

**AN ENQUIRY INTO THE CAUSES AND CONSEQUENCES OF
RURAL-URBAN MIGRATION IN WEST BENGAL WITH
SPECIAL REFERENCE TO COOCH BEHAR DISTRICT**

**A Thesis Submitted to the University of North Bengal
For the Award of Degree of
Doctor of Philosophy in Economics**

**By
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DECLARATION

I hereby declare that the Ph. D. thesis entitled **"AN ENQUIRY INTO THE CAUSES AND CONSEQUENCES OF RURAL-URBAN MIGRATION IN WEST BENGAL WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO COOCH BEHAR DISTRICT"** submitted by me for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Economics is a record of independent work carried out by me during the period of my study, under the supervision of Dr. Kanak Kanti Bagchi, Professor, Department of Economics, University of North Bengal and that no part of this thesis has formed the basis for the award of any degree or fellowship previously.

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CERTIFICATE

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AN ENQUIRY INTO THE CAUSES AND CONSEQUENCES OF RURAL-URBAN MIGRATION IN WEST BENGAL WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO COOCH BEHAR DISTRICT

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<p>A Thesis submitted to the University of North Bengal For the Award of Degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Economics By Sujit Majumdar Under the Supervision of Prof. Karak Kanti Bagchi, Professor, Department of Economics, N.B.U. Department of Economics University of North Bengal</p>		

November, 2022

CHAPTER-I INTRODUCTION 1.1 Statement of the Problem Migration is the temporary or permanent movement of people from one place to another in order to find work or better living conditions. It can be over a short or long distance, voluntary or forced, national or international. Migration from rural areas to urban areas is a age-long phenomenon. The process of such migration is continuous. The root cause of rural to urban migration is said to be inequality of employment and other opportunities between rural and urban areas. The growth of urbanization happens due to economic growth and development and also the progress of civilization in urban areas. Different types of opportunities like that of employment, better health, better education etc. and various types of amenities such as recreational facilities, safe drinking water, street lighting etc. are concentrated in urban areas. The rural people of working age whether literate or illiterate are paying attention to urban areas with the lure of these opportunities. Among the above noted different types of opportunities, the most important is employment opportunity to the rural young people of working age. In a developing country like India, opportunities in urban areas and its peripheries are not only greater but the levels of income are also much higher. There are a number of theories of migration. Among of them, the most admired and influential theory of rural-urban migration is that of Harris-Todaro Model named after John R. Harris and Michael Todaro. The Harris-Todaro Model endeavored to explain the phenomenon of persistence rural-urban migration in developing countries despite the incidence of high unemployment rate in urban centres. To explicate the accelerated rural-urban migration in the face of rising urban unemployment, this model postulates that the migration decision is primarily an economic one and that it acts in response to difference in expected earning between rural and urban areas (Harris and Todaro 1970). In other words, this model shows off that rural-urban migration will be continued as long as expected wage rate in the urban sector is greater than the wage rate in the rural sector, i.e. $W_e > U_e \cdot W_r$. Now in contrast to earlier models of one-

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ABSTRACT

Migration from one area to another area in search of better livelihoods is a key feature of human history. It can be over a short or long distance, be short-term or permanent, voluntary or forced, national or international. Migration from rural areas to urban areas is an age long phenomenon. The root cause of rural to urban migration is said to be inequality of employment and other opportunities between rural and urban areas. The most admired and influential theory of rural-urban migration is Harris-Todaro Model. Our study is based on this model.

In context of the state of West Bengal it can be observed that rural to urban migration of rural workers is taking place on an unprecedented scale since the last two decades especially from the districts of North Bengal and that of western most districts of West Bengal. The most evident reasons observed in these districts for migration are that of lack of employment opportunity and poverty of the migrants. The district Cooch Behar situated in north-eastern part of West Bengal selected for the study is evidently experiencing a high degree of rural-urban migration in recent years. Inter-state rural-urban migration is mostly observed in this district. Being the remotest district of West Bengal, it has a relatively high incidence of poverty and very low level of human development. So, an in-depth study of rural to urban migration with its causes and consequences is required in this district regarding the current socio-economic situation.

The main objectives of this research study are- (i) To explore into the socio-economic causes of migration of rural workers in urban areas in West Bengal, (ii) To explore into the socio-economic consequences of migration of rural workers in urban areas in West Bengal.

The study involves existing literature, secondary data and primary data. The sources of secondary data on migration are mainly NSSO data of various rounds, the Census Reports of

1991, 2001 and 2011 for the district and the records of Gram Panchayats in the case of selected villages. For collecting primary data, random sampling and purposive sampling techniques have been adopted. The field survey was done in the year 2013 on the basis of collection of household survey data. The data are, therefore, cross-section type data.

The thesis comprises of eight chapters. Chapters I and II describe "Introduction" and "Review of Literature" respectively. The identification of research gap is discussed at the end of the Chapter II. In Chapter III, "Rural-urban migration scenario in India and in West Bengal" has been discussed using secondary data mainly on Census 1991, 2001 and 2011 and also NSSO Reports of various rounds. In this chapter, we have examined the various issues of migration like migration by place of birth and by place of last residence, migration rates, net migration rate of some major states in India, trend and extent of rural-urban migration in India and in West Bengal, etc

In Chapter IV, "Demographic and socio-economic profiles of migrant workers in the study area" have been analysed by using primary data. The major findings of this chapter are outlined in the following way

There is almost symmetrical distribution among population of the sample villages found with respect to its division among adult male, adult female, male child and female child. The major migrant households occupied cultivable land less than one bigha, that is, they might be defined as landless or near landless families. Majority male migrants acted as principal earner of the family by engaging with a number of principal activities in destination areas.

In Chapter V, "Trend, pattern and features of rural-urban migration in the study area" have been examined by using primary data. The core results of this chapter are outlined in the following.

The majority percentages of migrants have migrated outside the state for either in search of employment or in search of better employment opportunity in the destination areas.

Data revealed that most of the migration has taken place through rural to urban stream in industrial sector. Majority of the migrant workers of the surveyed households received wages at destination in the range of Rs 81-100 per day.

In Chapter VI, "Causes of migration – push and pull factors" have been assessed on the basis of primary data. The major findings of this chapter are summarized below.

Regarding the reasons for migration, it could be found that the dominant of migration for villages of the district is that people migrated largely to get better employment. In respect of almost zero waiting period, it could be found that in 99.33 percent cases the migrant workers did not have to wait in the destination to obtain a job and only 0.67 percent cases the migrant workers had to wait to get job.

In respect of comparison of reasons for migration of migrants and reasons for non-migration of non-migrants, the data revealed that the majority percentage of migrants migrated out-side the district or state for in search of better employment. On the other hand, major percentage of non-migrant had small or medium size of agricultural land and that was the most important reason for non-migration.

In Chapter VII, "Consequences of migration - costs and benefits" have been explored through field survey data. The core findings of this chapter are outlined in the following.

The majority of the migrants (about 79 percent) in the district earned income in the range of Rs. 2001 to Rs. 5000 per month. The highest numbers of migrants (about 63 percent) fell into the

consumption category of Rs. 1001 to Rs. 2000 per month. Most of the migrants sent remittances to their family members in the range of Rs. 5001 to Rs. 10000. The data revealed that the socio-economic conditions of migrant families have been improved by utilizing remittances than that of non-migrant families.

In Chapter VIII, "Summary, conclusions and policy recommendations" have been outlined.

There are four major hypotheses which are tested in the Chapters from IV to VII by analyzing the data on respective grounds with tabular forms and also with graphical presentations.

CONTENTS

	Page No.
Declaration of the Research Scholar	ii
Certificate from the Supervisor	iii
Plagiarism Check Report Summary	iv
Acknowledgement of the Research Scholar	v-vi
Abstract	vii-8

Section No.	Section Name	Page No.
CHAPTER - I		
INTRODUCTION		
1.1	Statement of The Problem	1-3
1.2	Objective of the Study	4-4
1.3	Research Questions	4-5
1.4	Research Hypothesis	5-5
1.5	Basic Terms and Concepts in Migration	5-6
1.6	Some Important Concepts of Rural-Urban Migration, Their relevance, applicability and operationalisation	7-9
1.7	Plan of the Study	9-10
1.8	Research Methodology	11-13
1.8.1	Area of the Study	11-11
1.8.2	Universe of the Study	11-11
1.8.3	Sampling Procedure	11-12

1.8.4	Tools and Techniques of Data Collection	12-12
1.8.5	Data Collection	13-13
1.8.6	Data Processing	13-13
1.9	Limitations of the study	13-13

CHAPTER - II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1	Introduction	14-14
2.2	An Overview of Literature	14-14
2.2.1	Theoretical Issues of Migration	14-19
2.2.2	Empirical Issues on Internal Rural-Urban Migration	19-29
2.2.2(a)	Empirical Issues Based on Secondary Data	19-24
2.2.2(b)	Empirical Issues Based on Primary Data	24-29
2.2.3	Issues on Internal Migration in Other Countries and International Migration	30-34
2.2.4	Review Studies on Internal Migration	34-36
2.3	Identification of Research Gap	36-36

CHAPTER- III

RURAL-URBAN MIGRATION SCENARIO IN INDIA AND IN WEST BENGAL.

3.1	Introduction	37-40
3.2	Migration by Place of Birth and by Place of Last Residence in India	40-49
3.3	Migration Rates	50-52
3.3.1	Migration rates among different categories of persons in different NSS rounds	50-51
3.3.2	Net-migration rates of the major states	51-52
3.4	Distribution of Migrants through migration streams	52-55
3.5	Trend, Pattern and Extent of Rural-Urban Migration in India	55-63

3.6	Trend and Pattern and Extent of Rural-Urban Migration in West Bengal	63-66
3.6.1	Trend and Extent of Migration by place of Birth	63-64
3.6.2	Trend and Extent of Migration by place of Last Residence	64-65
3.6.3	Pattern of Migration by Place of Last Residence in West Bengal	65-66
3.7	Migration Streams in West Bengal	66-70
3.7.1	Number of Rural and Urban Migrants in West Bengal	67-68
3.7.2	Number of Male, Female Migrants (per 1000 Persons) in West Bengal	68-68
3.7.3	Distribution (per 1000) of Migrants by Nature of Movements for West Bengal	69-69
3.7.4	Distribution (per 1000) of Internal Migrants by the types of Migration Streams for West Bengal	69-70
3.8	Reasons for Migration in India	71-75
3.9	Comparison of Reasons for Migration in India using 2001 and 2011 Census data	75-77
3.10	Comparison of Reasons for Migration in West Bengal using 1991, 2001 and 2011 Census data	77-79
3.10.1	Reasons for Migration: For both Male and Female Migrants Who Moved to Rural Area	78-78
3.10.2	Reasons for Migration: Male and Female Migrants Who Moved to Urban Area	79-79

CHAPTER-IV

DEMOGRAPHIC AND SOCIO-ECONOMIC PROFILES OF MIGRANT WORKERS IN THE STUDY AREA

4.1	Introduction	80-81
4.2	About Cooh Behar District (Study Area)	81-84
4.3	Demographic and Socio-economic Profiles of Migrant Workers of the Villages Surveyed in Cooh Behar District	85-101
4.3 (a)	Demographic Profile of Migrant Workers of the Surveyed Villages	85-93
4.3 (a) (i)	Demographic Profile of the Sample Villages	85-86
4.3 (a) (ii)	Age Distribution	87-88

4.3 (a) (iii)	Size of the Family	88-89
4.3 (a) (iv)	Religious Profile of Migrant Households	89-90
4.3 (a) (v)	Caste Distribution	91-92
4.3 (a) (vi)	Poverty Status	92-93
4.3 (b)	Socio-economic Profile of Migrant Workers of the Surveyed Households	94-101
4.3 (b) (i)	Educational Status - Educational Attainment of the Migrants	94-95
4.3 (b) (ii)	Land Possession of the Migrant Households	95-96
4.3 (b) (iii)	Land Possession and Socio-economic Status of the Migrant Households	96-97
4.3 (b) (iv)	Farming Status - Principal Earner of the Family	98-98
4.3 (b) (v)	Occupational Engagement	99-100
4.3 (b) (vi)	Subsidiary Occupation	100-101
4.4	Test of Hypothesis-I	101-102
4.5	Demographic and Socio-Economic Description of the Surveyed Villages in Cooch Behar District of West Bengal	102-106

CHAPTER-V TREND, PATTERN AND FEATURES OF RURAL-URBAN MIGRATION IN THE STUDY AREA

5.1	Introduction	107-107
5.2	Trend and Pattern of Migrants of the Surveyed Households in the Study Area	108-120
5.2.1	Nature of Migration	108-109
5.2.2	Gender Division of Migrants	109-111
5.2.3	Proportion of Children Migrants	111-112
5.2.4	Distribution of Out Migrants on the Basis of Age	113-114
5.2.5	Distribution of Migrants On the Basis of Age and Gender	114-116
5.2.6	Destination of Migrants	116-118
5.2.7	Sector of Employment in Destination	118-120
5.3	Characteristics- Features of Migrant of the Surveyed Households in the	120-138

	Study Area	
5.3.1	Work Status of Migrants	120-122
5.3.2	Types of Employment in Destination	122-124
5.3.3	Type of Employment Contract	124-125
5.3.4	Nature of Employment	125-127
5.3.5	Rates of Wages Received	127-129
5.3.6	Working Hour per Day	130-131
5.3.7	Duration of Stay at Destination	132-133
5.3.8	Frequency of Home Visit	134-135
5.3.9	Duration of Stay during Home Visit	135-136
5.3.10	Staying Arrangement at Destination	136-137
5.3.11	Condition of Housing at Destination	138-138

CHAPTER-VI CAUSES OF MIGRATION - PUSH AND PULL FACTORS

6.1	Introduction	139-139
6.2	Prerequisite Conditions of Migrants for Migration	139-146
6.2.1	Decision Making for Out-migration	140-141
6.2.2	Facilitator of Migration	141-143
6.2.3	Status of Employment before Out-migration	143-144
6.2.4	Sector of Employment before Out-migration	144-146
6.3	Factors of Migration Analysis in the Study Area	146-164
6.3.1	Land Possession and Type of Housing	147-149
6.3.2	Household Infrastructure: Toilet facility	149-150
6.3.3	Household Infrastructure: Drinking Water Sources	150-151
6.3.4	Household Infrastructure: House Electrification	151-152
6.3.5	Almost Zero Waiting Period for Migrants at Destinations	152-154
6.3.6	Helping/Motivating Others to Migrate	155-156
6.3.7	Employment at Origin	156-159
6.3.8	Wages at Origin	159-161
6.3.9	Reasons for Migration	162-164

6.4	Test of Hypothesis-2	165-165
6.5	Implementation of MGNREGA and Out- Migration	165-169
6.6	Test of Hypothesis-3	167-170
6.7	The comparative analyses between Migrant and Non-migrant households regarding their nature and significance	170-183
6.7.1	Land Possession of Migrant and Non-migrant Households	170-172
6.7.2	Sector of Employment before Out-migration of Migrant Households and Sector of Employment of Non-migrant Households	173-175
6.7.3	Implementation of MGNREGA of migrant and non-migrant households	175-181
6.7.3(a)	Job Card holding of migrant and non-migrant households	175-177
6.7.3(b)	Employment Received under MGNREGS of migrant and non-migrant households	177-179
6.7.3(c)	Days of Employment received under MGNREGS of migrant and non-migrant households	179-181
6.7.4	Comparison of Reasons for Migration of Migrants and Reasons for Non-migration of Non-migrants	181-183

CHAPTER -VII

CONSEQUENCES OF MIGRATION - COSTS AND BENEFITS

7.1	Introduction	184-184
7.2	Analysis of Socio-Economic Consequences of Migration	184-199
7.2.1	Skill Acquired at Destination	184-186
7.2.2	Income Earning of Migrants	186-188
7.2.3	Monthly Total Household Consumer Expenditure at Origin	188-190
7.2.4	Monthly Consumption of Migrants at Destination	190-191
7.2.5	Monthly Savings of the Migrants	191-193
7.2.6	Cases of Remittances Sent	194-195
7.2.7	Amount of Remittances Received	195-197
7.2.8	Use of Remittances	197-199
7.3	A Comparative Analysis between Migrant and non-Migrant Households Concerning Socio-Economic Consequences	199-214
7.3.1	Educational Level of Migrants and Non-migrants	199-200
7.3.2	Monthly Income of Migrants and Non-migrants	200-203
7.3.3	Monthly Consumption of Migrants and Non-migrants Households' Earners	203-205

7.3.4	Monthly Saving of Migrant and Non-migrant Households' earners	206-208
7.3.5	Monthly Household Consumer Expenditure of Respondents of Migrant and Non-migrant Households	208-211
7.3.6	Assets Holding	211-214
7.3.6(a)	Asset (Electric Equipments) Holding of Migrant and Non-migrant Households	211-213
7.3.6(b)	Asset (Furniture Items) Holding of Migrant and Non-migrant Households	213-214
7.4	Test of Hypothesis-4	214-214
CHAPTER -VIII		
SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND POLICY RECOMMENDATIONS		
8.1	Summary	235-239
8.2	Conclusions	235-238
8.3	Suggestions and Policy Recommendations	239-240
	Bibliography	241-255

APPENDICES

Appendix-A	Published Paper in Journal
Appendix-A.1	<u>Published Paper</u> : Dynamics of Rural to Urban Migration of Agricultural Labourers: A Micro Level Study in Cooch Behar District of West Bengal. <i>South Asian Journal of Human Rights</i> , Vol.9, No. 1-2, Jan.-Dec. 2013
Appendix-B	Certificate of Presented Paper in the National Seminar
Appendix-B.1	<u>Certificate Details</u> : I. GC (SAP) DRS –II NATIONAL SEMINAR on “Regional Issues Concerning Development and Women in Development” (March 21, 2013) – Organised by the Department of Economics, University of North Bengal. <u>Presented Paper entitled</u> : “The Impact of MGNREGA on Out-Migration and Poverty Reduction in Rural Economy: A Case Study of Cooch Behar District in West Bengal”.
Appendix-C	Questionnaires
Appendix-C.1	Schedule for Migration Study (for Migrant Household Schedule)
Appendix-C.2	Questionnaire for Field Survey (for Non-Migrant Household Schedule)

List of Tables

Table No.	Title of Table	Page No.
3.1	Total inter-state migrants by place of birth in major states - INDIA	41-41
3.2	Migrants by place of birth and age: INDIA 2001	43-43
3.3	Migrants by last residence and classified by duration of residence: INDIA 2001 (within State)	45-45
3.4	Migrants by last residence and classified by duration of residence: INDIA 2001 (From other states)	46-46
3.5	Migrants by last residence in India (excluding J&K) in 1991 and 2001 Census - (All duration)	48-48
3.6	Migration rates per 1000 of each category of persons in different NSS rounds	50-50
3.7	Net Migration Rates for the Major States	51-51
3.8	Distribution of intercensal migrants (migrants with 0-9 years duration) of each sex by migration streams, India 1991-2001 (in percentage)	53-53
3.9	Growth of migrants by migration streams, India 1991-2001 (in Percentage)	54-55
3.10	Number of persons migrated from rural areas per 1000 migrants in urban areas for different periods of migration	56-56
3.11	Number of persons migrated within district, state or from other states per 1000 migrants for different periods of migration	57-57
3.12	Percentage distribution of internal migrants by intra-district, inter-district and inter-state movements for each component of migration streams	59-59
3.13	Migrants by place of last residence indicating migration streams (duration 0-9 years) INDIA 2001	59-60
3.14	Number of intra-state and inter-state migrants in the country with duration of residence 0-9 years by rural urban status of place of last residence and place of enumeration - INDIA 2001 Census	61-61
3.15	Migration streams for top ten states for intra-state migration by last residence (duration 0-9 years) - India 2001 (excludes Union Territories)	62-62

3.16	First three states with highest number of migrants by place of birth	63-65
3.17	Migration by place of Last Residence in West Bengal	64-64
3.18	Migration statistics by the place of last residence (Figures in millions)	64-64
3.19	Growth Rate of In-Migration of West Bengal during 1991 to 2011	65-65
3.20	Rural to Urban Migration Classified by Place of Last Residence of West Bengal	66-66
3.21	Distribution of Migrants by Migration Streams in West Bengal	67-67
3.22	Number of migrant household per 1000 household during the last 365 days preceding the date of survey	67-67
3.23	Number of Male/Female Migrants (per 1000 Persons) in West Bengal	68-68
3.24	Distribution (per 1000) of Migrants by Nature of Movement	69-69
3.25	Distribution (per 1000) of Internal Migrants by the types of Migration Streams for West Bengal	69-70
3.26	Reasons for migration of migrants by last residence with duration (0-9 years) India 2001	71-71
3.27	Reasons for migration of migrants by last residence with duration (0-9 years) India (excluding J&K) 2001 & 1991	73-73
3.28	Reasons for migration (other than marriage) of migrants by last residence with duration (0-9 years) India 2001	74-74
3.29	Reasons and Streams of Inter-censal Migration (as % share of each stream)	75-75
3.30	Percentage Distribution of Rural-Urban Migrants on the Basis of Reasons for migration in India- 2001 and 2011 Censuses (all durations)	76-76
3.31	Distribution of Male and Female Migrants on the Basis of Reasons for Migration. Moved to Rural Area	78-78
3.32	Distribution of Male and Female Migrants on the Basis of Reasons for Migration. Moved to Urban Area	79-79
4.1	District and Block wise Distribution of Survey Villages	80-80

4.2	Demographic Profile of Migrant Households of the Sample Villages	85-85
4.3	Distribution of Out-migrants on the Basis of Age	87-87
4.4	Distribution of Migrant Households on the Basis of the Size of the Family	88-88
4.5	Distribution of Migrant Households on the Basis of Religion	89-89
4.6	Distribution of Migrant Households on the Basis of Social Group	91-91
4.7	Distribution of Migrant Households on the Basis of Poverty Status	92-92
4.8	Distribution of Educational Status of Member of Migrant Households (Gender-wise) in the District (Percentages)	94-94
4.9	Distribution of Migrant Households on the Basis of Land Possession	95-95
4.10	Distribution of Migrant Households on the Basis of Land Possession and Socio-economic Category in the District	96-96
4.11	Distribution of Migrants on the Basis of Principal Earner of the Family	98-98
4.12	Distribution of Work Status / Occupational Engagement of Members of Migrant Households (Gender-wise) in the district (in percentages)	99-99
4.13	Distribution of Members of Migrant Households on the Basis of Subsidiary Occupation	100-100
5.1	Distribution of Households on the Basis of Partial Family or Full Family Migration	108-108
5.2	Gender Division of Migrants In The Sample Households of Surveyed Villages (in %)	110-110
5.3	Distribution of Proportion of Children Migrants (upto age 14)	111-111
5.4	Distribution of Out Migrants on the Basis of Age (in years)	113-113
5.5	Distribution of Migrants on the Basis of Age & Gender (Percentages)	115-115
5.6	Distribution of Out Migrants on the Basis of Destination of Migration	117-117
5.7	Distribution of Migrants on the Basis of Sector of Employment at Destinations	119-119
5.8	Distribution of Work Status of Migrants	121-121
5.9	Distribution of Households on the Basis of Types of Employment in Destination	123-123
5.10	Distribution of Migrants on the Basis of Employment Contract in Destination	125-125
5.11	Distribution of Migrant Workers on the Basis of Nature of Employment	126-126
5.12	Distribution of Migrant Workers on the Basis of Rates of Wages (In Rs.)	128-128

	Received at Destination	
5.13	Distribution of Migrant Workers on the Basis of Hour of Work Per Day	130-130
5.14	Distribution of Migrants on the Basis of Duration of Stay	132-133
5.15	Distribution of Migrants on the Basis of Frequency of Home Visit	134-134
5.16	Distribution of Migrants on the Basis of Duration of Stay While in Home Visit at Origin	135-135
5.17	Distribution of Migrants On The Basis of Staying Arrangement at Destination	136-136
5.18	Distribution of Migrants on the Basis of Condition of Housing at Destination	138-138
6.1	Distribution of Migrants on the Basis Decision Making Entity (Family wise)	140-140
6.2	Distribution of Migrants on the Basis of Facilitator of Migration (Household wise)	142-142
6.3	Distribution of Migrants on the Basis of Status of Employment Before Out - Migration (Family wise)	143-143
6.4	Distribution of Migrants on the Basis of Sector of Employment Before Out - Migration (Household wise)	145-145
6.5	Distribution of Migrant Households on the Basis of Possession of Land and Type of House	147-147
6.6	Distribution of Households on the Basis of Household Infrastructure: Toilet Facility	149-150
6.7	Distribution of Households on the Basis of Household Infrastructure: Drinking Water Sources	150-151
6.8	Distribution of Households on the Basis of Household Infrastructure: House Electrification	152-152
6.9	Distribution of Migrants on the Basis of Whether Had to Wait or Not to Get Job (Family wise) at Destination	153-153
6.10	Distribution of Migrants on the Basis of Helping Others to Migrate	155-155
6.11	Distribution of Migrants on the Basis of Days of Employment Per Year if Would Not Migrate (in Percentages)	157-157
6.12	Distribution of Migrants on their Basis of Rates of Wages (in Rs.) Per day	160-160

	Received at Origin (in percentages)	
6.13	Distribution of Migrants on the Basis of Reasons for Migration	162-162
6.14	Distribution of Migrants on the Basis of Job Card Holding	166-166
6.15	Distribution of Migrants on the Basis of Receipt of Employment under MGNREGS in the last one year	167-167
6.16	Distribution of Respondents on the Basis of Days of Employment Received Under MGNREGS Last One Year	168-168
6.17	Distribution of Migrant and Non-migrant Households on the Basis of Land Possession	171-171
6.18	Distribution of Migrant Households on the Basis of Sector of Employment before Out-migration and Sector of Employment of Non-migrant Households	173-173
6.19	Distribution of Migrant and Non-migrant Households on the Basis of Job Card Holding	175-176
6.20	Distribution of Migrant and Non-migrant Households on the Basis of Receipt of Employment under MGNREGS in the last one year	177-177
6.21	Distribution of Migrant and Non-migrant Respondents on the Basis of Days of Employment Received Under MGNREGS in the last one year	179-179
6.22	Distribution of Migrants and Non-migrants on the Basis of Reason for Migration and Reason for Non-migration (in %)	182-182
7.1	Distribution of Migrants on the Basis of Skill Acquired at Destination	185-185
7.2	Distribution of Migrants on the Basis of Income (in Rs.) per Month	187-187
7.3	Distribution of Respondents on the Basis of Monthly Household Consumer Expenditure (in Rs.)	189-189
7.4	Distribution of Migrant Farmers on the Basis of Monthly Consumption (in Rs.)	191-191
7.5	Distribution of Migrants on the Basis of Monthly Savings (in Rs.)	192-192
7.6	Distribution of Migrants on the Basis of Remittances Sent	194-194

7.7	Distribution of Migrants on the Basis of Number of Times Remittances Sent	195-195
7.8	Distribution of Sample Household on the Basis of Amount of Remittances (Rs) Received (Yearly)	196-196
7.9	Distribution of Use of remittances of the Households on the basis of Poverty Status (in percentage)	198-198
7.10	Distribution of Migrants and Non-migrants on the Basis of Education Level	199-199
7.11	Distribution of Migrants and Non-migrants on the Basis of Monthly Income (in Rs.)	201-201
7.12	Distribution of Migrant and Non-migrant Households' Farmers on the Basis of Monthly Consumption	203-204
7.13	Distribution of Migrant and Non-migrant Households' Farmers on the Basis of Monthly Saving	206-206
7.14	Distribution of Respondents of Migrant and Non-migrant Households on the Basis of Monthly Household Consumer Expenditure (in Rs.)	209-209
7.15	Distribution of Migrant and Non-migrant Households on the Basis of Asset (Electric Equipments) Holding	212-212
7.16	Distribution of Migrant and Non-migrant Households on the Basis of Asset (Furniture Items) Holding	213-213

List of Figures

Figure No.	Title of Figure	Page No.
3.1(a)	Total inter-state migrants by place of birth in major states - INDIA 2001 (Total In-migrants)	42-42
3.1(b)	Total inter-state migrants by place of birth in major states - INDIA 2001 (Percentage of Total In-migrants)	42-42
3.2	Migrants by place of birth and age - INDIA 2001	44-45
3.3(a)	Migrants by last residence in India (excluding J&K) in 1991 and 2001 Census - (All duration)	49-49
3.3(b)	Variation by place of last residence (1991-2001) in %	49-49
3.4	Number of Male/Female Migrants (per 1000 Persons) in West Bengal	68-68
3.5	Distribution of Internal Migrants by the types of Migration Streams for West Bengal (per 1000)	70-70
3.6(a)	Reasons for migration - Total	72-72
3.6(b)	Reasons for migration of Male	72-72
3.6(c)	Reasons for migration of Female	73-73
4.1	Demographic Profile of Migrant Households of the Sample Villages	86-86
4.2	Percentage Distribution of Out-migrants of the District on the Basis of Age	88-88
4.3	Percentage Distribution of Migrant Households of the District on the Basis of the Size of the Family	89-89
4.4	Percentage Distribution of Migrant Households on the Basis of Religion	90-90
4.5	Percentage Distribution of Migrant Households of the District on the Basis of Social Group	92-92
4.6	Percentage Distribution of Migrant Households on the Basis of Poverty Status	93-93
4.7	Distribution of Migrant Households on the Basis of Land Possession	96-96
4.8	Percentage Distribution of Migrants of the District on the Basis of Principal Earner of the Family	98-98

4.9	Distribution of Members of Migrant Households on the Basis of Subsidiary Occupation	101-101
5.1	Distribution of Households on the Basis of Partial Family or Full Family Migration	109-109
5.2	Gender Division of Migrants in the Sample Households of Surveyed Villages (in %)	111-111
5.3	Distribution of Total Children and Migrant Children	112-112
5.4	Proportion of Migrant Children	114-114
5.5	Percentages Distribution of Migrants on the Basis of Age (in years)	116-116
5.6	Distribution of Out Migrants on the Basis of Destination of Migration (in %)	118-118
5.7(a)	Distribution of Migrants of Survey Villages on the Basis of Sector of Employment at Destinations (in %)	120-120
5.7(b)	Total Migrants of the District on the Basis of Sector of Employment at Destinations (in %)	120-120
5.8(a)	Work Status of Migrants (in %)	122-122
5.8(b)	Work Status of Migrants of the District (in %)	122-122
5.9(a)	Distribution of Migrant Households on the Basis of Types of Employment in Destination (in %)	124-124
5.9(b)	Distribution of Migrant Households of the District on the Basis of Types of Employment in Destination (in %)	124-124
5.10(a)	Distribution of Migrant Workers on the Basis of Nature of Employment (in %)	127-127
5.10(b)	Distribution of Migrant Workers on the Basis of Nature of Employment (in %)	127-127
5.11(a)	Percentage Distribution of Migrant workers on the basis of Rates of Wages (in Rs.) Received at Destination	129-129
5.11(b)	Percentage Distribution of Migrant workers of the District on the basis of Rates of Wages (in Rs.) Received at Destination	129-129
5.12(a)	Distribution of Migrant Workers on the Basis of Hour of Work Per Day (in %)	131-131
5.12(b)	Distribution of Migrant Workers of the District on the Basis of Hour of Work Per Day (in %)	131-131
5.13(a)	Distribution of Migrants on the Basis of Duration of Stay (in %)	133-133

5.13(b)	Distribution of Migrants of the District on the Basis of Duration of Stay (in %)	133-133
5.14(a)	Distribution of Migrants on the Basis of Staying Arrangement at Destination (in %)	137-137
5.14(b)	Distribution of Migrants of the District on the Basis of Staying Arrangement at Destination (in %)	137-137
6.1(a)	Distribution of Migrants on the Basis Decision Making Entity (Family wise) (in %)	141-141
6.1(b)	Distribution of Migrants of the District on the Basis Decision Making Entity (Family wise) (in %)	141-141
6.2(a)	Percentage Distribution of Migrants on the Basis of Status of Employment Before Out - Migration (Family wise)	144-144
6.2(b)	Percentage Distribution of Migrants of the District on the Basis of Status of Employment Before Out - Migration (Family wise)	144-144
6.3(a)	Percentage Distribution of Migrants on the Basis of Sector of Employment Before Out - Migration (Household wise)	146-146
6.3(b)	Percentage Distribution of Migrants of the District on the Basis of Sector of Employment Before Out - Migration (Household wise)	146-146
6.4(a)	Percentage Distribution of Migrant Households on the Basis of Possession of Land and Type of House	148-148
6.4(b)	Percentage Distribution of Migrant Households of the District on the Basis of Possession of Land	149-149
6.5(a)	Percentage Distribution of Migrants on the Basis of Whether Had to Wait or Not to Get Job (Family wise) at Destination	154-154
6.5(b)	Percentage Distribution of Migrants of the District on the Basis of Whether Had to Wait or Not to Get Job (Family wise) at Destination	154-154
6.6(a)	Distribution of Migrants on the Basis of Helping Others to Migrate (in %)	156-156
6.6(b)	Distribution of Migrants of the District on the Basis of Helping Others to Migrate (in %)	156-156
6.7(a)	Distribution of Migrants on the Basis of Days of Employment Per Year if Would Not Migrate (in Percentages)	158-158
6.7(b)	Distribution of Migrants of the District on the Basis of Days of Employment	159-159

