation and human rights violation. According to High Commissioner for Human Rights Navi Pillay “The protection of migrants is an urgent and growing human rights challenge. Governments have obligations to ensure that xenophobic violence, racism and related intolerance against migrants and their communities have no place in their societies”. There are Human Right mechanisms, such as the Special Rapporteur on the Human Rights of Migrants and the Committee on Migrant Workers which makes clear that countries have a sovereign right to determine conditions of entry and stay in their territories, they also have an obligation to respect, protect and fulfil the human rights of all individuals under their jurisdiction, regardless of their nationality or origin and regardless of their immigration status.<sup>9</sup>

### **Rights of Migrant Workers**

It is a fact that there is lot of discrimination against migrant workers in India and over the World. In order to establish binding standards for the treatment and to end exploitation of migrants. The General Assembly on December 18, 1990 adopted a Convention known as the International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of their Families. The Convention came into force on July 1, 2003.

**Article 2 of the Convention defines migrant** worker a person who is to be engaged or has been engaged in a remunerated activity in a State of which he or she is not a national.<sup>10</sup>

The rights of migrant works are the following:-

1. They shall be free to leave any State, including their State of origin, without restrictions (Article 8, Para 1) and the right to enter and remain in their State of Origin (Article 8, Para 2)
2. Protection of the right to life under the law (Article 9)
3. Prevention from subjection to torture or to cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment (Article 10)
4. Forbidding of slavery or servitude (Article 11, Para 1)
5. Forbidding of forced or compulsory labour (Article 11, Para 2)
6. Right to freedom of thought, conscience and religion (Article 12)
7. Right to hold opinions without interference (Article 13, Para 1) and right to freedom of expression (Article 13, Para 2)
8. Protection from arbitrary or unlawful interference with his or her privacy, family, home, correspondence or other communications (Article 14).
9. Protection from arbitrary deprivation of property (Article 14)
10. Right to liberty and security of person (Article 16, Para 1)
11. Protection against violence, physical injury, threats or intimidation whether by public officials or by private individuals (Article 16, Para 2)
12. Protection from arbitrary arrest or detention (Article 16, Para 4)
13. Information regarding legal rights while under arrest or detention (Article 16 Para 5) or committed to prison or custody pending trial (Article 16 and 7)
14. Right to equality with nationals of the State concerned before the courts and tribunals (Article 18)
15. No migrant worker or members of his or her family shall be imprisoned merely on the ground of failure to fulfil a contractual obligation Article 20)
16. Each case of expulsion must be examined and decided individually. Collective expulsion of workers has been declared illegal Article 22)

### **Conclusion:**

On the 20<sup>th</sup> Anniversary, in 2010, of the adoption of the International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrants Workers and Members of their Families, the Global Campaign for Ratification of the convention on Rights o Migrants was launched to act immediately to end widespread human rights violations suffered daily by migrants around the world. But still we can find that from the reports of media still migrants face a lot of problems like discrimination and exploitation within India and all over the World based on language, sex, religion and race.

As per Times of India, the number of foreign immigrants living in India is steadily declining, but India continues to be among the 10 countries with the highest in – migration in the world. At the same time, India sends the fourth largest number of emigrants to other countries. In 2010, there were 5.4 million foreign – born people living in India, according to new estimates released by the Population Division of the United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs. These numbers make India home to the ninth largest number of foreign – born people in the world.<sup>11</sup>

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## **MIGRATION OF INDIAN NURSES ABROAD**

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### **Introduction:**

Health systems round the world are in the grip of a crisis precipitated by critical shortages of health manpower. In 2006, the World Health Organization (WHO) estimated a shortage of more than 4.3 million health personnel needed to deliver key health interventions.

On the supply side, shortages of nursing staff in developed countries are explained by a number of factors, some of which include - the inability of nursing school enrolment to keep pace with projected demand for nurses, faculty shortages which limit enrolling qualified applicants into nursing programmes, an ageing nursing staff due for retirement in the future and insufficient staffing which increases stress level, impacts job satisfaction and in turn drives many nurses to leave the profession. On the other hand, developed countries face a future of low fertility and an ageing population with a shift towards chronic and degenerative diseases, thus explaining their

increasing demand for health workers. Consequently, the size of nursing workforce has not kept pace with growing demand. Liberalization of trade in health services in many countries has facilitated increasing migration of nurses from developing to developed countries.

In India, the shortage of nursing staff in the health service system is evident from the fact that India had 62 nurses per 1, 00,000 people in 2004, while the WHO recommends a minimum of 100 nurses per 1,00,000 people. According to the estimates of the National Commission on Macroeconomics and Health, 2005, only 40% of the nearly 1.4 million registered nurses are currently active in the country. In spite of the acute shortage of nurses, India has emerged as an important source of migrant health workers, partly on account of its large pool of English speaking nurses. From the choice destination of Gulf countries until 2000, there has been a sharp escalation in the number of Indian nurses working in the Western countries as well as in the number of new Indian nurse registrants in developed countries, particularly to the US, UK, Canada, and Australia in recent years.

### **Push and pull factors**

Various studies have cited low remuneration, difficult working conditions, lack of promotional avenues (due to the government's policy of reservation for SCs and STs) and professional development, poor facilities, low status, prevalent social attitudes towards nurses and poor living conditions as the main factors pushing Indian nurses to look for better employment avenues.

Growing demand for nurses abroad has resulted in substantial increase in the demand for paramedical courses in India during the last couple of decades. Increasing opportunities for employment and prospects of better income and life for themselves and their families have encouraged nurses in India to migrate abroad. Nurse shortages in developed countries have triggered active overseas recruitment, which has been facilitated by the emergence of a number of private recruiting agencies, especially in New Delhi, Bangalore and Kochi. Expansion of Commission on Graduates of Foreign Nursing Schools (CGFNS) examination centers in India has also helped Indian nurse applicants aspiring for US licensure. At the same time, Indian hospitals have engaged in 'business process outsourcing', wherein Indian nurses are recruited, trained and prepared to take foreign nurse examinations. In Kerala, a state which produces a large number of nurses in India, 'nursing for emigration' is common. In states like Tamil Nadu, the government is actively facilitating international migration of nurses by setting up entities like Overseas Manpower Corporation Limited. While India is actively seeking market access commitments from developed countries for allowing its health professionals to migrate to these countries on a temporary basis under Mode 4 of GATS negotiations, there is little focus on the implications it will have on its domestic health sector.

### **Costs and benefits**

The positive economic, professional and social outcomes that may result from nursing migration have to be weighed against the potential costs to the country that supplies these health workers. Do economic gains in the form of inflow of remittances from migrant nurses compensate for the brain drain? The answer would partly depend on whether migration is temporary or permanent. Temporary circular migration helps in upgrading skills of nurses who return as potentially 'enriched national resource' and who can then be utilized more efficiently in the domestic health sector. However, the few studies that have been undertaken in this regard, point to an almost negligible rate of return of migrant nurses and even from amongst those who do return, most do not prefer going back to work in the health sector. Permanent migration on the other hand, leads to a loss of services of skilled nurses and the inability to replace them puts added pressure on the remaining employees. Such pressure exerts further strain on the system, creating additional push factors, which in turn lead to the loss of more health professionals. Given that the nurse-population ratio in India is grossly inadequate to meet its current domestic health services needs, such 'nursing brain drain' would further undermine its ability to achieve 'health for all' and outweigh the economic gains it confers. Investment in training which is highly subsidized by governments in countries like India is an added cost as nurse migration effectively passes on the benefits of such subsidy to the destination country and its foreign service consumers. In fact, the serious consequences of nurse migration are already visible in the form of shortage of nursing teachers, high staff turnover particularly in the hospitals in Delhi and Kerala with 'continuity of care' being put at risk. Socially, the status of nurses is changing notably at least in Kerala, if not all around India. A better marriage alliance besides being able to help their families can be seen as a sign of relative power, which the migrating nurse has now acquired.

**Conclusions and policy recommendations:** There are serious social problems involved in the Indian government's enthusiasm to create a nurse export industry, without first creating a sustainable well resourced nurse base at home. Policy interventions required to manage nurse migration include the following:

1. Improving working conditions at home in respect of remuneration, opportunities for career advancement, training and skill development, compensation for overtime, recruitment of adequate staff, occupational safety and health, provision of social security, adequate facilities, availability of equipment and supplies, etc. can go a long way in reducing the push factors that induce nurses to migrate.
2. Increased funding by central and state governments for staff positions in public sector hospitals that cater to the healthcare needs of the vast majority of poor; where the workload is heavy and posts remain unfilled for a long period of time.
3. Regulating recruitment agencies in order to avoid exploitation of migrating personnel and to ensure fair practices in the recruitment process.
4. Strengthening database on migration of Indian nurses in order to plan an effective policy intervention for managing exits from the workforce. Making reporting

mandatory for recruiting agencies as well as hospitals that train nurses for placement abroad is one way of tracking migration and providing the necessary information to the government.

5. Indian embassies abroad need to be properly oriented about Indian nurses migrating abroad to ensure their safety and security.
6. Health manpower planning in keeping with existing and future needs and publicity to nursing as a career option in educational institutions are needed.
7. Providing a system of monetary and non-monetary incentives to encourage return migration of nurses to home countries.
8. Entering into bilateral agreements with destination countries for creation of temporary worker programmes for short duration of stay abroad and mechanisms to facilitate return in order to reap the benefits of skill improvement of migrant nurses by the source country.

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## **FORCED MIGRATION OF HALF- WIDOWS IN JAMMU AND KASHMIR**

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### **Introduction:**

Since the dawn of century armed conflict have been internal, complex phenomenons with civilians becoming the targets. Armed conflicts affect both men and women, but their experiences are different for both men and women (Bennett et al.1995). Traditionally women are not seen as combatants as majority of soldiers are men. Men are war makers and women are seen as passive victims and peace lovers (Cockburn 2011). Men are also seen as targets of violence in an armed conflict but women form the highest population of adult civilian who get killed and are targets of abuse in war, and even suffer economic, physical and psychological abuse.