	Per Year if Would Not Migrate (in Percentages)	
6.8(a)	Distribution of Migrants on their Basis of Rates of Wages (in Rs.) Per day Received at Origin (in percentages)	161-161
6.8(b)	Distribution of Migrants of the District on their Basis of Rates of Wages (in Rs.) Per day Received at Origin (in percentages)	161-161
6.9(a)	Percentage Distribution of Migrants on the Basis of Reasons for Migration	164-164
6.9(b)	Percentage Distribution of Migrants of the District on the Basis of Reasons for Migration	164-164
6.10(a)	Percentage Distribution of Respondents on the Basis of Days of Employment Received Under MGNREGS Last One Year	169-169
6.10(b)	Percentage Distribution of Respondents of the District on the Basis of Days of Employment Received Under MGNREGS Last One Year	169-169
6.11(a)	Percentage Distribution of Migrant Households of the District on the Basis of Land Possession	172-172
6.11(b)	Percentage Distribution of Non-migrant Households of the District on the Basis of Land Possession	172-172
6.12(a)	Percentage Distribution of Migrant Households of the District on the Basis of Sector of Employment before Out-migration	174-174
6.12(b)	Percentage Distribution of Non-migrant Households of the District on the Basis of Sector of Employment	175-175
6.13(a)	Percentage Distribution of Migrant Households of the District on the Basis of Job Card Holding	176-176
6.13(b)	Percentage Distribution of Non-migrant Households of the District on the Basis of Job Card Holding	177-177
6.14(a)	Percentage Distribution of Migrant Households of the District on the Basis of Receipt of Employment under MGNREGS in the last one year	178-178
6.14(b)	Percentage Distribution of Non-migrant Households of the District on the Basis of Receipt of Employment under MGNREGS in the last one year	179-179
6.15(a)	Percentage Distribution of Migrant Respondents of the District on the Basis of Days of Employment Received Under MGNREGS in the last one year	180-180

6.15(b)	Percentage Distribution of Non-migrant Respondents of the District on the Basis of Days of Employment Received Under MGNREGS in the last one year	181-181
7.1(a)	Distribution of Migrants on the Basis of Skill Acquired at Destination	186-186
7.1(b)	Distribution of Migrants of the District on the Basis of Skill Acquired at Destination (in %)	186-186
7.2(a)	Percentage Distribution of Migrants on the Basis of Income (in Rs.) per Month	188-188
7.2(b)	Percentage Distribution of Migrants of the District on the Basis of Income (in Rs.) per Month	188-188
7.3(a)	Percentage Distribution of Respondents on the Basis of Monthly Household Consumer Expenditure (in Rs.)	190-190
7.3(b)	Percentage Distribution of Respondents of the District on the Basis of Monthly Household Consumer Expenditure (in Rs.)	190-190
7.4(a)	Percentage Distribution of Migrants on the Basis of Monthly Savings (in Rs.)	193-193
7.4(b)	Percentage Distribution of Migrants of the District on the Basis of Monthly Savings (in Rs.)	193-193
7.5(a)	Percentage Distribution of Sample Household on the Basis of Amount of Remittances (Rs) Received (Yearly)	197-197
7.5(b)	Percentage Distribution of Sample Household of the District on the Basis of Amount of Remittances (Rs) Received (Yearly)	197-197
7.6(a)	Percentage Distribution of Migrants of the District on the Basis of Monthly Income (in Rs.)	202-202
7.6(b)	Percentage Distribution of Non-migrants of the District on the Basis of Monthly Income (in Rs.)	203-203
7.7(a)	Percentage Distribution of Migrant Households' Earners of the District on the Basis of Monthly Consumption (in Rs.)	205-205
7.7(b)	Percentage Distribution of Non-migrant Households' Earners of the District on the Basis of Monthly Consumption (in Rs.)	205-205
7.8(a)	Percentage Distribution of Migrant Households' Earners of the District on the Basis of Monthly Saving (in Rs.)	207-207
7.8(b)	Percentage Distribution of Non-migrant Households' Earners of the	208-208

	District on the Basis of Monthly Saving (in Rs.)	
7.9(a)	Percentage Distribution of Respondents of Migrant Households of the District on the Basis of Monthly Household Consumer Expenditure (in Rs.)	210-210
7.9(b)	Percentage Distribution of Respondents of Non-migrant Households of the District on the Basis of Monthly Household Consumer Expenditure (in Rs.)	211-211

List of Maps

Title of Map	Page No.
Location Map of Study Area (Cooch Behar District)	xxxiv

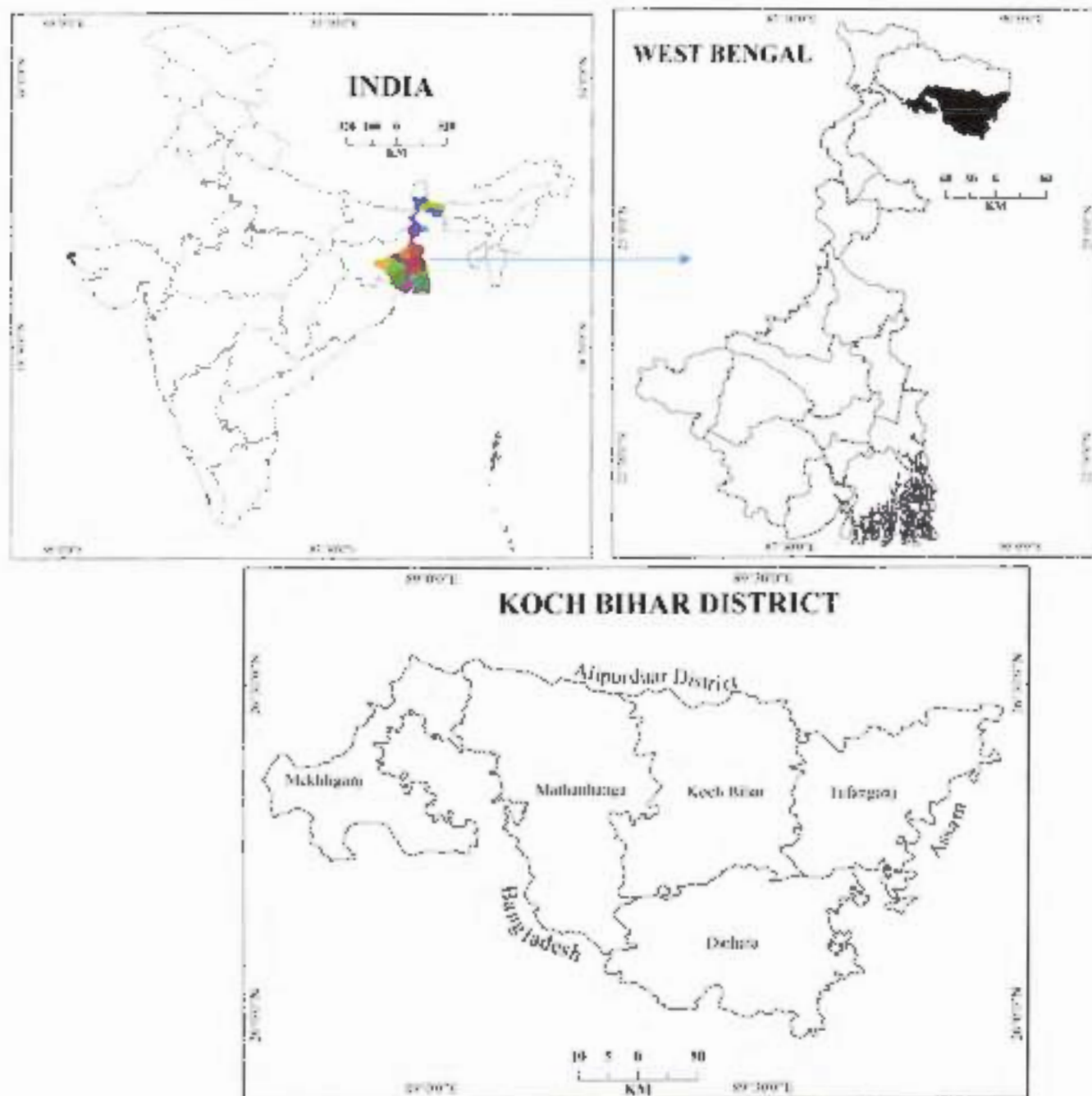
Map No.	Title of Map	Page No.
3.1	Map of India indicating Total Number of In-Migrant (in '00)	43-43
3.2	Map of India indicating Total Number of Out-Migrant (in '00)	47-47
3.3	Map of India indicating Net Migration Rate (per 1000)	52-52
4.1	Map of Cooch Behar District indicating Survey Blocks and Sample Villages.	104-104

ACRONYMS

A.D.	Anno Domini
AEC	Adult Education Centre
AIEP	Adult Individual Educational Plan
APL	Above Poverty Line
BPL	Below Poverty Line
B.W	Black and White
CD	Community Development
EGS	Employment Guarantee Scheme
HYV	High-yielding Variety
J&K	Jammu and Kashmir
LDCs	Less Developed Countries
MGNREGA	Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act
MGNREGS	Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Scheme
MIG	Migrant
M. Phil	Master of Philosophy
NBU	North Bengal University
NFEC	Non-formal Education Course
N-MIG	Non-Migrant
NREGA	National Rural Employment Guarantee Act
NSS	National Sample Survey
NSSO	National Sample Survey Office
OBC	Other Backward Class
Ph. D.	Doctor of Philosophy
RRBs	Regional Rural Banks
SC	Scheduled Caste
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
ST	Scheduled Tribe
TLC	Teaching and Learning Committee

TV		Television
UPA		United Progressive Alliance

LOCATION MAP OF STUDY AREA (COOCH BEHAR DISTRICT)



CHAPTER-I

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Statement of the Problem

Migration is the temporary or permanent movement of people from one place to another in order to find work or better living conditions. It can be over a short or long distance, voluntary or forced, national or international. Migration from rural areas to urban areas is a age-long phenomenon. The process of such migration is continuous. The root cause of rural to urban migration is said to be inequality of employment and other opportunities between rural and urban areas. The growth of urbanization happens due to economic growth and development and also the progress of civilization in urban areas. Different types of opportunities like that of employment, better health, better education etc. and various types of amenities such as recreational facilities, safe drinking water, street lighting etc. are concentrated in urban areas. The rural people of working age whether literate or illiterate are paying attention to urban areas with the lure of these opportunities. Among the above noted different types of opportunities, the most important is employment opportunity to the rural young people of working age. In a developing country like India, opportunities in urban areas and its peripheries are not only greater but the levels of income are also much higher.

There are a number of theories of migration. Among of them, the most admired and influential theory of rural-urban migration is that of Harris-Todaro Model (named after John R. Harris and Michael Todaro). The Harris-Todaro Model endeavored to explain the phenomenon of persistence rural-urban migration in developing countries despite the incidence of high unemployment rate in urban centres. To explicate the accelerated rural-urban migration in the face of rising urban unemployment, this model postulates that 'the migration decision' is primarily an economic one and that it acts in response to difference in expected earning between rural and urban areas'(Harris and Todaro,1970). In other words, this model shows off that rural-urban migration will be continued as long as expected wage rate in the urban sector is greater than the wage rate in the rural sector, i.e., $W_u^e > W_r$. Now, in contrast to earlier models of one-way migration, Todaro considered such migration as a two-stage phenomenon. He perceived a dichotomy in urban economy while analyzing rural to urban migration. According to Todaro model of migration, in the first stage, the unskilled

rural workers migrate to an urban area and initially spend a certain period of time in the urban traditional sector. In the second stage, they finally attain jobs in more permanent modern sector. In Todaro's model, the migration decision from rural to urban areas is basically related to two principal variables, viz.: (i) the urban-rural real income differentials, and (ii) the probability of obtaining an urban job. A basic hypothesis of probabilistic migration model of Todaro is that informal sector employment is a transitory staging post for new migrants on their way to formal sector employment. It presumes two permanent sectors in the economy; one is rural sector specializing in the production of agricultural goods and the other is modern urban sector. The urban sector is divided by Todaro into two sub-sectors: (i) modern sector (akin to formal sector), and (ii) traditional sector (similar to informal sector) which includes all the workers not regularly employed in the urban modern sector, that is, explicitly employed, underemployed or sporadically employed and those who are employed in petty retail trades and services.

There are four fundamental characteristics of Todaro migration model. First, migration is stimulated primarily by rational economic considerations of relative benefits and costs, mostly monetary but also psychological. Second, the decision to migrate depends on "expected" rather than actual urban-rural real wage differentials. Third, the probability of obtaining an urban job is directly related to the urban employment rate but inversely related to the urban unemployment rate. Fourth, migration rates in excess of urban job opportunity growth rates are not only possible but also rational and plausible in the face of continued positive urban-rural "expected" income differentials. In Todaro's migration model, "expected" gains are measured by: (i) the difference in real income between rural and urban job opportunities, and (ii) the probability of new migrant obtaining an urban job (Todaro 1976).

By incorporating informal sector into standard expected income Todaro type, Stark model presumes a two-pronged planning horizon that rural-to-urban migrants may consider. According to Stark's model many rural-to-urban migrants rationally, though unwillingly, join the ranks of the urban unemployed since there are fewer high paying formal sector jobs than their numbers in the urban centers. Yet, migrants may willingly remain unemployed for a long period in the towns as most favorable strategy or investment in search of high-paying formal sector jobs. During this period, they may not receive an informal sector job even if it

is available at a competitively determined market clearing wage. They may live in town during this period for job trace depending on their own savings, familial or similar support.

The Stark model assumes that migration decisions are based on a two-period planning horizon that rural-to-urban migrants may think about either of the two competing strategies: (i) join the informal sector in the first period, and while there, search for formal sector employment. If formal sector employment is not tenable in the second period, informal sector employment is sought; (ii) search intensively (full time) for a formal sector opening in the first period. If formal sector employment is not secured in the second period, an attempt is prepared to join the informal sector.

In the background of the state of West Bengal it is observed that rural to urban migration of rural workers is taking place on an unprecedented scale since the last two decades especially from the districts of North Bengal and that of western most districts of West Bengal. The notable feature of this rural urban migration from these districts is that a large portion of these workers are migrating to the towns and cities in other states of India. The most evident reasons are the lack of employment opportunity and poverty of the migrants. But there are also instances where in spite of ownership of reasonable amount of land to eke out a living rural workers are migrating for employment to towns and cities in other states. Thus, it appears to both 'push factors' and 'pull factors' are causing this observed phenomenon of rural to urban migration in West Bengal. Our investigation wants to expose the causes and consequences of such migration and its implications for rural development in West Bengal by making a case study of Cooch Behar district.

It could be mentioned that the district of Cooch Behar selected for our research study is evidently experiencing a high degree of rural-urban migration in recent years. Cooch Behar district comes about the North-Eastern most district of West Bengal. It has a relatively high incidence of poverty and very low level of human development. The beginning of the recent massive rural exodus from this district is just few years ago. Initially, people from rural area of this district are migrated for employment elsewhere in other states of India like Delhi, Gujarat, Rajasthan, Maharashtra, Kerala and also some major destination states and gradually their number in migration process has multiplied by leaps and bounds. So, the current socio-economic situation in this district is an important reason to select this district for an in-depth study of rural to urban migration and the causes and consequences of such migration.

1.2 Objectives of the Study

The research study has the following major objectives:

1. To examine the trend and pattern of rural-urban migration in West Bengal.
2. To explore into the socio-economic causes of migration of rural workers in urban areas in West Bengal.
3. To explore into the socio-economic consequences of migration of rural workers in urban areas in West Bengal.
4. To identify whether rural-urban migration takes place largely due to push factors or pull factors.
5. To suggest right policy prescription for the planning of rural development in West Bengal.

1.3 Research Questions

In our research study, we have tried to find out answers to the following research questions:

- 1) What are the trend and pattern of rural-urban migration in West Bengal and in India over the last couple of years?
- 2) What is the socio-economic background of the migrant workers?
- 3) What are the important causes of migration of people in general and workers in particular from rural to urban areas in the district under study?
- 4) Are the causes mostly similar or different in different villages in the study area?
- 5) Among push and pull factors which are more important for migration?
- 6) Has the rate of migration increased in the last one and half decade?
- 7) What are the trend and pattern of migration with respect to destination, age group, literacy, gender division, employment, wages etc.?
- 8) What are the socio-economic consequences of migration on the migrating households?
- 9) What problems do the migrants at destinations face?

- 10) How do they solve these problems?
- 11) What are the net benefits of migration?
- 12) What are the policy implications of such rural-to-urban migration?

1.4 Research Hypotheses

Following are the major hypotheses which are tested in our research study:

- 1) Mainly workers from weaker socio-economic background migrate from rural to urban areas.
- 2) Push factors are the relatively important determinants of rural-urban migration than pull factors in the study area.
- 3) Urban-rural real income-differential is not the most important cause of rural-urban migration.
- 4) There has been a marked improvement in socio-economic conditions of the families of migrant workers.

1.5 Basic Terms and Concepts in Migration

Migrant and Migration: Migrant is usually defined as a person who has changed his usual place of residence from one migration defining area to another at least once during the migration interval while a migration is defined as a movement from one migration defining area to another during a given migration interval and involving a change of residence.

Place of birth: It is the original place of the migrant where he /she was born and it constitutes the basis of direct method of measuring migration.

Place of last residence: Place of last residence refers to the place where the migrants had last resided before moving to the place of present residence.

In-migrant and Out-migrant: A person who crosses the boundaries of a village/town for the purpose of residing or for some other reasons at the place of enumeration is called an in-migrant while a person moves out from the place of enumeration (village/town) to another

politically defined area (village/town) for usual residence, he or she is termed as an out-migrant.

In-migration and Out-migration: In-migration refers to movement into a particular area, while out-migration refers to movement out of a particular area, both referring to movements within a country, i.e., internal migration.

Internal migration: It includes any movement of persons within the political boundaries of a nation which results in a change of usual place of residence. Thus, it refers to migration of persons within the country.

Lifetime migrant: A person, whose area of residence at the census or survey date differs from the area of his birth or nationality, is a lifetime migrant.

Return migrant: A person who moved back to the area where he formerly resided.

Net migration: Net migration is defined as the net balance between arrivals (in-migration) and departures (out-migration) of a specific area of a state or a country. The value of net migration may be positive or negative. If the in-migrants of a particular area are greater than the out-migrants of that particular area then the value of net migration is positive. On the other hand, if the in-migrants of a particular area are less than the out-migrants of that particular area then the value of net migration is negative.

Migration Streams: Migrants who make tracks from an area of origin and reach at a common area of destination, during a particular migration interval, constitute a migration stream. There are four major migration streams- (i) rural to rural (ii) rural to urban (iii) urban to urban and (iv) urban to rural.

Distress Migration: Agriculture being the principal occupation for rural people of India that provides subsistence to nearly 70 percent of the rural population. The agriculture sector is now stuffed by the agricultural labour pressure and has to face with acute problem of disguised unemployment. Moreover, frequent occurrence of drought due to inadequate irrigation facilities results in abrupt reduction of employment opportunities in this leading sector. Besides, high cost of cultivation, stagnation of productivity and price fluctuations of agricultural products results in loss of livelihood and a fall in income below subsistence level. Under such circumstances, the distressed rural labourers in many instances are compelled to migrate to urban centers for search of employment and better livelihood.

1.6 Some Important Concepts of Rural-Urban Migration: Their relevance, applicability and operationalisation

The following are the some of important concepts which have been used in our research study. The relevance, applicability of these concepts and their operationalisation are briefly explained below:

Rural-urban migration: It denotes migration from rural areas to urban areas temporarily or permanently either for job or for study or for some other reasons. This is a very commonly observed phenomenon among rural population in a developing economy. The predominant cause for such type of migration is due to search of employment in urban centres. The purpose of the present investigation is to study the various socio-economic causes and consequences of such migration.

Push factors: Push factors are those factors that force the individual or group to move voluntarily and in many cases, they are forced because the individual takes risk something if they stay. Those refer like conditions of distress such as low productivity, low income, landlessness, unemployment or underemployment, low wages etc. for which rural people move from rural to urban centers. In the present study an attempt has been made to identify the push factors and their importance that causes rural-to-urban migration.

Pull factors: Pull factors are those factors in the destination that attract the individual or group to leave their home. Those factors are known as place utility which is the desirability of a place that attracts people. Those refer to conditions in urban areas, which lure rural labour to towns and cities. Some of these conditions are better wages with better living conditions, more employment, better employment, better conditions of work, better health and educational facilities etc. In our research study we have made an attempt to find out whether and how many pull factors are in existence that actuate workers to migrate to urban areas. By interviewing either the workers or their family members at origin we have tried to find it out.

Agrarian crisis: In the context of West Bengal it means non-remunerative nature of agricultural activities. Common observation and empirical evidences show that due to very low profitability for most of the farmers agriculture as an occupation is no longer worthy of pursuing. This is one of the hypotheses of our study which is tested.

Expected income: This means the income that is expected to be earned by the prospective migrants from rural to urban areas when they migrate and get some job. In course of our investigation we have tried to find out as to what are the expected incomes of the migrants.

Probability of getting employed: It refers not all migrants would get immediately employed after their arrival in urban centers. Often they might have to wait to get a job/coveted job. We have made an attempt to find out the probability of getting employment by the migrants in the study area.

Inter-state migration: It refers to migration of people from one state to another state within the domestic territory. In many cases, the rural labourers from West Bengal migrate to other states of India for employment. We have identified the states where they migrate and reasons for their preferred destinations.

Intra-state migration: It refers to migration of people within the state. In this case migration may take place within the district or other district of the state. We have also found out the proportion of such migrants in our study and the reasons for such intra-state migration.

Temporary migration: It means migration of the workers for a very short duration ranging from one week to three months. We have investigated the causes of such type of migration.

Semi-Permanent Migration: It means migration of the workers for the medium term ranging from four months to five years. Causes and consequences of such migration have been investigated thoroughly in our research study.

Permanent migration: This refers to migration of the workers for long term ranging from six years and above. Causes and consequences of such migration have been explored deeply in our research study.

Circular migration: Circular migration or the repeat migration is the temporary and usually repetitive movement of workers between home and host areas, typically for the purpose of employment. It represents an established pattern of population mobility. In the case of circular migration, migrants from rural areas commute to urban areas daily to attend their work at urban centers. Incidence and consequences of such migration have been carefully analyzed in the study.

Costs and benefits of migration: Migration involves both costs and benefits. On the cost side the elements are psychological costs like separation from family members and friends - and relations, and then monetary costs like transport cost, living costs etc. On the benefits side there are benefits of better employment, higher wages and income, better facilities of health and education, improvement in general knowledge and awareness etc. All such and more of such plausible costs and benefits have been accounted for in course of study through field investigation.

Origin of migration: This means the place (village) from where the workers migrate. We have found out whether the places of origin of migration are remote areas and areas with problems of lack of employment, low productivity of agriculture, absence of non-farm activities etc.

Destination of migration: It refers to the places (urban areas) where the rural workers migrate. Finding out the destinations of migration of workers are important in view of the fact that these may be indicative of the relative growth and prosperity of the destination towns in terms of employment, income, living condition, different urban amenities etc.

Urban informal sector: It refers to that sector of employment in urban areas where work, employment and enterprises are not bound by formal rules and regulations of the government. It is normally seen that in developing countries, labourers are migrating to towns and cities largely to find out employment in the urban informal sector where terms and conditions of employment are mostly exploitative. One of the crucial areas of investigation of our study is to find out the sector where migrant workers find their jobs and the nature of such employment.

1.7 Plan of the Study

The research study consists of eight chapters. Moreover, these chapters are divided into several sections and sub-sections. A broad outline of each of the chapters is given below:

Chapter-I: Introduction. This chapter deals with the problem under study, objective of the study, research questions, research hypotheses, conceptual framework, justification of the study, research methodology, plan of the study, limitations of the study.

Chapter-II: Review of Literature. A good amount of review of literature on the work already done on the area of research in India and abroad has been accomplished for the study.

Chapter-III: Rural-Urban Migration Scenario in India and in West Bengal. Trends, patterns and extent of rural-urban migration and also reasons for migration have been discussed for India and West Bengal by using secondary data.

Chapter-IV: Demographic and Socio-Economic Profile of Migrant Workers in the Study Area. By utilizing field survey data an analysis of the demographic and socio-economic background of the migrant workers has been made.

Chapter-V: Trend, Pattern and Features of Rural-Urban Migration in the Study Area. An analysis of the trends, patterns and characteristics or features of rural-urban migration has been made by utilizing field survey data.

Chapter-VI: Causes of Migration- Push and Pull Factors. This chapter also makes use of primary data to determine the nature and significance of the push and pull factors in causing rural-urban migration in the study area. By analyzing primary data we have tried to find out why there are no cases of migration from some households and also a comparison is made between households having migrant workers and those having no migrant workers.

Chapter-VII: Consequences of Migration- Costs and Benefits. In this chapter an attempt has been made to estimate the costs and benefits of rural-urban migration of workers in the study area. Also, a comparison has been made between households having migrant workers and those having no migrant workers.

Chapter-VIII: Summary, Conclusions and Policy Recommendations. This chapter summarizes the overall findings of the study, draw conclusions and make policy recommendations for formulating/reformulating plans for rural development of the district under study and for that matter for whole of the state of West Bengal.

A selected bibliography has been appended at the end of the dissertation to acknowledge the scholarly debts of the present investigator to the authors of some books, journal articles etc. from which he has developed insight for the progressive work.

1.8 Research Methodology

The research study is based on existing literature, secondary data and primary data collected through field survey and hence the analysis of the existing literature, secondary data and the primary data have been incorporated in our research study. For collecting secondary data and literature we have made use of the library of the University of North Bengal (NBU), Raja Rammohunpur; the National Library, Kolkata; Library of the Center for Studies in Social Sciences, Kolkata etc. The sources of secondary data on migration are NSSO data of various rounds, the Census Reports of 1991, 2001 and 2011 for the district and the records of Gram Panchayats in the case of selected villages. Moreover, relevant data have been collected from Statistical Abstracts and Economic Reviews published by the Bureau of Applied Economics and Statistics, Government of West Bengal and Economic Survey published every year by the Government of India. Also, various reports, books, journals, bulletins, unpublished M. Phil and Ph.D. theses and research works of different scholars etc. have been consulted to collect relevant secondary data and information. On the other hand, the primary data have been collected by household survey of selected villages of the study district through structured migration and non-migration questionnaires. We have used tables, figures or diagrams and maps to analyse data to obtain findings of the research study.

The following key steps have been followed as parts of the research methodology of this study.

1.8.1 Area of the Study

The area of the study has been the state of West Bengal in general and the district of Cooch Behar in particular.

1.8.2 Universe of the Study

The universe of the study has been the state of West Bengal in India.

1.8.3 Sampling Procedure

The district Cooch Behar has twelve blocks and five sub-divisions. First of all, all the blocks of the district of Cooch Behar have been classified into three groups, viz., developed, moderately developed and backward blocks on the basis of some selected socio-economic indicators like number of primary schools, number of branches of commercial banks and

RRBs, agricultural productivity, cropping intensity, literacy of population, size of agricultural land etc. Then from each block a list of villages having 150 to 200 households have been selected purposively. Thereafter, from those list of villages two villages from each block have been selected. Next, a household census in the selected villages has been conducted to gather some general socio-economic profile of the households and particular information about whether migration of workers has taken place from any household. Thus, we have obtained two types of households - one having no migrant workers and another having one or more migrant workers. Then from each of these two categories of households, 25 households have been randomly chosen from six villages of classified three blocks. Thus, altogether $(25 \times 6) + (25 \times 6) = 300$ households have been surveyed from six villages of three blocks of this district for the purpose of our study. Unit of observation is a single household. The field survey for collection of primary data has been completed in the year 2013 on the basis of household survey through structured questionnaires of migrant and non-migrant households that is the research study bears at micro-level. The data are, therefore, cross-section type data.

1.8.4 Tools and Techniques of Data Collection

Both primary and secondary data have been collected for our study. Primary data have been collected from the selected households of selected villages through personal interview with the respondents of the selected households with the help of structured questionnaire made for the purpose. As is obvious, the field survey has been conducted at the places of origin of the migrants. Since out migrants generally visit their family members during festivals like Durga Puja, Dewali, Eid and Holi festivals and during Bengali New year, the timing of household survey has been planned during such festivals. Field survey for non-migrant households of the selected villages has been done in usual time during the survey year.

For collecting secondary data we have made use of the library of the University of North Bengal (NBU), Raja Rammohunpur; the National Library, Kolkata; Library of the Center for Studies in Social Sciences, Kolkata. The records of Gram Panchayats in the case of selected villages have been collected from the concerned Gram Panchayats offices. Moreover, the relevant data have been collected from various reports, books, journals, bulletins, unpublished M. Phil and Ph.D. theses and research works of different scholars and also from Statistical Abstracts and Economic Reviews published by the Bureau of Applied Economics and Statistics, Government of West Bengal and Economic Survey published every year by the Government of India.

1.8.5 Data Collection

Primary data have been collected on various aspects of the respondents like socio-economic and demographic profiles of both migrant and non-migrant households selected, causes of migration, permanence of migration, destination of migrants, nature and type of employment, nature and type of work done at destination, principal sector of work done of non-migrant households, monthly income, consumption and saving of both migrant and non-migrant earners, remittances of migrants, use of remittances, problem faced by migrants at destination, facilitators of migration, status of employment before out-migration, Job Card information of both migrant and non-migrant households, effects of migration, household consumption expenditure of both migrant and non-migrant households, assets and debt information of both migrant and non-migrant households etc.

1.8.6 Data Processing

After the collection of data, these have been processed for appropriate statistical calculations manually by using calculator and also through computer. These data have been tabulated and analyzed to obtain the findings and to arrive at conclusions. Microsoft Excel and especially SPSS package have been used for data analysis. In addition to, the use of simple statistical methods like ratios, percentages, averages, etc. are used in order to get findings of the study.

1.9 Limitations of the study

The study has been conducted in six selected villages of the district of Cooch Behar of West Bengal. For overview of the findings it would have been well again if the data could have been collected from more villages of few districts of the state of West Bengal where migration from rural to urban areas is taken place on an unprecedented scale since the last fifteen to twenty years. Suggestions of the study would be applicable only to the regions with similar socio-economic and demographic conditions of the households.

CHAPTER-II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1 Introduction

Many scholars have been quite concerned by the subject of migration from various fields of social science like demography, sociology, anthropology, geography, economics and political science. Various theoretical and empirical research studies on migration have been undertaken and lots of secondary and primary data have been accumulated and used. There are three types of studies on migration- regional, national and international levels. However, among studies of internal migration, the topic of rural-urban migration has turned up the most-popular among scholars. Over and above, dynamics of rural-urban migration with its causes and consequences have been brought about by different studies. Many suggestions and policy prescriptions have been drawn up either to promote or to check migration and movement of people. The volume of literature produced is indeed ample.

2.2 An Overview of Literature

A part of the existing and increasing volume of literature on the topic available from different sources has been reviewed below. Four categories of research works have been reviewed. Firstly, we have reviewed those studies which deal with theoretical issues of migration. Secondly, research works which have been exercised at empirical level. These have been classified into two parts: those which are mainly consist of secondary data and those, which have dealt with field survey data. Thirdly, we have went over those works which deal with the problem of rural-urban migration in countries other than India and the case of international migration. Then, we have reviewed the review articles on internal rural-urban migration. Finally, we have identified the research gap in this chapter.

2.2.1 Theoretical Issues of Migration

Todaro (1969) in his theory of rural urban migration regarded two-stage phenomenon of rural urban migration. He perceived a dichotomy in urban economy while analyzing rural to urban migration. According to Todaro model of migration, in the first stage, the unskilled rural workers migrate to an urban area and initially spend a certain period of time in the urban

traditional sector. In the second stage, they finally attain jobs in more permanent modern sector. In Todaro's model, the migration decision from rural to urban areas is basically related to two principal variables, viz.: (i) the urban-rural real income differentials, and (ii) the probability of obtaining an urban job. A basic hypothesis of probabilistic migration model of Todaro is that informal sector employment is a transitory staging post for new migrants on their way to formal sector employment. It presumes two permanent sectors in the economy; one is rural sector specializing in the production of agricultural goods and the other is modern urban sector. The urban sector is divided by Todaro into two sub-sectors: (i) modern sector (akin to formal sector), and (ii) traditional sector (similar to informal sector) which includes all the workers not regularly employed in the urban modern sector, that is, explicitly employed, underemployed or sporadically employed and those who are employed in petty retail trades and services.

Spengler and Myers (1977) in their paper have made an effort to set migration within a context sufficiently broad so as to cover both it and socioeconomic development, together with their interrelation over time. From their review of work on migration, they have concluded that the study needs to be systematized and subordinated both to inquiry into all relevant social and physical parameters and to inquiry into the optimization of the distribution of economic activities and population in space. This type of inquiry should include inter alia inquiry into the optimization of city sizes and city systems, the imitational impact of non-ubiquitous natural or biospheric elements, the options respecting the ratio of amenities to disamenities, and the means suited to shunting to responsible parties all costs and all benefits flowing from their location-affecting actions. Such internalization, according to them calls for a long view, not only in the preparation of location-affecting plans but also in the costing and financing of undertakings over time.

They have looked on that regional solutions also might be found for the financing of cultural amenities (e.g., theatre, orchestra) that require, for their support, sufficiently large and continuous audiences. The search for regional solutions will be accentuated if the relative costs of energy and transportation rise, thus increasing the cost of population scatter that stems from the present practice of many urban workers living in rural nonfarm areas. According to them it is desirable that countries and regions that are victimized by the "skill drain" be compensated for this loss by the countries and regions benefiting from the immigration of superior human capital. Otherwise, international and interregional income

disparity is accentuated and the capacity of economically depressed areas to progress is reduced. While freedom to migrate is an essential “right,” the advantage conferred on the immigrant-receiving country needs to be paid for, much as the influx of physical capital must be paid for.

Berliner (1977) equips the important point that most people who write about migration are not interested in migration at all, but only in its consequences. This is certainly true of economists, sociologists, anthropologists, and social psychologists, whose work constitutes a major part of the literature on migration. Only demographers, and to a lesser extent geographers and historians, care about migration per se. Thus, it comes as no surprise that most disciplines approach the question of the causes of migration in a very similar manner and then stress the question that really fascinates them – the consequences of migration – from the view point of their disciplinary emphasis. Berliner evaluates the contributions by various disciplines within the context of their “bullishness” or “bearishness” on the issue of the ultimate consequences of migration for human welfare. While weighing the costs and benefits of migration to society in a most judicious manner, Berliner tends to stress the negative effects somewhat more than the positive ones. For economists, this is a useful corrective to the usual notion that migration is required for labor mobility and therefore clearly has positive result.

Neuberger (1977) discusses the heretofore neglected topic of the interrelations between migration and various systemic variables. He utilizes the approach he developed for his book *Comparative Economic Systems: A Decision Making Approach*, which concentrates attention on three systemic structures: the decision-making, information, and motivation structures. He argues that one reason why the systemic variables are usually ignored in studies of migration is because they generally tend to influence migration only indirectly and because slow, gradual, migratory moves do not tend to have a significant impact on the nature of the economic system in the area of origin or of destination. Neuberger compares the decision-making, information, and motivation variables in extreme pure models of planned and market systems, and in a mixed system – having centralized information but decentralized decision-making structure. He also explores the welfare economic implications for migration of different economic systems, stressing the problems of interdependencies, externalities, and norms and the definition of optimal migration flows.

Davis's (1977) paper elicits that rural out-migration appears to contribute to the development and well-being of sending regions. If so, it is worth asking why the opposite is often assumed and why policy is sometimes aimed at slowing down the rural exodus. The answer, according to him, is twofold. First, many governments are less concerned with rural areas than with the politically more potent cities. The influx into cities disturbs them because it seems to create urban unemployment and to lower the level of living in the cities. Second, insofar as officials worry about the countryside, they tend to revert to the old habit of associating population decline with catastrophe. They see empty farm houses, empty stores, schools, and churches in rural villages, and this seems to them to indicate economic decline. Davis's suggestion in this regard is that the empty buildings be torn down, the areas they occupied plowed over. Visitors from government headquarters in the city will then see only green fields. They will then say how beautiful and productive the countryside is and will return to their offices without being reminded that the population in rural areas is going downwards.

Stark (1982) in his theory of migration presumes a two-pronged planning horizon that rural-to-urban migrants may consider by incorporating informal sector into standard expected income Todaro type. According to Stark's model many rural-to-urban migrants rationally, though involuntarily, join the ranks of the urban unemployed since there are fewer high paying formal sector jobs than their numbers in the urban centers. Yet, migrants may willingly remain unemployed for a long period in the towns as an optimal strategy or investment in search of high-paying formal sector jobs. During this period, they may not accept an informal sector job even if it is available at a competitively determined market-clearing wage. They may live in town during this period for job trace depending on their own savings, familial or similar support.

The Stark model assumes that migration decisions are based on a two-period planning horizon that rural-to-urban migrants may think about either of the two competing strategies: (i) join the informal sector in the first period, and while there, search for formal sector employment. If formal sector employment is not tenable in the second period, informal sector employment is sought; (ii) search intensively (full time) for a formal sector opening in the first period. If formal sector employment is not secured in the second period, an attempt is prepared to join the informal sector.

Zachariah's (1987) paper makes an attempt on the issue of measurement of internal migration from census data. He has provided a few illustrations of some of the emerging applications of census data for migration analysis. These clearly indicate that the greatest asset of census data is their ability to provide cross-tabulations, not only of migrants by their demographic and socio-economic characteristics, but also of migrants as defined by different questions. The full potential of this latter feature of census data will only be realized as more censuses produce such cross-tabulations and use them for migration analysis.

Margolis (1987) opines that the push of research on migration has been on the determinants of the flows, not the consequences of the receiving or sending communities, and therefore it has not been as useful as possible for policy formulation. Population movements were seen as equilibrating factors, rather than as exogenous to the economy or, more realistically, as contributing significantly to regional growth and decline. It is further observed that simple multiplier models are helpful to explain the amplification effects of changes in economic opportunities, but more is called for in understanding the process and in deciding what policies should be adopted. External economies of growth or diseconomies of decline are one set of phenomena that should be included in models if they are to be policy relevant; another set would be the changes in public facilities associated with populations of different compositions. Since modeling has not been concerned with policy, little can be said except that this is unfortunate.

Osella and Gardner (2004) in their case study on 'Migration, Modernity and Social Transformation in South Asia' points out that the study of human movement for re-location in South Asia in a firm ethnographic grounding over the last ten years has been somewhat lost in wider discussion of globalization and transformation. In these debates, migration breaks down the opposition between different geographical locations and migrants and it is regarded as embodying a wider, contemporary post-modern condition. They also point out that present day migrants increasingly live across cultural and political borders, with the experience of transnational migrants or diasporic communities destabilizing nationalist ideologies and notions of race.

Thapan (2005) in his study on 'transnational migration and the politics of identity' clarifies the extent to which a gender perspective makes a contribution to migration theory and the manner in which it aids to comprehensive understanding of women's experience of migration, and how in the process, migration simultaneously emphasizes certain gender

related aspects. He argues that the comparative dimension is essentially concerned with the Asian region but provides cross-cultural and regional diversity in their understanding of the issue under consideration. Finally, the scholar points out that traditional formations and notions of the working class undergo dramatic transformations.

Bhadhuri's (2006) study on 'employment and development' attempts to detect answer to the question: why poverty and unemployment, as two sides of the same problem appear and persist and are often bypassed by the process of development? He examines this problem from a multidimensional perspective. Firstly, some of the theoretical issues are involved and points to oversights in standard theorising on the subject. Secondly, it draws out the connection between development of a predominantly agrarian economy and unemployment. Finally, it deals with the problem in the context of transnational economies of east Europe and draws lessons. He at last points out that the errors from the use of orthodox theories relied on by the IMF and the World Bank.

Bird and Deshingkar (2009) twig that people certainly do migrate because there is not enough work locally, but migration should not be understood as forced or distressed migration. Many people perceive migration as an opportunity. Short-term, non-permanent, migration from poor and underdeveloped regions to more prosperous regions and countries can offer people an important opportunity to diversity and exit from poverty. Without the opportunity to migrate many poor people would have fallen into deeper poverty and experienced severe food insecurity. This indicates that the costs and risks of migration might be cut by more flexible schools, pro-poor programmes and insurance for mobile population. The researchers predict that given current development patterns and future projections on urbanisation, the growth of manufacturing and agricultural development, it is very likely that internal migration in India, both temporary and permanent, will persist and grow. This will transfer populations from rural/agriculture to urban/non-farm areas and occupations. The rate at which this occurs will depend on how willing the national and state governments are to allow more people to settle in urban areas.

2.2.2 Empirical Issues on Internal Rural-Urban Migration

2.2.2 (a) Empirical Issues Based on Secondary Data

Dasgupta (1988) has explored the process of migration in West Bengal, and its implications for rural-urban relationship. He found that in the case of West Bengal migration has not been

accompanied or followed by 'depopulation' of the countryside, or a shift in the terms of trade in favour of agriculture, or a high level of mechanization, or it shows any sign of working itself out, or of acting as an equilibrating mechanism. He observes that the villages of Uttar Pradesh, which began sending migrants to the jute factories of Calcutta about hundred years ago, are continuing to do so; and the outward movement of workers from the districts of Bankura and Purulia towards relatively prosperous rural areas of the state shows no sign of abating. The migratory process, once started, does not easily stop, although destinations might change or become diversified. Migration continues even when the conditions which originally favoured such migration cease to operate; poor villages turned rich do not turn off the flow, though organized migration is replaced by voluntary migration, and the direction of migration might change, as also the work they do in the destination. In these cases, migration becomes a part of the tradition, the way of life of the people concerned.

According to Dasgupta migration cannot be restrained by force, or through regulations and rules. If people want to come to the towns and squat on the pavements, there is little that a state government can do to prevent it. Moreover, it should be noted, that despite the various problems created by large scale migration, e.g., in terms of deteriorating civic facilities, the positive aspects of the migratory movements should not be overlooked. Such movements, apart from widening the horizon of the participants and helping to iron out local deficits and surplus in labour power, have been historically responsible for the advance of human civilization by spreading new ideas, technologies and innovations. In the Indian context, migration plays the important role of integrating the segmented labour markets, and developing new identities of working people irrespective of their caste, religions or linguistic loyalties. Migration, thus, can be seen as an important instrument promoting national integration; while at same time it is true that very often the identifiable migrant groups become the scapegoats for all the ills of a society and are subjected to attack from the chauvinist forces.

Sarkar's (1988) study is based on migration data of the Census of India 1971. He has probed into the causes and characteristics of the problem of migration with special reference to the state of West Bengal. His study shows that the Harris-Todaro model based on rural-urban income differential does not significantly explain rural-urban migratory movements in West Bengal. According to him this model fails also when only the informal sector urban income is taken into account. His regression Model-I suggests that both explanatory variables – the

man-land ratio and the percentage of landless agricultural workers are individually significant indicating their importance in the rural sectors. However, in the final (4th regression) model this explanatory variable, man-land ratio becomes statistically insignificant, but the other variable, 'percentage of landless agricultural workers' continues to be statistically significant. Literacy rate is confirmed as one of the major explanatory variables for migration. Literacy has been treated by him as a 'push', factor (the rural areas having limited opportunities for jobs suitable for educated persons) and a 'pull' factor indicating both a better access to information on urban opportunities and also the fact of the urban areas having better job prospects for the educated.

Mitra (1992) in his study points out that rural to urban migration rate is both influenced by the workforce participation rate and the level of service employment in the cities. Workforce participation rate lowers the service sector employment but raises in-migration. Again service sector employment lowers the work force participation rate but attracts the rural unemployed and the casual workers from the agricultural sector. Finally, he sets forth the indirect impact of workforce participation rate on percentage of tertiary sector employment in total workforce and vice-versa through the variable and for this impact rural to urban migration rate is positive demonstrating the situation of expanding urban workforce with a growing concentration of service sector jobs.

Bhattacharya's (1998) paper tries to narrate rural-urban migration in India to some of the broad economic changes in the country during the 1970s, when there occurred an occupational shift out of agriculture with the share of agriculture in employment declining and that of non-agriculture increasing. The evidence indicates that the informal sector played an important role in rural-urban migration during the period and that, far from being a passive absorber of labour, it was a dynamic and productive sector, attracting and sustaining labour in its own rights.

Subramaniam and **Balasubramaniam's** (2000) paper concentrates on the trend, pattern, characteristics, reasons and effects of migration in the cities of Tamil Nadu: Chennai, Coimbatore and Madurai. For the state as a whole intra-district and inter-district migration is found to dominate. Inter-state migration is found to be correlated with economic potential. The single largest reason for male migration is employment. Interestingly, female mobility for employment increased more than three times between 1981 and 1991. The authors elicit that migrant population has a positive impact on the local population: it adds to the

economically active, educationally qualified and occupationally skilled population and is therefore a blessing and not a burden provided the human resource is harnessed properly.

Srivastava and Sasikumar's (2003) study expounds the internal and international migration, both of which are long-scale with impacts on economic growth and poverty reduction in many regions of the country. The study reviews key issues relating to internal and external labour migration in India. It has analysed the patterns, trends and nature of labour migration, reviewed existing government and non-governmental policies and programmes, and briefly examined key policy issues and options.

Das et al (2003) in their paper has made an attempt to calculate the magnitude and direction of migration among the states in the north-eastern region of India on the basis of NSSO data for the years 1987-88 and 1999-2000. The study finds that the general direction of migration is from the rural sector to the urban sector. Migration in the rural areas, besides being very little, is mostly internal migration. Migration to the urban areas, on the other hand, is on the increase even though migration across states and from other countries has slowed down.

Deshingkar's (2004) study seeks to explain the nature of changes and trends in rural urban migration, the relevance of local labour markets and remittances and their place within the livelihood strategies of the rural poor and to indicate the ways in which donor policies should be adopted to address these changes and trends. The study has also noted remaining contested policy areas and discussed contrasting viewpoints using the available evidence. Finally, it has spelt out areas for further investigation and action.

Chand's (2005) study examines the dynamics of trends and patterns of internal migration in India and analyses the extent and direction of the migration. It is based mainly on the data of the National Sample Survey 55th round, 1999-2000. The lack of employment opportunities in the rural areas and better employment prospects and infrastructural amenities in the urban areas motivate rural labourers to migrate to urban areas. A comparison of activity Status of the migrant before and after migration indicates that the proportion of males as well as females has risen after migration both in rural and urban areas. He opines that people move across regions in response to inequitable distribution of resources, services and opportunities, people increasingly invest in urban areas due to economies of scale. Concentration of institutional and other activities in urban areas attracts people to the urban areas. Thus poverty push and prosperity-pull types of migration movements are found in various parts of

the region in India. He points out an analysis of the recent trends in internal migration which indicates that nearly 27 per cent of the Indian population is migrant.

He has searched out that among the four types of rural-urban streams (rural to urban, urban to rural, urban to urban and rural to rural) the rural to urban migration stream is dominant. Mobility is rewarding in terms of better income and employment and helps in reducing unemployment. He argues that continuing streams of migrants from the rural to urban areas have led to serious problems such as promoting growth of slums in the urban areas which have been instrumental in spreading disease, crime, pollution, congestion etc. According to a recent household census of slum colonies in Chandigarh, about 30% of the population lives in authorised and unauthorised colonies. Most of the migrant labour force works as casual labour in and around the city in the informal sector (Chand, 1999). Finally, he suggests for appropriate policy intervention to promote development in rural areas and backward regions of the country that can be helpful in halting the rural to urban migration and creation of slums. Various aspects related to migration such as theories of migration, causes, types and effects of migration as well as obstacles to migration. Secondly the study also deals with migration in various countries like India with special reference to Kerala. The author's analytical invention of out-migration flows in par with the level of education attained establishes that migration is not a random process, but a selective one, dependent on the nature of employment opportunities available in various regions or countries which in turn determines the internal and international streams of migration.

Kundu and Sarangi (2007) explores in their study of migration that the pattern of migration in urban areas and its socio-economic conditions correlates. The analysis is based on the National Sample Survey's reports of employment and unemployment pertaining to the latest rounds, which provide information on migration. According to the authors, economic deprivation is not the most critical factor for migration decisions, even for seasonal migrants. People migrate out of both poor and rich households, although the reasons for migration and the nature of jobs sought by them are different. Rural-urban migrants have a greater risk of being below the poverty line than the urban-urban migrants, but both report a lower risk than non-migrants. The probability of a person being poor is low in a large city compared to any other urban centre, irrespective of the migration status, age, number of subsidiary activities undertaken, etc. The results indicate that migration has been a definite instrument of improving economic well-being and escaping from poverty. The probability of being poor is

much less among the migrants compared to the local population, in all size classes of urban centres.

Mitra and **Murayama's** (2007) paper consists of the Census data of 2001. The paper has analysed the district level rural to urban migration rates (both intra-state and the inter-state) among males and females separately. Both the rates are closely associated irrespective of whether the migrants originate from the rural areas within the state or outside the state. This would suggest that women usually migrate as accompanists of the males. 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 male population is also seen to be prominent in the relatively advanced states like Maharashtra and Gujarat. Rapid migration of rural females within the boundaries of the states is however, evident across most of the regions. The social networks, which play an important role in the context of migration are prevalent among the short distance migrants and tend to lose their significance with a rise in the distance between the place of origin and destination though there are some exceptions to this phenomenon. Besides the north-south divide in the Indian context is indeed a significant phenomenon with a few exceptions of metropolitan cities. As regards the effect of factors at the place of destination, prospects for better job opportunities are a major determinant of male migration. Low castes and minority groups tend to pull migration through network effects. Among females also these effects are evident though with the inclusion of the male migration rate they become less significant. Finally the paper brings out the policy implications.

2.2.2 (b) Empirical Issues Based on Primary Data

Barik's (1984) paper has searched out that Ganjam has witnessed the emigration of a part of its free labour to Surat, mainly influenced by "economic factors", such as small land holdings, low income, severe unemployment and better prospects for future. Further, the reason for selecting Surat as the destination was 'better prospects' of availability of employment here than elsewhere. This was reinforced by having friends, family members and relatives in Surat. They guaranteed jobs and extended all possible hospitalities. This reveals the kinship network in rural-urban migration. The decision to migrate has been influenced greatly by their education, family composition, marital status and experience of earlier migration to other places.

Most of the migrants work in small textile industries, which contravene all labour laws. According to him, temporary and adhoc nature of employment, low wage, weak trade union organisation and poor housing conditions lead to serious health hazards. There is a frequent change of employment without an adequate change in the way of life. The only reason for the acceptance of this sorry state of affairs is the availability of employment opportunities and better wages compared to what was available in the village agriculture. There is a wide gap between wage needs because of the cost of living in the urban context and the overall saving of the migrants.

Rao (1986) in his study has attempted to explore the problems relating to migration, both internal and international. He examines the significance of migration which expands well beyond regional geography, urban planning and housing policies etc. into problems of law and order, conduct of national integration and management of human relations. He brings twelve essays in his study focussing on the historical, demographic and sociological dimensions of migration. A wide range of migration situations from the rural-rural to international are explored and many conceptual, theoretical and empirical aspects of the phenomenon are also explored. He discusses the human aspects of migration, poverty, deprivation and subsistence. Finally, he concludes that work needs to be done on understanding the effects of emigration and the international relationship between host, home and migrant societies.

Gupta et al (1988) have made a sociological study of migration of agricultural labourers from eastern to north-western region of India. The main objectives of their study are to explicate the causes of migration, to analyse the impact of migration on the pattern of employment, wages, acculturation and interpersonal relations and to examine the socio-cultural and economic impact of migration on migrant families. The study finds that migration was stimulated by both push and pull factors. Higher wages and regular employment at the farms of Punjab were the major economic factors which initially attracted the immigrants to Punjab. At a later stage, the networks of the co-villagers and caste played dominant role in sustaining immigrants stay in Punjab. The important push factors were floods, droughts, unemployment/under-employment, poverty and indebtedness. The positive effect of the influx of immigrants was seen in the minimization of the chronic shortage of farm labour on Punjab farms, particularly during peak periods. However, it was found that

social tensions existed between the local and immigrant workers in a latent form. It was feared that a large scale immigration of farm workers from Uttar Pradesh and Bihar may endanger the legitimate socio-economic interests of the local farm workers.

Gupta's (1991) study explores that the majority of the immigrants to Punjab hailed from Bihar and Uttar Pradesh. They are mainly Hindus, young in age, illiterate and belonged to intermediate and low castes. Most had medium sized or large families with a maximum of three earners. They are mostly agricultural labourers and own cultivable land. Still, they are under debt and dwell in Kutchha houses. Almost all the immigrants came to Punjab on their first out-migration through friends, relatives and co-villagers already working in Punjab, reflecting the importance of the social network. Both pull and push factors stimulated migration. The economic factors were more effective in the beginning, while the social factors were dominant in sustaining the immigrants' stay at the later stages. A bulk of the employer-farmers recruited the immigrants directly. The majority of the immigrants had no housing problem but they faced problems of social participation and frustration and were not well adjusted in the new socio-cultural milieu. Almost, all the immigrants had changed their food habits from rice to wheat and maize. The adoption level of the local language was low while the change in the dress was apparent. A dominant section had acquired knowledge of modern farm technology. Most immigrants had cordial relations with the locals. The former, however, felt deprived vis-a-vis the latter in respect of wages, working hours and levels of living. The employer-farmers preferred to employ the immigrants as they were cheaper, worked for longer hours and were more submissive than the locals. The latter, however, did not like the influx of migrant agricultural labourers for obvious reasons. The host culture had a favourable influence on the immigrants' values in respect of family planning. The remittances sent home by them had contributed towards improvement in the educational level of their children, marriages of kin, purchase of durable goods and agricultural lands and clearing of their debts.

Joshi's (1997) study on 'Tribal Migration' indicates that seasonal labour migration is an important dynamic constituent of the contemporary tribal scenario of India. He analyses the basic issue that the large scale migration is one of the survival strategies adopted by the tribals to save them from starvation, under a condition of the failure of the local support system caused due to increasing population and dwindling command over resources. Specially, he reflects the ground reality of the overexploited western tribal belt of India.

Based on the primary data of 2280 households from 66 villages of the tribal district of Jhabua from Madhya Pradesh, which produces a factual analysis of the nature, volume, direction and causes of tribal migration, along with manpower skill component.

Mamgain's (2003) paper makes an attempt a detailed analysis of the magnitude and characteristics of out-migration among rural households in the State of Uttaranchal. It notes that out-migration among the rural household in the mountain region of Uttaranchal is increasingly becoming an important part of their survival strategy as the mountain agriculture, which possesses a weak facility for structural transformation, could hardly meet the subsistence requirements of many rural households. However, the tightening labour-market situations outside the hill region in the present phase of economic reforms has, in fact, adversely affected the employment opportunities for out-migrants as most of them are unskilled and possesses low levels of education. The real challenge therefore is to enhance the education and skills of the population. This will enable them to compete within their State in the event of upcoming job opportunities on the one hand, and also help those who out-migrate. This would require a serious re-look of the strengths and weaknesses of the existing infrastructure for the human resource development and accordingly to undertake corrective measures.

Dayal and Karan's (2003) study have analysed the causes and consequences of migration of both the tribal and non-tribal labourers of Jharkhand Region. The study is based on primary data collected from 12 villages of the state of Jharkhand. It notes that the incidence of migration is very high in this region. A large number of migrants engage in short period migration. Migration has had the wide-ranging consequences on both the migrants and those who stay behind. While migration has resulted in improved income and consumption standards, it also has had adverse impacts especially on those who have been left behind.

Mohanan and Valentina (2004) took on a survey of hundred households in four settlements of migrant labourers in Hyderabad city of Andhra Pradesh. The study found that rural poverty and under-employment are the underlying factors for the growing phenomenon of rural to urban migration in the state. Rural-Urban migration has become the escape route and the urban informal sector continues to absorb migrant rural labour force, resulting in growth of urban slums in the periphery of Hyderabad city. They have found that casual employment is the dominant feature of migrant labour households in urban slums. By its very nature, daily wage employment is neither continuous nor sustainable in the long run.

The study exposes that the migrant labourers are better placed compared to their counterpart in rural areas both economically and socially in the urban setting. It shows that though urbanisation has its problems for the development planners, migration seems to be a blessing in disguise for the migrant population. Higher income and better employment prospect and surplus net income over expenditure are the motivating factors for continued settlement of labour households in urban slums. The study indicates that the process of urbanisation cannot be easily reversed so long as urban living conditions are much more comfortable due to substantial employment-cum-income gain in the urban milieu. Urbanisation being a dynamic process, the rural-urban migration will get accentuated due to several pull factors in the urban agglomeration. The authors suggest that to counter balance this rural-urban migration, there is an urgent need to transform the living conditions in rural areas. By the provision of the basic amenities in the village on par with the cities, the potential for rural-urban migration can be reduced.

Mahesh (2004) in his study noticed the structure of labour force in Kerala that has changed over time as a result of reduced new entry into the agricultural sector and the continuing shift to non-agricultural occupations. Faced with the limited employment opportunities in the village and uncertainty in getting local employment, a large number of rural labourers change their occupation or place of work or both. Casualisation of labour is one of the strategies adopted by workers to shift risk, while some others partially shift their occupations. Other things being equal, age and sex were found to be the major determinants of mobility. The older workers as also women workers are the least mobile spatially. In spite of this shift, there is sufficient number of agricultural labourers to meet the local demand. However, they are mostly elderly persons, and in terms of efficiency of labour they are a heterogeneous lot. Since there is only one set of wage rate in the village, cultivators seek to employ only those with higher efficiency. For efficient agricultural workers there is no difficulty in getting employment. The felt shortage of labour is the result of the situation created by the simultaneous existence of a large number of labourers on the one hand, and of a large number of small cultivators on the other, as well as wide variability of work efficiency of the agricultural labour stock in the village.

Kumar (2005) in his case study on 'Rural Male Out-Migration' of workers in Bhagalpur district of Bihar looks on that no simple generalization about the total effects of out-migration on the place of origin is possible. Moreover, he says that rural male out-migration does not

seem to be the only reliable strategy for rural development as it has also created a vicious circle of poverty and out migration in the district. He suggests that unless and until the aforesaid programmes are honestly implemented in the rural areas of Bhagalpur district, the pattern of poverty-induced out-migration would continue unabated.

Sundari's (2007) study evolves the significant livelihood strategy for the poor which is caused by migration. She opines that women play an important role in contemporary migrations throughout the World. She explains gender related issues involved in migration such as the causes that induce women to migrate, the trend and patterns of female migration, its impact on the economic status of migrant families and work patterns of migrant women. She also explains the costs and returns of female labour migration, the problems encountered by migrant women, livelihood strategies and coping mechanism employed, the effect of migratory process on the status of children in the family and finally the quality of life of migrant households. She analyses all India data on migration in macro perspectives with special reference to Tamil Nadu State. Her micro investigation is confined to a sample of 955 migrant women selected from three areas in Tamil Nadu- Chennai City, Coimbatore City and Tirupur Town. Appraising the gains and losses, she has inferred that migration has helped the migrant households to avoid hunger, starvation and death. Finally, she concludes that the gains are minimum, with quality of life steadily deteriorating and promoting the growth of child labour and accounting for a high drop out among them.

Swain's (2007) paper consists of empirical data collected from three villages in Orissa in Eastern India. This study attempts to explore the causes and determinants of rural-urban migration and to analyze its impact on land, labour and credit relations in source areas. According to her, uneven capitalist development and lack of employment opportunities in source areas cause emigration. The pauperised and proletarianised peasants out-migrate to cities and get employed in informal sectors at low wages. The out-migration of marginalised peasantry is not due to any pull factors of growth and income but under the push factors of indebtedness, pauperisation and unemployment and as a survival strategy of the last resort. Due to emigration of landowners, there has been an increase in land leasing in the source areas and in-migration of labour from drought prone tribal areas. Due to remittance money the resource base of the migrant households in the source area has been strengthened and borrowing from trader-moneylenders for cultivation of cash crops has declined.

2.2.3 Issues on Internal Migration in Other Countries and International Migration

Piampiti's (1979) study has examined interregional migration in Thailand during the 1960-70 periods. There is evidence of a relationship between mobility and differences in socio-economic conditions among the regions. Partly as a consequence of the first two development plans, communication and mobility among rural and urban populations have been made easier. The people are in a stage of flux, tending to move away from areas of lesser opportunities. A high concentration of migrants is found in the Bangkok – Thon Buri urban region and a few other cities like Nonthaburi and Samut Prakan. This uneven distribution of population may hamper further progress and strategies are needed to advance the social and economic development of other parts of the country.

The five strategies pointed out by her are interrelated in various ways – especially at the first three – the diversification of economic activities, the reduction of income disparities and the development of growth centres. When agricultural activities are diverted to industrial pursuits, the volume of production will increase and will eventually raise per capita incomes. The rate of population growth and the volume of migration are important in this development. Growth centres can generate a variety of socio-economic activities and become centres of commerce, education and communication. She emphasises the point that only socio-economic development, coupled with family planning programmes, can lower the birth rate. Finally, according to her the diffusion of various services to rural areas can be effective in alleviating population redistribution problems as long as attractive rural employment opportunities are also available.

Pryor (1979) has done a demographic analysis of internal migrants in Malaysia. He opines that internal migration can be seen as a disintegrating force in that it depletes – often literally emasculates – communities in areas of major out-migration such as the state of Perak in Malaysia, while it can bring economically, culturally and politically threatening forces to bear on the major in-migration areas. In the Kuala Lumpur region one can speculate as to the inter-ethnic competition and potential conflict in the demand for scarce resources, be they jobs, housing, health, education or personal security. Nevertheless, and more positively, significant population redistributions through internal migration can also be seen as an integrating force, bringing together Malaysians of different races, cultures and socioeconomic

aspirations, sharing the occupations and services as well as the problems and pressures of the new environments. He observes that while it is too early to fully determine the efficacy of the New Economic Policy adopted in Malaysia in 1971, and since the data here are too coarse and abstract, the statistics on migration do document the extent to which some of the Policy's goals have already crystallized in reality, especially those concerned with rural development and Malay urbanization.

Sekher (1997) in his case study on 'Migration and Social Change' clarifies that under the changing international labour scenario, return migration and its socio-economic impact assumes great importance. He has made an attempt to examine the impact of migration and return migration in the context of large scale return of migrant workers from Middle East Countries to India, particularly to the state of Kerala. He has discussed the research issues relating to migration and a review of relevant literature with emphasis on return migration. He has provided detailed information about emigration from India to Gulf Countries and return migration with special reference to Kerala. The process of emigration from Kerala to Gulf Countries is explained in the fourth chapter by drawing inferences from the two study villages. He has also discussed the process of migration selectivity from rural areas. The occupational change of Gulf returnees has also been discussed by him. He has brought into focus the changes in the village community brought on by Gulf emigration and the subsequent return migration. The changes were broadly examined from two perspectives: economic and social. The conclusion of his study is that apart from the economic aspects, the social dimensions are equally important in understanding and explaining the process and implications of emigration and return migration.

Afsar's (2000) study has made an attempt to create greater understanding about the rapid growth of Dhaka City, the deeply entrenched class hierarchy and offers a socio-economic analysis of the slum and non-slum households. She discusses the above issues from the existing literature in a number of ways. Firstly, it used the latest and recognized sources of secondary materials and population estimates and projections. Secondly, it makes a thorough and broad-spectrum review of theories on determinants and consequences of migration. Thirdly, it attempts to supplement the destination based data with the case study of migrant's families and stayers at origin. Fourthly, it has also combined different forms of population mobility and examines critically the causes and consequences of migration for different streams of migrants. She also considers the gender dimension and assesses the

impact of migration in determining women's roles and status and goes on to make an institutional analysis to derive policy implications for urban management.

Ghaffari and Singh (2000) examine that migration is a complex, multivariate phenomenon and enquiry about the motives behind it is the most difficult part of the analysis of the process of the migration. Not only that, studies which have been conducted in this field are mostly of specific nature and it is difficult to generalize their findings so as to make the same applicable in different situations. Not only the factors controlling migration vary from area to area but also the significance of the same factor varies from person to person. There is no doubt that migration plays an important role in the life of rural as well as urban residents. But the causes of migration are even more important and significant, because only a proper understanding of the reasons of rural migration can help one to adopt a proper decision or policy in relation with it. In their study they have made an attempt to identify the economic determinants of rural-urban migration with special reference to Iran. They have found that land scarcity and population pressure on land; wage and income differentials, unemployment and employment opportunity differentials; unequal distribution of resources, technological improvements and mechanization; land reform and general economic conditions are the most important economic factors that have motivated rural-urban migration in Iran.

Hossain's (2001) study concentrates on the differentials and determinants of internal migration, and hence identifies the factors influencing out-migration in Bangladesh. The study is based on the data collected from 10 villages of Comilla district of Bangladesh. The scholar's migration differentials at individual level indicated that persons involved in the process of rural out-migration were adult and more educated. The study finds that most of them were engaged in studies or unemployed before migration. Nearly half of the migrants were found to have undertaken migration for temporary service and about one quarter have migrated for permanent job. Permanent type of migration was found related with educated migrants whereas temporary type of migration mainly associated with illiterate migrants. The migration rate was found significantly higher for educated as well as unemployed people as well as for the people belonging to the ages 20-29. It was also found that poverty, job searching and family influence were the main push factors for out-migration, while better opportunity, prior migrants and availability of job were the main pull factors behind migration.

Andersen's (2002) paper examines the advantages and disadvantages of rural-urban migration and shows that the costs of increased urbanization (crime, pollution, congestion etc.) in Bolivia are rather small compared to the costs experienced in other Latin American countries. The benefits, on the other hand, may be large. Encouraging rural-urban migration may be one of the cheapest ways of reducing poverty in Bolivia because it is so much cheaper to provide basic services like electricity, piped water, schools, and health services to people when they are gathered in towns or cities. In addition, economics of scale in the cities bring economic opportunities and increase people's income. The paper has shown that rural-urban migration is not much of a problem in Bolivia, neither for the migrants nor for the cost cities. By encouraging rural-urban migration with sensible policies, it may be possible to reduce several of the problems facing Bolivia.

Ahsan Ullah (2004) analyses the factors contributing to the migration process in Bangladesh. 197 randomly selected migrants and their families were interviewed at both destination and source locations using closed and open-ended questionnaires. The resulting data provided descriptive and analytical statistics. Data analysis reveals that the flow of migration to the major cities in Bangladesh is the result of rural-urban dichotomies in income, employment opportunity and absorptive capacity. A significantly higher percentage of migrants live in slums as compared to other places ($P < 0.003$). Regression analysis shows that migration is influenced by both "push" and "pull" factors, such as the search for work, landlessness, extreme poverty, loss of income, easy access to informal sectors in cities, and joining families or relatives. A factor analysis showed similar determinants. According to him, reducing disparities between rural and urban areas should receive urgent attention to stabilize the migration process in Bangladesh.

Kumar (2006) in his book on 'Illegal Migration from Bangladesh' concentrate on a wide range of issues concerning the complex problem of illegal migration from Bangladesh. He traces the factors responsible for illegal migration, both historical and politico-economic. Further, he finds that illegal migration is due to both the pull and push factors. The author opines that this has to be accepted as a ground reality. He has analysed its implications for India in general and the North Eastern States in particular through pushing high population growth, disturbing the demographic texture of population, threatening economy and influencing electoral politics.

Gounder (2006) in his study on causes and consequences of rural-urban migration in Fiji explores that the movement of people geographically, out of rural areas and occupationally out of farm jobs, is one of the most invasive features of agricultural transformations and economic growth. Increasing urban population has also brought increasing problems in urban areas. Rural urban migration is regarded as an evitable consequence of rapid economic growth. The economy of Fiji has been no exception. In the paper he has analyzed the determinants and impact of rural urban migration. Traditionally pull factors have been found to be dominant but push factors appeared to be increasingly becoming powerful. The paper also offers some suggestions to government policy makers, including market reforms, to consider when designing development policies that may directly or indirectly affect internal migration.

2.2.4 Review of Studies on Internal Migration

Sundaram's (1986) paper has taken into account the applicability and relevance in the Indian context of Todaro's model of rural-urban migration in less developed countries (LDCs). In considering the relevance and applicability in the Indian context of the Todaro model he has not attempted an econometric test of the migration function because of data limitations. He has tried to show that the extent of rural-urban migration in search of employment is so small as to border on the negligible even though there exists a sizeable differential between income-foregone in the rural areas and the expected income (adjusted for the probability of unemployment) in urban areas. According to him, this evidence for one time point in the early 1970s has been supplemented by evidence of a decline in the rate of rural-urban migration over the period 1963-64 to 1973-74 with no concurrent decline in the expected-income differentials.

The overall driving force of the Indian evidence, according to him, casts serious doubts on the significance of 'expected income differentials' as a major determinants of rural-urban migration (or rather, in this case, the absence of such migration). The paper finds that the hypothesis that rural-urban migration takes place primarily in response to expected income differentials is not supported by the available Indian evidence relating to the early 1960s and early 1970s. In his view, an understanding of the presence, or absence, of rural-urban migration in India would require a closer analysis of other factors, such as imperfections in the capital market, access to information and the 'distance' separating the two populations. According to him, a whole range of non-economic factors introducing, what may be called a

‘social’ or ‘cultural’ distance which possibly weighs more significantly in migration decisions of the rural population in India. He concludes that, in understanding rural-urban migration in India not only do factors other than expected-income-differentials appear significant, but the purely ‘economic’ elements of these ‘other factors’ are, perhaps, less significant than the sociological and psychological ones incorporated in them.