The suffering of women is very large and goes beyond death and destruction. They are targets for rape, torture and molestation. Their sufferings are usually indirect, long term, invisible and not acknowledged. In many families the loss of the husband means the loss of bread winner and leading a life of uncertainty, living with fear and being ostracized. They are forced to work with men but it does not help them to get any powers to make decisions at home or outside. Often they are expected to work outside and look after the family and even manage the 'woman' chores. This reality is faced by many women in Jammu and Kashmir. Their sufferings are manifold. They suffer directly and indirectly, harassed and punished for their support to the armed struggle. There is no safety as they subject to rape and molestation all the time. In a conservative society honour is directly related to women. When honour is violated the entire society responds in anger and forgets to support the woman who is the victim. The issue of a woman being vulnerable is not addressed at all (Ubboott 2010). There are villages in Kashmir that are known as 'village of raped girls'. For this reason the entire village remains stigmatized and no girls are married. Sometimes women may be indirect targets of violence but their sufferings are part and parcel of their lives, severe and long drawn. Death and disappearance of the male member leaves a woman to suffer alone and even made to suffer for the doing of the man. They are forced to migrate to some other place that will help her to look after herself and her family by taking up jobs and also face the torture of the armed society. These women who are the survivors lead a life of suffering and neglect.

### **Half-Widowhood: A Precarious State**

The killings and disappearance of men in Kashmir have left many women struggling for survival. More than twenty thousand women are turned widows and half-widows (Kazi, 2009). The society is still unprepared to face this situation and the women face

a grave challenge. Many of them are illiterate and relatives often refuse to support them. Women are faced with many responsibilities and difficulties. Some women also face situations where their husbands have disappeared or are missing and presumed to be dead, though there is no proof of death. Association of Parents of Disappeared Persons (APDP) has claimed that men are forced to disappear and picked up by the troops. As there is no survey about the number of half-widows it is estimated that there are more than thousand half-widows in the valley (Kazi, 2009). The association reports that the fact that the men have disappeared and have not been declared dead, has left thousands of women, known as "half-widows", and their children in a precarious state, with little legal protection, rendering many desperate and homeless and paving the way for abuse and exploitation.

In this violence and confusion the fate remains unstable for these women. Law fails to provide justice and half-widows' search and move from pillar to post for their spouse. In the case of disappearance habeas corpus petitions are filed but they too fail as its time and money consuming. In this way the search of these missing cases becomes endless. Half-widows face the same problems like widows. Besides their uncertainty about their loved one they do not get official recognition of their status as there is no proof of the death of the husband. The struggle for survival and loss of bread winner pushes them to poverty and suffering. The pressure mounts as they take up new roles of breadwinner for their household. Their struggle is dual fold- new roles and responsibilities on one side and their own vulnerability and deficiencies on the other. Women are in an insecure position of being "single", yet still legally married; the "half-widows" are unable to access the family estate or ration cards. Even the ex-gratia relief and compassionate appointment created by the Indian government can only be accessed with a death certificate and that too only if it is proven that the deceased had no link with militancy. She is forced to take new responsibilities and also look after their own vulnerability. This adds to psychological trauma in their life. Not being able to bury the death and mourn properly leads to unstable psychological state. Death rituals are important to every community and to the individual to deal with the loss of the loved one but this situation becomes difficult as one cannot integrate one self. For the half-widows these rituals do not take place and can't reconcile with the loss and the process becomes prolonged. "Half-widows" are undefined legally and within the patriarchal socio-cultural environment, the women find themselves at the mercy of Kashmiri society, where a deafening silence surrounds gender violence and abuse. They struggle and keep negotiating with themselves and officials in search of their loved ones. They face financial, social, psychological and legal struggles on a daily note in their lives.

### **Economic Struggle:**

The disappearance of men had lead to economic insecurity of their family. When the head of the house hold and the main earning members suddenly go missing, their families face a lot of problems like scarcity of food, depriving basic needs and uncertainty of future. The half-widows have to take up additional difficult roles to



keep the fire in the hearth lit. She works in a dual shift i.e. at home and outside home for remunerative jobs. Before the disappearance of the husband, the half-widows spent their lives indoors doing household chores, now they had to look for work outside for feeding her household. As they have no formal education they have to take up physical work and may be hazardous. The work load falls on women and they experience hardships of life. Her physical health deteriorates but she is forced to work so as to maintain the household. Overnight these half-widows turn into wage labours for the sake of her family. She is forced to work as her relations and in-laws have deserted her, now she needs to fend for herself and her children. Many resort to domestic work, some others beg on the steps of dargahs and temples. If the husband had taken a loan then the crisis deepens which adds to the tensions. In this situation, searching for the missing in a violence and tense environment becomes even more difficult. The meager resources are drained and the daily needs are not met.

The half widow faces stigma and seclusion; she has to take up many responsibilities and her role changes from 'dependent' to a 'provider'. There is a change in her gender role. She has to become a 'man' of the house and forced to get empowered. The conflict in her makes vulnerable and endangers her insecurity. Sudden transformation in their role places a heavy burden on them as they have no formal or informal means of help. Many are not literate which also limits their options for survival in life. They are forced to tread on paths for their daily living. There is visible change in their roles and adapt themselves in 'male roles'. Nevertheless the number of roles that she takes up makes her empowered in her new situation. She faces repeated stigmas, apathy, shame and exclusions. But the hard work is seldom recognized or respected by others nor does she herself have a sense of achievement after meeting and talking to people.

### **Social Struggle:**

The half widow besides economic burden faces social repercussions too. With her new status as a half-widow her situation changes drastically in society. She is faced with new roles and responsibilities, new challenges. She faces ostracism which aggravates her situation. In this way the society's attitude too changes. To start with the in-laws change their behaviour towards a half-widow once the husband goes missing or disappeared. They may be forced to live alone or return to their parents' house. This mental torture is worse than loss of the spouse. She is forced to live like a widow and dress like one. In a patriarchal society, the right and dignity to live is denied to a half-widow. Even dressing up liked a married woman was denied, she could not touch or wear any ornaments. It was a clear indication that ornaments and dressing was associated with a man. In prolonged absence of the husband everything was denied to her. She was treated as a burden and considered as unfortunate. The neighbours hesitate to interact or mix with the household of a half-widow. The normalcy is disrupted and it's a painful situation for the woman.

Half-widows were forced to return to their parental who were forced to accept them and the 'feeling of becoming a burden' grew stronger. In a Kashmiri society returning

to her parental home was considered unfortunate. Offering help is not an accepted norm and asking help was considered becoming a burden. Women are forced to live independently so that they do not become a burden on any one. She lives a life of dignity for herself and children. In some other cases, the family is very supportive and they get the half-widow remarried. But this happens rarely.

The half-widow lives in constant fear and mistrust. The relatives, friends and neighbours do not interact or hesitate so that their families are safe. The society labels the half-widow being an informer. They do not interact and she lives in fear and stigma. This further aggravates her economic instability as it becomes difficult to get a job. People also look at a woman who stays alone with suspicion. Even if she goes out in search of her husband eyebrows are raised in whatever she does. It becomes difficult for her to move about therefore she has to migrate from place to place. Half-widow faces social censure from her grown up children, specially son. The son questions her where bouts and how she earns the money. She is ridiculed and criticized even by her own family. This is the most difficult and painful situation for the mother. The means of survival is against the norms of the society and is often criticized and ridiculed. Therefore she needs to guard her character and emphasis is laid on righteous conduct. Societal pressures need to be complied as there are severe strains on half-widows.

Remarriage for a half-widow is rare. Although remarrying would solve many problems specially economic and social insecurity and children would even live secured live. Firstly men are not willing to get married and take up the responsibility of children. Secondly, remarriage would mean putting an end to the hope of seeing their husband alive again. It would mean complete closure and give up the sense of loyalty towards them. Thirdly, the law allows them to remarry but in the case of half-widows there is a wait period. The woman has to approach the *Qazi* (the spiritual head) and nullify the marriage. After the specified wait period the *Qazi* may grant her permission to remarry. Women are not aware of the procedure and so do not consider remarriage. Lawyers do not want to take up the cases of half-widows as its difficult to declare missing men as dead in a violent prone and unpredictable region. In case the woman wants to egt married she can marry only after seven years from the day husband went missing.

### **Psychological Struggle:**

The forced disappearance of the husband affects the half widow psychologically. Economic struggle, social stigma adds to her mental state of mind. It becomes very difficult to come to terms with a disappeared husband. It adds to fear, confusion, movement from place to place which is a traumatic experience. Coping with this entire state is an unending process. Their anxiety of their loved ones leads to a desperate state of affairs and search. The tragedy of losing the spouse makes them fearless and finds no peace unless and until they have searched on their own in spite of their limitations.

Mourning, in many cases is life-long. They shuttle between hope and hopelessness of seeing their loved ones. In some cases hope diminishes with passage of time but for some, even after years hope remains. The disbelief in death does not allow the half-widow to live a normal life. The search for the husband would begin afresh with every single day. A new hope in the morning of every day and the day would end with disappointment and hopelessness. Her fears and anxiety becomes more complicated. The disbelief in the death of the person would not allow a normal mourning process and this would lead to more and more uncertainty and grief. They cling to memories and belongings of the husband that is children and photographs. Psychiatrists call their grief as on going, unresolved and traumatic disorder. They do not have ventilation of their sorrow and suffering. They find some solace in their children. They force themselves to survive in turbulent and threatening atmosphere. They keep working doing outside jobs as the house haunts them with memories. They try to be realistic and take one day at one time.

### **Legal Struggle:**

Being a half-widow adds to severe disputed legal status. As there is no proof of the missing person's death, the wife has no monetary compensation. Her rightful share to the husband's property is denied. She is denied pension, compensation from the government, share in the husband's property. There is no official acknowledgement from police or any other agency of the missing person. The struggle becomes endless and continuous. The government compensation is wrought with complexity and red-tapism. The half-widow cannot claim pension or relief as a widow for seven years. After seven years the relief is small and not useful as against the rising prices. The same is with the property; as there is no proof of husband's death, she needs to wait for seven years to claim the right of inheritance of her husband's property.

### **Conclusion:**

The birth of half-widows is a consequence of large scale disappearance of men in the on-going armed conflict in Jammu and Kashmir. The suffering of women often spiral beyond visible death and destruction. They suffer directly and indirectly. The women have always relied on men for sustenance but now they are confronted with ensuring survival for themselves and their household. They face economic, social and legal insecurity on daily basis. All this adds to psychological problems and deteriorates their mental and physical health. The social stigma and suspicion adds to their mental disturbance. They find little or no help in this hostile and unpredictable situation. They have a poor self image as many of them are barely literate and skilled. For these reasons the half-widows rely on their physical capacity and earn their living for themselves and their family. Over time their capacity gets deteriorated due to stress age. They face gender based violence at all levels and their vulnerability is not acknowledged. Their actions and movement is criticized by the society and their family members. Their legal status and inability to find answers to their questions haunts them. Finding the whereabouts of their husband remains persistent and a never

ending episode. They struggle alone and make every attempt to bring solace in their live and stability in their family.