Lucas (1987) in his overview on internal migration and economic development has stressed on the role of population migration in promoting economic development through increased efficiency of resource allocation, with marginal comments on at least some aspects of distributional implications. The study is limited to observations on internal, rather than international migration and focuses primarily upon economies in which factors of production are predominantly owned by the private sector. In conclusion he observes that tastes of individuals, and the institutional extensions of those tastes in the form of communal arrangements, as data – or at least as exogenous to the migration process. This omission is not a consequence of complete unawareness of the likelihood that urbanization changes both tastes and institutions but, rather, results from the great difficulties of evaluating these induced phenomena in any meaningful fashion.

Sasikumar (1999) in his paper has made an attempt to expound details pertaining to 'neo-classical' and 'new economics of migration' theories of internal migration to clarify their underlying assumptions and key propositions so that the groundwork for necessary empirical work may be laid (Sasikumar, 1999).

Samal and **Mishra** (1999) in their study elicit that each migration pattern will have consequences that are unique to itself and to the economic context which it brings about. The most popular migration model is that of Todaro which regards the migration as a two-stage phenomenon by recognising a dichotomy in an urban economy. By incorporating informal sector into standard Todaro type migration model Stark postulates a two-pronged planning horizon that rural-to-urban migrants may consider. Various empirical studies show that migration does occur from low to high income regions but some debate continues regarding the relative importance of the characteristics of origin and destination in explaining migration. Various independent variables are used to explain as determinants of rural-to-urban migration such as level of education, personal contacts, geographical distance, bright lights, government policies, risk avoidance, urban-rural income difference, agricultural unemployment/ underemployment and others. They opine that the relationship between

migration and labour force participation in the town and cities is indeterminate, as found in both theoretical and empirical literature. The scattered empirical studies do not support the contention that rural-to-urban migrants may be limited to marginal employment even though they improve their income by moving. The studies on rural to urban migration in Orissa showed that push factors as more important determinant than pull factors in the process of rural-to-urban migration and in the case of inter-state out migrants, the migrants (popularly known as *dadan*) move in groups with friends and relatives, sometimes controlled by labour contractors and agents.

2.3 Identification of Research Gap

It is evident from the above review of literature that very few studies on rural-urban migration have been undertaken in West Bengal till date involving primary data. Whatever studies are available on the topic have been done using secondary data from NSSO of various rounds or different Census Reports. Moreover, no work has been done on rural-urban migration in Cooch Behar district of West Bengal till date using primary data. The present study would therefore fill up the research gap and make important contribution to the literature on the problem under study.

CHAPTER-III

RURAL-URBAN MIGRATION SCENARIO IN INDIA AND IN WEST BENGAL

3.1 Introduction

A necessary part for development of any region or country is the movement of people from one place to another, that is, migration. It is one of the most well-known characteristics of human being. Migration is one of the three basic elements of population growth of any area, the others being fertility and mortality. It obsesses size, composition and distribution of population. Internal migration is now perceived as an important factor for influencing social and economic development, especially in developing countries. In the middle of the 20th century volume of inter-state migration in India was low due to predominance of agriculture, stringency of the caste system, the role of joint families, the diversity of language and culture, food habits and lack of education. But the hasty transformation of Indian economy, improvement in level of education and that of transport and communication facilities, shift of workforce from agriculture to industry and other tertiary activities accelerated mobility among Indian people in recent times.

Migration from rural to urban is a response to diverse economic opportunities across space. Historically it has played a significant role in the urbanization process of several countries and countries to be significant in scale, even though migration rates have slowed down in some countries (Lall, Selod and Shalizi, 2006). In India, though rural-urban migration has been found to be modest (accounting for around 30 per cent of the total urban growth), in the context of urban poverty, urban slums and informal sector employment a huge deal has been talked in reference to rural-urban population mobility.

The two main secondary sources of data on migration in India are the Census Reports and the National Sample Survey Office (NSSO). These surveys may underestimate some migration flows, such as temporary, seasonal and circulatory migration, both due to experiential and conceptual difficulties. Since such migration and commuting are predominantly employment oriented, the data underestimate the volume of labour mobility, although economic theories of migration are primarily about worker migration. The primary motive for migration, recorded by the census as well as the NSSO, is an important indicator of how mobility is influenced by conditions of the labour market. Of the 27.4 percent who changed place of

residence, as per 1991 census, 8.8 percent moved for employment reasons and 2.3 percent had business purpose. The proportion moving due to economic purposes was higher for males (27.8 percent moved for employment reasons, and 7.1 percent for business reasons), compared with females (only 1.8 percent moved for employment reasons and 0.5 percent for business reasons).

The proportion migrating for economic reasons is greater among long-distance migrants; most male migrants moving between states did so for economic reasons. Again, economic motives are more important in urban migration streams, especially for males. While the share of inter-state to total migrants was only 11.8 percent in 1991, such migrants included 28 percent of all economic migrants. Similarly, whilst 49 percent of male migrants were in urban areas, 69.2 percent of such migrants migrated for employment. According to 2001 census, 309 million persons were migrants on the place of last residence, which constitute about 30 per cent of the total population of the country.

Now, in case of work pattern of migrants a distinct regional variation emerges in the States of India. In the northeastern states and some others, migrants are mainly employed in the tertiary and secondary sector of the economy. An analysis of the occupational division of migrant workers (other than cultivators and agricultural labourers) shows that among males, 43 percent are engaged in production related work. In the tertiary sector, significant proportions of male migrants are engaged as sales workers, followed by clerical and related work.

All the western states have a significant proportion of male migrants in secondary activity and in the southern and north-eastern states they are mainly engaged in the tertiary sector. In the case of female migrant workers, 40 percent are in production related works and a major proportion are in technical and professional activity.

During the days when there is a lot of economic and industrial development in different parts of the country and when movement of the population has intensified, importance should be given to further understanding and study of the trends and patterns of migration. Analysis of the recent trends of labour mobility, on the basis of NSSO estimates from the 49th (1992–93) and 55th rounds (1999–00) have been done. This period shows a sharp rise in urban male mobility, with a significantly larger percentage of male. The survey would record all those who left their homes for a period between two to six months for work/in search of work would be recorded as out-migrants. That would still leave very short period out-migrants

(those leaving home for work for periods less than two months) unrecorded. Migrants reporting economic and employment linked reasons for mobility. For other streams, there has been a downfall in the percentage of migrants giving economic reasons for mobility. Now, comparing activity status before and after migration for all migrants, the data find that migrants in general set forth much higher work participation rates for both urban and rural areas. In the urban areas, the NSSO 55th round figures show a significant transition towards regular employment and self-employment among males, with a small decline in the percentage of casual labour.

In terms of the duration of migration, Census of India 1991 estimates 56.2 percent of the migrants were of more than 10 years standing, while 21.4 percent were of 1 to 9 years duration. Only 7.07 million or 3.04 percent of the migrants were recorded as short duration (less than one year's duration), of whom 1.37 million migrated for economic motives. The NSSO survey of 1999–00 has estimated that there was 8.64 million short duration (less than one year) (in)-migrants in 1999–00, out of whom 3.24 million had migrated for economic reasons. However, in 1992–93 the total number of estimated short duration migrants was 16.75 million, suggesting a sharp fall in the intervening years. The NSSO 55th round has separately estimated (for the first time) the number of short duration out migrants in 1999–00 (those who stayed away for a period between 2 and 6 months for work or seeking work).

The migratory drift from different parts of India to West Bengal is an aged phenomenon which can be marked out back to the beginning of the 19th century when the process of urbanization began in the Eastern India based on Kolkata city. In West Bengal, the total population according to Census 2001 was 8,01,76,197. For migration data, the total in-migrants from other states (2001) are 7,24,524 and the out-migrants (2001) are 7,30,226.

Now, according to 2011 census, out of 1,210 million people in the country, 455.8 million (about 37 percent) were reported as migrants of place of last residence. Data from different Census revealed that one-third of the population was migrants by place of birth. It is also revealed that since the 1961 Census, the proportion of interstate migration remained constantly low over the decades. Out of total population of Census 1971, interstate migration by place of last residence was 3.4 percent which has declined to 3.2 percent in the 1991. But, during 1990s, it has sharply risen around 4 percent by the both place of birth and place of last residence. Census 2011 has provided the data in this aspect that it has gone down to around 3.6 percent which is equal to the level of the 1981 Census.

Census 2011 data present that Uttar Pradesh and Bihar have an inexplicably high number of out-migrants, while migrants constituted more than one-third of the population in metros like Delhi and Mumbai. Uttar Pradesh and Bihar are responsible for the most number of migrants as 20.9 million people migrated outside the state from the two above mentioned states which was 37 percent of the total number of people who were inter-state migrants according to that enumeration. The Census 2011 data also present that Delhi and Mumbai are widely migrant magnets cities. According to its data, migrants from other states in Delhi and Mumbai numbered 9.9 million, or almost a third of the combined population of 29.2 million. The North-Western belt of India is the major source of migrants. According to this census, four states like, Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, Rajasthan and Madhya Pradesh accounted for 50 percent of India's total inter-state migrants. Uttar Pradesh figures in both lists – while there are people who migrate for in search of livelihoods, there are also noticeably people who beginning for it in search of livelihoods.

The migration scenario in West Bengal has changed over the decade due to mild development. According to 2011 census, more and more people migrate out to other states and countries. As reported in Census 2011, the net migration in West Bengal has decreased over the decades which signify increased out-migration in the state.

3.2 Migration by Place of Birth and by Place of Last Residence in India

According to Census definition, migrants by place of birth are those who are enumerated at a village/town at the time of census other than their place of birth. As a person could have migrated a number of times during his lifetime, migration by place of birth would not give a correct picture of the migration taking place currently. A person, on the other hand, is taken into account as migrant by place of last residence, if the place in which he is enumerated during the census other than his place of immediate last residence. By capturing the latest of the migrations in cases where persons have migrated more than once, this concept would give a better picture of current migration scenario. For understanding the pattern of migration, data are collected on the place of last residence. A person could have moved from another village or town in the same district, or from another district of the state, or another state in India or even from another country at the time of enumeration in census. Census provides migration data on all these migration streams by both the concepts to understand the dynamics in the movement of population and the broad reasons behind.

Till 1961 Census of India, migration data was presented with reference to place of birth only. The information on place of birth was being collected since 1872. In 1961 the scope of collecting information on migration was enlarged by including the rural or urban status of the place of birth and duration of residence at the place of residence. Since 1971 Census, data are being collected on the basis of place of last residence in addition to question on birth place. Question on 'Reason for migration' was introduced since 1981. The pattern accepted in 1991 and 2001 Census remained same as in 1981 except that in 2001 Census; the rural urban status of place of birth was not collected. Also the category 'Natural Calamities' as one of the reasons for migration in 1991 was excluded and a new reason 'Moved at birth' included in 2001.

Table 3.1: Total inter-state migrants by place of birth in major states – INDIA

States	Total population	Total In-migrants	% of In-migrants to total population	Share of total migrants
INDIA	1,028,610,328	48,508,633	4.7	100.0
Maharashtra	96,878,627	7,954,038	8.2	16.4
Delhi	13,850,507	5,646,277	40.8	11.6
West Bengal	80,176,197	5,582,325	7.0	11.5
Uttar Pradesh	166,197,921	2,972,111	1.8	6.1
Haryana	21,144,564	2,951,752	14.0	6.1
Gujarat	50,671,017	2,602,631	5.1	5.4
Madhya Pradesh	60,348,023	2,305,999	3.8	4.8
Karnataka	52,850,562	2,152,096	4.1	4.4
Punjab	24,358,999	2,130,662	8.7	4.4
Rajasthan	56,507,188	1,845,782	3.3	3.8
Jharkhand	26,945,829	1,798,037	6.7	3.7
Bihar	82,998,509	1,794,219	2.2	3.7
Andhra Pradesh	76,210,007	1,052,165	1.4	2.2
Chhattisgarh	20,833,803	1,020,337	4.9	2.1
Rest	198,638,575	6,700,202	3.4	13.8

Source: Migration Table D-1, Census of India 2001

Table 3.1 shows the most important 14 states in terms of inter-state migration in India, all of which reported more than 1 million in-migrants by place of birth from outside the state which is graphically presented with the help of bar diagrams in Figs. 3.1(a) and 3.1((b) and is also exhibited in-migration data of the year 2000 by the given Indian map 3.1 below. State-wise data on inter-state migrants by place of birth would help to identify those, which were most

preferred destinations. It may be pointed out that this data include both old migrants as well as the recent migrants. Maharashtra was at the top of the list with 7.9 million in-migrant population, followed by Delhi (5.6 million) and West Bengal (5.5 million). The percentage of the in migrants to the total population in these three states were, 8.2, 40.8 and 7.0 respectively, accounting for about 39.5 percent of the total inter-state migrants in the country. Among the mentioned states, the highest percentage of in-migrants to the total population was Delhi i.e., 40.8 percent and the lowest was the state of Andhra Pradesh i.e., 1.4 percent.

Fig. 3.1(a): Total inter-state migrants by place of birth in major states – INDIA 2001

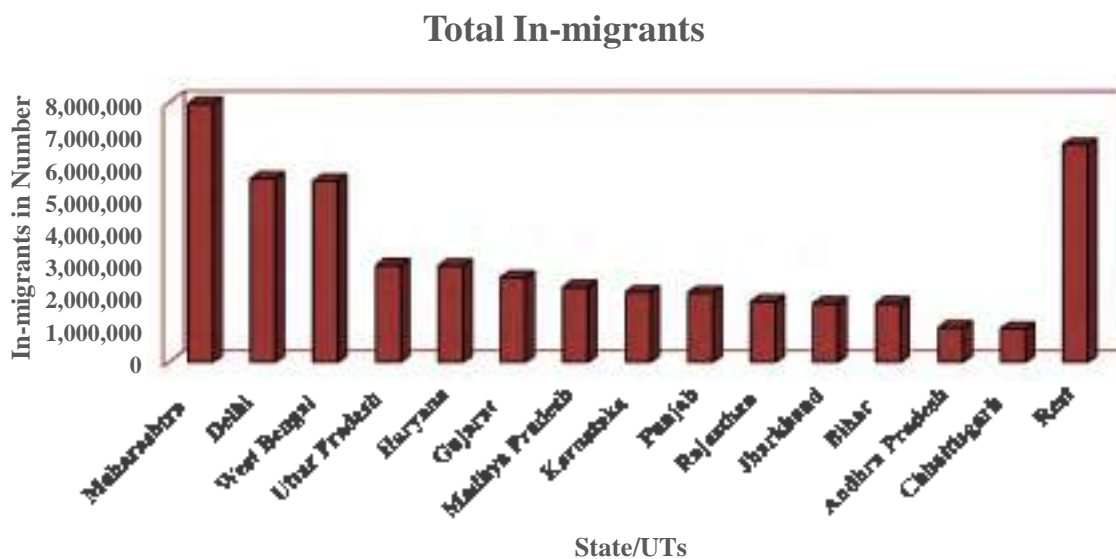
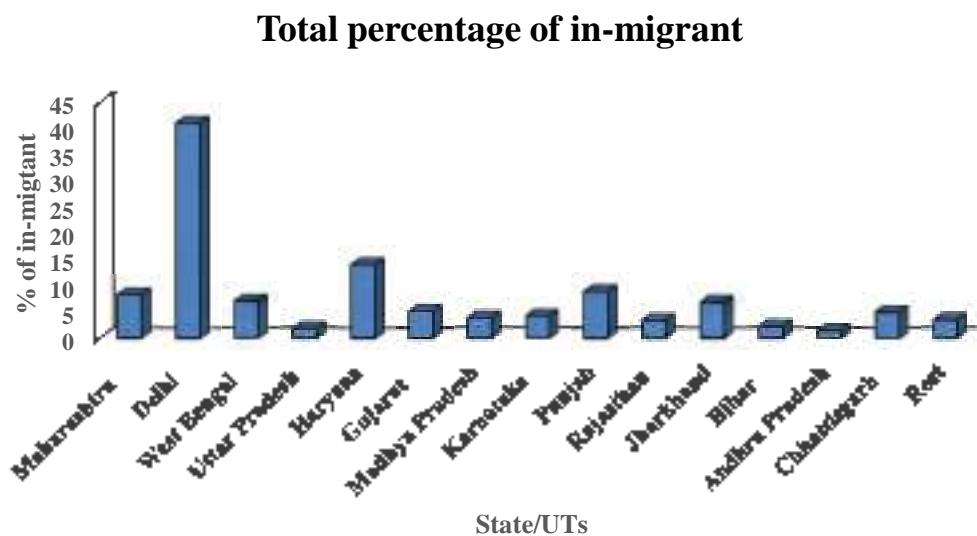


Fig. 3.1(b): Total inter-state migrants by place of birth in major states – INDIA 2001



Map: 3.1

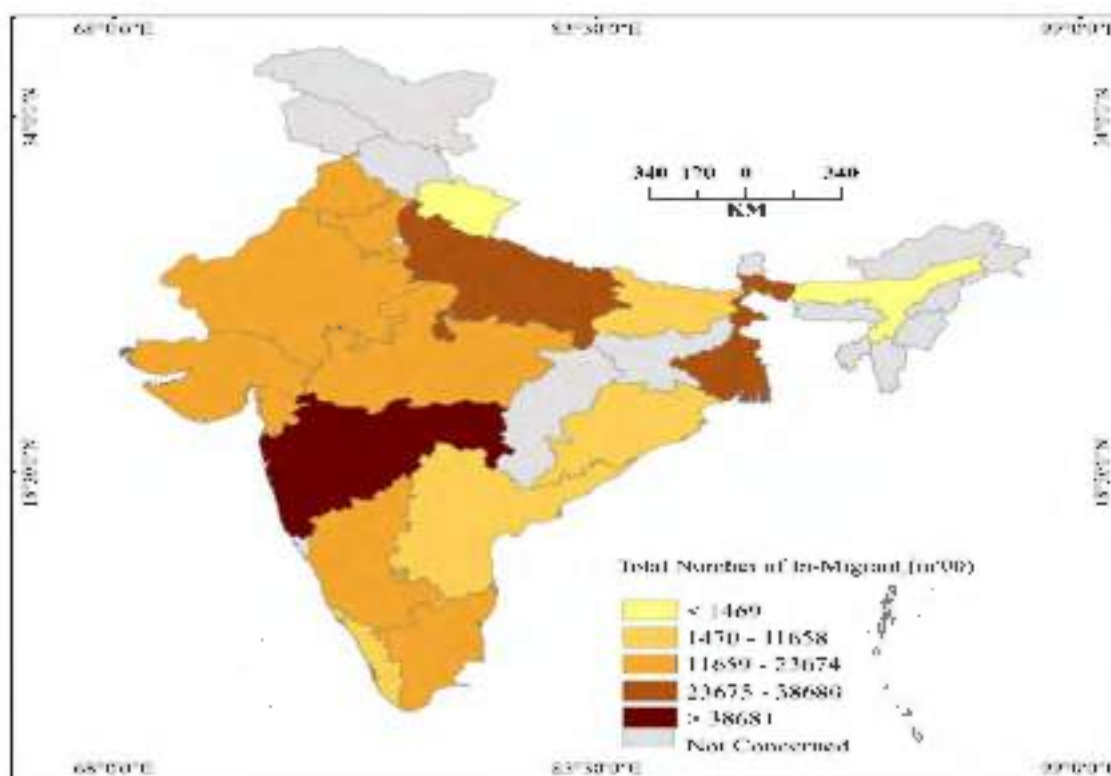


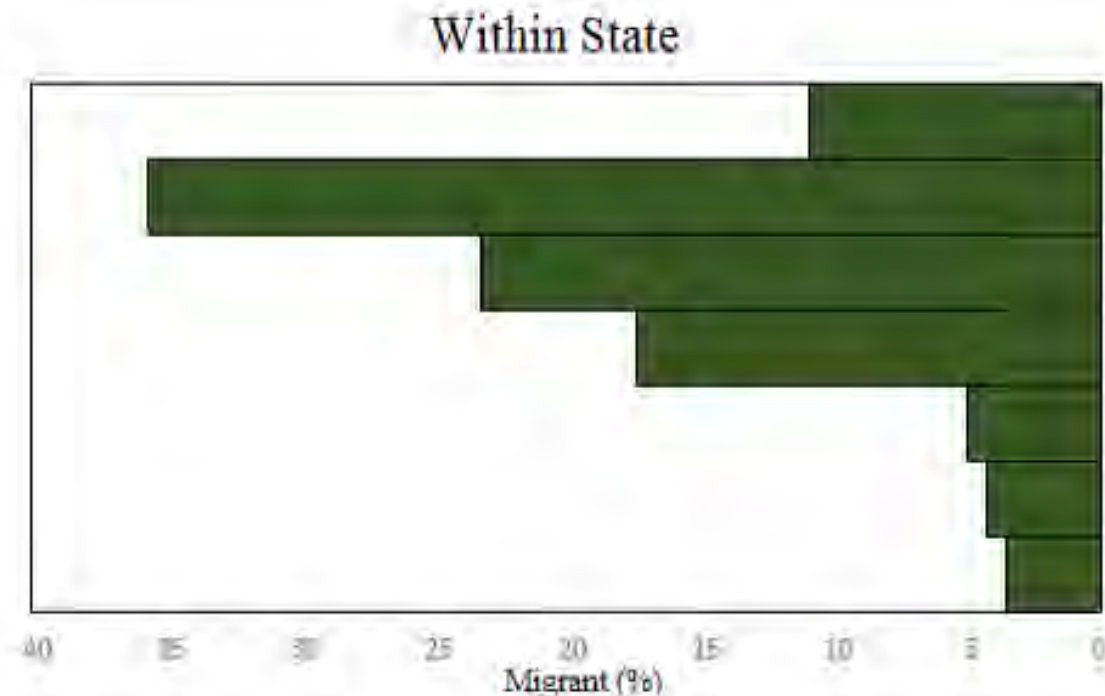
Table 3.2: Migrants by place of birth and age: INDIA 2001

	Within the state		Outside the state in India	
	Persons	Percentage	Persons	Percentage
All ages	258,641,103	100.0	42,341,703	100.0
0-4 years	9,060,658	3.5	1,343,976	3.2
5-9 years	11,013,578	4.3	1,783,998	4.2
10-14 years	12,924,036	5.0	2,029,960	4.8
15-24 years	45,095,896	17.4	7,824,658	18.5
25-34 years	59,875,997	23.2	10,458,756	24.7
35-59 years	91,972,022	35.6	15,290,835	36.1
60+	28,151,029	10.9	3,538,137	8.4
Age not stated	547,887	0.2	71,383	0.2

Source: Migration Table D-1, Census of India 2001.

The above migration Table 3.2 of 2001 Census gives information on migrants by age groups, which is also diagrammatically presented in Fig. 3.2. Out of the total migrants counting about 258 million (Table 3.2) in India who migrated within the state, 3.5 percent were in the age group 0-4 years, 17.4 percent in the age group 15-24 years, 23.2 percent in the age group 25-34 years, 35.6 percent in the age group 35 – 59 years and 10.9 percent in the age of above 60 years. Among total migrants (about 423 million) by place of birth from outside the state of enumeration in India, 3.2 percent were in the age group 0-4 years, 18.5 percent were in the age group 15-24 years, 24.7 percent in the age group 25-34 years, 36.1 percent were in the age group 35-59 years and 8.4 percent were in the age of above 60 years. The age groups of 5-9 years and 10-14 years of migrants migrated within the state and outside the state in India show more or less the same percentage. Interestingly, the same percentage i.e., 0.2 percent migrants migrated either within the state or outside the state in India where age group of migrants were not stated. Hence, the migration data of the above Table confirm that the high proportions in the older and economically active age groups perhaps reflect their migration for work in a new state.

Fig. 3.2: Migrants by place of birth and age: INDIA 2001



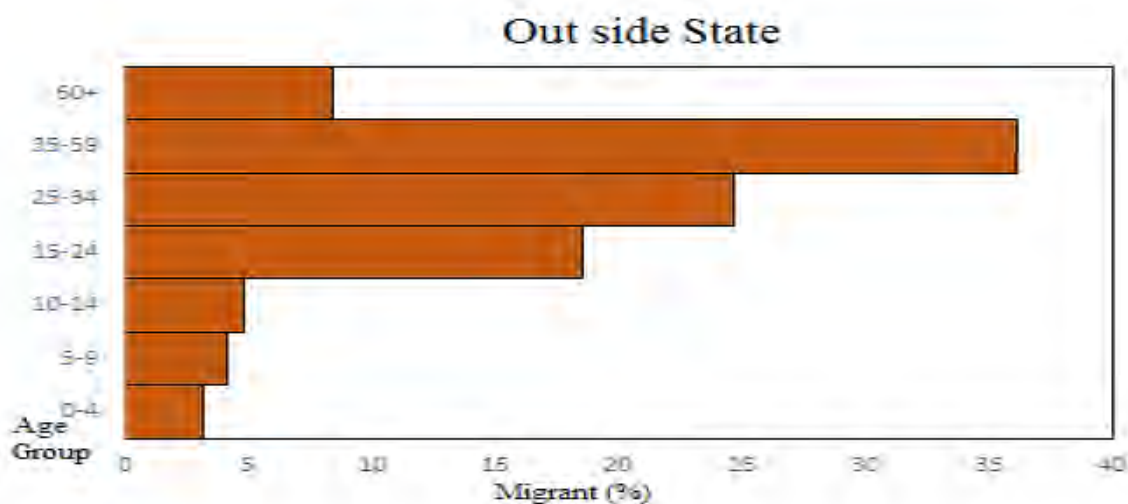


Table 3.3: Migrants by last residence and classified by duration of residence: INDIA 2001(within State)

Duration of residence	Total Migrants			Within the state		
	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females
All duration	314,541,350	93,361,809	221,179,541	268,219,260	71,579,630	196,639,630
Less than 1 year	8,885,724	4,173,469	4,712,255	6,793,724	2,979,450	3,814,274
1 to 4 years	47,281,223	16,587,389	30,693,834	38,675,322	12,159,989	26,515,333
5 to 9 years	42,134,395	12,136,128	29,998,267	35,264,395	8,858,844	26,405,551
10 to 19 years	69,471,092	16,731,962	52,739,130	58,923,599	12,095,574	46,828,025
20 years and above	101,092,520	19,875,240	81,217,280	86,178,093	13,325,406	72,852,687
Not stated	45,676,396	23,857,621	21,818,775	42,384,127	22,160,367	20,223,760

Source: Migration Table D-2, Census of India 2001

The above Table 3.3 indicates the distribution of migrants in India by place of last residence. Data on migration by last residence makes known recent migration over the years and therefore more informative on the current status of the population. As per 2001 Census, the data on migration by last residence in India shows that the total numbers of migrants were about 314 million. This is due to a significant number of persons, who went out for various reasons, like education, as agricultural labourers, on seasonal migration, etc. Among 314 million migrants, males and females migrants were about 93 million and about 221 million respectively. Out of about 314 million migrants by last residence, about 268 million migrants (85 percent) were found to be from within the state in all duration among which male were

about 71 million and female were about 196 million. The duration of residence details express that the migrations are consistently spread. The maximum number of migrants migrated within the state for the duration of 20 years and above i.e., permanent migration. The migrants migrated within the state were minimum for the duration of less than one year i.e., temporary migration. Out of about 46 million migrants in which duration of residence were not stated, about 42 million migrants migrated within the state.

Table 3.4: Migrants by last residence and classified by duration of residence: INDIA 2001(From other states)

Duration of residence	Total Migrants			From other states		
	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females
All duration	314,541,350	93,361,809	221,179,541	41,166,265	19,098,082	22,068,183
Less than 1 year	8,885,724	4,173,469	4,712,255	2,014,770	1,142,279	872,491
1 to 4 years	47,281,223	16,587,389	30,693,834	8,276,637	4,253,242	4,023,395
5 to 9 years	42,134,395	12,136,128	29,998,267	6,535,472	3,116,640	3,418,832
10 to 19 years	69,471,092	16,731,962	52,739,130	9,738,507	4,246,843	5,491,664
20 years and above	101,092,520	19,875,240	81,217,280	11,651,135	4,829,648	6,821,487
Not stated	45,676,396	23,857,621	21,818,775	2,949,744	1,509,430	1,440,314

Source: Table D-2, Census of India 2001

The Table 3.4 shows the distribution of total migrants and their migration pattern from other states in India by place of last residence those are classified by duration of residence. The data on migration by last residence in India as per 2001 Census indicates that the total number of migrants was about 314 million out of which about 93 million were males and about 221 million were females. So the number of female migrants was higher than the number of male migrants. The duration of residence details show that the migrations are evenly spread. In respect of all duration of residence, the number of migrants coming from outside the state in India was about 41 million (13.5 percent) among which about 19 million

were male and about 22 million were female indicating that the migration of females were more than the migration of males.

The above Table expresses that the maximum number of migrants migrated from other states of India for the duration of 20 years and above, i.e., permanent migration and the migrants migrated from the same state were minimum for the duration of less than one year, i.e., temporary migration. Out of about 46 million migrants in which duration of residence were not stated, only about 2.9 million (6.4 percent) migrants migrated from other states of India. The following map of India showed the out-migrants of the year 2000 in major states transparently.

Map: 3.2

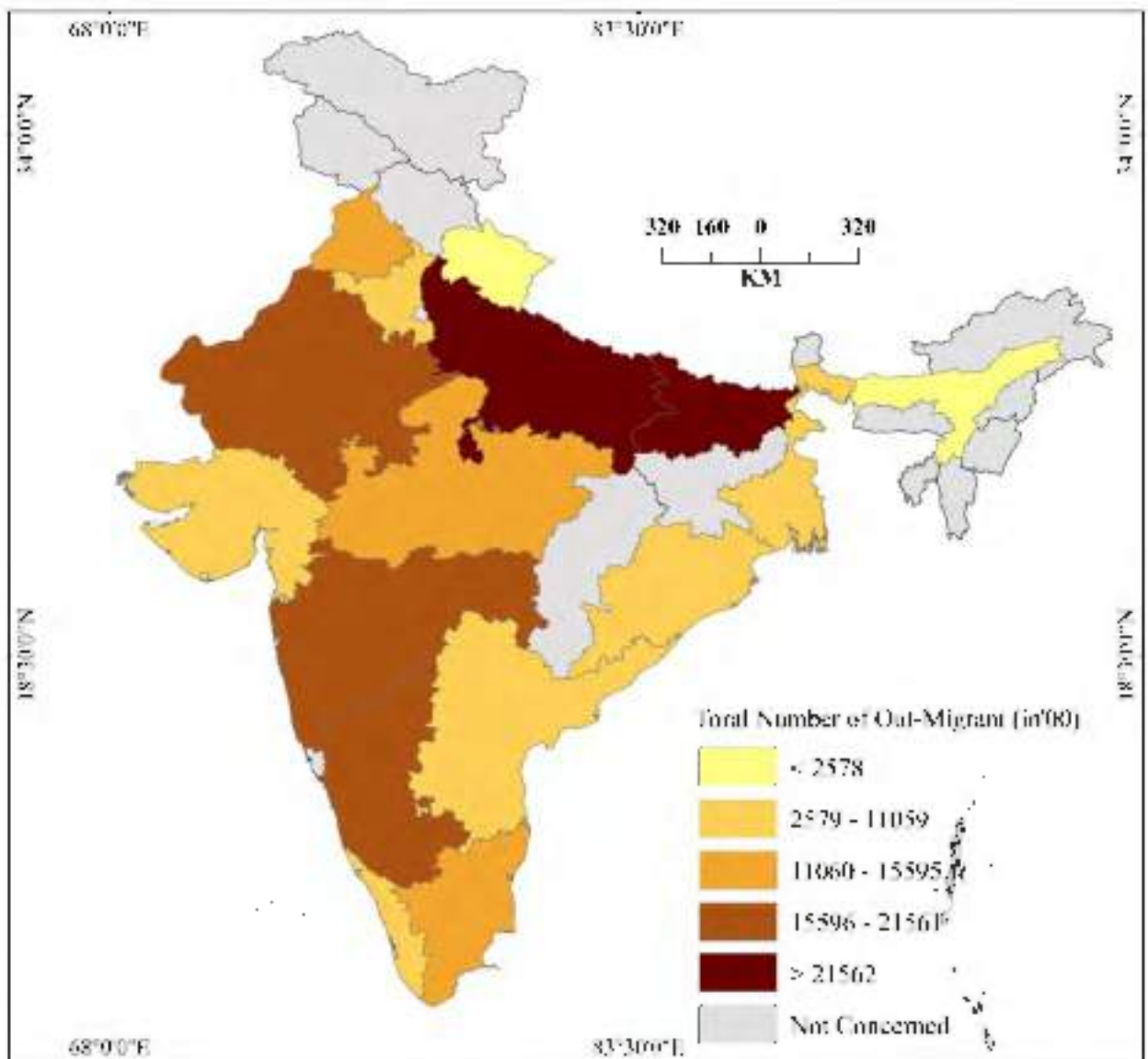


Table 3.5: Migrants by last residence in India (excluding J&K) in 1991 and 2001 Census - (All duration)

Place of last residence	2001 (excl J&K)	1991 (excl J&K)	Variation (in %) (1991 – 2001)
Total migrants	312,735,593	232,112,973	34.7
Migrants within the state of enumeration	266,594,252	199,198,251	33.8
Migrants from within the district	192,265,527	140,357,053	37.0
Migrants from other districts of the state	74,328,725	58,841,198	26.3
Migrants from other states in India	41,008,262	26,689,595	53.6

Source: Table D-2, Census of India 2001.

The Table 3.5 shows the comparison of various migration trends by place of last residence between 1991 and 2001 Census migration data excluding the state of J&K, which can also be depicted with the help of bar and pie diagrams in Figs. 3.3(a) and 3.3(b). The above statement reveals that the total number of migrants by place of last residence in India excluding the state of J&K has increased from 232 million to 312 million, a decadal growth of 34.7 percent migrants within the state of enumeration have increased from 199 million to 266 million (by 33.8 percent). Migrants from within the district have increased from 140 million to 192 million i.e., there is appreciable growth (37.0 percent) in migration by last residence within the district. The minimum growth (26.3 percent) recorded for migration trend of migrants by the place of last residence from other districts of the state compared to other migration trends. The number of migrants from other states in the country has recorded highest growth (by 53.6 percent) among migration trends, which would indicate increasing mobility due to migration for work/employment and education in other states.

Fig. 3.3(a)

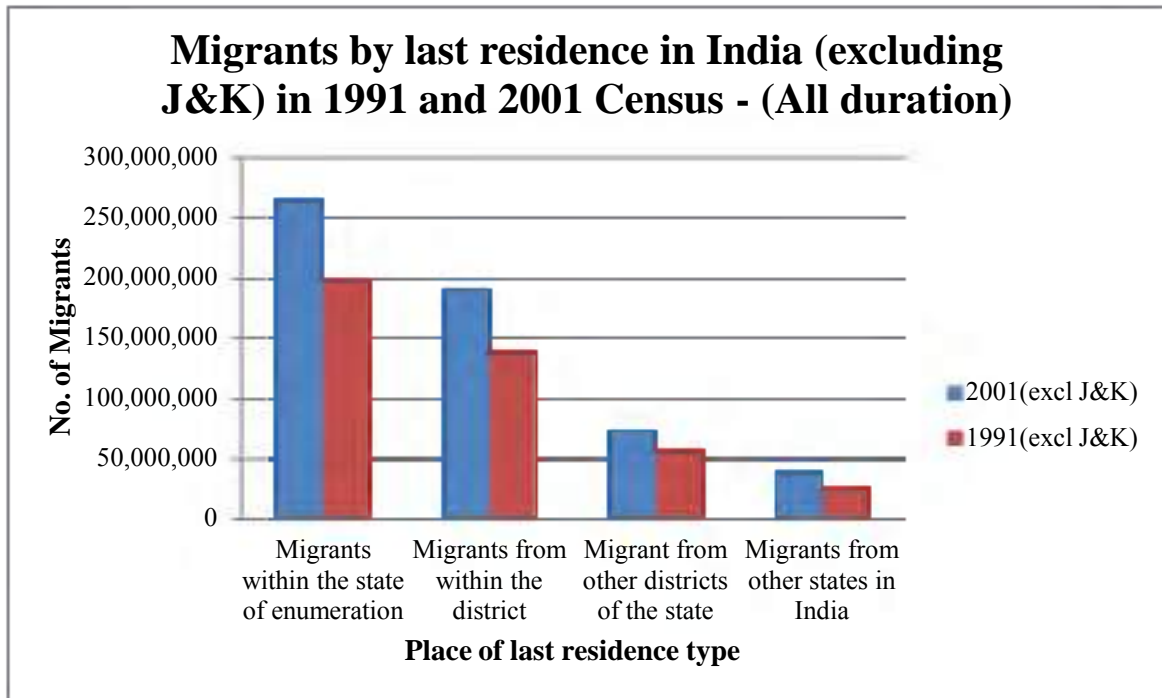
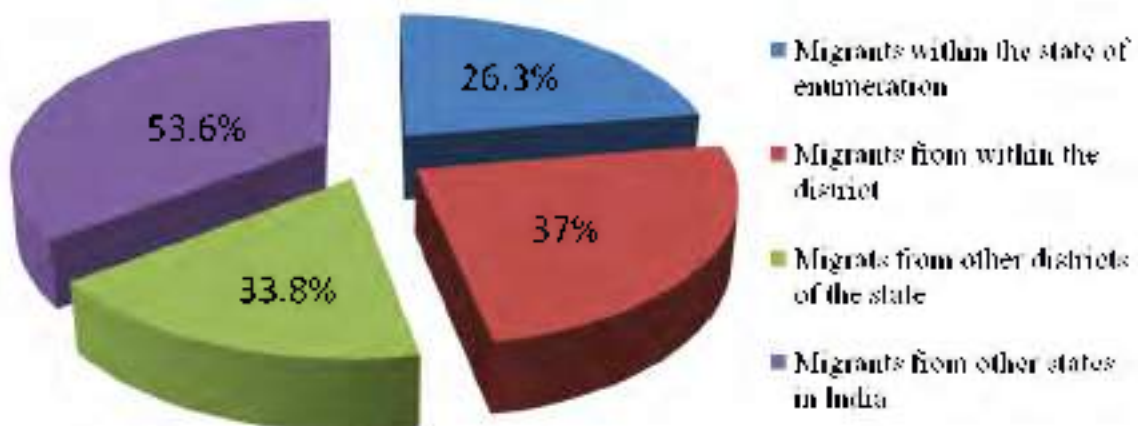


Fig. 3.3(b)

Variation by place of last residence (1991-2001) in %



3.3 Migration Rates

3.3.1 Migration rates among different categories of persons in different NSS rounds

Table 3.6: Migration rates per 1000 of each category of persons in different NSS rounds

All-India						
round (year)	category of persons					
	rural			urban		
	male	female	persons	male	female	persons
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
55 (July 1999 – June 2000)	69	426	244	257	418	334
49 (Jan - June, 1993)	65	401	228	239	382	307
43 (July 1987 – June 88)	74	398	232	268	396	329
38 (Jan - Dec, 1983)	72	351	209	270	366	316

Note: Source for the 38th and 43rd rounds: NSS report number 382, for 49th round: NSS report number 430.

The ‘migration rate’ for any category of persons of a region (say, rural or urban, state etc.) for a specified period of time since migration has been estimated by the number of persons of that category migrated in that region during the specified period of time per 1000 persons of that category in that region.

The Table 3.6 shows the migration rates per 1000 persons of each category of persons in different NSS rounds. At the all- India level, considering all the migrants, the following features are observed from the Table: (i) percentage of migrants to the total population was higher (33) in urban areas than that (24) in rural areas and (ii) in both rural and urban areas, females showed a higher propensity to migrate than males. Female migrants were about 43 per cent in rural areas and about 42 per cent in urban areas among female population whereas only about 7 per cent of rural males and about 26 per cent of urban males reported themselves as migrants. Thus, low migration rate among rural males signifies that males neither from rural areas nor from urban areas have the tendency to migrate to rural areas.

From the above Table, we can observe that during the period of 1983 to 2000, the percentage of male migrants to the total population remained almost constant i.e., about 7 per cent - for

rural areas and showed little variation - between 24 to 27 percent in urban areas. A rising trend in the case of females is, however, noticeable in percentage of migrants to the total population over this period. For rural females, it increased steadily from 35 per cent in 1983 to about 43 per cent in 1999 – 2000 whereas for urban females the increase was from about 37 per cent in 1983 to about 42 per cent in 1999 – 2000.

3.3.2 Net-migration rates of the major states

Net migration is defined as the difference between in-migration and out-migration of a specific area of a state or a country. The value of net migration may be positive or negative. If the in-migrants of a particular area are greater than the out-migrants of that particular area then the value of net migration is positive. On the other hand, if the in-migrants of a particular area are less than the out-migrants of that particular area then the value of net migration is negative. The net migration rates are calculated here on the basis of per 1000 of in-migrants and out-migrants of the major states in India.

Table 3.7: Net Migration Rates for the Major States

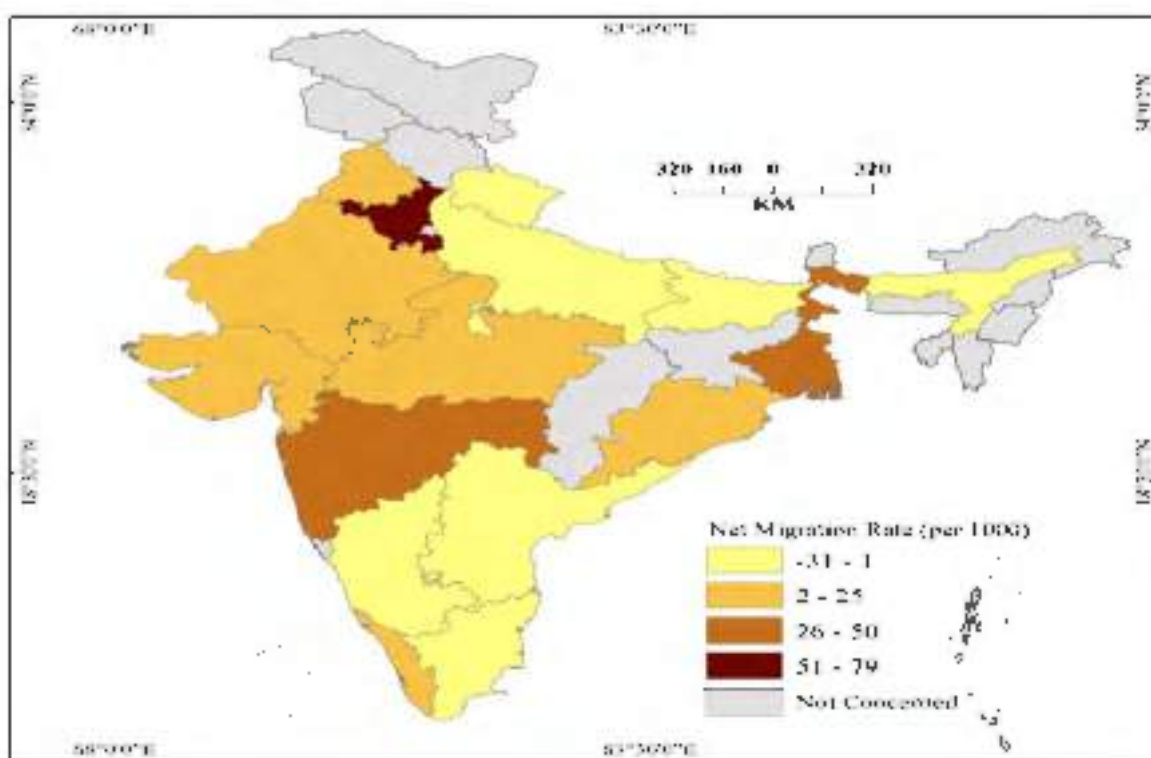
Major States	In-migrants (in '00)	Out-migrants (in '00)	Net migrants (in '00)	Net migration rate (per 1000)
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Andhra Pradesh	11658	11059	599	1
Assam	1469	2578	-1109	-5
Bihar	5923	34483	-28560	-31
Gujarat	18569	9995	8574	19
Haryana	23674	8667	15007	79
Karnataka	14329	18482	-4053	-8
Kerala	10050	8498	1552	6
Madhya Pradesh	22817	15249	7568	10
Maharashtra	60462	21561	38901	44
Orissa	7352	5418	1934	6
Punjab	18138	12848	5290	25
Rajasthan	15288	18622	-3334	7
Tamil Nadu	14487	15595	-1108	-2
Uttar Pradesh	38680	51350	-12640	-8
West Bengal	29002	9318	19684	27

Source: NSS Report No. 470: Migration in India, 1999-2000.

The above Table 3.7 indicates the net migration rates for the major states in India considering all the periods of migration which can also be cleared through the given Indian map 3.3 below. The Table reveals that among the major states, in-migration was the highest in the state of Maharashtra (about 6.05 million) followed by Uttar Pradesh (about 3.87 million), West Bengal (about 2.9 million) and Haryana (about 2.37 million).

The highest out-migration occurred for the state of Uttar Pradesh (about 5.13 million) followed by Bihar (about 3.45 million) and Maharashtra (about 2.16 million). A gain in in-migrants over out-migrants among the major states is observed for most of the states excepting Assam, Bihar, Karnataka, Uttar Pradesh and Tamil Nadu. The Table also reveals that the net-migration rate was the highest for Haryana (79) followed by Maharashtra (44), West Bengal (27) and Punjab (25).

Map: 3.3



3.4 Distribution of Migrants through migration streams

As per the place of last residence (or birth) and place of enumeration, internal migrants can be classified into three migration streams, which are indicative of distance of migration:

Intra-district migrants: persons with last residence outside the place of enumeration but within the same district.

Inter-district migrants: persons with last residence outside the district of enumeration but within the same state.

Inter-state migrants: persons with last residence in India but beyond the state of enumeration.

Further, based on rural and urban nature of the place of last residence and the place of enumeration, internal migrants can further be classified into four migration streams: **rural-to-rural, rural-to-urban, urban-to-rural, and urban-to-urban.**

Generally, the distribution of migrants by migration streams is associated with the degree of economic and social development. Employment opportunities in urban area, population pressure on land, education and a variety of reasons including marriage in case of females contribute to migration to a rural or an urban area.

Table 3.8: Distribution of intercensal migrants (migrants with 0-9 years duration) of each sex by migration streams, India 1991-2001 (in percentage)

Type of migration streams	1991			2001		
	Males	Females	Sex Ratio	Males	Females	Sex Ratio
I Intra-district:						
Rural to Rural	27.6	48.5	280	22.5	47.1	238
Rural to Urban	12.2	7.5	802	9.8	6.5	759
Urban to Rural	4.3	3.5	605	4.0	3.1	646
Urban to Urban	4.4	2.9	736	4.9	3.2	776
Sub-total	48.6	62.6	382	43.5	61.4	354
II Inter-district:						
Rural to Rural	9.3	13.2	345	8.3	12.7	326
Rural to Urban	10.6	5.6	930	10.2	5.4	944
Urban to Rural	3.1	2.3	654	2.4	1.8	663
Urban to Urban	8.7	5.4	792	8.6	5.3	808
Sub-total	31.7	26.6	587	30.3	25.8	587
III Inter-state:						
Rural to Rural	3.9	3.4	569	5.4	4.2	648
Rural to Urban	7.5	2.9	1247	11.7	3.9	1481
Urban to Rural	1.7	0.9	903	1.6	0.8	986
Urban to Urban	6.4	3.5	913	6.8	3.5	962
Sub-total	19.6	10.8	895	26.2	12.8	1024
All Streams:						
Rural to Rural	40.8	65.1	308	36.1	64.0	282
Rural to Urban	30.3	16.0	929	31.7	15.8	1002
Urban to Rural	9.1	6.7	662	7.9	5.7	700
Urban to Urban	19.5	11.8	814	20.3	12.0	845
Total Migrants (Million)	26.7	54.3	492	32.5	65.0	500

Note: Sex Ratio is male per 1000 female.

Source: Census of India, 1991 and 2001.

The Table 3.8 portrays the percentage distribution of migrants of each sex by migration streams in India in 1991 and 2001. From the table, it is seen that there is a substantial decline in the proportion of intra-district migrants and a corresponding increase in inter-district and inter-state migrants. The creation of three new states in 2000 may have inflated the proportion of interstate migrants in 2001.

Here, rural to rural migration stream formed the most dominant stream at the national level, but its importance declined over time for both males and females in all the three distance categories.

The decline is much higher in case of males. There is a large share of female intra-district rural-to-rural migration, which is generally explained in terms of marriage migration.

While there has been a substantial increase in the proportion of rural-to-urban migrants over time in all three distance categories, there has also been an increase in the proportion of urban-to-urban migrants. Intra-district, inter-district and interstate migration streams contributed almost equally in the net rural-to-urban male migration over the period.

The percentage share of urban-to-urban migration of both males and females is comparatively low in the intra-district stream, but it has increased substantially in the inter-district and interstate streams of migration. The percentage of total migrants in case of females is larger than males in all four streams of migration both in 1991 and 2001.

The sex ratio improves sharply in favour of females in all four streams of migration as migration distance increases. Only the sex ratio is favorable to male in interstate rural-to-urban migration stream both in 1991 and 2001. But, the sex ratio in all other streams, females outnumbered males.

Table 3.9: Growth of migrants by migration streams, India 1991-2001(in Percentage)

Migration streams	Intercensal Migrants (migrants with 0-9 years duration)		
	Persons	Males	Females
All Internal Migrants:			
Rural to Rural	15.37	7.78	17.71
Rural to Urban	22.84	27.68	18.35
Urban to Rural	3.00	6.48	0.70
Urban to Urban	24.27	26.85	22.17
Intradistrict:			
Rural to Rural	12.55	-0.99	16.34
Rural to Urban	1.25	-1.89	3.77
Urban to Rural	8.24	12.69	5.55

Urban to Urban	33.41	37.44	30.45
Interdistrict:			
Rural to Rural	13.44	8.54	15.13
Rural to Urban	16.30	17.17	15.50
Urban to Rural	-8.65	-7.87	-9.16
Urban to Urban	19.05	20.42	17.96
Interstate:			
Rural to Rural	54.58	67.61	47.16
Rural to Urban	77.59	90.98	60.88
Urban to Rural	12.02	17.19	7.35
Urban to Urban	24.92	28.37	21.76

Source: Census of India, 1991 and 2001.

Table 3.9 shows the percentage growth of migrants by migration streams in India during the decade of 1991-2001. Here, we can see that there are some negative percentages of growth of males and female migrants in rural to rural, rural to urban and urban to rural migration streams of intra-district and inter-district migration during the decade. On the other hand, there are all positive percentages of growth of intercensal migrants in interstate migration stream. Male interstate rural to urban migration stream shows an increase of nearly 91 percent while females increased by about 61 per cent and males show an increase by 28 percent in interstate urban to urban migration stream while females have increased by 22 percent. These increases in rural - urban and urban - urban are greater than the increases in other streams of migration for both male and female categories.

3.5 Trend and Pattern and Extent of Rural – Urban Migration in India

Internal migration has four streams- rural to urban, rural to rural, urban to rural and urban to urban. Here we focus the rural to urban stream of internal migration in India. The migration from rural to urban area occurs mainly due to the differences in the level of development between rural and urban areas. The higher growth rate of towns and cities than the rural areas depends upon the actual planning and development process of those towns and cities. The direction of the growth of towns and cities has been moved through the centripetal forces of development. Although, the reason for migration in different streams can be categorized under two broad heads- ‘push factors’ and ‘pull factors’...Push factors are like low

productivity, low income, landlessness, unemployment or underemployment, low wages etc. and pull factors are better employment, better conditions of work, better wages with better living conditions, more employment, better health and educational facilities etc. In our country rural to rural and urban to urban migration streams contribute the most predominant streams of migration. Employment opportunities in urban areas, higher wages, better health and educational facilities have been a pull factor to attract people for migration from rural to urban areas. There is also some movement of people in the reverse direction due to different reasons.

Now, according to NSSO data of 1999-2000 on migration, the trend and pattern of rural-urban migration in India are explained in the following:

Table 3.10: Number of persons migrated from rural areas per 1000 migrants in urban areas for different periods of migration

All-India			
Period since migrated(years)	Category of persons		
	Male	Female	Person
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
0	567	563	565
1-4	530	520	525
5-9	574	566	570
10 & above	643	610	622
All	592	581	586

Source: NSS Report No. 470: Migration in India, 1999-2000.

The Table 3.10 shows the number of persons migrated from rural areas per 1000 migrants in urban areas for different periods of migration. It is revealed from the above table that the proportions of migration from rural areas to urban areas decreased both for males and female from the period 0 to 1-4 years. But from the subsequent periods, the proportions of migration from rural to urban areas increased both for males and females. The highest proportions of migration from rural to urban areas both for males and females visible in the table was for the period 10&above and the lowest proportions of migration from rural to urban areas both for males and females was for the period 1-4 years. The data in the above Table show that the proportion of migration for males in each period of migration was greater than the proportion

of migration for females in each period of migration and the above NSSO data also reveals that the overall movement of males from rural to urban areas was more frequent than females.

Table 3.11: Number of persons migrated within district, state or from other states per 1000 migrants for different periods of migration

All India								
Period since migrated (years)	Migrated in rural areas				Migrated in urban areas			
	Within state			From other states	Within state			From other states
	Same district	Different district	All		Same district	Different district	All	
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
Male								
0	518	235	753	216	353	358	711	273
1-4	612	228	840	136	380	376	756	229
5-9	576	254	830	148	366	380	746	240
10 & above	555	255	810	134	298	422	720	258
All	574	245	819	142	339	396	735	246
Female								
0	690	222	912	83	429	370	799	191
1-4	722	210	932	63	434	388	822	172
5-9	733	212	945	50	449	383	832	160
10 & above	750	203	953	40	453	381	834	154
All	742	206	948	46	447	383	830	161
Person								
0	632	227	895	127	392	365	757	230
1-4	696	214	910	81	409	382	791	199
5-9	706	220	926	68	414	382	796	195
10 & above	730	208	938	49	397	395	792	191
All	717	211	928	60	404	389	793	195

Source: NSS Report No. 470: Migration in India, 1999-2000.

Table 3.11 represents the number of persons migrated within district, state or from other states per 1000 migrants for different periods of migration through different migration

streams. The above table depicts that at the all- India level, inter-district and inter-state migration was relatively less frequent as compared to intra-district and intra-state migration among all categories of persons except among male migrants in urban area for whom inter-district migration was most frequent. Migration prominence among migrants in rural areas was more than among migrants in urban areas in case of intra-state and the intra-district migration and it was especially most pronounced among female migrants in rural areas.

It is seen from the Table that among migrants in rural areas, about 72 per cent migrated within the district, about 93 per cent within the state and about 6 per cent from other states in India. The migration of person in urban areas from rural areas, the corresponding proportions among migrants were about 40 percent, about 79 per cent and about 20 per cent, respectively. Among all the male migrants in rural areas, about 57 per cent migrated within the district, about 25 percent in different districts and about 82 per cent within the state. Among all the female migrants in rural areas, the corresponding figures were about 74 per cent, about 21 percent and about 95 per cent respectively. Among all the male migrants in urban areas, only about 34 per cent of them migrated in the same district, about 40 percent in the different district and about 74 per cent within the same state. The movement among all females' migrants in urban areas, the corresponding figures was about 45 per cent, 33 percent and 83 per cent respectively. Therefore, higher proportion of intra-district movement for females than males in both rural and urban areas implies that the migratory movement for females was more restricted to the shorter distances than the migratory movement of males.

It is also revealed from the Table that inter-district and inter-state migrations both for males and females were more frequent for migrants in urban areas than those for migrants in rural areas. From the table, it is noticed that inter-state migration accounted for about 25 per cent of the male migrants in urban areas but only 14 per cent of the male migrants in rural areas while the corresponding proportions for female migrants in rural and urban India were about 5 per cent and about 16 per cent respectively. Therefore, the proportion of migrants both for males and females from other states had increased during the periods of migration.

Table 3.12: Percentage distribution of internal migrants by intra-district, inter-district and inter-state movements for each component of migration streams

All-India				
Migration Stream	% distribution of migrants			
	Within State		Between States	All
	Same district	Different districts		
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Rural-to-Rural	75	20	5	100
Rural-to-Urban	44	36	20	100
Urban-to-Rural	47	33	20	100
Urban-to-Urban	37	43	20	100

Source: NSS Report No. 470: Migration in India, 1999-2000.

The above Table 3.12 shows the percentage distribution of internal migrants by intra-district, inter-district and inter-state movements for each component of rural-urban migration streams. From the above table it is seen that a majority of the rural- to-rural movement (95 per cent) was restricted to within the state. Out of this 95 percent rural-to-rural movement, a bulk (75 per cent) was within the same district while about 20 per cent of the movement was in different districts. Only 5 percent rural-to-rural movement of internal migrants occurred between the states. Interestingly, it is noticed that the same percentage that is 20 percent of the movements for each of the rural-to- urban, urban-to-rural and urban-to- urban migration streams were between the states. Therefore, the rural-to-rural movement of internal migrants was restricted to shorter distances as compared to the other components of rural-urban migration streams.

According to the census 2001 data, the migration that is based on migrants with duration of residence of 0-9 years at the place of enumeration, by various migration streams are summarized in the following:

Table 3.13 Migrants by place of last residence indicating migration streams (duration 0-9 years) INDIA 2001

Migration Stream	2001			2001(in %)		
	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females
Intra-State Migrants						
Total	80,733,441	23,998,283	56,735,158	100.0	100.0	100.0

Rural to Rural	48,880,074	9,985,581	38,894,493	60.5	41.6	68.6
Rural to Urban	14,222,276	6,503,461	7,718,815	17.6	27.1	13.6
Urban to Rural	5,213,151	2,057,789	3,155,362	6.5	8.6	5.6
Urban to Urban	9,898,294	4,387,563	5,510,731	12.3	18.3	9.7
Inter-State Migrants						
Total	16,826,879	8,512,161	8,314,718	100.0	100.0	100.0
Rural to Rural	4,474,302	1,759,523	2,714,779	26.6	20.7	32.7
Rural to Urban	6,372,955	3,803,737	2,569,218	37.9	44.7	30.9
Urban to Rural	1,053,352	522,916	530,436	6.3	6.1	6.4
Urban to Urban	4,490,480	2,201,882	2,288,598	26.7	25.9	27.5

Source: Table D-2, Census of India 2001.

The above Table 3.13 represents the different streams of migration between intra-state and inter-state migrants by last residence (duration 0-9 years). These various streams include people who are migrating from rural to rural areas, rural to urban areas, urban to rural areas or even urban to urban areas for both the sexes. The above set of data for both intra-state and inter-state migrants helps to track the mobility in the streams. The table shows that the total of 80 million migrants in 2001 was migrated from one part of the state or district to another part of the state or district. Out of 80 million intra-state migrants, 48.8 million migrants which constituted 60.5 percent moved from rural to rural area, the majority of them were female migrants who usually moved out from their natal residence due to marriage. About 14 million migrants were migrated from rural to urban area which constituted 17.6 percent and only 6.5 percent migrants moved out from urban to rural area. The migrants who moved out from one urban area to another urban area were about 10 million that comprised of 12.3 percent of intra-state migrants through urban to urban migration stream.

Now, for inter-state migrants, 16.8 million migrants were migrated from one state to another state through the different streams of migration. The rural to rural migration is low in comparison to the intra-state category mainly because of the small number of women migrated due to marriage in other state. Out of 16.8 million migrants, only 4.4 million migrants coming from outside the state that belong to the stream of rural to rural migration. The migration from rural to urban area for the inter-state migration was higher (37.9 percent) compare to the migration from rural to urban area for intra-state migration (17.6 percent) indicating that there was no limitation of the choice of town to those while migrated within

the state. There was almost the same percentage of migrants for urban to rural migration in both inter-state and intra-state migration. The percentage of urban to urban migration among inter-state migrants was quite high that is 26.7 percent and distributed evenly among both males and females.

Table 3.14 Number of intra-state and inter-state migrants in the country with duration of residence 0-9 years by rural urban status of place of last residence and place of enumeration - INDIA 2001 Census

Rural urban status of place of last residence	Rural urban status of place of enumeration		
	Total	Rural	Urban
Total	97,560,320	61,428,374	36,131,946
Rural	73,949,607	53,354,376	20,595,231
Urban	20,655,277	6,266,503	14,388,774
Unclassified	2,955,436	1,807,495	1,147,941

Source: Table D-2, Census of India 2001.

The Table 3.14 shows the number of intra-state and inter-state migrants in the country with duration of residence 0-9 years by rural-urban status of place of last residence and the place of enumeration. From the table it is seen that according to 2001 census, out of 97.5 million internal migrants in the country, 53.3 million (54.7 percent) migrants moved within rural areas and about 20.6 million migrants (21.1 percent of the total migrants) migrated from rural areas to urban areas. In the rural-urban status of place of last residence, only 6.2 million urban persons (6.4 percent) migrated from urban areas to rural areas and 14.4 million urban persons, that is, about 14.7 percent of the total migrants moved from one urban area to another urban area. About 3 percent of the migrants of the rural-urban status of place of last residence from which they migrated could not be classified or determined. Therefore, it is cleared from the table that as classified from rural-urban status of last residence, the highest percentage that is 54.7 percent migrants of the total migrants migrated within the state and outside the state from one rural area to another rural area and the lowest percentage that is 6.4 percent migrants migrated within the state and outside the state from urban area to rural area.

Table 3.15 Migration streams for top ten states for intra-state migration by last residence (duration 0-9 years) –India 2001 (excludes Union Territories)

Rank	Rural to rural	Rural to urban	Urban to rural	Urban to urban
1	Bihar (3,799,368; 79.9%)	Mizoram (32,555; 39.1%)	Goa (48,288; 26.7%)	Tamil Nadu (1,001,633; 27.4%)
2	Jharkhand (1,215,941; 75.8%)	Meghalaya (10,823; 27.4%)	Kerala (412,772; 13.3%)	Mizoram (21,271; 25.5%)
3	Assam (1,127,168; 73.0%)	Nagaland (13,782; 26.8%)	Nagaland (6,757; 13.2%)	Goa (39,519; 21.9%)
4	Himachal Pradesh (439,222; 71.8%)	Arunachal Pradesh (31,984; 26.1%)	Sikkim (5,818; 11.8%)	Nagaland (10,447; 20.3%)
5	Sikkim (35,039; 70.8%)	Gujarat (1,420,541; 25.9%)	Tamil Nadu (420,815; 11.5%)	Maharashtra (2,401,703; 19.2%)
6	Uttar Pradesh (6,261,203; 69.8%)	Tamil Nadu (852,824; 23.3%)	Meghalaya (4,343; 11.0%)	Punjab (264,685; 15.5%)
7	Rajasthan (3,285,585; 69.7%)	Haryana (339,483; 21.9%)	Mizoram (7,108; 8.5%)	Karnataka (745,235; 15.3%)
8	Chhattisgarh (1,360,501; 69.2%)	Maharashtra (2,653,862; 21.2%)	Andhra Pradesh (606,004; 8.4%)	Gujarat (801,593; 14.6%)
9	Orissa (2,067,885; 67.5%)	Karnataka (1,033,723; 21.2%)	Maharashtra (1,020,045; 8.2%)	Arunachal Pradesh (15,779; 12.9%)
10	West Bengal (3,982,608; 66.5%)	Jammu & Kashmir (79,163; 21.1%)	Karnataka (363,542; 7.4%)	Manipur (8,024; 12.5%)

Source: Table D-2, Census of India 2001

The above Table 3.15 signifies the migration streams for top 10 states in terms of internal migration in states (intra-state migration) by last residence with duration 0-9 years of 2001 Census of India excluding Union Territories. It focuses on those states where large proportion of internal migration was feasible among different migration streams. The data of the Table reveals that the state Bihar recorded the highest 79.9 percent migrants moving from rural to rural areas followed by Jharkhand (75.8 percent) and Assam (73.0 percent) whereas the state West Bengal positioned at 10th (66.5 percent) in that that type of migration stream. The state Mizoram ranked top with 39.1 percent of internal migrants among the 10 states of India moving from rural to urban areas. Interestingly, West Bengal had no rank among top ten states of India in rural to urban migration stream for intra-state migration by the last residence. Goa, the smallest state of India ranked top with 26.7 percent of the intra-state

migrants in the category of rural to urban migration. Tamil Nadu, the southern state of India reported the highest 27.4 percent for intra-state migration by last residence among top ten states of India moving from one urban area to another urban area. Thus, from the above given table the state West Bengal did not gain any position among top ten states in rest of migration streams (except rural to rural) for intra-state migration.

3.6 Trend, Pattern and Extent of Rural-Urban Migration in West Bengal

The decadal variation signifies that during 1981 to 1991, the total migrants were about 227 million in case of India and it increased to about 454 million during 2001 to 2011. It entails that in a country having a population about 1210 million in 2011, in every three persons one is a migrant. During last three decades migration in India has increased at an unprecedented rate along with long distance permanent migration, the rate of increase in short distance temporary and circular migration has also been unparalleled.

The pattern of migration of migrant workers may be either on temporary or permanent basis. It may again be seasonal and circular in nature that has been considered as the major living strategy of the poor people.

3.6.1: Trend and Extent of Migration by place of Birth

According to the Census 2001, the total population of West Bengal was 80,176,197. Total in-migrants (Inter-state and from abroad) by place of birth in West Bengal is 5,582,325 which is 7% of the total population of West Bengal and 11.5 percent share of the total migrants all over India.

Table 3.16: First three states with highest number of migrants by place of birth

Rank	Name of the States	Migrants by place of birth (from other states and abroad)
1 st	Maharashtra	7.9 million
2 nd	Delhi	5.6 million
3 rd	West Bengal	5.6 million

Source: Table D-1, Census of India 2001

The above Table 3.16 presents first three states with highest number of migrants by place of birth. The data shows that West Bengal comes to the 3rd position with almost 5.6 millions of migrants. The total migrant by place of birth in Maharashtra was 7.9 million that comes to the

1st position. According to Census report 1991, the total migrant by place of birth was 5.1 million that indicates a rise in migration over the decade 1991-2001.

3.6.2: Trend and Extent of Migration by place of Last Residence

We analyse here the trend and extent of migration by place of last residence in West Bengal on the basis of census data of 1991, 2001 and 2011 with the help of the following Tables.

Table 3.17: Migration by place of Last Residence in West Bengal

In-migrants from other states	724,524
Out-migrants	730,226

Source: Table D2, Census of India 2001.

Table 3.17 indicates migration by place of last residence in 2001 Census. The above data shows that the in-migrants in West Bengal came from other states are 724,524 and the out-migrants are 730,226. So, there is a little bit more out-migrants than in-migrants by place of last residence in West Bengal in 2001.

Table 3.18: Migration statistics by the place of last residence (Figures in millions)

Census Year	India			West Bengal		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
1991	64.3 (27.7)	167.8 (72.3)	232.1 (100.0)	5.5 (30.7)	12.4 (69.3)	17.9 (100.0)
2001	90.4 (29.4)	216.7 (70.6)	307.1 (100.0)	7.7 (30.5)	17.5 (69.5)	25.2 (100.0)
2011	140.9 (30.9)	312.7 (69.1)	453.6 (100.0)	9.6 (28.8)	23.7 (71.2)	33.3 (100.0)

Source: Census India, D Series, 1991, 2001 and 2011 (Figures in the parentheses is percent)

The Table 3.18 presents the migration statistics of India as well as of West Bengal according to the place of last residence from 1991 to 2011. The data reveal in the table that in case of India, the extent of male migrants has gradually increased during the periods 1991 to 2001 and 2001 to 2011 while the extent of female migrants has gradually decreased during those periods. On the other hand, in case of West Bengal just opposite reality is observed where the extent of male migrants has gradually decreased and the extent of female migrants has

gradually increased. For the case of total migrants in India, it is seen that the extent of total migrants has primarily decreased during the period 1991 to 2001 and then increased during the period 2001 to 2011. But, the extent of total migrants for the state West Bengal has gradually increased during the above mentioned periods. Thus, it becomes clear from the census data that migration trend of male is stronger than migration trend of female for the case of India but for the case of West Bengal just reverse phenomena is observed.