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## **PATTERN OF INFLUX OF MIGRANTS FROM SOUTH INDIAN STATES AND BIMARU STATES INTO MUMBAI**

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### Introduction:

Birds, animals and humans tend to migrate from one place to another, propelled by various compulsive reasons, in search of greener patches, conducive environment, visualizing greater progress and of course at times just for the pleasure of migration. Migration is not travel or study tour, but it is signified by crossing the boundary of a less potential geographic area for a certain minimum period of time. It includes the movement of land-less labourers, refugees, displaced persons, and uprooted as well as economic migrants. Internal migration refers to a shift from one area (a province, district, municipality or village) to another within the same country. According to classical theories, migration is a rational decision made by an individual to move from a less advantageous situation to a more advantageous one.

Following major reasons prompt migration –

- Living below poverty line in the local area
- Non-availability of adequate employment
- Frequent failure of monsoon and famine
- Heavy borrowings from money lenders
- Inadequate infrastructure and lack of any upcoming employment projects
- Political uncertainty and disturbances like Naxalite movements
- Lack of proper education facilities
- Urge to find nascent avenue to secure better living standards
- Ethnic seclusion by upper caste people

Studies have found that the inter-state movement is not very high and most people remain within the same state after migration due to linguistic problems. Though considered by many as a natural and, at times, a beneficial process leading to availability of skilled/semi-skilled and unskilled labour force at lower wages, it has led to several problems in the Indian scenario. Despite the fundamental right cast in the Indian Constitution permitting the freedom to reside in any part of the country, experience has shown that it has also created friction in the society. (Singh, 2010)

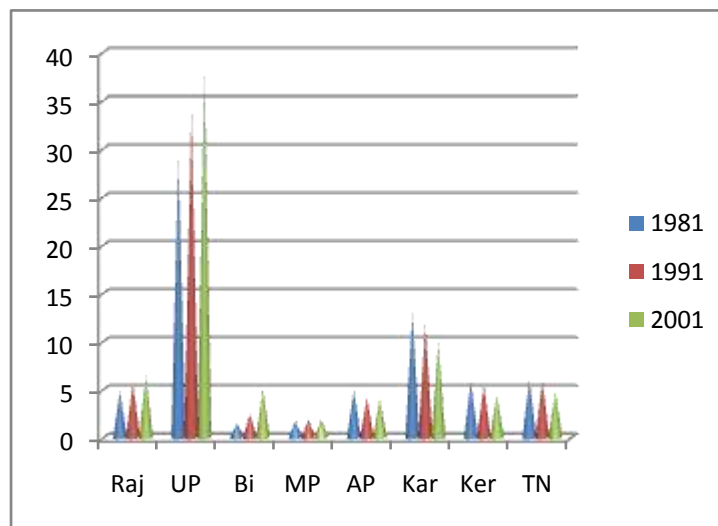
### **Methodology:**

The current study focuses on the pattern of migration by last residence from 4 states viz. Rajasthan, Uttar Pradesh, Bihar and Madhya Pradesh from North India and 4 states Andhra Pradesh, Tamil Nadu, Karnataka & Kerala from South India into Greater Mumbai. The reasons for migration from the rural and urban segments from these states are studied to find any difference in the pattern of migration. For the present study, only secondary data from 3 Census Reports, viz., 1981, 1991 and 2001 with respect to migration status have been relied upon as official data base. However, the latest official figures for the decade ending 2011 are not readily available.

Imagine a massive, diversified sub-continent with hundreds of millions of people nearly all of whom are illiterate, most of them rural and some isolated in jungles or mountains, some harbouring superstitions, opposed to census co-operation, some split by political and religious rift and some pure savages of stone age. One can imagine all this and the difficulty of taking a census becomes apparent. Modern techniques of postal enumeration cannot be used and the time-tested slow but sure method of each individual being enumerated separately is all that is possible. This involves the recruitment and training of a vast army of enumerators whose number can only be reckoned in thousands. The social and cultural complexities create special problems. However, Indian census is the only authenticated source on migration studies and hence used for the present study.

**Table 1 : State wise Distribution of Migrants in Mumbai (in Percentage)**

	Rajas	UP	Bihar	MP	AP	Kar	Ker	TN
1981	4.88	28.9	1.46	1.79	4.92	12.96	5.87	6.04
1991	5.79	33.9	2.53	1.91	4.18	11.73	5.43	5.94
2001	6.56	37.97	5.07	1.95	4.03	9.94	4.39	4.88



**Source:** Indian Census Reports

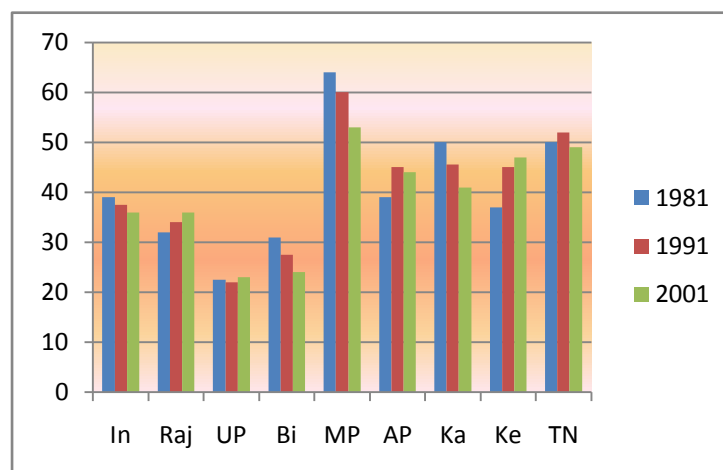
#### **Indication:**

- Migrants from Northern states increasing over the years in Mumbai.
- Migrants from Southern states decreasing over the years in Mumbai.
- Migrants from UttarPradesh maximum in Mumbai.
- From Southern States Karnataka has maximum migrant population.
- From Northern States MadhyaPradesh has minimum migrant population.
- From Southern States Kerala has minimum migrant population.

There is a phenomenal change in the pattern of migration in India in the recent times. Four to five decades ago, there was heavy migration from Southern States to Mumbai. Now the trend has drastically changed, as many people from North India have started coming to Mumbai.

**Table 2 : State wise Distribution of Urban Migrants in Mumbai (in Percentage)**

	India	Raj	UP	Bi	MP	AP	Kar	Ker	TN
1981	39	32	22.5	31	64	39	50	37	50
1991	37.5	34	22	27.5	60	45	45.5	45	52
2001	36	36	23	24	53	44	41	47	49



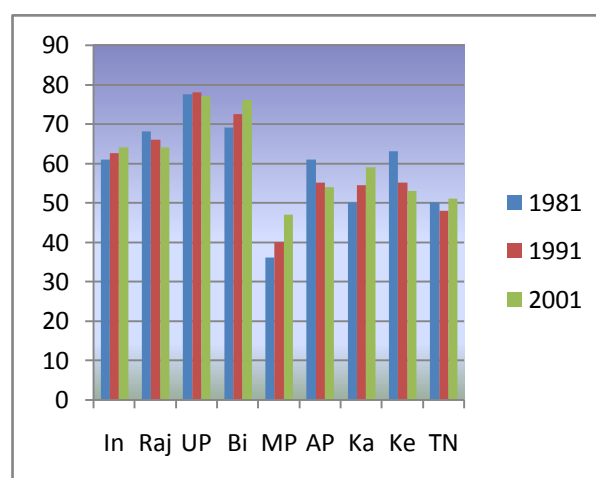
**Source:** Indian Census Reports

**Indication:**

- The proportion of Urban migrants from all over India into Mumbai is decreasing.
- Urban migrants from Madhya Pradesh two third compared to Rural.
- The proportion of Urban migrants from Bihar, Madhya Pradesh & Karnataka is decreasing.
- The proportion of Urban migrants from Rajasthan & Kerala into Mumbai is increasing.

**Table 3 : State wise Distribution of Rural Migrants in Mumbai (in Percentage)**

	India	Rajas	UP	Bihar	MP	AP	Kar	Ker	TN
1981	61	68	77.5	69	36	61	50	63	50
1991	62.5	66	78	72.5	40	55	54.5	55	48
2001	64	64	77	76	47	56	59	53	51



**Source:** Indian Census Reports

**Indication:**

- The proportion of Rural migrants from all over India into Mumbai is increasing.
- The proportion of Rural migrants from Bihar, Madhya Pradesh & Karnataka is increasing.
- The proportion of Rural migrants from Rajasthan, Andhra Pradesh & Kerala into Mumbai is decreasing.

**Observations:**

- More than 70% of the male migrants from the states of Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, Kerala & Tamil Nadu come for Employment/Business.
- Out of that more than 70 % are from rural areas.
- Maximum proportion of women migrants coming to Mumbai for jobs is from Kerala both rural & urban areas.
- The difference in the proportion of male & female migrants coming for employment is huge suggesting that women are not as emancipated as we imagine.
- The proportion of male migrants as well as female migrants coming for Education purposes is less.
- The major reason for migration of men is Employment, whereas in the case of women it is only a miniscule.
- The major reason for migration of women is Marriage.
- The second major reason for migration of both males as well as females is “moved with household”.
- The difference in the proportion of male & female migrants in the category “moved with household” is very less and the proportion of women is more.
- The third major reason for migration in to Mumbai for both sexes being “Others”.
- The difference in the proportion of male & female migrants coming for “other reasons” is also less.
- This trend is seen in all the three decades ie. 1981,1991,2001.

**Latest Trend:**

- Official data on migration to Mumbai is not readily available for the decade ending 2011 (latest).
- However, Mr. Raj Thackeray has recently asserted in an interview with Times Now News Channel that large number of migrants from Bihar and U.P. is rampantly observed in Mumbai.
- He has further raised an issue in that interview that official records are not dependable and / or not properly recorded for such huge inflow of migrants from Northern States into Mumbai, which would be very substantial in his opinion.
- It is further observed that in the hard-working labour groups in Mumbai, such as milk men, newspaper boys, vegetable vendors, such other errant jobs, etc., many migrants from Bihar and U.P. are actively seen in the markets.



The migration survey incorporating the reasons for migration was initiated only from the 1981 census. Hence there is no data available for the earlier old periods with regard to the reasons for migration.