3.6.3 Pattern of Migration by Place of Last Residence in West Bengal

Pattern of Migration are broadly categorised as rural-rural migration, rural-urban migration, urban-rural migration and urban-urban migration. Table 3.19 presents below the growth rate of in-migration of West Bengal during 1991 to 2011 census. The data revealed that the number of in-migrants were gradually increasing from 1991 to 2011 for all patterns of migration. It is noticed in the table that there was a sharp increase in annual growth rate of rural to urban and urban to rural in-migration during 1991-2011 but in case of rural to rural migration, there was a marginal increase in-migration during 1991-2011. Reverse phenomenon was observed in case of urban to urban migration. In this pattern of migration, the annual growth rate of in-migration was slightly decreasing during 1991-2011 although there was gradual increase of in-migrants from 1991 to 2011.

Table 3.19: Growth Rate of In-Migration of West Bengal during 1991 to 2011

Pattern of Migration	Number of Migrants			Annual Growth Rate	
	1991	2001	2011	1991-2001	2001-2011
Rural-Rural	0284756	12994223	16946335	2.63	3.04
Rural-Urban	2727946	3405729	5658340	2.48	6.61
Urban-Rural	705324	932623	1656008	3.22	7.76
Urban-Urban	1328551	2648585	5249685	9.94	9.82
Total Migration	15046577	19981160	29510368	3.28	4.77

Note: Place of last residence as unclassifiable as 'Rural' and 'Urban' is excluded from this table and also we include place of last residence as only "Last residence in India".

Source: D-Series, Census Data 1991, 2001, 2011.

The overall aggregate annual growth rate of in-migrants was increased from 3.28 percent to 4.77 percent during 1991-2011. Thus, it is cleared from the above table that during 1991-2011 the urban area of West Bengal could attract more in-migrants compare to the rural area. Therefore, the implication of rural to urban migration pattern is that it revealed a disparity in the urban growth centers within West Bengal.

Table 3.20: Rural to Urban Migration Classified by Place of Last Residence of West Bengal

Duration of Residence	1991		2001		2011	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
< 1 Year	5.3	2.7	2.5	2.0	4.1	3.0
1 - 4 Years	24.1	19.5	13.3	14.7	11.6	13.6
5 - 9 Years	17.9	18.5	12.8	14.6	12.0	14.2
10 Years and Above	41.2	53.6	65.9	63.9	72.2	69.2
All Duration Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Note: 'Period of last residence does not specified' includes in All duration of residence and Emigration from other countries does not include here.

Source: D-Series, Census Data 1991, 2001, and 2011.

The Table 3.20 represents rural to urban migration for both male and female migrants during 1991 to 2011 on the basis of their place of last residence in West Bengal. The data revealed in the above Table that the shares of male and female migrants were highest for duration of residence of 10 years and above whereas the duration of residence of less than one year, the share of male and female migrants were the lowest from rural to urban area in West Bengal among the four categories of duration of residence. It is also revealed that with medium duration of stay namely, for 1-4 years and 5-9 years in the destination urban area since the shares of both male and female migrants were gradually declined during 2001-2011, it is therefore clearly indicate inadequacy of better job opportunities for both male and female migrant workers in the urban area of West Bengal.

3.7: Migration Streams in West Bengal

According to Census 2001, among the 35 States including Union Territories, West Bengal is in the 10th position in the case of the rural-rural migration with 10,769,514 intra-districts rural to rural migrants.

Table 3.21: Distribution of Migrants by Migration Streams in West Bengal

Sl. No.	Migrants	Last residence (TRU)	TRU	Persons	Males	Females
1	Intra-district migrants	Rural	Rural	10,769,514	1,218,674	9,550,840
2	Intra-district migrants	Urban	Rural	532,548	189,827	342,721
3	Intra-district migrants	Rural	Urban	1,305,662	442,324	863,338
4	Intra-district migrants	Urban	Urban	865,010	374,644	490,366
5	Inter-district migrants	Rural	Rural	1,657,557	322,609	1,334,948
6	Inter-district migrants	Urban	Rural	311,697	110,264	201,433
7	Inter-district migrants	Rural	Urban	943,802	425,636	518,166
8	Inter-district migrants	Urban	Urban	1,295,757	567,005	728,752
9	Inter-state migrants	Rural	Rural	567,152	200,587	366,565
10	Inter-state migrants	Urban	Rural	88,378	40,668	47,710
11	Inter-state migrants	Rural	Urban	1,156,265	739,258	417,007
12	Inter-state migrants	Urban	Urban	487,818	260,003	227,815

Source: Census of India (2001).

The above Table 3.21 shows the migration streams in West Bengal in 2001. The data of the table indicate that almost in all stream of migration, the number of female migrants were more than the number of male migrants except inter-state rural to urban and urban to urban migration streams and the highest difference for female and male migrants was in case of intra-district migrants (rural to rural). The reason is that most of the females had left their last residence due to marriage which made the number of female migrants higher than the male migrants. Migration to towns of the other states on the other hand, went in favour of males mainly because of employment and education purposes.

3.7.1: Number of Rural and Urban Migrants in West Bengal

Table 3.22: Number of migrant household per 1000 household during the last 365 days preceding the date of survey

Name of the State	Rural Migrants	Urban Migrants	(Rural+Urban) Migrants
West Bengal	8	17	10

Source: 64th round NSSO Survey (2007-2008).

Table 3.22 indicates that the number of rural migrants as per 1000 households in West Bengal was 8 and the number of urban migrants was 17. When 1000 households were considered in both rural and urban sector, the number of total migrants was 10. Thus, it is cleared that urban people in West Bengal migrate more than that of rural people in either rural or urban areas.

3.7.2: Number of Male/ Female Migrants (per 1000 Persons) in West Bengal

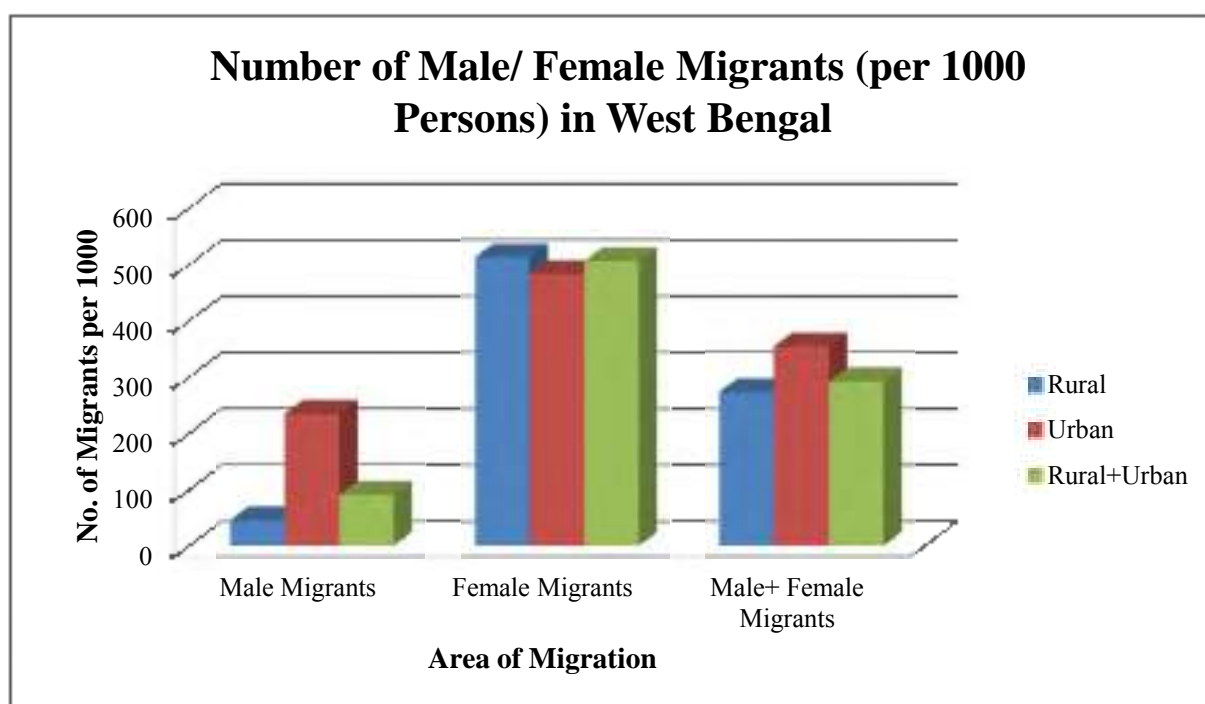
Table 3.23: Number of Male/ Female Migrants (per 1000 Persons) in West Bengal

West Bengal	Male	Female	Male+ Female
Rural	45	512	272
Urban	233	482	353
Rural+Urban	90	505	291

Source: 64th round NSSO Survey (2007-2008).

Table 3.23 shows the number of male/female migrants per 1000 persons in West Bengal which is also graphically presented with the help of bar diagram in Fig. 3.4. It is seen from the above table that the male migrants in both rural and urban sector were 90 and the female migrants were 505. It is also noticed that the number of female migrants was higher in every sector than male migrants.

Fig. 3.4



3.7.3: Distribution (per 1000) of Migrants by Nature of Movements for West Bengal

Table 3.24: Distribution (per 1000) of Migrants by Nature of Movement

West Bengal		Temporary with Duration of Stay		Permanent	All
		Less than 12 months	12 months or more		
Rural	Male	24	134	841	1000
	Female	0	21	979	1000
	Male +Female	2	30	967	1000
Urban	Male	3	202	795	1000
	Female	0	77	922	1000
	Male +Female	1	119	878	1000

Source: 64th round NSSO Survey (2007-2008).

Table 3.24 shows the nature of movement of migration in West Bengal. It is seen from the table that in both the cases of rural and urban the number of female migrants was nil when it came to the case of temporary migration with duration of stay less than 12 months. This means that the female migrants were either permanent migrants or migrants with duration of more than 12 months. This is because female migrants were either the part of family/ household migration or migrants due to marriage. As a result in both the cases of permanent and temporary migration with duration of stay more than 12 months, number of female migrants is noticeably higher than the number of male migrants.

3.7.4: Distribution (per 1000) of Internal Migrants by the types of Migration Streams for West Bengal

Table 3.25: Distribution (per 1000) of Internal Migrants by the types of Migration Streams for West Bengal

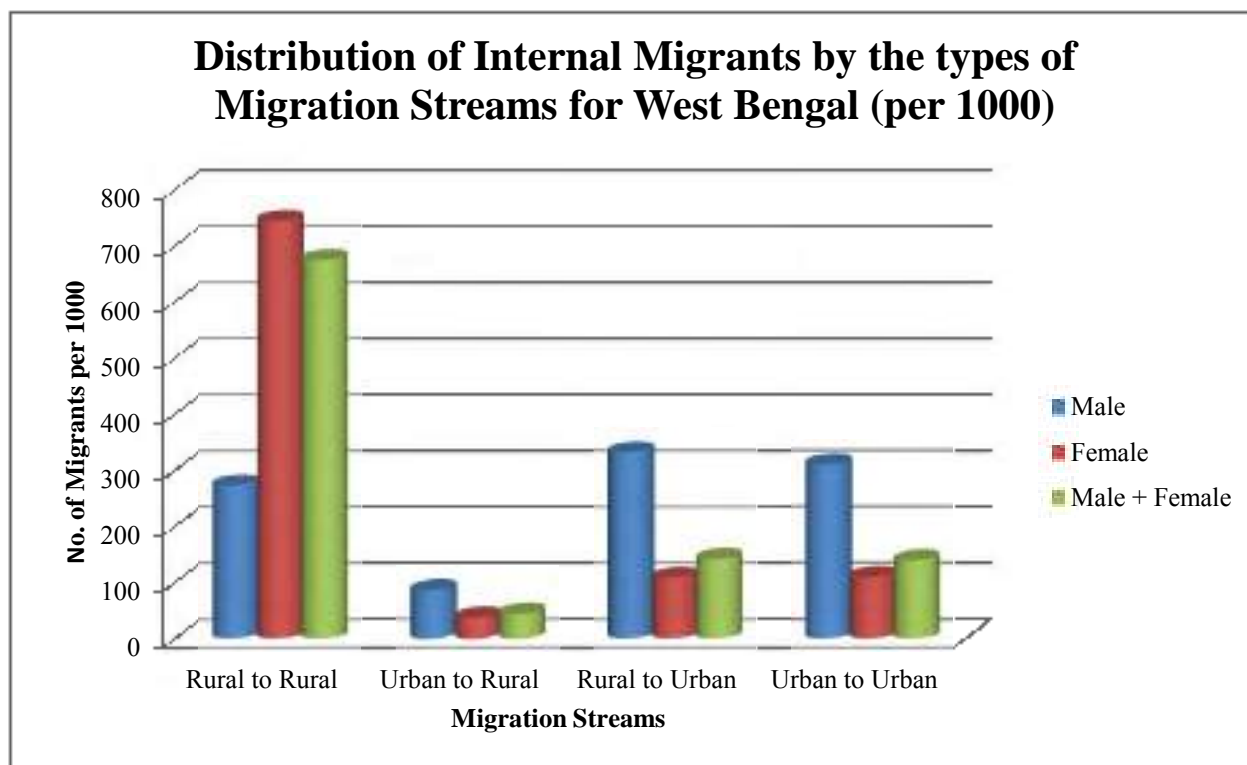
West Bengal	Migration Stream				All
	Rural to Rural	Urban to Rural	Rural to Urban	Urban to Urban	
Male	273	86	332	310	1000

Female	744	37	109	110	1000
Male + Female	674	44	142	139	1000

Source: 64th round NSSO Survey (2007-2008).

Table 3.25 presents the distribution (per 1000) of internal migrants by the types of migration stream for West Bengal which can also be depicted with the help of bar diagram in Fig. 3.5. It is seen from the table that among the four migration streams, the migration of male was the highest that is 332 per 1000 households in rural to urban migration stream and the lowest was 86 per 1000 households in urban to rural migration stream. In case of female migration the highest among the migration stream was 744 per 1000 households in rural to rural migration stream and the lowest was 37 per 1000 households in urban to rural migration stream. It is also seen from the table that among the migration stream, the migration for both male and female was highest that is 674 per 1000 households in rural to rural migration stream and the lowest was 44 per 1000 households in urban to rural migration stream. Therefore, the data shows that most of migration for both male and female occurred through rural to rural and rural to urban migration streams in West Bengal.

Fig. 3.5



3.8 Reasons for Migration in India

One of the important aspects of studying migration is to detect the reasons for which any person leaves his residence to find a new residence. The part reason for migration with few factors came into existence for the first time in 1991 Census. After that some factors of reason for migration also added in 2001 Census. The factors which cause migration are broadly categorized as push and pull factors. Here, we discuss below with the help of the tables the reasons for migration of migrants by last residence with duration 0-9 years.

Table 3.26: Reasons for migration of migrants by last residence with duration (0-9 years) India 2001

Reason for migration	Number of migrants			Percentage to total migrants		
	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females
Total Migrants	98,301,342	32,896,986	65,404,356	100.0	100.0	100.0
Reason for migration:						
Work/Employment	14,446,224	12,373,333	2,072,891	14.7	37.6	3.2
Business	1,136,372	950,245	186,127	1.2	2.9	0.3
Education	2,915,189	2,038,675	876,514	3.0	6.2	1.3
Marriage	43,100,911	679,852	42,421,059	43.8	2.1	64.9
Moved after birth	6,577,380	3,428,673	3,148,707	6.7	10.4	4.8
Moved with households	20,608,105	8,262,143	12,345,962	21.0	25.1	18.9
Other	9,517,161	5,164,065	4,353,096	9.7	15.7	6.7

Source: Census of India 2001

The Table 3.26 presents in detail the reasons for migration of migrants by last residence with duration 0-9 years in 2001 Census which is also illustrated with the help of pie diagrams in Figs.3.6(a), 3.6(b) and 3.6(c). The above data shows that the reasons for migration in case of males and females migrants differ considerably. The most important reason for migration among males (37.6 percent) was due to work or employment whereas marriage was the most important reason for migration of female migrants (64.9 percent) from the place of last residence. The above table data highlighted that a quite amount of 20.6 million (21.0 percent) migrants migrated from the place of last residence across the country India due to moved with households. Interestingly, it may be noticed that about 6.6 million (6.7 percent) migrants exemplified due to 'Moved after birth' as the reason of their migration by the last residence.

Fig.3.6(a)

REASONS FOR MIGRATION -TOTAL

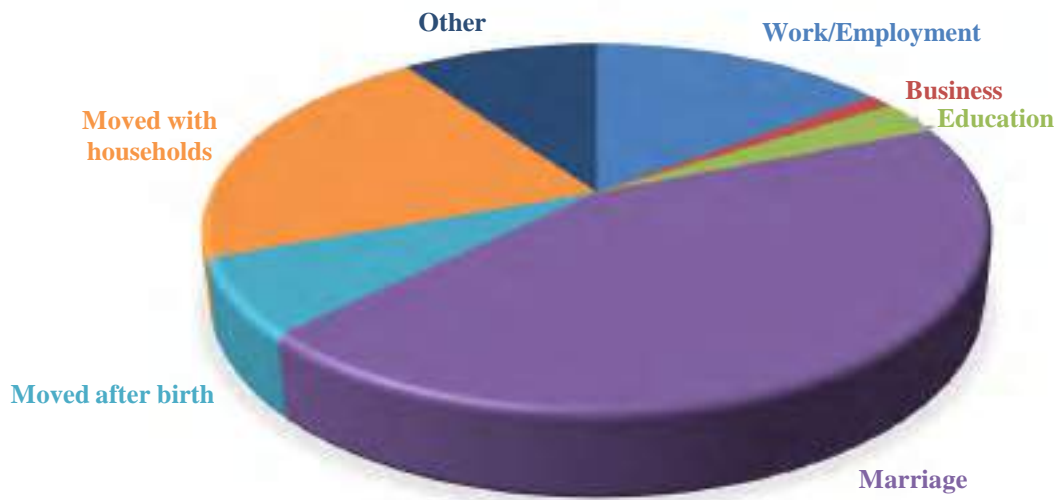


Fig.3.6(b)

REASONS FOR MIGRATION OF MALE

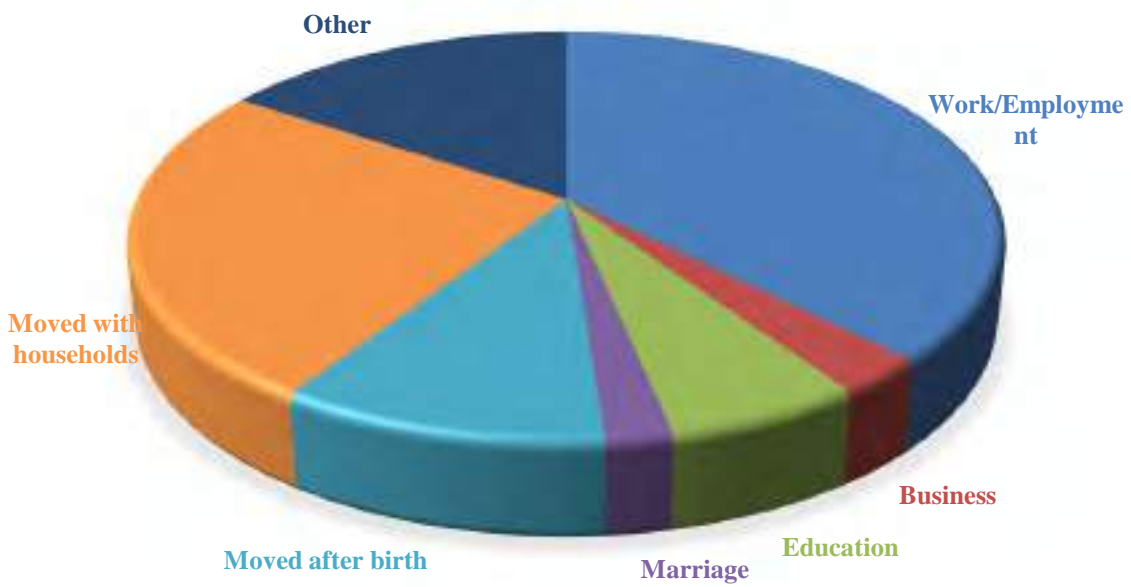


Fig.3.6(c)

REASONS FOR MIGRATION OF FEMALE

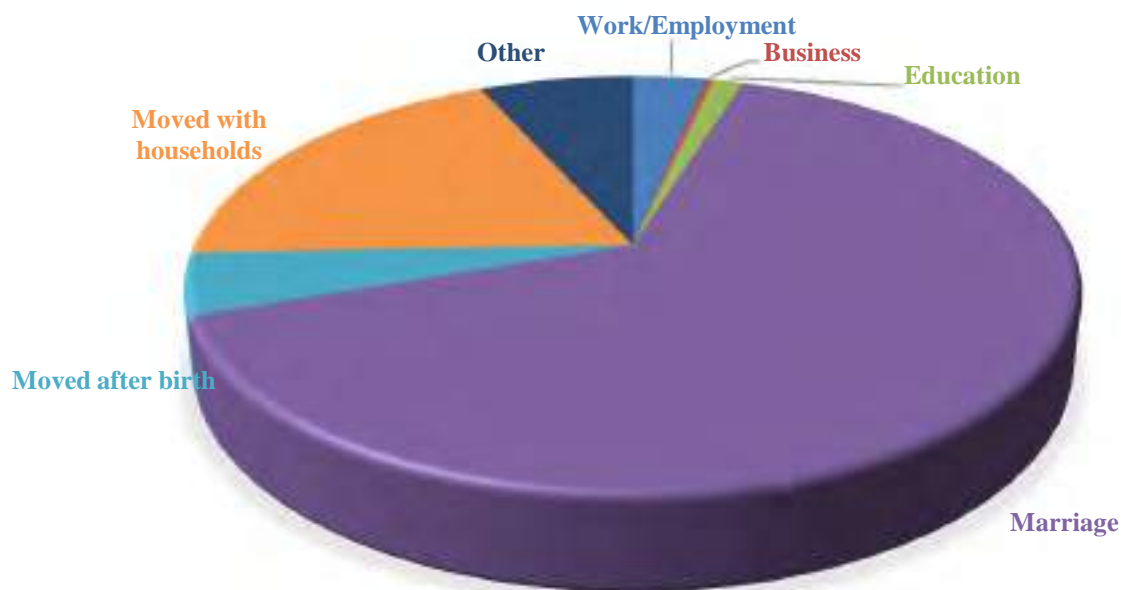


Table 3.27: Reasons for migration of migrants by last residence with duration (0-9 years) India (excluding J&K) 2001 & 1991

Reason for migration	Number of migrants			Percentage to total migrants		
	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females
2001 Census (excluding J & K)						
Total migrants	97,837,113	32,720,108	65,117,005	100.0	100.0	100.0
Reason for migration:						
Work/Employment	14,372,194	12,309,216	2,062,978	14.7	37.6	3.2
Business	1,131,763	946,921	184,842	1.2	2.9	0.3
Education	2,902,027	2,029,462	872,565	3.0	6.2	1.3
Marriage	42,925,568	674,884	42,250,684	43.9	2.1	64.9
Moved after birth	6,569,178	3,424,194	3,144,984	6.7	10.5	4.8
Moved with households	20,482,990	8,210,258	12,272,732	20.9	25.1	18.8
Other	9,453,393	5,125,173	4,328,220	9.7	15.7	6.6
1991 Census (excluding J & K)						
Total migrants	82,107,175	27,255,302	54,851,873	100.0	100.0	100.0
Reason for migration:						
Employment	9,937,046	8,286,330	1,650,716	12.1	30.4	3.0
Business	2,245,485	1,809,643	435,842	2.7	6.6	0.8
Education	3,453,065	2,439,795	1,013,270	4.2	9.0	1.8
Family moved	18,450,763	8,273,769	10,176,994	22.5	30.4	18.6
Marriage	36,856,978	717,778	36,139,200	44.9	2.6	65.9
Moved after birth		Data not available				
Natural calamities	424,645	247,587	177,058	0.5	0.9	0.3
Other	10,739,193	5,480,400	5,258,793	13.1	20.1	9.6

Source: Table D3, 2001 and 1991 Census

The data present in the above Table give the comparative assessment of the reasons for migration of migrants by last residence with duration as 0-9 years between the last two decades (1991 and 2001 Census data). Both the censuses represent nearly similar picture as the reasons are distinguished in terms of proportion to total migrants. It is evident from the above comparison that the most important reason for migration among females was due to marriage in 1991-2001 as it was the case in 1981-1991. According to 1991 census data, out of total 82.1 million migrants (both male and female) by last residence about 36.1 million were female migrants who moved on account of marriage. The proportion of female migrants who had migrated due to marriage declined slightly to 64.9 percent in 2001 from 65.9 percent in 1991. Obviously, 'Work/Employment' and 'Family moved' continue to be important reasons among males migrants.

Table 3.28 Reasons for migration (other than marriage) of migrants by last residence with duration (0-9 years) India 2001

Reason for migration	Number of migrants			Percentage to total migrants		
	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females
Total migrants	55,200,431	32,217,134	22,983,297	100.0	100.0	100.0
Reason for migration:						
Work/ Employment	14,446,224	12,373,333	2,072,891	26.2	38.4	9.0
Business	1,136,372	950,245	186,127	2.1	2.9	0.8
Education	2,915,189	2,038,675	876,514	5.3	6.3	3.8
Marriage		----- Excluded -----				
Moved after birth	6,577,380	3,428,673	3,148,707	11.9	10.6	13.7
Moved with households	20,608,105	8,262,143	12,345,962	37.3	25.6	53.7
Other	9,517,161	5,164,065	4,353,096	17.2	16.0	18.9

Source: Table D3, Census of India 2001

A compilation showing for reasons for migration by the last residence other than marriage presents in the above Table. Here, among female migrants a drastic change is noticed in terms of proportion of different reasons for migration by last residence with duration as 0-9 years i.e., ten years. As the male migrants any way did not quote marriage being an important reason, no noticeable change is visible among males. Work or Employment (38.4 percent) was the most significant reason for migration among males followed by those who cited 'Moved with household' as the reason for migration (25.6 percent). Among female migrants,

the highest 53.7 percent reported migration due to ‘Moved with household’ as the reason by last residence. Number of females migrated due to Work or Employment is 2.0 million (9.0 percent) across the country. Interestingly, Moved after birth’ as the reason for migration added for the first time in 2001 Census, a quite amount of about 6.5 million migrants migrated by the last residence to various rural and urban areas in the country. There were about 9.5 million (17.2 percent) migrants who have cited ‘Other’ reasons for migration by the last residence.

3.9 Comparison of Reasons for Migration in India using 2001 and 2011 Census data

Labour migration is one of the important factors that results the course of socio-economic development in India. Rural-urban migration of labour has historically played an important role in the urbanization process. At the same time, the economic, social and political marginalisation of migrant workers has been an area of concern. Now, here we discuss the comparison of reasons for migration between the Censuses of 2001 and 2011 with the help of the following Tables.

Table 3.29: Reasons and Streams of Intercensal Migration (as % share of each stream)

	Work and Business		Education		Marriage		Family related		Others		Total	
	2001	2011	2001	2011	2001	2011	2001	2011	2001	2011	2001	2011
2011												
Rural to Rural	9.3	6.4	1.9	2.7	61.2	59.0	19.4	24.1	8.3	7.7	56.3	47.4
Rural to Urban	29.9	24.3	4.9	4.8	21.8	22.4	34.5	40.6	8.8	7.9	21.8	22.1
Urban to Rural	14.5	8.9	3.0	2.7	28.1	25.5	42.9	55.6	11.4	7.3	6.6	7.9
Urban to Urban	21.8	17.5	4.3	3.4	21.9	18.4	42.6	47.9	9.5	12.9	15.2	22.6
Total	16.0	13.1	3.0	3.3	44.4	39.1	27.8	35.6	8.8	8.9	100.0	100.0

Source: Census of India 2001, 2011.

The various reasons and streams of intercensal migration (as percentage share of each stream in total migration) are presented in Table 3.29. The data in the Table show that marriage and other family related migration, which constituted the major 74.7 percentage of all migration during 2001 to 2011. But the interesting fact is that the share of marriage is diminishing while the share of other family related migration is growing during that period. The growing share of family migrants may signify that the earlier flow of migrants are now settling into urban areas and bringing their families over. This is also pursued in the growing share of female migrants from rural to urban India, which increased from 49.9 percent in 2001 to 53.2 percent in 2011.

Migration of people due to work and business is diminishing from 16.0 percent to 13.1 percent share of all migration streams during 2001 to 2011 while migration due to education and others lies almost stagnant of all migration during that period. Particularly, in case of rural to urban migration, there is a slight percentage increase of migration due to marriage during 2001 to 2011 but the converse phenomenon is shown in case of all other streams of migration during that period. The data of final two columns of the above Table indicate the share of each stream in total migration. Work-related migrants from urban to urban areas, the share of urban origin migrants has increased from 33.7 percent in 2001 to 42.4 percent in 2011, signifying that inter-urban mobility is a growing phenomenon.

Table 3.30: Percentage Distribution of Rural-Urban Migrants on the Basis of Reasons for migration in India- 2001 and 2011 Censuses (all durations)

	Male					Female				
	Work*	Study	Family*	Others	Total	Work*	Study	Family*	Others	Total
Total in 2011	49.7	4.1	36.4	9.9	100.0	5.1	2.0	86.5	6.4	100.0
Total in 2001	55.2	3.7	27.8	13.3	100.0	4.1	1.2	85.3	9.3	100.0
Within										
District	42.2	5.5	35.2	17.0	100.0	3.1	1.6	85.7	9.6	100.0
Other Districts within State	54.7	4.4	28.3	12.7	100.0	4.7	1.2	84.6	9.5	100.0
Inter-State	66.6	1.6	21.1	10.7	100.0	5.0	0.6	85.8	8.6	100.0

Source: Census of India 2001, 2011 (*work/employment and business and marriage, moved after birth and moved with household have been consolidated into work and family respectively) Each of the rows (separately for male and female) will add to 100, subject to rounding errors.

The percentage distribution of rural-urban migrants of both male and female on the basis of reasons for migration in India- 2001 and 2011 Censuses (all durations) is presented in Table-3.30. The data in the above table expose that migration of male people either in rural or urban areas due to work/employment which constituted the highest percentage of male migrants in total among the other reasons for migration is diminishing from 55.2 percent to 49.7 percent during 2001 to 2011. Also, it is evident that migration of male people due to other reasons, like business, natural calamities etc. is diminishing from 13.3 percent to 9.9 percent in total during 2001 to 2011. Contrariwise, migration of male people due to study and family movement is increasing during that period. Now, in case of female migration, only migration due to others reasons is decreasing during 2001 to 2011 but migration due to work/employment, education and family movement or marriage is increasing during that period.

For the case of pattern of migration, the highest 66.6 percent rural-urban male migrants migrate one state to another state due to work/employment that categorized as inter-state migration and the lowest 1.6 percent is due to education also lie in that category. On the other hand, the highest 85.8 percent rural-urban female migrants migrate one state to another state on account of family movement/ marriage that categorized as inter-state migration and the lowest 0.6 percent is due to education also lie in that category. Thus, overall data reveals that the dominant pattern of migration for both male and female rural-urban migrants is inter-state migration and the majority of migration of male migrants is caused due to work/employment and also for female migrants, the majority of migration is occurred due to family movement/ marriage although fluctuations are observed among the reasons for migration of both male and female rural-urban migrants during the period of 2001 and 2011.

3.10 Comparison of Reasons for Migration in West Bengal using 1991, 2001 and 2011 Census data

We can isolate seven basic reasons for migration for any in-migration in any particular area namely, work/employment, business, education, marriage, moved with family, moved after birth and any other reasons in West Bengal.

3.10.1 Reasons for Migration: For both Male and Female Migrants Who Moved to Rural Area

The Table 3.31 below presents the distribution of male and female in-migrants on the basis of reasons for migration who moved to rural area. Data revealed in the Table that the share of female migrants due to marriage was highest in rural area compared to other reasons for migration of female whereas the share of female migrants due to business purpose in rural area was lowest in West Bengal during 1991 to 2011. On the other hand, as far as the share of male migrants in rural West Bengal is concerned, it is noticed that the share of male migrants due to other reasons was the highest whereas the share of male migrants due to education purpose was the lowest in rural area of West Bengal. It is clearly noticed in the table that the dominating factors of migration are found to be ‘movement with family’ and ‘other reasons’.

Table 3.31: Distribution of Male and Female Migrants on the Basis of Reasons for Migration, Moved to Rural Area

Reasons for Migration	1991		2001		2011	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Work/Employment	11.6	0.8	10.9	0.8	8.8	0.6
Business	2.6	0.2	2.6	0.1	2.4	0.2
Education	2.9	0.3	1.5	0.1	1.2	0.2
Marriage	4.4	81.1	4.1	78.6	7.1	82.2
Moved with Family	30.8	7.2	24.7	7.6	20.8	4.5
Moved after Birth	0.0	0.0	11.8	2.3	27.6	4.9
Others	47.8	10.3	44.4	10.4	32.2	7.4
Total Moved to Rural	100	100	100	100	100	100
Annual Growth Rate	-	-	2.47	3.60	1.37	2.44
Total Migration to Rural	12524233		16708897		20406304	

Note: Moved after birth was not classified in 1991 Census as reason for migration; Unclassifiable are not shown. Also, Migration data for calamities as a reason are negligible, so we add that data to other reasons for 1991

Source: D-Series, Census Data 1991, 2001, and 2011.

It is also revealed in the above table that the share of male migrants due to work/employment was gradually declining in rural area during 1991 to 2011. On the other hand, the share of female migrants due to work/employment was very marginal percent and also more or less stagnant in rural area of West Bengal during 1991 to 2011. Overall, the annual growth rate of both male and female migrants regarding reasons for migration declined during 2001 to 2011.