The reasons quoted in the official census for migration are as under :-

- Work/employment // Business (In 1991 and 2001 census, there is a separate reason “Business”, which was not figuring in the 1981 census. For convenience of comparison, both the relevant categories of data have been merged).
- Education
- Marriage
- Moved with Family
- Others

### **Analysis of the reasons for migration:**

Work/Employment/Business :

- Under this category, migrants from Rajasthan and Madhya Pradesh has been observed to be steadily increasing over the 3 decades, both in Rural and Urban segments, which may be due to their search of greener pastures with better living standards.
- In case of certain business communities, such as Gujaratis, Marwaris, Baniyas, etc., they migrate to different states of India, propelled by their business ambitions and acumen, though only in small numbers.
- In the case of Bihar, urban migrants to Mumbai has been increasing. This could be due to lack of proper employment opportunities in the home state.
- Rural male migrants from U.P. shows an increase. This correlates with the large number of landless labour, frequent failure of monsoons/lack of proper irrigation facilities, low wages, etc.
- There is a declining trend in respect of migrants from the Southern States on account of this reason. This is perhaps due to local employment avenues in their respective states on account of spurt in Information Technology/Automobile/BPOs, etc.
- Shifting for work/employment/business figures predominantly in respect of male migrants and it is in miniscule for females

Education :

- There is a sharp decline in case of migrants to Mumbai, for pursuing education from other States.
- This declining trend is seen during all the 3 decades for migrants from all states and for both the sexes
- This is possibly due to opening of educational avenues in the home states or questionable standards in the education system in Mumbai vis-à-vis other progressive educational centres elsewhere in India.
- Migration for education is a major reason for male population, whereas it is insignificant for females.

#### Marriage :

- Migration for marriage is a major reason cited by women, whereas it is insignificant reason for males.
- Migrants from Tamilnadu and Kerala for marriage purpose is showing an increasing trend in all the 3 decades
- During the decade ending 1991, there is a sharp increase in proportion for citing Marriage as a reason for migration in respect of all the States. But many northern states showed a decline on this account in 2001.

#### Moved with household :

- The overall percentage for citing this reason for migration into Mumbai from elsewhere is on the decline
- In particular, there is a sharp decline as far as southern states are concerned on this score, whereas there is only a slight decrease in respect of northern states.
- The proportion of male and female migrants on account of this reason is more or less same

#### Others :

- This reason includes various other reasons for migration, such as heavy borrowing from moneylenders, political uncertainty, Naxalite movements, natural calamities, personal reasons, ethnic seclusion by upper castes, etc.
- In this category, the trend is increasing in citing these reasons during the entire 3 decade periods.
- Such increasing trend is seen in both male and female migrant segments

#### **Limitations:**

Frequent movement of people from one place to another, transitory population, those on regular travel for livelihood, mushrooming of slum areas in unhygienic areas of cities and towns, etc. are some of the limitations in achieving a near-perfect census survey. Further, massive illiterate population, with limited or poor communication ability impedes proper eliciting of detailed and precise information to compile an accurate survey.

Despite the inbuilt procedures of checks and counter-checks envisioned in the census survey assignments, an element of subjectivity on the part of the field staff engaged by the Census Dept., in understanding or rather misunderstanding the communications from the lowest strata of illiterate masses of acute poverty cannot be ruled out. In particular, the migrants from other States may not understand what the field staff asks by way of questionnaire in the local language, which again may trigger communication gaps.

#### **Conclusion:**

According to the census of India 2001, On the basis of net migrants by last residence during the past decade, i.e., the difference between in – migration and out – migration, in each state, Maharashtra stands at the top of the list with 2.3

million net migrants, Uttar Pradesh (-2.6 million) and Bihar (-1.7 million) were the two states with largest number of net migrants migrating out of the state.

This is clearly seen in our current study too that the South Indian migrants into Mumbai is on the decline, whereas, North Indian migrants is on the rise. There are various reasons for migration as per information collected in Census for migration by last residence. Most of the female migrants have cited 'Marriage', 'Moved with household' followed by 'Others' as the reason for migration. For males, the major reasons for migration are 'work/employment', followed by 'others' and 'Moved with household'.

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## **MIGRATING FOOTBALL PLAYERS**

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### **Introduction**

A major concern for managers of team sports leagues is simultaneously maintaining the competitive balance between the teams comprising the league, and remaining competitive with respect to other leagues. The latter requirement is necessary in order to remain able to attract talented players who are raised or playing in other leagues. The former requirement is realized if the distribution of talents among the teams is relatively homogeneous. Traditionally, league managers have sought to safeguard competitive balance within the league by controlling the market for players. For instance, in the European football leagues it has long been common practice to assume the clubs to be the owners of players they have under contract. Even after a contract expired players were not entitled to play for another club without permission of their former club. This club was even allowed to demand financial compensation for a change in club by a former player. This practice ended with the so-called 1995 Bosman judgment by the Court of Justice of the European Union, ruling that transfer fees after the expiration of a contract were an obstacle to the free movements of workers, one of the fundamental rights upon which the European Union is based.

Another mechanism to maintain competitive balance is by proportional redistributing revenues from ticket sales or broadcasting rights. The 'small' clubs are thus being prevented from getting poorer. This practice has been common in the major US sports

leagues (Szymanski, 2003), but in the economics sports literature its effectiveness has been questioned. According to the so-called invariance principle (El-Hodiri and Quirk, 1971) the distribution of talent among clubs will be biased towards the big clubs, and measures to curb free mobility of players, like the transfer fee systems in European football, are ineffective for safeguarding competitive balance. The principle of free mobility then should be weighed more heavily as it prevents owners of competitions to abuse their monopsonistic power towards the players and the consumers.

Zymanski and Késenne (2004) even go one step further by arguing that redistribution towards the weak drawing teams will blunt the incentives for team owners to compete, since the returns to winning are reduced. In the same vein Palomino and Sakovics (2004) argue that in an environment where different leagues compete for the top star players, it is in the interest of each and every league to provide its teams the incentives to bid a highprice for the top talents compared to foreign teams. A performance-based distribution of revenues provides such incentives.

However, an aspect that has been relatively undervalued is that most migration of players in European football has been in the direction of the ‘big’ leagues, i.e. England, Spain, Italy, and, to a lesser extent, Germany. After the Bosman ruling the small leagues tried to hold on to their talents by offering them long-term contracts (Fees and Muehlheuser, 2003a and 2003b), but in the end the best talents of the small leagues are playing in those big leagues.

While within one league a decline of competitive balance tends to be corrected one way or another, between leagues such an automatic correction mechanism does not seem to operate. Free mobility of players will be inefficient if the marginal loss of the small sending league is larger than the marginal benefit of the big receiving league. However, interestingly, free mobility of players can under special circumstances also lead to inefficiently low migration flows from the small to the big leagues. In particular, this is the case when talents have to be trained before they can play in the league.

It is relatively straightforward to demonstrate along the lines of the classic Boadway and Flatters (1982)-paper that in case ‘big’ and ‘small’ leagues co-exist as is the case in European football, migration flows can turn out to be inefficiently large (or, sometimes, small). Intervention from the federal (football) authority is therefore necessary in order to restore efficiency. These interventions can be financial measures like redistributing revenues from the big and rich leagues to the small and poor leagues. In this circumstance an ‘old-fashioned’ transfer fee system can provide a correction to inefficient migration flows of football players. In case migration is too large, these transfer fees are comparable to the equalization transfers in the fiscal-federalism literature (see Boadway, 2004, for an overview) from better-off to less well-off jurisdictions. If the number of talents in each league is exogenously given, transfer payments for the emigration of talents correct an inequitable distribution of

welfare across leagues. In general, the optimal transfer fee rate is a positive function of players' capability, a negative function of the relative size of the home country of the talents, and should moreover be relatively high when talents are in high demand.

But, direct or indirect migration controls can also be used to restore efficiency. Previously such controls were realized in European football by the so-called nationality rule. This rule allowed national football associations to limit the number of foreign players a team in a given association was allowed to field. By regulating the maximum number of foreign players, migration of players was effectively restricted and the quality of the smaller leagues protected. It goes without saying that within the common market of the EU, this practice had to be abolished. Indeed, as a part of the Bosman ruling, the European Court of Justice also held that the nationality rule constituted an obstacle to the freedom of movement and was therefore prohibited.

Another example of a migration control is the so-called 'home-grown' player rule, recently introduced by the European Football Association (UEFA). According to this rule, clubs can only enter a European competition, like the Champions League, if their roster of players contains at least a certain number of players who were educated by the club itself. This rule obviously restricts the demand for foreign players and thus restricts migration in an indirect way. However, as in the current formulation of the home-grown rule the nationality of the trained players is left unidentified, the rule is not necessarily an infringement upon EU principles. Recently, the European Parliament even explicitly has declared itself in favor of the home-grown rule as a means to restore competitive balance in European football.

If talents are to be trained in order to become top players, free and uncompensated migration of players will diminish the incentives for national leagues to provide schooling to talented players. As a result the supply of talents will be too low. Transfer fees can lead to a correction to a too low supply of talents because of the lack of training facilities. However, although introducing transfer fees for migrating players will be Pareto improving compared to a free market migration equilibrium of football players, oversupply of talents in the small league can emerge. In an equilibrium with endogenous talents small leagues will not have any training facilities if the migration of their talents to the big leagues go uncompensated. The demand for their talents can be limited, however, if a home-grown players rule is operative. In that case, the big leagues should have their own training facilities before they can demand foreign talents. The rule, therefore, can make it advantageous for the small league to have training facilities for their talents. As we will see, however, in the context of our model, the home-grown condition should be very strong in order for the positive effect on the small league's training facility to become operative. Moreover, the primary beneficiary of a home-grown rule appears to be the big league, especially when talents are highly capable.

In the next section the basic model will be developed. In section 3 we deal with the case where talents are exogenously given, while in section 4 talents have to be trained

before they can play in one of the leagues. For both cases we demonstrate the inefficiency of migration by comparing the market equilibrium with a social-welfare optimum. The fifth section concludes.

### **No transfer fee system**

Consider first the case that no transfer fee system exists, so that  $\tau = 0$  in the first-order conditions (14) and (15). It is then trivial to prove that if the big league wants to import talents,  $T_{21} > 0$ , it will be optimal not to train talents. Hiring players from the small league without the obligation to financially compensate that league thus obviates the need to have an own training system for native talents, and the big league restricts itself to attracting talents from abroad. Unless the demand for foreign players exerted by the big league is relatively small, the small league, on the other hand, will have no incentive to train talents either if it knows that it will lose its talents without being compensated for the emigration of its talents. In a system without transfers, therefore, the only equilibrium can be one where the small league will have no talents, and the big league will employ home-grown talents only, so that  $T_{21} = 0$ . For the big league this case is therefore identical to the case of a closed league. The results for this case are described in table 3. The small league can only employ mediocre talents and welfare equals  $N/2 \log N/2$ .