3.10.2 Reasons for Migration: Male and Female Migrants Who Moved to Urban Area

The Table 3.32 below shows the distribution of male and female in-migrants on the basis of reasons for migration who moved to urban area in West Bengal. Data revealed in the table that the share of male in-migrants due to work/employment in urban area of West Bengal was highest in 1991 although it was gradually declining during 1991 to 2011. On the other hand, the share of female in-migrants due to work/employment in urban area was marginal percent and also declining over the period. The share of female in-migrants due to business in urban area in West Bengal was the lowest during 1991 to 2011. It is observed in the table that determining factors behind male in-migration were found to be the ‘search for work/employment’ in urban area and ‘movement with families during 1991 to 2011’. However, in this case the principal decisive factors of migration behind female in-migration in urban West Bengal were marriage.

Table 3.32: Distribution of Male and Female Migrants on the Basis of Reasons for Migration, Moved to Urban Area

Reasons for Migration	1991		2001		2011	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Work/Employment	34.1	3.4	27.7	2.4	23.3	2.3
Business	5.4	0.5	4.3	0.3	4.9	0.6
Education	3.4	1.1	2.0	0.5	2.4	0.8
Marriage	1.9	52.4	0.7	43.9	1.7	52.3
Moved with Family	26.6	24.5	25.3	26.0	25.6	19.9
Moved after Birth	0.0	0.0	6.3	3.9	13.3	6.4
Others	28.6	18.0	33.7	23.0	28.8	17.6
Total Moved to Urban	100	100	100	100	100	100
Annual Growth Rate	-	-	5.6	5.8	3.7	7.1
Total Migration to Urban	5346548		8388732		12947686	

Note: Moved after birth was not classified in 1991 Census as reason for migration; Unclassifiable are not shown. Also, Migration data for calamities as a reason are negligible, so we add that data to other reasons for 1991

Source: D-Series, Census Data 1991, 2001, and 2011.

Interestingly, it is found that there was no any share of male and female in-migrants in urban area of West Bengal due to the factor ‘moved with family’. It is cleared that the annual growth rate of male migrants declined during the period 2001 to 2011 but the annual growth of female migrants increased during that period. It is also clear from the Table that overall the total male and female migration in urban area in West Bengal increased during 1991 to 2011.

CHAPTER-IV

DEMOGRAPHIC AND SOCIO-ECONOMIC PROFILES OF MIGRANT WORKERS IN THE STUDY AREA

4.1 Introduction

The area of our research study is Cooch Behar district in West Bengal. The district of Cooch Behar is divided into 5 sub-divisions, viz., Cooch Behar Sadar, Tufanganj, Dinhata, Mathabhanga and Mekhliganj. There are only 7 towns in the district of which 6 are municipal. The district is comprised of 12 blocks, 128 Gram Panchayats, 12 Panchayat Samities and 10 police stations. There are 1168 mouzas of which 1139 are inhabited.

We have selected three blocks of the district and categorized them as developed, moderately developed and backward blocks on the basis of some socio-economic indicators like number of primary schools, number of branches of commercial banks and regional rural banks, agricultural productivity, cropping intensity, length of pucca/mettaled road, literacy of population etc. and from each block two villages have been taken. Thus, altogether six villages have been taken from three blocks. We made a survey of 300 households taking 25 households as migrant and 25 households as non-migrant from each of six villages of the district. Here, we discuss the demographic and socio-economic profile of 150 migrants' workers of the study area. Now, the name of the villages, blocks and district are given as under.

Table 4.1: District and Block wise Distribution of Survey Villages

District	Blocks	Villages
Cooch Behar (03)	1. Dinhata I (0009)	1. Chhotonatabari (279)
		2. Dakshin Kharija Gitaldaha (399)
	2. Cooch Behar II (0006)	3. Uttar Gopalpur (068)
		4. Sajer Par Ghoramara (055)
	3. Mathabhanga I (0003)	5. Asokbari I (765)
		6. Jorsimuli (714)

Note: Figures in brackets indicate Census 2001 Code Numbers.

The above Table shows that the district which has been chosen for the study is Cooch Behar of the state of West Bengal. From the district, three blocks which have been selected are

Dinhata I, Cooch Behar II and Mathabhanga I respectively and the survey villages are Chhotonatabari and Dakshin Kharija Gitaldaha under Dinhata I block, Uttar Gopalpur and Sajer Par Ghoramara under Cooch Behar II block and Asokbari I and Jorsimuli under Mathabhanga I block.

Now, before describing minutely the demographic and socio-economic profile of migrant workers of the villages surveyed we at first delineate the brief history, geographical location and boundary, demographic characteristics and economy of the district.

4.2: About Cooch Behar District (Study Area)

As we noted in Chapter I that Cooch Behar district is situated at the extreme north-east corner of the state of West Bengal. There are some glorious past in the district. Briefly we delineate below the geographical location, history, population growth and economy of the district.

Geographical Location and Boundary

Cooch Behar is a district under the Jalpaiguri Division of the state of West Bengal. It is located in the north eastern part of the state and bounded by the district of Jalpaiguri in the north, state of Assam in the east and by Bangladesh in the west as well as in the south. The district forms a part of the Himalayan Terrain of West Bengal. It lies between 25° 57' 56" and 26° 32' 46" North latitude and 88° 45' 02" and 89° 52' 00" East longitude. The district comprises the area of 3387.0 sq. kms. which contributes 3.82 percent of the total geographical area of West Bengal. The district has a flat alluvial land and the height ranges from 35 to 53 meters approximately above mean sea level and sloping towards south-east along which the rivers flow. The district is drained by the rivers Tista, Torsa, Jaldhaka, Kaljini, Dharia, Gandheswari, Gharghar, Sankosh and Roydak/Raidak generally flowing from north-east to south-east direction. Mostly, these rivers originate from the Himalaya and passing through the eastern Duars of the district Jalpaiguri then finally enters in Bangladesh. Considerably, the district is characterized by her low and inundated nature. There is no hill and greater areas under cultivation.

A unique geopolitical scenario with a total area of 47.7 km² is the existence of 92 Bangladeshi exclaves in Cooch-Bihar District. Similarly, there are 106 Indian exclaves inside Bangladesh, with a total area of 69.5 km². Twenty-one of the Bangladeshi exclaves are within Indian exclaves, and three of the Indian exclaves are within Bangladeshi exclaves. The

largest Indian exclave, Balapara Khagrabari, surrounds a Bangladeshi exclave, Upanchowki Bhajni, which itself surrounds an Indian exclave called Dahala Khagrabari, of less than one hectare.

Brief History of the District

The early history of Cooch Behar has to be hunted in the history of Assam. In early times the territory was known as **Pragjyotisha**. It appears that the western part of the original territory of Pragjyotisha came to be known as **Kamarupa** in later times. According to tradition Kamarupa was conquered by Muslim Army in A.D.1498, but they could not keep the kingdom for long. After the expulsion of the Muslim army the Kamta kingdom was engulfed in anarchy. In the beginning of the 16th century, the Koch Kings had come into power and the kingdom was called Cooch Behar by them.

The name Cooch Behar is of recent origin and is a compound of two words. The word ‘Cooch’ came from the word ‘Coch’ or ‘Koch’, the name of an ethnic group of people living in the north-eastern part of West Bengal. ‘Behar’ or more properly ‘Bihar’ on the other hand, denotes an abode or spot. Cooch Behar therefore means the land of the Koch.

In 1773 Cooch Behar became a feudatory State to the East India Company by virtue of a treaty. Thereafter a peace was concluded between Bhutan and East India Company on April 25, 1774. Until 1950 it used to be a feudatory State in political relations, first with the British Government and then with the Government of India. On the 28th of August 1949 an agreement was contracted between the Governor General of India and His Highness the Maharaja of Cooch Behar, which came to be known as the Cooch Behar Merger Agreement, in which Highness the Maharaja of Cooch Behar ceded to the Dominion. After a series of talks between the Union Government, the West Bengal Government and the Government of Assam, in which the wishes of the people of Cooch Behar was taken into account, the Government of India reached the conclusion that the best interest of the people of Cooch Behar and of India as a whole be served by the merger of Cooch Behar in the provinces of West Bengal. This was done with effect from 1st January, 1950. So, Cooch Behar has been transformed from an earlier kingdom to a state and from a state to the present status of a district.

Demography

As per 2001 census, the district has 24,79,155 persons out of which 22,53,537 (90.9 percent) reside in the rural areas and 2,25,618 (9.1 percent) reside in the urban area. The total area of the district as supplied by the Surveyor General of India is 3387 km² which accounts for 3.82 percent of the total area of West Bengal (88,752.00 km²) and thus the density of population is worked out as 732 persons per km in 2001. There are 12 CD Blocks covering 1202 villages, 6 statutory towns and 4 non-statutory towns in the district.

The decadal growth rate of population during 1991-2001 has been recorded as 7.86 percent in the district.

Demographic structure of the district shows that out of total population there are 12,72,094 (51.31 percent) males and 12,07,061 (48.69 percent) females. In Cooch Behar district, 9% of the population is under 6 years of age. The sex ratio of the district is worked out as 949 females per 1000 males. Among children in age group 0-6, the sex ratio has been recorded as 964 females per 1000 males which are comparatively high from the total Sex Ratio.

The major religions in the district are Hinduism, followed by Islam; Christianity. The religious composition is closely linked with that of Bengal and Assam with 76.44% Hindus and 23.34% Muslims. Communities that inhabit Cooch Behar include the Bengalis, Rajbangsi, Marwari and Biharis. Commonly spoken languages include Bengali and Hindi. English and Assamese are understood by most of the people.

The literacy rate of population is (excluding those age-group 0-6) has been recorded as 68.3 percent while this proportion is 75.9 percent is for males and 56.1 percent for females in the district. Out of the total population of the district, the population of scheduled castes and scheduled tribes is recorded as 50.1 percent and 0.58 percent respectively. The total number of workers in the district has been recorded as 9,66,705 (38.99 percent) of which 6,98,550 (72.26 percent) are males and 2,68,155 (27.74 percent) are females. Out of 9,66,705 (38.99 percent) workers, 7,54,311 (78.02 percent) are main workers and 2,12,394 (21.98 percent) are marginal workers. On the other hand, the strength of non-workers is stands out as 15,12,450 (61.01 percent).

Economy of the District

Cooch Behar is predominantly an agrarian economy. Nearly 93 percent of its population lives in rural areas. In the absence of any medium or large-scale industry in the district, a vast majority of its working population has to depend on agriculture for its livelihood. About 74 percent of the main workers in Cooch Behar belong to agricultural sector. Nearly 48 percent consists of cultivators and 24 percent comprise of agricultural labourers. Cooch Behar is however dominated by small and marginal farmers operating less than 2 hectares of land. About 78 percent of the operational holdings in Cooch Behar are less than 2 hectares of land. The average size of holdings is 0.87 hectares as against 0.95 hectare for whole of West Bengal. In the absence of a class of really 'large' cultivators the agrarian economy of the district can largely be described as a peasant economy.

Agriculture is the primary occupation in the backward 'no industry' district of Cooch Behar. Because of the high dependence of the regional economy and the population on agriculture and high intensity of cultivation, the agrarian features of the district are characterised by peasant economy, since both average size of holding as well as proportion of landless agricultural labourers are small.

Irrigation facilities are very limited in the district. The application of chemical fertilizers and pesticides and the use of HYV seeds are also very low compared to Burdwan which is agriculturally the most advanced district in West Bengal and the State average. Poor irrigation facilities along with low levels of consumption of fertilizer and other inputs are responsible, in part, for the low level of agricultural productivity in the district. Since a vast majority of cultivators are poor, their capacity to invest for agricultural development is quite limited. Lack of adequate institutional credit in the peasant economic system has also been responsible for the perpetuation of agricultural backwardness in the district.

The backwardness of the district is also exposed by the poor infrastructural facilities in the area. Transport and communication systems are inadequate; education facilities are not sufficiently advanced. Consumption of electricity for productive purposes is also very low. The lack of infrastructural facilities is responsible for the retardation of industrial growth in the area. The scope of employment outside agriculture is therefore very limited.

4.3: Demographic and Socio-economic Profiles of Migrant Workers of the Villages Surveyed in Cooch Behar District

Demographic and Socio-economic profiles of migrant workers are based on the field survey of six villages in Cooch Behar district. The villages that we surveyed are Chhotonatabari, Dakshin Kharija Gitaldaha, Uttar Gopalpur, Sajer Par Ghoramara, Asokbari I and Jorsimuli respectively. The total number of migrant households surveyed is 150. Now, we attempt to analyse the demographic characteristics and socio-economic status of migrant workers of surveyed villages.

4.3 (a) Demographic Profile of Migrant Workers of the Surveyed Villages

4.3 (a) (i) Demographic Profile of the Sample Villages

Demographic profile of the sample of six villages of Cooch Behar district surveyed is narrated below with the help of the following Table.

Table 4.2: Demographic Profile of Migrant Households of the Sample Villages

Village	Adult Male	Adult Female	Male Children	Female Children	Total
Vill 1	51(37.23)	38(27.73)	25(18.25)	23(16.79)	137(100.00)
Vill 2	41(33.07)	35(28.22)	29(23.39)	19(15.32)	124(100.00)
Vill 3	47(41.96)	32(28.57)	23(20.54)	10(8.93)	112(100.00)
Vill 4	47(35.34)	33(25.56)	27(20.30)	26(19.55)	133(100.00)
Vill 5	46(38.66)	34(28.57)	22(18.49)	17(14.28)	119(100.00)
Vill 6	45(36.00)	35(28.00)	24(19.20)	21(16.80)	125(100.00)
District Total	277(36.93)	207(27.60)	150(20.00)	116(15.47)	750(100.00)

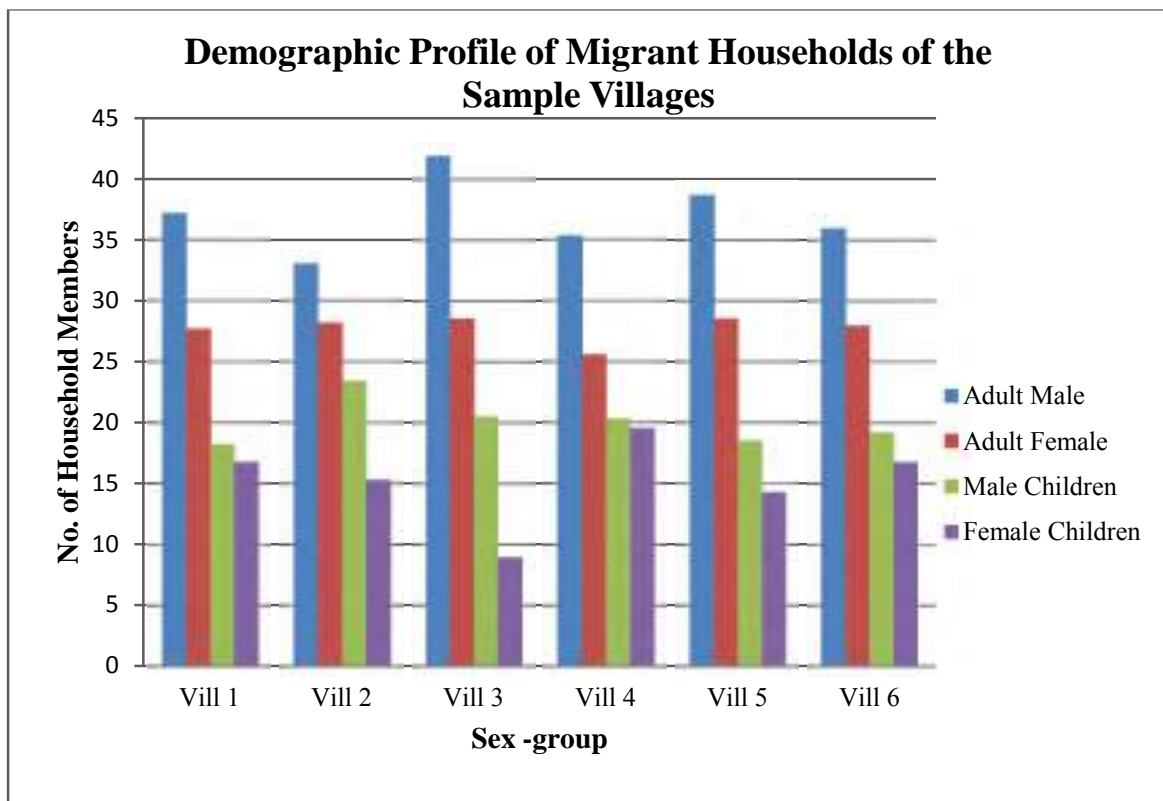
Note: Figures in brackets indicate row percentages.

Source: Field Survey.

The Table 4.2 represents the demographic profile of the sample villages of the selected district which is graphically presented with the help of bar diagram in Fig. 4.1. It can be noticed that there is almost symmetrical distribution among population of the sample villages

with respect to its division among adult male, adult female, male child and female child. The adult male members constitute the highest proportion of population followed by adult female members. As far as villages are concerned, in all the villages except village 3, nearly the same distribution of population is observed. It is observed that the percentages of male children (about 23 and 21 percentages) are quite higher than the percentages of female children (about 15 and 9 percentages) in villages V2 and V3. It reveals an idea about the general relative distribution pattern of population in the state as well as in the whole country also. It appears that although there are little bit variations in the population distribution pattern among villages as well as among adult male and females as well as among male and female children, the variations are therefore insignificant.

Fig.4.1



4.3 (a) (ii) Age Distribution

Table 4.3: Distribution of Out-migrants on the Basis of Age

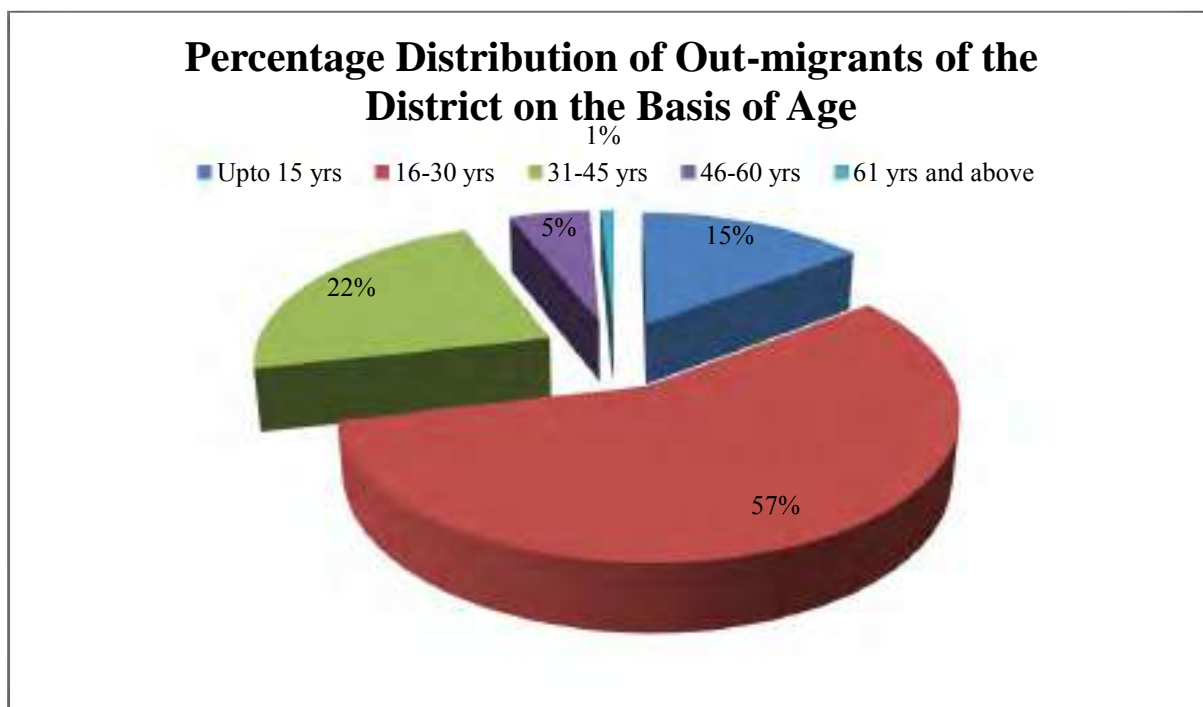
District	Age- group	Migrants	Migrants (in %)
Cooch Behar	Upto 15	37	14.68
	16 - 30	143	56.75
	31 - 45	57	22.62
	46 - 60	13	5.16
	61 & Above	2	0.79
	Total		252

Source: Field Survey

The distribution of out-migrants on the basis of age is presented in Table 4.3 and in Fig. 4.2. Age plays a crucial factor in migration. It is revealed from the above Table that 14.68 percent of the migrants were the age of upto 15 years while 56.75 percent (that is the highest percentage of migrants among the age-group) of the migrants were in the age group of 16-30 years. The percentage of migrants in the age group of 31-45 years were 22.62 while 5.16 percent were in the age group of 46-60 years and only 0.79 percent was in the age group of more than 60 years of age. The table further reveals that the percentage of migrants in their most productive period (that is age group of 16-45) were 79.37.

The presence of a substantial proportion of relatively young migrant labour force (20-30 years of age) among the respondents is also indicated in the above table. There is a long period for young migrants during which they can recoup the costs of investing in migration and this results in a greater present value of returns which in turn increase the probability of migration.

Fig. 4.2



4.3 (a) (iii) Size of the Family

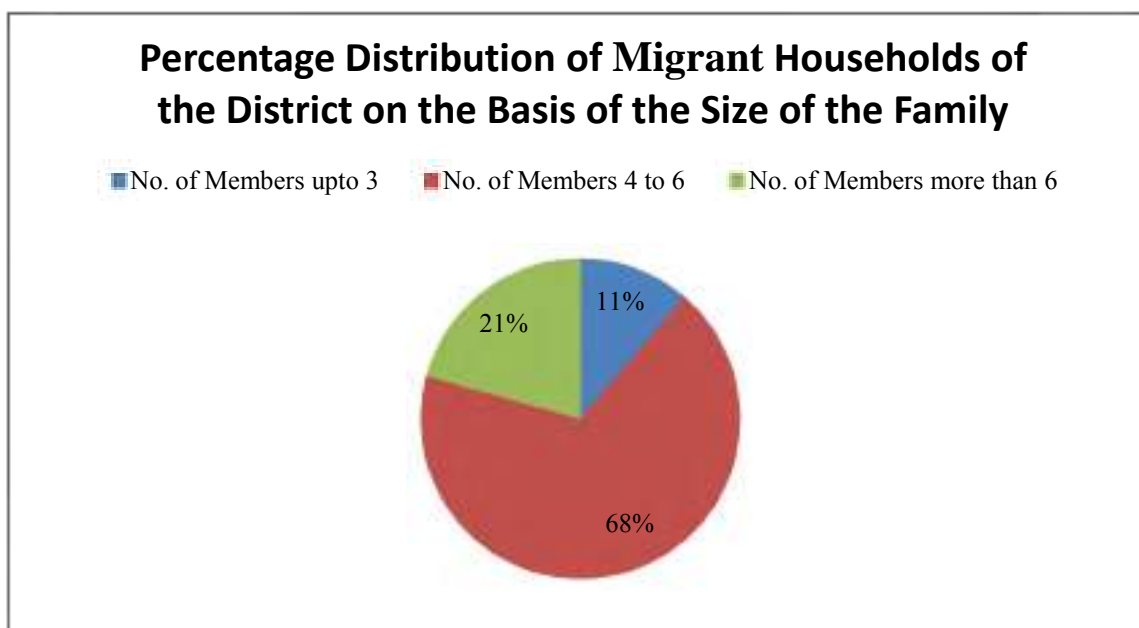
Table 4.4: Distribution of Migrant Households on the Basis of the Size of the Family

District	Household Size (No. of Members)	Migrant Household	Migrant Household (in percentage)
Cooch Behar	Upto 3	17	11.33
	4 to 6	102	68.00
	More than 6	31	20.67
	Total	150	100.00

Source: Field Survey.

The distribution of migrant households on the basis of the size of the family is presented in Table 4.4 which is illustrated in Fig. 4.3. It is revealed from the above Table that most of the migrant families of surveyed villages are medium sized (68.00 percent) consisting of 4 to 6 members. These medium-sized migrant families are followed by large families (20.67 percent) comprising of more than 6 members. The small sized migrant families (11.33 percent) consisting of upto 3 members are usually nuclear in nature. It is observed in the sample that few migrant large families are joint family structure in the sense that they are traditionally inherited in nature.

Fig. 4.3



4.3 (a) (iv) Religious Profile of Migrant Households

Table 4.5: Distribution of Migrant Households on the Basis of Religion

District	Village	Hinduism (1)	Islam (2)	Christianity(3)	Total
Cooch Behar	Vill 1	3(12.00)	22(88.00)	0(0.00)	25(100.00)
	Vill 2	11(44.00)	14(56.00)	0(0.00)	25(100.00)
	Vill 3	25(100.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	25(100.00)
	Vill 4	13(52.00)	12(48.00)	0(0.00)	25(100.00)
	Vill 5	25(100.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	25(100.00)
	Vill 6	25(100.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	25(100.00)
	Total		102(68.00)	48(32.00)	0(0.00)

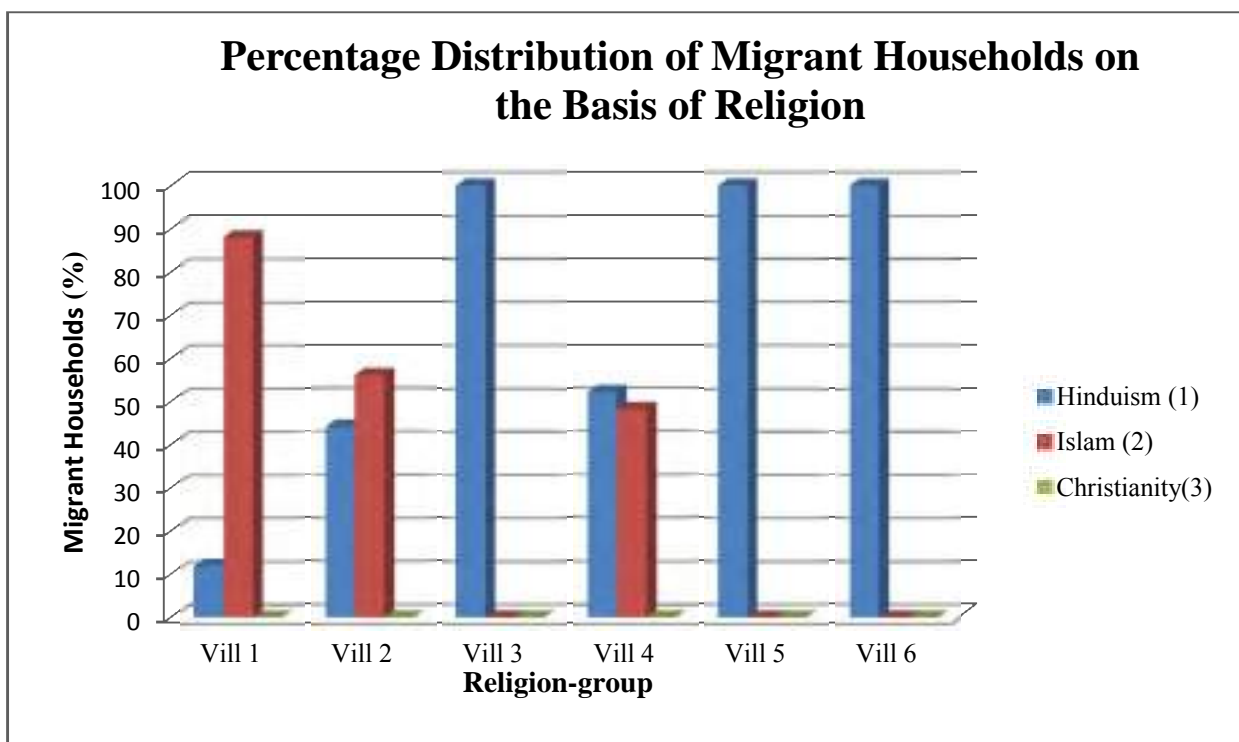
Note: Figures in brackets indicate row-wise percentages.

Source: Field Survey.

The Table 4.5 shows the distribution of migrant households on the basis of religion in the selected villages of Cooch Behar district which is also depicted in bar diagram in Fig. 4.4. It can be seen from the above table that out of 100 percent migrant households of surveyed villages, 68 percent migrant households belong to Hinduism whereas 32 percent belong to Muslims. There are no Christian migrant households in any of the sample villages of Cooch Behar district. Now, in village 1 it is seen that the majority of the surveyed migrant

households belong to Muslims. Interestingly, it is noticed from the above table that among six surveyed sample villages three villages (that is vill 3, vill 5 and vill 6) have all Hindu migrant households. There are no Muslim and Christian migrant households in these three villages. In village 2, the major part of migrant households occupies as religion of Muslim and in village 4 there are almost fifty-fifty migrant households belong to Hinduism and Muslim. Thus, it is observed from the above table that there is supremacy of Hindu migrant households in total sample villages of the district.

Fig. 4.4



4.3 (a) (v) Caste Distribution

Table 4.6: Distribution of Migrant Households on the Basis of Social Group

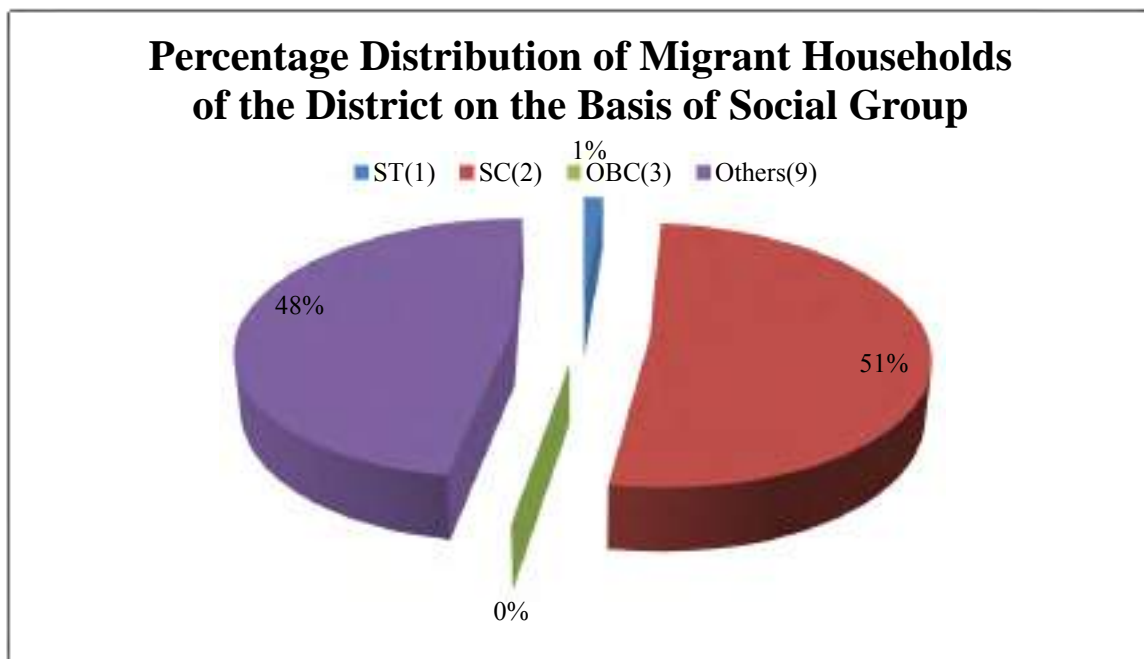
District	Village	ST(1)	SC(2)	OBC(3)	Others(9)	Total
Cooch Behar	Vill 1	0(0.00)	6(24.00)	0(0.00)	19(76.00)	25(100.00)
	Vill 2	0(0.00)	10(40.00)	0(0.00)	15(60.00)	25(100.00)
	Vill 3	0(0.00)	7(28.00)	0(0.00)	18(72.00)	25(100.00)
	Vill 4	2(8.00)	11(44.00)	0(0.00)	12(48.00)	25(100.00)
	Vill 5	0(0.00)	18(72.00)	0(0.00)	7(18.00)	25(100.00)
	Vill 6	0(0.00)	25(100.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	25(100.00)
	Total		2(1.33)	77(51.33)	0(0.00)	71(47.34)

Note: (i) Figures in brackets indicate row-wise percentages. (ii) ST - Scheduled Tribe, SC – Scheduled Caste, OBC – Other Backward Class.

Source: Field Survey.

The distribution of migrant households on the basis of social group is presented in Table 4.6 and in Fig. 4.5. Here, it is seen that about 51 percent migrant households belong to SC category and about 47 percent belong to others that is General category whereas only 1 percent of migrant households belong to ST category in all six surveyed villages. There are no OBC category migrant households in any of the six surveyed villages. It is noticed from the above table that among the total number of six surveyed villages, in the first four villages the majority of the migrant households belong to Others that is General category compared to those other categories whereas in village 5 the majority of migrant households belong to SC category. Interestingly, we have found that all migrant households belong to SC category in village 6. Thus, it is observed from the above table that there is a dominance of SC category migrant households in total sample villages of the district.