### **A transfer fee system**

Let us now turn to the case with positive transfer rates,  $\tau > 0$ . The small league will have an incentive to train talents if it can derive a positive profit from exporting talents to the big league. Crucially this depends on how the small league perceives the relation between their training efforts and the emigration of talents. We assume here that the small league knows the demand for their talents by the big league,  $T_{21}$ . If the small league trains a number of talents, then, given the dominant position of the big league on the players' market, the small league knows that the first  $T_{21}$  of these home-grown talents will emigrate to the big league, while the remainder can be employed in the small league. Obviously, if the small league chooses not to train talents to satisfy the big league's demand, it is not able to train talents for the own league as well. Therefore, a small league will choose to export talents, even at a loss, if the gain from employing talents in the own league is enough to compensate the possible loss from exporting talents. If the loss associated with training talents for the export is too high to make raising additional talents for the own league worthwhile, then the only option for the small league is not to train talents and employ mediocre talents. For the big league the equilibrium is in that case given by the closed-economy solution.

### **A home-grown players rule**

As mentioned in the introduction an alternative way to regulate the mobility of players is by introducing a 'nationality' rule or a 'home-grown' rule. The former rule has been deemed conflicting with European laws as it imposes an impediment to the free movement of persons. The latter rule, however, as it is now applied in European Football is not based on nationality and thus will probably not be interpreted as an

infringement on European law. The purpose of this subsection is to consider the effectiveness of this rule in reaching the social-welfare solution and to compare it to a system of transfer fees, considered previously.

What remains to be considered is how high the required home-grown rate  $\lambda$  has to be in order to make it advantageous for league 2 to have training facilities of their own. For a too low value of  $\lambda$  league 2 will lose ‘too many’ of its talents and not start training facilities and play with mediocre talented players only. Actually, it turns out with our sample of parameters that if  $\alpha = 0.1$  league 1’s demand for foreign talents for any  $\lambda < 1$  will be such that the small league will have no incentive to start training their talents. The market equilibrium, where the big league produces talents as in the closed league and the small league does not have talents, emerges as a result.

## **Conclusion**

In a common football market with mobile players, like the European football market actually is, a free-market equilibrium will only under very special circumstances be efficient. How large the efficiency loss in equilibrium actually will be depends, among other things, on the relative market sizes of the leagues. Market size is modeled here as a positive function of population size. In European football this seems a reasonable approximation. The ‘big’ football leagues in Europe, like the Premier League in England and the Primera Division in Spain, serve a much larger potential crowd than smaller leagues like those of the Netherlands and the Scandinavian countries. These big leagues, therefore, have larger income sources from ticket sales and broadcast revenues, and are able to pay higher salaries to their top players than the small leagues. Eventually, the top players in these small leagues will be drawn away to play in the top leagues. In fact, this is the basic assumption that we made in the model with exogenous talent availability, i.e. that top leagues are always able to satisfy their demand for talents from abroad. For this case, it is easy to demonstrate that a system of transfer fees as compensation for migrating players can help to remedy the suboptimal supply of talents in the big league.

For the case where talents have to be trained, transfer fees also can help to remedy the inefficiency of the market. Without any transfer fees the small league will easily lose its incentive to train talents, and the resulting equilibrium will be one where there is no migration and undersupply of talents occurs. A system of transfer fees restores the incentive to install training facilities for the talents in the small league. However, the number of talents that will be raised can be too large. As the transfer rate to be paid by the big league decreases demand for foreign talents, the small league will have to export less talents and can, therefore, employ more and in fact too many talents in their home league. This inefficiency, engendered by the transfer fee system, however, is smaller than the inefficiency that the free market without transfer fees produce.

The home-grown rule that prescribes that a certain proportion of the roster of players should be ‘home-grown’ does not appear to be very effective in reaching the social

welfare optimum. The reason for its ineffectiveness is that the proportion of home-grown players should be unrealistically high. For a too low proportion the small league will not find it worthwhile to train its own talents and an equilibrium will result where only the big league has training facilities. But, if the home-grown rule is effective, it always lead to inefficient migration flows. In particular, if migration should be low from a normative point of view, the home grown rule produces too much migration, and, the other way round if migration should be high. Note that the European Parliament in a recent resolution suggested that the home-grown rule should be supported by the European Commission as a means to restore competitive balance. This paper shows that this rule can be useful in reaching a more level playing field across leagues. However, this statement is only true if a home-grown rule is compared with a market with free and uncompensated migration of talents as the Bosman ruling intended to imply. If the homegrown rule is compared to a system of optimal transfer fees, however, the home-grown rule fares less well: especially when both leagues should have approximately the same number of talents and migration should be low as a result, the home-grown rule leads to too many talents in the big league and a too high level of mobility of talents.

Finally, notice that in some of the analyzed cases it appeared to be optimal that the small league trained talents, but did not employ them. In that case monetary transfers from the big league to the small league had to occur to compensate the small league for the loss of talents. Let us point out, however, that our analysis is based, first, on the assumption that transfer money provides the same utility as the money talents produce by playing in their own country. Second, if the federal football authority was using another social welfare function that gave more weight to the small leagues' welfare, like a Rawlsian function, the welfare loss of losing talents by the small league would be more important, and thus could lead to the result that talents should always play in the small league.

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## **PREVALENCE AND CHANGES IN TOBACCO ABUSE AFTER MIGRATION CASE STUDY AMONG DELHI SLUM MIGRANTS**

**Jeetendra Yadav and Chander Shekhar**

### **Introduction**

Substance use is one of the leading causes of mortality around the globe. According to 2004 WHO report, tobacco and alcohol (considered as substance use) acquires 2<sup>nd</sup> and 8<sup>th</sup> position, respectively, among the risk factors attributed to death. India is one of the countries with high prevalence of tobacco and alcohol use. The third round of National Family Health Survey (2005-06) estimated that 57% men aged 15-49 years use any kind of tobacco while about 32% consume alcohol. Evidence suggests the magnitude of tobacco and alcohol consumption is likely to be higher among migrants and among those residing in adverse geographical settings. Although there are studies focusing on migration as one of the facilitating factors in increasing risk and vulnerability, the study on changing pattern of tobacco and alcohol use pre and post migration often remains limited.

### **Methods**

This study uses primary data collected from 1060 migrants selected residing in five different slums in Delhi. Delhi is selected purposively because it is the national capital and attracts large volume of in-migrants. Nearly two lakhs persons migrated into Delhi every year during the decade 1991-2001. Migrants are defined as those men whose place of current residence is other than the place of last residence and are staying at the place of enumeration since last 1-9 years. The study also restrict to those migrants who will be in the age group between 15-35 years. Bi-variate and multi-variate analyses are used for the analysis purpose.

### **Findings**

Preliminary findings suggest that, of the 1060 male migrants interviewed under this study, about 59% used any form of tobacco in their life time. Interestingly, of those who ever consumed any form of tobacco, 35% consumed the same before migration and 65% after migration, i.e., after coming to Delhi. The logistic regression analysis also highlights the fact that, after controlling the effect of several confounding factors, the chances of tobacco abuse was higher during post migration period.

### **Conclusion**

There is a significant increase in extent of tobacco abuse during the post migration period among the migrated men residing in the Delhi slum.

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## **DEVELOPMENT -INDUCED DISPLACEMENT: POLICY ISSUES**

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### **Introduction**

“Each person possesses an inviolability founded on justice that even the welfare of society as a whole cannot override.”

John Rawls<sup>1</sup>

Displacement induced by economic growth in the modern industrial and technological era seems to be a continuous process. Natural resource extraction, urban renewal or development programs, industrial parks, and infrastructure projects (such as highways, bridges, irrigation canals, and dams) all require land, often in large quantity. One common consequence of such projects is the upheaval and displacement of communities. Around 10 million people, according to the World Bank estimate, are being displaced every year the world over. So far, no precise estimate of the displaced people in India under numerous public and private projects is available. One of the reliable estimates suggest that at least 60 million Indian citizens were displaced from over 25 million hectares of land between 1947 and 2004, among whom at least 40% were adivasis and 20% dalits.<sup>2</sup> Out of this, less than 18% were resettled, not to say rehabilitated with alternative livelihoods.<sup>3</sup>

For decades, social movements and civil society groups have been calling for national legislation on resettlement and rehabilitation and for repealing or amending the existing colonial Land Acquisition Act, 1884. It was only after the violence in

Nandigram and the huge controversies over land acquisition for SEZs that the Government of India introduced the Land Acquisition, Rehabilitation and Resettlement (LARR) Bill 2011 in the Parliament. The proposed Bill (renamed ***Right to Fair Compensation and Transparency in Land Acquisition, Rehabilitation and Resettlement Bill 2011***) is a major step forward, because it links land acquisition with rehabilitation and resettlement policies. This paper focuses on the phenomenon of development-induced displacement in the context of legal and policy changes embodied in the new legislation.

### **Existing Legal and Policy Frameworks for Land Acquisition, Resettlement and Rehabilitation**

#### *The Land Acquisition Act, 1894*

The regulatory framework for acquiring land in India is the Land Acquisition Act (LAA, 1894) which is a colonial legacy. It is based on the principle of 'Eminent Domain' which essentially refers to the power possessed by the state over all property within its territory, specially its power to appropriate private property for a public purpose. One of the major controversies has been what constitutes 'public purpose', additionally there are 16 Acts with provisions for acquisition of land in specific sectors such as Railways, special economic zones, national highways etc. Under the federal structure 'acquisition and requisition of property' is in the concurrent list. Both the Parliament and the State Legislatures can legislate on them.

The LAA, 1884 has been defended so far by stating the welfare state's primacy over all natural resources as opposed to individual ownership. One of its main uses in early post independence India was Zamindari abolition and land reforms. However, the use of eminent domain to dispossess landlords and distribute land to the poor was rather short lived. Under the Nehruvian development state this more egalitarian use was quickly supplanted by the exigencies of displacing the poor for dams, mines, and other large scale development projects.<sup>4</sup>

### **Compensation**

Article 19(f) and 31 of the Indian Constitution guaranteed the right to private property to citizens with the provision that private property can be acquired by the state for public purpose. It always remained controversial and this right was deleted from the fundamental rights chapter by 44<sup>th</sup> Constitutional Amendment Act in 1978. It is a legal right now. Land acquisition cannot be challenged in a court of law on the ground that they violated the fundamental rights of citizens. The LAA speaks only about monetary compensation. There is no provision of rehabilitation, land for land or jobs. But even assuming that only money is to be given in exchange for expropriation the question arises as to whom the money should be paid to and how much. According to the act only the lawful owners of the land are included, landless labourers, artisans, fishermen - those dependent on that land are not entitled to any compensation. In deciding about the quantum of compensation the authorities in practice have arbitrary power to decide the market value of the land.

## **Rehabilitation**

Rehabilitation was seen as merely an issue of appropriate compensation and the state had no responsibilities beyond its payment; the reason being that the displaced would use their compensation to rehabilitate themselves.<sup>5</sup> At present there is no central law dealing with rehabilitation and resettlement. The ideas of resettlement and rehabilitation began to emerge in India most notably in the context of the Narmada (Sardar Sarovar) project. Extensive public debate followed. Partly due to the protests and partly due to some of the international donor agencies insisting on rehabilitation as conditionality for loans, over the last few years, many State Governments have come out with their own rehabilitation policies. States like Madhya Pradesh in 1985, Karnataka in 1987 and Maharashtra in 1989 have enacted laws regarding R&R. Public sector companies like National Thermal Power Corporation (NTPC) and Coal India Limited (CIL) also came out with their policies in 1993 and 1994 respectively. These policies were, however, alleged to be formulated under the pressure from the World Bank. The National Highways Act, 1956, the Coal Bearing Areas (Acquisition & Development) Act, 1957, which is applicable to land acquisition in coal bearing areas, and The Mines and Mineral Acts, 1957 are also special Acts dealing with R&R. In 2004 the Central Government notified the National Policy on Resettlement and Rehabilitation of project affected families which lays down minimum norms for rehabilitating affected people and broadly outlines an approach and institutional framework to achieve its objectives.

## **Political- Economic Context and the proposed New Legislation**

In the post economic liberalisation period there has been a growing concern on the manner in which the power to acquire land for public purposes has been exercised by the Government only for the benefit of private corporations and commercial interests and profits. With liberalisation increased demand for land has been driven by at least four sources- industry, resource extraction, infrastructure and real estate – as private investment has flown into these sectors unprecedented quantities.<sup>6</sup> It is interesting to note that according to the SEZ Act 2005, SEZs are also interpreted as ‘public facility or infrastructure’ where in fact they are enclaves for transnational capital to flourish in the free market competition. It has been calculated that around 2.7% of the total arable land in India is in the process of being diverted to SEZs.<sup>7</sup> The rapidly expanding demand for land under India’s neoliberal regime has resulted in widespread protests from people. From Barnala in Punjab and Janjjar in Haryana to Kakinada in Andhra Pradesh and Nandagudi in Karnataka, from Nandigram in West Bengal and Jagatsighpura in Orissa in the East to Raigad, Mangalore and Goa on the West coast of India, farmers, landless workers, fish workers and artisans have expressed their anger against the loss of land, livelihood and habitat. The violence witnessed in Nandigram (in March 2007, 14 people died in police firing when protesting notification of 25,000 acres of land under the Land Acquisition Act, 1894 for an SEZ towards a chemical hub slated for the Salim group of Indonesia) shocked the nation and intensified the debate on altering the legal framework of eminent domain. Many of these movements have succeeded as shown by the fact that many of the largest

proposed SEZs have been scrapped stalled or delayed, for example Reliance in Raigad and POSCO in Orissa, Vedanta's mining project in Niyamgiri.

It was in this context that in 2007, two Bills were introduced in the Lok Sabha: one to amend the Land Acquisition Act, 1894, and the other to provide statutory status to the R&R policy of 2007. These Bills lapsed with the dissolution of the 14th Lok Sabha in 2009. In September 2011, combining the two the Government introduced the Land Acquisition and Rehabilitation and Resettlement Bill in the Lok Sabha to replace the archaic LAA, 1884. It was later referred to the Parliamentary Standing Committee on Rural Development, which submitted its report in Parliament on May 7, 2012. The Ministry of Rural Development rejected its key recommendation for a blanket ban on the acquisition of land by the Government for the private sector ventures and PPP projects. Many in the corporate sector also are of the opinion that Government should play a prominent role in land acquisition as agglomerating land from numerous owners is not a task that corporate sector can do effectively, especially in the absence of proper land records and with small, scattered land holdings.<sup>8</sup>

As there was no consensus within the UPA, the draft of the bill was referred to a Group of Ministers (GoM) chaired by Agriculture Minister Sharad Pawar. This contentious Bill has witnessed multiple changes over the last one year. It was approved by the Cabinet on December 13, 2012 with further changes and the government has announced that it will be presented in the Parliament this winter session.<sup>9</sup>

### **New Bill**

The Bill has been renamed '*Right to Fair Compensation and Transparency in Land Acquisition, Rehabilitation and Resettlement Bill 2011*'. It specifies provisions for land acquisition as well as R&R. Some of the major changes from the current provisions are related to (a) the process of land acquisition; (b) rights of the people displaced by the acquisition; (c) method of calculating compensation; and (d) requirement of R&R for all acquisitions. The salient features of the proposed legislation are as follows:

- It is a comprehensive Bill on land acquisition as well as rehabilitation & resettlement (R&R), and subjects all eminent domain acquisitions as well private purchases of over 100 acres in rural areas and 50 acres in urban areas to a mandatory R&R package.
- The benefits both for affected landowners as well as livelihood losers include annuities, transportation allowance, land for land, a portion of capital gains from resale, and the construction of alternative housing and communal amenities in the event of loss of homestead.
- It significantly increases the minimum compensation payable, but continues to use the market price, obtained from recently registered sale deeds from the region, as a yardstick. The minimum compensation has been fixed at four times the market price in rural areas and twice the market price in urban areas.

- It places restrictions on the use of multi-cropped land.
- The approval of Gram Sabha and other such institutions like Panchayat will be required for acquiring land in Scheduled Areas.
- Procedural safeguards have also been introduced, including social impact assessment, adequate notification and consent of at least 80% of the landowners in case of private project, 70% of landowners in case of PPP projects.
- It will apply retrospectively to all cases where land acquisition is not complete.
- One year timeline is given for land acquisition.

### **Current Debate**

The National Alliance of People's Movements (NAPM) and several other land rights and anti-displacement movements — like the National Forum of Forest people and Forest workers — under the banner of 'Sangharsh', a platform which since 2007 has comprised various peoples movements and organisations fighting anti-people policies have been critical of some of the provisions and have protested against the bill. They have demanded that there be no forcible acquisition of agricultural land for non-agricultural purposes, no forcible acquisition for private or for PPP projects which cannot be categorised as public purpose projects, the return of unutilised land to land owners if it is not used after 5 years from the date of possession, and a separate act for the urban displaced.<sup>10</sup> On the other hand industry is concerned on the possible steep increase in the cost of resettlement and rehabilitation for the acquisitions by the industry.<sup>11</sup> According to *Arun Nanda, director of Mahindra & Mahindra*, "The land cost will go up by probably about 50-60 percent or maybe 100 percent for the compensation to the farmers."<sup>12</sup> They also suggest that there is an immediate need to constitute land bank corporations in states to facilitate acquisition of fallow, barren and unproductive as well other lands, ex ante and its disbursement for industrial use in a transparent manner.

### **Conclusion**

Land in India is both extremely scarce and unequally distributed. For decades, land rights and displacements have been at the heart of major social mobilisations. The proposed *Right to Fair Compensation and Transparency in Land Acquisition, Rehabilitation and Resettlement Bill 2011*, has several laudable provisions. *It seeks to protect the welfare of all affected parties by creating a legal entitlement to compensation and resettlement and rehabilitation for all livelihood losers.* However, the State could still acquire land for private companies. The term public purpose is broadened. Land can be acquired for strategic purposes and for infrastructure projects of appropriate government where the benefits accrue to the general public. Infrastructure includes projects like mining, education, tourism, health sports etc. There is a provision that whenever a private company has acquired 70% of the land necessary for a project deemed useful to the general public, the government will acquire the remaining 30%. *However the past experience does not inspire confidence in the effectiveness of the working of such an act. More importantly this bill is prepared with the underlying ideology of*

*rapid, massive industrialisation by the private sector. It does not mention public participation in development planning.* The main objective seems to be to allow major transfer of resources to the private sector with some solace to the displaced.

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## **SOCIO-ECONOMIC PROFILE OF MIGRANTS**

*A case study of migrants of Syro- Malabar- Kerala Catholics of Tilak Nagar, Chembur, Mumbai and their concern for building their own church*

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The history of mankind is the history of migration and the history of humanity teaches us that human mobility is an universal phenomenon of all ages. The Bible is basically the history of man on the move. It was hunger that first forced the Hebrews to migrate to Egypt.(Gen 12:10)

The prime reason for migration of Syro-Malabar-Kerala Catholics to Mumbai was for employment purpose. Once the basic need of human being is met, the inner search begins for quenching the spiritual thrust. Rather, even in the search for basic needs of the body, divine intervention is sought. This phenomenon existed in the history of humanity from time immemorial. Indian cities have witnessed increasing presence of migrant Christians.

The life of these migrant Christians is exposed to many problems and difficulties in the new socio-cultural atmosphere. Migration has many implications due to demographic, religious, political, cultural and economic changes.

The church has been closely involved and has pondered over the demands of the migrants. From the ecclesial perspective, migration invites special pastoral care in the field of ritual, liturgical, cultural and social fields. The church is instrumental among the migrants for the promotion of human identity and universal communion.

Reaching Mumbai city empty handed and with no one to contact, the stories of the first migrants were not that significant. But with hard work, they started earning their livelihood. They did not neglect their spiritual life which was deeply rooted in their very being.

The faithful Syro-Malabar-Kerala catholic migrants of Tilak Nagar, Chembur, Mumbai never had their own church. The existing Latin Diocese of Pestom Sagar, Chembur of that time welcomed them and allowed them to participate in various religious functions from birth to death.

In view of taking care of some spiritual needs of Syro-Malabar Kerala Catholics of Mumbai, the faithful migrants with their own initiative started new associations such as Kerala Catholic Association in Mumbai and St. Thomas Catholic of India in Pune.

The migrants were able to set apart their might for the spiritual needs. These faithful migrants neither had a bishop nor priests, sisters and seminarians. There were no churches or other infrastructure for these migrants. At this juncture, in 1978 Mar Anthony Padiyara was appointed Apostolic visitor to study the situation of the Migrant-Syro-Malabar Catholics. He reached Mumbai, conducted 18 meetings from 4th to 18th February, 1979 and a report was submitted in 1980. After lengthy discussions in Vatican, on 30th April, 1988 the Kalyan Eparchy was erected. (The Lantern, a magazine from Diocese of Kalyan, Vol. 01/issue 01/October 2012)

Immediately after the inauguration of the eparchy, in order to cater to the spiritual needs of the faithful, priests were appointed, who came from various dioceses of the mother church as well as the religious congregations. The new eparchy tried to pave strong foundations for its pastoral development. The faithful whole heartedly accepted



the new set up with lots of enthusiasm. Planting the St. Thomas tradition in this multi-religious-linguistic-cultural city was never an easy task.

In this way the Syro-Malabar-Kerala Catholics of Tilak own church. They had to face many problems as they are a minority group with limited membership, in a cosmopolitan city like Nagar, Chembur, got a priest for conducting holy qurbana(mass) in their own language (Malayalam). But they never had a church of their own to conduct long holy mass, catechism, and to celebrate different religious functions. So, they conducted holy mass and other religious functions in different private institutions for a long time without a church. This faithful group of migrants of Tilak nagar, Chembur came together and started searching a place to erect a church of their own with the help of the parish Priest. The faithful were really generous in their contribution to get a place to erect their own church. Majority of the faithful people contributed a huge amount from their earnings and by taking taking leave from their working places to search for a place. They had to run from pillar to post to get necessary permission from various authorities to get a land to build their Mumbai.

With strong unity, hard work, determination and immense help that was rendered from time to time by the Municipal Corporator Mr. R.T.Kadam, of the area they could get a place at Tilak Nagar in 1992 to and source of strength.

All the more, coming together and standing strong as an ecclesial community with some special identity has become part and parcel of their life. The family prayer, a strong tradition of the mother church is practiced inspite of the day-to-day difficulties. erect a small church, after long years of struggle. Though, these migrants came to Mumbai, basically in search of bread and butter, they strictly followed their religious faith for which they contributed a major share of their earnings to build their own worshipping place. Now, they are proud to have their own church in Tilak Nagar, Chembur. The liturgical celebrations are now moments of spiritual nourishment The activities of youth, Sunday catechism, Mathru Sangam (Mothers' Association), Charismatic groups etc. are going on in full swing. A strong bond is created as a small minority community in this vast city.

Despite their migration to a cosmopolitan atmosphere, the migrants preserved their original religious values intact.

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## **MIGRATION UNDER THE AEGIS OF INTERNATIONAL LAW AND HUMAN RIGHTS**

**Mamta Bhattacharjee Goswami**

**"Today's real borders are not between nations, but between powerful and powerless, free and unfettered, privileged and humiliated. Today, no wall can separate humanitarian and human rights crises in one part of the world from national security crisis in the other."**

*- Kali Annan, former UN-Secretary General*

With the onset of winter, a natural phenomenon witnessed by us is the flocking of migratory birds from colder regions to warmer regions in search of food and suitable living conditions. A similar phenomenon also takes place in the human world where people move from one place to another in search of better prospects of livelihood and a better standard of living. Although we find a similarity between avians and humans in the aspect of migration there is a great rift which differentiates the two, avians are free to move but human movement is restrained by the laws of the land which govern them or the laws of that land by which they are to be governed after migration.

### **Migration and International Law**

Presently, migration is a global phenomenon, which has made the State realize that migration cannot be managed by national legislations alone. With the gradual expansion of the horizon of International Law, relations between States and international organizations and between States and individuals have expanded. The need for regional and international cooperation on the issue has been greatly realised. Several aspects of migration are managed at the international level, creating a web of legal relationships, which may be either State-to State or State-to-individual.

The areas where International Law comes into the scenario are:

1. ASYLUM
2. FAMILY UNITY
3. DETENTION OR EXPULSION OF ALIENS
4. RIGHT TO FREEDOM OF MOVEMENT
5. HUMAN TRAFFICKING AND SMUGGLING

### **Migration and Human Rights**

An individual right from his birth is endowed with certain basic inalienable rights. These rights help the individual's physical as well as mental growth and development. Many countries have recognised these rights and are very particular about their enforcement mechanism. These rights have been nomenclatured as "human rights". They are legally guaranteed protections against actions that interfere with fundamental freedoms and human dignity. These rights are applicable

universally and encompass a wide range of civil, cultural, economic, political and social rights.

The degree of vulnerability in which migrants find themselves depends on a wide variety of factors, which are as follows:

- 1. Legal status**
- 2. Discrimination on the basis of gender**
- 3. Right to safe and healthy working condition**
- 4. Right to adequate food and housing**
- 5. Right to family life**
- 6. Physical accessibility of health services**

There are certain international human rights instruments which have contributed toward accruing the migrants their human rights. These instruments are:

#### **UNIVERSAL DECLARATION OF HUMAN RIGHTS, 1948**

The most fundamental human rights instruments, which provides the basic rights applicable to migrants, including those in irregular situations includes the right to recognition before the law and the right to a standard of living adequate for health and well-being.

#### **INTERNATIONAL CONVENTION ON THE ELIMINATION OF ALL FORMS OF RACIAL DISCRIMINATION, 1965**

States are under an obligation to guarantee civil, political, economic, social and cultural rights of the whole population and not just of citizens. Although States may differentiate between non citizens. States must not discriminate against particular nationality.

#### **INTERNATIONAL COVENANT ON ECONOMIC, SOCIAL AND CULTURAL RIGHTS**

The Covenant specifically permits developing countries to determine the extent to which they will guarantee the economic rights set forth in the Covenant to non-nationals.

#### **INTERNATIONAL COVENANT ON CIVIL AND POLITICAL RIGHTS**

The Covenant requires States to guarantee the rights recognized in the Covenant to all individuals within the territory and subject to their jurisdiction without distinction of any kind and recognizes several rights which are integral to the realization of the rights to health, information, privacy, freedom of movement and security of person.

### **INTERNATIONAL BILL OF HUMAN RIGHTS, 1966**

Many international human rights treaties have been build on the International **Bill** of Human Rights focussing on specific categories of population such as women and children and most recently migrant workers and racial discrimination.

### **CONVENTION ON THE ELIMINATION OF ALL FORMS OF DISCRIMINATION AGAINST WOMEN, 1979**

The Convention applies to all women, citizens and non-citizens alike.

### **CONVENTION AGAINST TORTURE AND OTHER CRUEL, INHUMANE OR DEGRADIN TREATMENT OR PUNISHMENT, 1984**

The Convention applies to any individual who has been subject to torture within the jurisdiction of each State party.

### **CONVENTION ON THE RIGHTS OF THE CHILD, 1989**

This Convention has achieved almost universal ratification. It includes the right of the child to the highest attainable standard of health without discrimination of any kind.

### **SPECIAL RAPPORTEUR ON THE HUMAN RIGHTS OF MIGRANTS**

This is an important mechanism for dealing with the human rights of migrants. The mandate seeks to request and receive information on violations of the human rights of migrants and their families - to prevent and remedy violations of the human rights of migrants, promote effective application of relevant international norms and standards on the issue. recommend actions and measures applicable at national, regional and international levels , eliminate violations of human rights of migrants take into account a gender perspective and give special attention to the occurrence of multiple discrimination and violations against migrant women.

### **INTERNATIONAL LEGAL NORMS**

Two specific instruments that provide for the protection of the basic labour and human rights of migrant workers and promote inter-State cooperation on labour migration by the **InternationLabourOrganisation (ILO)** are:

- (a) **Migration for Employment (Revised)** covers individuals who migrate from one country to another with a view to working for an employer.
- (h) **Migrations in Abusive Conditions and the promotion of Equality of Opportunity and Treatment of Migrants Workers** obliges State parties to respect the basic human rights of all migrant workers-irrespective of their legal status.

The first multilateral treaty, to begin negotiations to fight organized crime by the United Nations was the **United Nations Convention Against transnational Organized Crime (2000).**

The Convention is supplemented by the **Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in persons, especially women and children** which speaks of measures to provide for the physical, psychological and social recovery of victims of trafficking in persons. It is also supplemented by the **Protocol against the Smuggling of grants by Land, Sea and Air**, which also contains protection and assistance measures to be afforded by States, aimed at protecting the rights of the particularly vulnerable group of migrants.

**International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of their families** came into force in 2003. The main thrust of this convention is that migrant workers are entitled to protection of their basic human rights regardless of their legal status

#### **INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCES, PROGRAMMES AND POLICY COMMITMENTS**

The **Vienna Declaration and Programme of Action (1993)** attached great importance to the promotion and protection of human rights of persons belonging to groups which have been rendered vulnerable including migrant workers and to the eliminations of all forms of discrimination against them.

The Programme of Action of the **1994 International Conference on Population and Development** includes numerous references to migrants and health.

The **Beijing Platform for Action (1995)** recognizes that women face barriers to full equality and advancement because of race, language, ethnicity, culture and other status. It also recognizes that additional barriers exist for displaced immigrants and migrant women, including women migrant workers.

**United Nations General Assembly Special Session (UNGASS) Declaring of Commitment on HIV/AIDS** urges the development and implementation of national, regional and international strategies that facilitate access to HIV/AIDS prevention programmes for migrants and mobile workers.

The **World Conference against racism, racial discrimination, xenophobia and related intolerance** in Durban, South Africa in 2001 specifically urged all States to prohibit discriminatory treatment based on race, colour, descent or nation or ethnic origin against foreigners, concerning granting of work visas and work permits, housing, health care and access to justice.

The **International Plan of Action on Ageing** adopted by the Second United Nations World Assembly on Ageing in Madrid in 2002 calls for the integration of older migrants with their new communities through measures to assist older migrants to sustain economic and health security.

### **Conclusion**

The process of globalization has reduced the world to a global village with the characteristics of a single community. As such people living in different societies, in different parts of the world are becoming increasingly interdependent. This has made the governments to realize or bound to realize that extreme social and economic inequalities are unsustainable. The governmental attitudes started changing in favour of recognising their responsibilities towards ensuring access to education, sanitation and health services. These accesses should not only be limited to citizens but are to be extended to non-citizens also. The rich countries, also are to be awakened about their responsibilities towards the poor, under-developed or developing countries; otherwise disparities will continue to grow, hampering development of the human resources in an uniform, just and equal atmosphere.

Most of the countries are unable to handle the increased migration problems with effectiveness due to lack of policies. Human rights law is the need of the hour which will lead to framing of legislations and policies with a human touch. International law along with human rights law requires that migration policies, mechanism and approaches ensure human dignity, equality and respect for all without any sort of discrimination, inequality and injustice.

Today, we are far from treating migrants as global citizens with accessibility of legal rights and status regardless of the fact - where they come from and where they will go. This shift in our attitude, outlook, concepts and perceptions will take a long time. It is not an impossibility but can be achieved with time, dialogue, good will and above all political will. For full development of mankind, in-equal treatment should be abolished, only then we can live together in a healthy and conducive atmosphere with the spirit of brotherhood.

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## **INTERNAL MIGRATION OF LABOUR FORCE IN INDIA: A HUMAN RIGHTS PERSPECTIVE**

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In India as per the 2001 Census, the total number of internal migrants was 309 million or nearly 30% of the total population. Of which, 14.4 million people migrated for work purposes either to cities or areas with higher expected economic gains.<sup>i</sup> Internal migration, unlike international migration has been accorded very low priority by the government, partly due to a serious knowledge gap on its extent, nature and magnitude<sup>ii</sup>. Challenges faced by migrants particularly labourers are many. That includes, lack of political representation, inadequate housing, low-paid, insecure or hazardous work, and limited access to state-provided services such as health or education, discrimination based on race or gender, and social exclusion. Migration is essentially a part of development and a fundamental right of every citizen. It is indeed the responsibility of the state to ensure that all migrants have access to services and entitlements as enshrined in policies and law.<sup>iii</sup>

**The Objective of** this paper is to critically evaluate the conditions under which migrated labour force, a very important contributory of the development index of the country, languish and labour. An analysis of the existing legal protection available in both national and international law and the challenges in the realisation of this protection is the crux of the paper.

**Methodology** of writing is based on a doctrinal research in the various national and international legal provisions and writings in the area of Human Rights, Constitutional Law and Labour laws.

### **Human Rights Protection**

The UDHR (Universal Declaration of Human Rights) 1948 lists a number of economic, social and cultural rights such as, right to work, equal pay for equal work, just remuneration, right to social security, join trade unions, to rest and leisure, an adequate standard of living, right to education and right to join the cultural life of the community. Apart from that, India is a party to the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights-1966 (ICESCR), which contains some of the

most significant international provisions establishing right to work, right to just and favourable conditions of work, right to social security and social insurance, right to protection and assistance to the family, right to adequate standard of living and the right to highest attainable standard of physical and mental health<sup>iv</sup>.

The International convention on Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against women-1979 specifically protects living working conditions of women. The convention on the rights of Child (CRC)-1989 casts an obligation on the state parties to ensure to the maximum extent possible the survival and development of child.<sup>v</sup> However India is still not a party to the International convention on Protection of Rights of all Migrant Workers and Members of their Families.

For the sake of convenience Human rights were divided in to, Civil and Political Rights which includes right to life, political representation etc., and, Economic, Social and Cultural Rights such as right to work, health etc. The developing world, gave priority to the former giving them more legislative protection. However, the world Congress on Human rights held in Vienna declared that Civil and Political Rights are closely related to Economic Social and Cultural Rights. Right to life cannot exist without the basic necessities of life such as work, food, housing, healthcare, education and culture.<sup>vi</sup>

### **Constitutional protection**

Internal migration in India gets its authenticity from the Constitution itself. It is a fundamental right to move to anywhere in Indian Territory and settle.<sup>vii</sup> As far as the labour migration is concerned, it is further guaranteed that citizen will have the freedom of profession, trade or business.<sup>viii</sup> The Indian constitution declares that the citizens, men or women, equally have the right to an adequate means of livelihood. It is obligation of the state to see to it that, there is equal pay for equal work for both men and women, the health and strength of workers, men and women, and the tender age of children are not abused and that citizen are not forced to enter avocations unsuited to their age and strength.<sup>ix</sup> The constitution directs states to follow policies that will ensure just and humane conditions of work and for maternity relief. Constitution further provides that state has to endeavour to all workers 'work, a living wage, conditions of work ensuring a decent standard of living and full enjoyment of leisure, social and cultural opportunities'<sup>x</sup>

### **Sexual harassment at work place.**

Of the migrating population more than 70% is women<sup>xi</sup>. As sexual harassment violates the right to have just and favourable conditions of work, and special mention is given to this fact by UDHR. In a landmark judgement in 1997<sup>xii</sup> supreme Court laid down guidelines for prevention of sexual harassment at work place. In the absence of enacted legislation, Visakha guidelines are to be treated as the law under article 141 of the constitution of India. These guidelines impose a responsibility on the employer to ensure prevention of sexual harassment of women at workplace.



### **Protection under general law**

In order to protect the labour resource against exploitation and particularly to ensure safety, health and welfare and social security of the labourers, a number of legislations are enacted in India, such as,

1. The Factories Act 1948, having elaborate provisions for health safety and welfare of workers and applicable to premises whereon 20 or more workers are working without the aid of power or 10 or more workers working with the aid of power, where manufacturing process takes place.
2. The Industrial dispute Act 1947, objective of which is to ensure redressal of grievances of workmen through statutory machinery and job security in order to ameliorate conditions of workmen in an industry and to secure industrial peace. This Act gives the workmen a right to strike for justifiable reasons and according to the procedure established by this enactment.
3. The Employee's State Insurance Act 1948 covers factories and establishments with 10 or more employees and provide for comprehensive medical care to the employee's and their families as well as cash benefits during sickness and maternity and monthly payment in case of death and disability.
4. The Workmen's Compensation act 1923, which requires payment of compensation to the workmen or his family in case of employment related injuries resulting in death or disability.
5. The Maternity Benefits Act 1961 provides for 12 week wages during maternity.
6. The Payment of Gratuity Act 1972, which provides for 15 days wages for each year of service to employees who have worked for minimum five years in an establishment having 10 or more workers.
7. The Minimum Wages Act 1952, which provides for fixing minimum wages in certain scheduled industries. The objective of the Act is to protect the standard of living of workers, particularly in the unorganized sector.
8. The payment of Wages Act 1936 provides against irregularities in payment of wages and unauthorized deductions by the employers.

### **Major Challenges**

Migrating labourers in India faces challenges in realisation of the following rights.

- **Right to work:** This right envisages a free choice of employment, just and favourable conditions of work, rest and leisure and reasonable restrictions on working hours and periodic holidays with pay. And a necessary ingredient is protection from sexual harassment at workplaces. Migrant workers predominate in the lower income labour market with higher risks of exposure to unsafe working conditions.<sup>xiii</sup> Large numbers of migrants work in the urban informal manufacturing construction, services or transport sectors and are employed as casual labourers. They suffer from cheap bargaining power and lack of influence to insist on their rights. As associated migrants, women are forced to enter in to the low paid unorganised sector, where there are more chances of exploitation and harassment.

- **Right to livelihood:** Right to reasonable standard of living and opportunity to join the culture of the community is a human right and an indivisible part of right to life. The Building and other Construction Workers (BOCW) 1996 is a central legislation concerning labour welfare in the construction sector. The law makes it compulsory for any construction activity with more than 10 workers must follow the guidelines set by it. All the workers employed at these projects must be registered and must receive benefits provided by a welfare board and must receive welfare fund. According to the figures published by International labour organization, between 1999-2005, approximately 10 lakh people were employed in construction industry, each year. These workers came from different states move frequently, and spread out across urban expanses. Therefore they are not having an effective trade union, and thereby neither knowing nor availing these benefits<sup>xiv</sup>. The rapid change of residence due to the casual nature of work and their working conditions in the informal work arrangements excludes them from protection of state machinery.
- **Right to shelter:** The right to life includes right to live with human dignity and all other rights that are part of it, such as right to fresh air, water, clean environment and residence.  
Migrant labourers are forced live in filthy conditions and accommodations with minimal facilities, and most of the time, overcrowded. These circumstances are not formally separable into causes such as deficient education and health, initial prejudice, and effects such as poor wages, inferior healthcare provision and sustained discrimination<sup>xv</sup>.
- **Right to education:** Fundamental human right of every child above 6 years.  
Child migrants most of the time, associated migrant, due to the conditions under which they work and move, are away from the enjoyment of ,right to education.
- **Right to health:** This is the right to the fullest realisation of physical and mental health includes access to proper healthcare.  
The hiring of migrants in an irregular situation allows employers to be exempt from providing health coverage to them as the labour force then becomes cheaper than recruiting locals. Most of the state sponsored health programmes also becomes inaccessible to them.<sup>xvi</sup>

### Suggestions

No doubt it is the duty of the state to protect the rights of its citizen, and the state mechanism must wake up to the reality of gross violation of rights taking place against internal migrants. Some serious changes in the policies may help in mitigating the issues.

- Creating job opportunities in the rural areas will retain the labour force in their natural surrounding with more bargaining power and better living conditions. This has to be supported by similar programmes in the education and health sectors so as to fulfil the egalitarian dream of universal education and health for all.

- Giving priority to agriculture, particularly government supported organic farming, promotion of cottage and village industries will go a long way in protecting the rural economy as well as the environment.
- While freedom to migrate being a fundamental right, internal migration due to lack of economic opportunities can be minimised by reversing the development process. Projects should go in search of suitable villages, where they can get enough labour and raw material. Local authorities in those villages should also be having political will, to talk terms with any industry with respect to the protection of interest of its people.
- Ensuring ethical practices in trade and business and strict implementation of law is the most appropriate method in removing exploitation of labour force.

## **Conclusion**

The provisions are ideal and objectives are egalitarian, as far as law is concerned. Still it is a hard fact that even after 64 years of Universal Declaration of Human Rights; we have a long road to the Human rights protection of migrant labour force.

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<sup>xv</sup>Aaradhana Dalmiya, “Strong women, Weak bodies, Muted voices, Women Construction workers in delhi” EPW, June30-july7

<sup>xv</sup>Supra1

<sup>xv</sup>Ibid

<sup>xv</sup>Chandrima B. Chatterjee, “ Identities in Motion; Migration and Health In India”, The Centre for Enquiry into Health and Allied Themes (CEHAT), Mumbai

<sup>xv</sup> Internal migration and Human development in India. Concept note (11/10/2011) <http://portal.unesco.org/> visited on 28-11-12 at 07.55 am



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