Fig. 4.5



4.3 (a) (vi) Poverty Status

Table 4.7: Distribution of Migrant Households on the Basis of Poverty Status

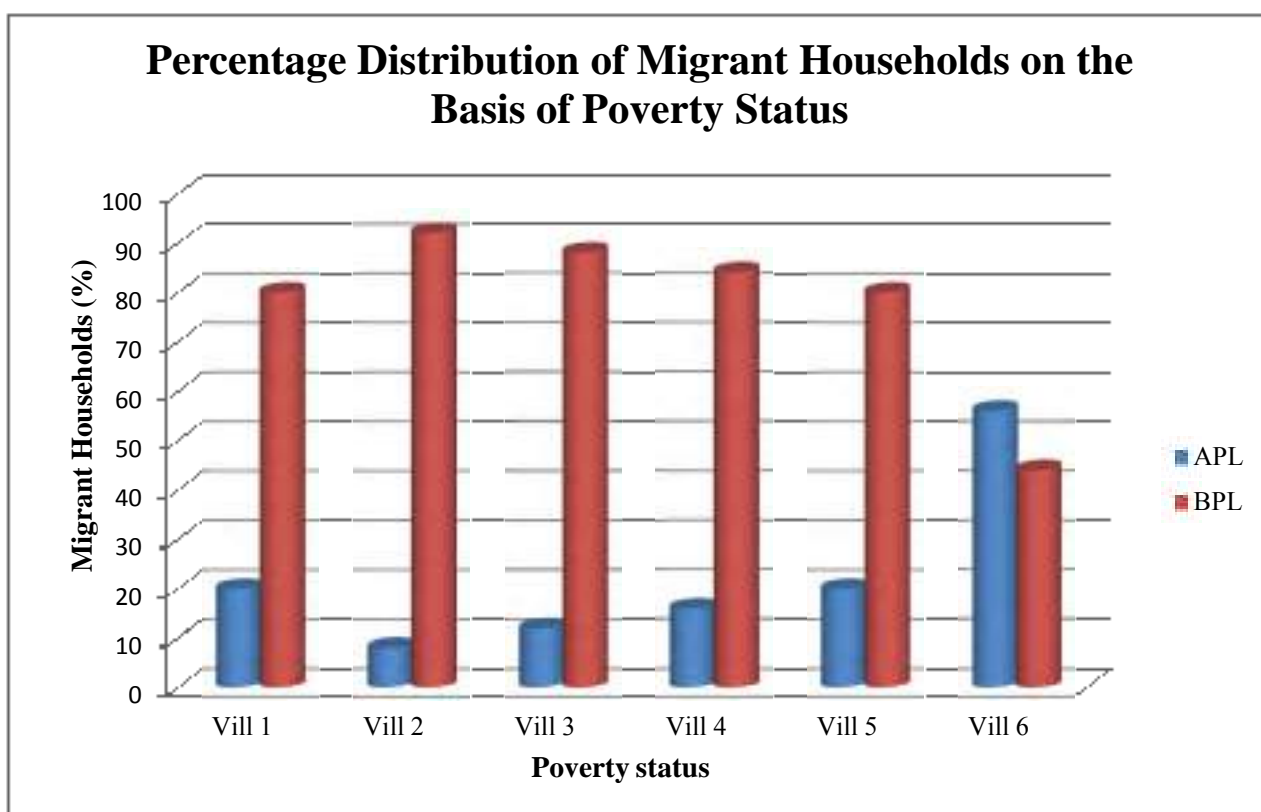
District	Village	Poverty Status		Total
		APL	BPL	
Cooch Behar	Vill 1	5(20.00)	20(80.00)	25(100.00)
	Vill 2	2(8.00)	23(92.00)	25(100.00)
	Vill 3	3(12.00)	22(88.00)	25(100.00)
	Vill 4	4(16.00)	21(84.00)	25(100.00)
	Vill 5	5(20.00)	20(80.00)	25(100.00)
	Vill 6	14(56.00)	11(44.00)	25(100.00)
	Total	33(22.00)	117(78.00)	150(100.00)

Note: (i) Figures in brackets indicate row-wise percentages. (ii) APL – Above Poverty Line, BPL – Below Poverty Line.

Source: Field Survey.

Table 4.7 shows the distribution of migrant households on the basis of poverty status which is graphically presented with the help of bar diagram in Fig. 4.6. It is seen from the above Table that only 22 percent migrant households belong to APL category whereas 78 percent migrant households belong to BPL category in total six surveyed villages of the district. The Table reveals that most of the migrant households of surveyed villages are under BPL category although there is a little exception in village 6 whereas 14 migrant households are under APL category and 11 migrant households entitled BPL category. It is observed that most of the migrant households who are under BPL category are landless whereas APL category migrant households have little agricultural land. The highest amount of migrant households of BPL category among six surveyed villages lie in village 2 and the lowest amount lie in village 6. On the other hand, the highest amount migrant households under APL category lie in village 6 and the lowest amount lie in village 2. Thus, it is revealed from the Table that there is a dominance of BPL category migrant households in total surveyed villages of the district.

Fig.4.6



4.3 (b) Socio-economic Profile of Migrant Workers of the Surveyed households

4.3 (b) (i) Educational Status / Educational Attainment of the Migrants

Table 4.8: Distribution of Educational Status of Member of Migrant Households (Gender-wise) in the District (Percentages)

District	Gender	No. of M/F	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	10	11	12	13	14	15
Cooc h Beha r	Male	100.00	31.15	00.00	00.00	00.00	00.00	35.83	13.82	12.18	5.39	1.40	0.23	00.00	00.00	00.00
	Female	100.00	42.72	03.01	00.00	00.00	00.00	29.72	13.00	10.53	3.41	0.31	00.00	00.00	00.00	00.00
	Total	100.00	36.13	01.03	00.00	00.00	00.00	33.20	13.47	11.47	4.53	0.94	0.13	00.00	00.00	00.00

Notes: (i) Figures indicate the row-wise percentage of total sample of villages/ district.

(ii) 1=Not literate; 2=Literate without any schooling; 3= Literate without formal schooling: literate through NFEC/AIEP; 4= Literate through TLC/AEC; 5= Others ; 6= Literate with formal schooling including EGS: below primary; 7= primary; 8= Upper primary/middle; 10=Secondary; 11= Higher secondary; 12=Diploma / Certificate course; 13=Graduate; 14=Post Graduate and above; 15= Technically educated.

Source: Field Survey.

The above table stands for the percentage distribution of educational status of member of migrant households in the survey district. It is expressed from the table that a majority percentage of household members in the district are illiterate. As many as 31 percent male members and almost 43 percent female members are illiterate. Among the literacy of male and female, the highest (35 percentage of male) and the highest (29 percent of female) belong to the below primary category, that is, who are just literate. The second largest category is comprised of the members who are educated upto primary level. This is followed by members in the levels of upper primary/middle school, secondary and higher secondary level. Members of the levels of graduate, post-graduate, certificate/diploma and technical education are insignificant. Thus, literacy and education levels of members of surveyed households reveal a deplorable condition. Indeed, it is a reflection of very low social and economic status of the migrant households.

Then the literate population comes in numerical strength in the category of upper primary or middle school level. The total literacy in this group is 11.47 percent of which share of males is 12.18 percent and that of females is 10.53 percent. Members with secondary education level form only 4.53 percent of total population of the household surveyed and gender wise it is 5.39 percent for males and 3.41 percent for females. Members with higher secondary level

form less than one percent that is only 0.94 percent of total population of the household surveyed and gender wise it is 1.40 percent for males and 0.31 percent for females.

Considering the education upto the level of diploma/ certificate course that forms less than one percent i.e., 0.13 percent of the total population of the households is investigated in the district. There is no any member of migrant who takes either the degree of graduation or post-graduation or technical level of education. Thus, the literacy levels of members of surveyed households expose a outrageous condition in which poverty is the root cause.

4.3 (b) (ii) Land Possession of the Migrant Households

Table 4.9: Distribution of Migrant Households on the Basis of Land Possession

District	Land Possessed (in Bighas)	Migrant Household	Migrant Household(in percentage)
Cooch Behar	Less than 1	93	62.00
	1.0 – 3.0	30	20.00
	3.1 – 7.5	19	12.67
	7.6 – 15.0	6	4.00
	15.1- 30.0	2	1.33
	Greater than 30.0	0	0.00
	Total		150

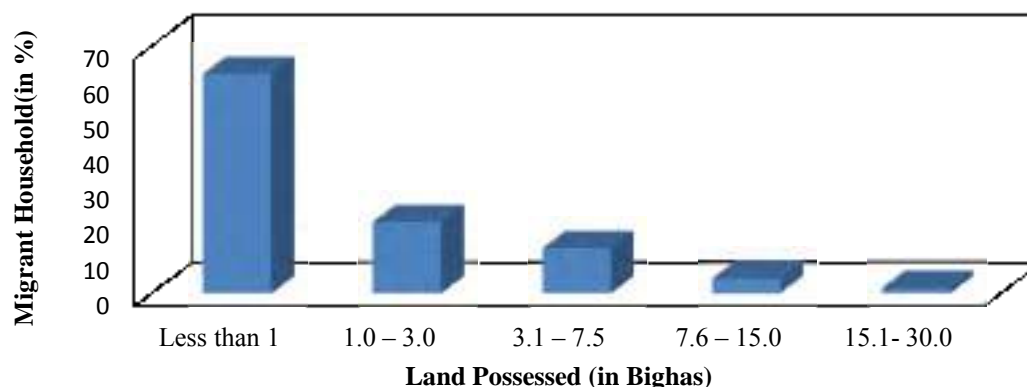
Source: Field Survey.

Table 4.9 and Fig. 4.7 present the distribution of migrant households on the basis of land possession. It is seen from the above table that out of 150 migrants' households of sample villages 93(62.00 percent) migrant households have land less than one bigha, that is, they are landless or near landless families. These migrant families are followed by 30 migrant families who have land between one bigha to three bighas. The migrant families who have land between three bighas to seven and half bighas are 19 (12.67 percent) families and 6 (4.00 percent) migrant families have land between more than seven and half bighas to fifteen bighas. Only 2 (1.33 percent) migrant families have land between more than fifteen bighas to thirty bighas. There are no any migrant families who have greater that thirty bighas of land. It is thus observed in the sample that the agricultural sector does not provide employment for

most of the migrant families throughout the year. There is also a huge deficiency of non-farm employment opportunities either in village or in local areas. Therefore, they do not have any other alternative but to migrate to various districts and states in India in search of employment to earn their livelihood.

Fig.4.7

Distribution of Migrant Households on the Basis of Land Possession



4.3 (b) (iii) Land Possession and Socio-economic Status of the Migrant Households

Table 4.10: Distribution of Migrant Households on the Basis of Land Possession and Socio-economic Category in the District

District	Land Possessed (in Bighas)	No. of Migrant Household	Social Status				Poverty Status	
			ST	SC	OBC	Others	APL	BPL
Cooch Behar	Less than 1	93(62.00)	2(100.00)	55(71.44)	0(0.00)	36(50.71)	30(90.91)	63(53.85)
	1.0 – 3.0	30(20.00)	0(0.00)	15(19.49)	0(0.00)	15(21.13)	3(9.09)	27(23.08)
	3.1 – 7.5	19(12.67)	0(0.00)	5(6.49)	0(0.00)	14(19.72)	0(0.00)	19(16.24)
	7.6 – 15.0	6(4.00)	0(0.00)	1(1.29)	0(0.00)	5(7.04)	0(0.00)	6(5.13)
	15.1- 30.0	2(1.33)	0(0.00)	1(1.29)	0(0.00)	1(1.40)	0(0.00)	2(1.70)
	Greater than 30.0	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)
	Total	150(100.00)	2(100.00)	77(100.00)	0(0.00)	71(100.00)	33(100.00)	117(100.00)

Note: (i) Figures in brackets indicate column-wise percentages. (ii) ST – Scheduled Tribe, SC – Scheduled Caste, OBC – Other Backward Class, APL – Above Poverty Line, BPL – Below Poverty Line.

Source: Field Survey.

The Table 4.10 shows the distribution of surveyed migrant households on the basis of land possession and socio-economic category in the district. It expresses in the table that there are six categories of land holding of migrant households. Among of these, most of the migrant households i.e. 62 percentages possessed land less than 1 bigha followed by 20 percentages that hold cultivable land between 1.0 bigha to 3.0 bighas. Only 1.33 percent migrant households possessed cultivable land between 15.1- 30.0 bighas.

Now, considering social status of the migrant households on the table, 100 percent of Scheduled Tribe (ST) migrant households possessed less than 1 bigha of arable land. Among Scheduled Caste (SC) community of migrant households, the highest 71.44 percent households possessed less than 1 bigha of cultivable land followed by 19.49 percent households who hold arable land between 1.0 bigha to 3.0 bighas. Just 1.29 percent of SC migrant households occupied between 15.1- 30.0 bighas of cultivable land. Surprisingly, there was no any percentage of Other Backward Class (OBC) migrant households who possessed land among six categories. In Others category of social status of migrant households, the highest 50.71 percent obtained less than 1 bigha of arable land followed by 21.13 percent of Others migrant households who occupied land between 1.0-3.0 bighas. Only 1.40 percent of Others category of migrant households possessed land between 15.1-30.0 bighas. So almost the same percent between SC and Others categories of migrant households hold the cultivable lands between 15.1-30.0 bighas.

As far as poverty status of migrant households is concerned, the highest 90.91 percent of APL migrant families possessed cultivable land less than 1 bigha followed by only 9.09 percent of the same category of migrant families occupied arable land between 1.0 bigha to 3.0 bighas. Among BPL migrant families, the majority percentages i.e. 53.85 percent migrant families hold less than 1 bigha of cultivable land followed by 23.08 percent that occupied arable land between 1.0 bigha to 3.0 bighas. The interesting result is noticed in the table that although 1.70 percent of BPL migrant households occupied between 15.1-30.0 bighas of cultivable land, there was no any percentage of APL migrant households who possessed the same amount of cultivable land. Including both social and poverty status of migrant households, there was no any percentage of migrant household who possessed greater than 30.0 bighas of cultivable land. Thus, it can be explored from the table that majority percentages of migrant households belonging to social status as well as poverty status possessed cultivable land less than 1 bigha and it is ultimately categorized as landless migrant families/households.

4.3 (b) (iv) Earning Status / Principal Earner of the Family

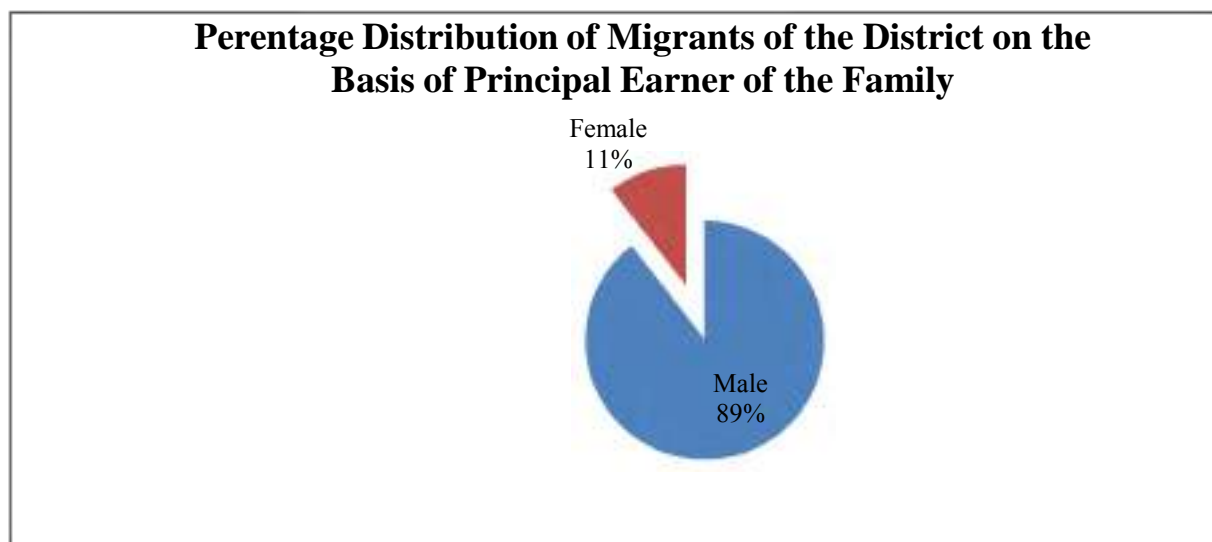
Table 4.11: Distribution of Migrants on the Basis of Principal Earner of the Family

District	Gender/ Sex	Migrants	Migrants (in percentage)
Cooch Behar	Male	187	89.47
	Female	22	10.53
	Total	209	100.00

Source: Field Survey.

Table 4.11 and Fig. 4.8 show the distribution of migrants on the basis of principal earner of the family in Cooch Behar district. The field survey data show that the total number of migrants who are the principal earner of the family is 209. Out of these, male migrants are 187 and female migrants are 22. It is revealed from the above table that 89.47 percent male migrants act as principal earner of the family and only 10.53 percent female migrants perform as principal earner of the family. They are engaged with a number of principal activities. So, the migrant families are mainly dependent upon the male migrants to maintain their socio-economic conditions.

Fig. 4.8



4.3 (b) (v) Occupational Engagement

Table 4.12: Distribution of Work Status / Occupational Engagement of Members of Migrant Households (Gender-wise) in the District (in percentages)

District	Gender	No. of M / F	11	12	21	31	41	51	81	91	92	93	95	97
Cooch Behar	Male	100.00	8.20	1.17	0.23	17.80	2.34	33.49	0.00	20.38	2.81	1.17	1.17	11.24
	Female	100.00	4.02	0.00	4.02	3.41	0.62	13.93	0.31	24.15	36.84	0.00	1.55	11.15
	Total	100.00	6.40	0.67	1.87	11.60	1.60	25.07	0.13	22.00	17.47	0.66	1.33	11.20

Notes: (i) Figure in brackets indicate the percentage of total sample of villages/ districts

(ii) 11= Worked in h. h. enterprise (self-employed): own account worker; 12= Employer; 21=Worked as helper on h. h. enterprise (unpaid family worker); 31=Worked as regular salaried/wage employee; 41= Worked as casual wage labour: in public works; 51= In other types of work; 81= Did not work but was seeking and/or available for work; 91=Attended educational institution; 92=Attend domestic duties only; 93=Attended domestic duties and also engaged in free collection of goods (Vegetables, roots, firewoods, cattle feed, etc), sewing, tailoring, weaving, etc. for household use; 94=Rentiers, pensioners, remittances recipients, etc.; 95=Not able to work due to disability; 97=Others (including begging, prostitution, etc.).

Source: Field Survey.

The distribution of work status/ occupational engagement of members of migrant households in the district is presented in Table 4.12. It can be shown from the Table that 8.20 percent male members worked in household enterprise categorized as own account worker, whereas only 4.02 percent female members were engaged in the same. Very few percent, i.e. 1.17 percent male members engaged as employer. There was no any percentage of female members of the survey households who engaged as employer. Among the work status categories of members of survey households, the minimum percentage i.e. 0.23 percent male members are engaged as helper on household enterprise who do not get payment and the highest 36.84 percent female members who attended only domestic duties. There was no any male member who was assumed to be engaged as seeking for work and also there was no any female member who either attended the domestic duties or engaged in collection of free goods, sewing, tailoring, weaving etc. for household use. Only 1.17 percent male members are not able to work due to disability and 1.55 percent of female members who are slightly more than the percentage of male members did not work due to the same reason as stated above. A quite good percentage i.e. 22 percent of male and female members of surveyed households attended educational institutions. Interestingly, it is revealed from the Table that more or less the same percentage of male and female members of survey households engaged in other works like begging, social works in the local areas etc. The highest 25.07 percent of male and female members of surveyed households were engaged in other types of work like building construction labour, road construction labour, mason, shuttering labour etc. and the lowest 0.13 percent male and female members were not engaged in work but for seeking or

available to get work. So, it can be observed from the Table that most of the male and female members of migrant surveyed households engaged as regular salaried or wage employee and other types of work like mason, shuttering labour, building construction labour etc. although there is a lack or crisis of work in the local area throughout the year.

4.3 (b) (vi) Subsidiary Occupation

Table 4.13: Distribution of Members of Migrant Households on the Basis of Subsidiary Occupation

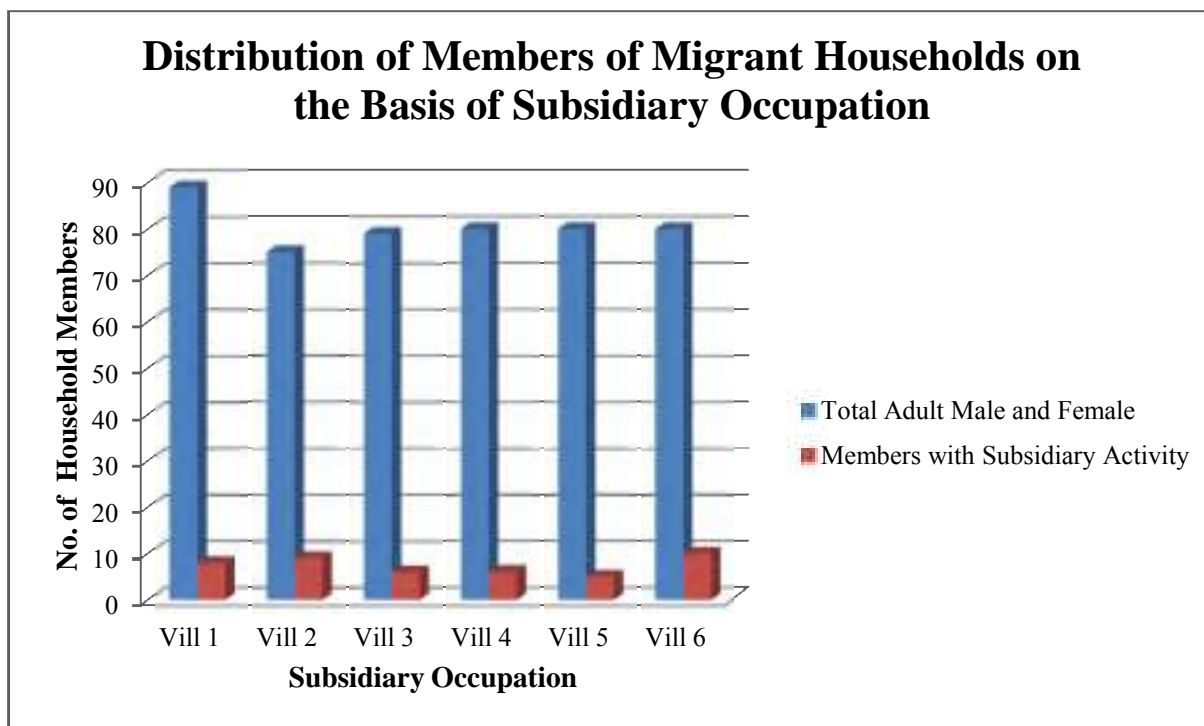
District	Village (Vill)	Total No. of Adult Male and Female	Members with Subsidiary Activity	% Engaged in Subsidiary Activity
Cooch Behar	Vill 1	89	8	8.99
	Vill 2	75	9	12.00
	Vill 3	79	6	7.59
	Vill 4	80	6	7.50
	Vill 5	80	5	6.25
	Vill 6	80	10	12.50
	Total	483	44	9.11

Source: Field Survey.

The distribution of members of migrant households based on subsidiary occupation is presented in Table 4.13 and in Fig. 4.9. We have surveyed 150 migrant households of six villages in Cooch Behar district. The Table shows that the total numbers of adult male and female migrant households were 483 in which there were only 44 members i.e., 9.11 percent were engaged with subsidiary occupation in six villages of Cooch Behar district. Among six villages, the highest number of members i.e., 10 who were engaged with subsidiary activity lies in Vill 6 and the lowest number of members i.e., 5 who were engaged with subsidiary activity lies in Vill 5. As a percentage, Vill 6 occupied the highest percentage i.e., 12.50 engaging with subsidiary activity, Vill 2 occupied the second most percentage i.e., 12.00 engaging with subsidiary activity followed by Vill 6 and Vill 5 occupied the lowest percentage i.e., 6.25 engaging with subsidiary activity. So, it is revealed from the above Table

that very few members were engaged with subsidiary activity in each village to maintain their socio-economic status of the families.

Fig. 4.9



4.4: Test of Hypothesis-1

1. Mainly workers from weaker socio-economic background migrate from rural to urban areas.

We have tested hypothesis-1 in this chapter through the tabular forms and with figures.

From the Tables 4.5, 4.6, 4.7 and 4.9 and the Figures 4.4, 4.5, 4.6 and 4.7, we have found regarding profile of religion that out of 100 percent migrant households of surveyed villages, 68 percent migrant households belong to Hinduism whereas 32 percent belong to Muslims. There are no Christian migrant households in any of the sample villages of Cooch Behar district. So, there is supremacy of Hindu migrant households in total sample villages of the district. Regarding caste distribution, about 51 percent migrant households belong to SC category and about 47 percent belong to others that is General category whereas only 1 percent of migrant households belong to ST category in all six surveyed villages. So, majority

percentages of migrant households belong to SC category. Regarding poverty status and land possession of migrants, we have found that most of the migrant households are under BPL category who possess land less than one bigha, that is, they are landless or near landless families and few belong to APL category who have little agricultural land. Thus, overall it is observed that migrant workers of the district mainly belong to weaker socio-economic background. Therefore, the hypothesis-1 is true in this context and in this way it is tested.

4.5: Demographic and Socio-Economic Description of the Surveyed Villages in Cooch Behar District of West Bengal

Surveyed Villages in Cooch Behar District

(i) Chhotonatabari (Vill 1) (Census 2001 Code number: 279)

The village Chhotonatabari is under the Goshanimari II Gram Panchayet in Dinhata – I Block in the district of Cooch Behar. It is situated at a distance of 14 km to the west of Dinhata Town. The village is almost round shaped. In one side of the village there are some scattered households.

A recently constructed road under ‘Pradhan Mantri Gram Sarak Yojana’ passes through the middle of the village. Besides, under ‘Sampurna Gramin Rojgar Yojana’ one road has been made. There is no primary or secondary school in the village. Only one Shisu Siksha Kendra (SSK) is present there. Bara Natabari village is situated in the western side of the village. In Bara Natabari, there is a primary and a secondary school. So the Students of primary and secondary level of Chhoto Natabari normally go to the Bara Natabari schools. No river passes through the village. According to Census 2001, the total population of the village was 938, out of which 500 were male and 438 were female. Most of the families of this village are poor. They are almost illiterate. Tobacco and Paddy are the main crops of this village. The lands are rain-fed. It is a Muslim dominated village. There are very few Hindu families who live in the western corner of the village. Most of them belong to Scheduled Castes community.

In census 2001, the total literacy rate of the village was 53.7 percent, out of which 58.9 percent were male and 47.8 were female. Most of the families have very small amount of agricultural land and some families are landless. So, due to shortage of agricultural land, poverty and lack of employment in the local area, members from most families migrate to

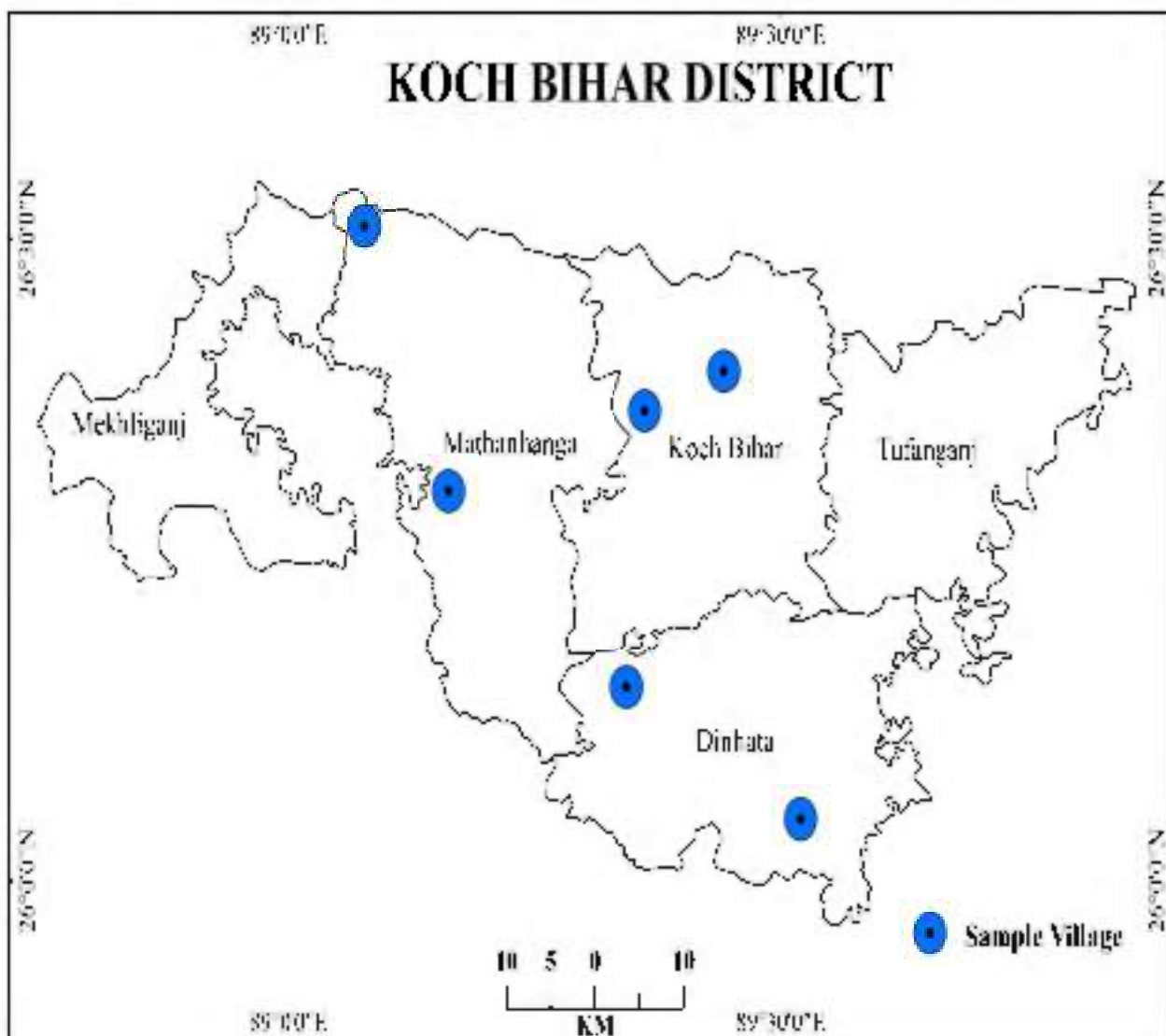
various other districts of West Bengal like Darjeeling and Jalpaiguri and to other states like Hariyana, Maharastra, Delhi etc.

(ii) Dakshin Kharija Gitaldaha (Vill 2) (Census 2001 Code number: 399)

The village Dakshin Karija Gitaldaha is on the Gitaldaha II Gram Panchayet under Dinhata-I Block of Cooch Behar District. It is situated at a distance of and 15 kilometers to the south of Dinhata town near Bangladesh border. A metalled road passes through the village. According to Census 2001, the total population of the village was 2,274 out of which 1,193 were male and 1,081 were female. There are almost equal numbers of Hindu and Muslim families in the village.

‘Singijani’ river passes through the western side of the village. The river remains dry almost throughout the year except for the rainy season. In rainy season flood occurs in the river. At the time of flood some agricultural lands are inundated and crops are damaged. The main livelihood of people of the village is cultivation. Irrigation is done by using pump machine. For some time of the year, rivers help to get lands irrigated. In census 2001, the total literacy rate of this village was 50.9 percent out of which 61.9 percent were male and 39.2 percent were female. Most of the families of this village are poor and they have very small amount of agricultural land. Due to shortage of agricultural land and lack of employment opportunity in the local area, members from most of the families migrate to various districts of West Bengal and other districts of India.

Map 4.1



(iii) Uttar Gopalpur (Vill 3) (Census 2001 Code number: 068)

Uttar Gopalpur village is under the Gopalpur Gram Panchayet in Cooch Behar II Block of the district of Cooch Behar. It is situated at a distance of 18 kilometers towards the north of Cooch Behar Town. It is a Hindu dominated village. Few Muslim families live in one portion of the village. According to Census 2001, the total population of the village was 11,800 out of which 6,095 were male and 5,705 were female. A portion of the village has metalled and semi-metalled roads but most parts of the village have non metalled road.

The river 'Ghoramara' passes through the village but remains dry for most time of the year. For this reason, the river water is not enough for the irrigation of village lands. Most of the

families have very little agricultural land and are economically backward. There is a primary School, Secondary (H.S) School and a sub-primary health centre in the village. According to census 2001, the total literacy rate of the village was 76.3 percent out of which 85.3 percent were male and 66.5 percent were female. Due to scanty agricultural land and lack of employment opportunity in the local area, members from most of the families out migrate to various districts of West Bengal and other states of India.

(iv) Sajerpar Ghoramara (Vill 4) (Census 2001 Code number: 055)

The village Sajerpar Ghoramara is under the pundibari Gram panchayat of Cooch Behar II block of Cooch Behar district. It is situated at a distance of 12 kms. to the west of Cooch Behar Town. Sajerpar village is one of the biggest villages of Cooch Behar II block. A high way and train line passes through the village Sajerpar. It has four hamlets, namely, Ghoramar, Sajerpar, Paschimpara and Bahanna ghar. There are four members of Gram panchayet from the village. According to Census 2001, the total population of the village was 5,171 out of which 2,663 were male and 2,508 were female.

Torsha river flows along the western side of the village. The water of the river helps in irrigation. The main crop is paddy. The irrigation is done by pump machine. Paddy crop is cultivated two times in a year. Most of the families have small amount of agricultural land and they earn their livelihood from agricultural land. Some families are very poor. They have no agricultural land. Most of the families belong to Hindu community. Some families belong to Muslim community. According to census 2001, the total literacy rate of the village was 72.1 percent out of which 80.5 percent were male and 63.0 percent were female. Due to poverty and lack of employment members from most of the families migrate to other districts of West Bengal and states like Assam, Arunachal Pradesh and Maharashtra etc.

(v) Ashokbari- I (Vill 5) (Census 2001 Code number: 765)

The village Ashokbari -I is under the Bairagirhat Gram Panchayat in Mathabhanga-I block in the district of Cooch Behar. It is situated at a distance of 14 kilometers to the west of Mathabhanga Town at the border of Bangladesh. A high way passes through the village. The road communication is satisfactory. There are a primary school and a primary health centre in the village. There is no river or cannel system in the village. According to census 2001, the total population of the village was 5,175 out of which 2,612 were male and 2,563 were female.

Most of the lands are fertile. Tobacco and paddy are the main crops of this village. Besides, seasonal vegetables like cabbage, cauliflower, brinjal, potato etc. are cultivated widely in the village. Shallow tube well is used by operating pump machine for irrigating the cultivable land of the village. There is a poultry firm in the village in which some people are engaged on weekly or monthly salary basis. Most of the families possess agricultural land and some families are landless. So some families maintain their subsistence by working as agricultural labour in the local area. In census 2001, total literacy rate of the village was 57.7 percent out of which 69.2 percent were male and 45.9 percent were female. So, there is a huge gender gap in literacy. Due to shortage of agricultural land and lack of employment opportunity in the local area etc., members from most of the families migrate to states like Kerala, Karnataka, Assam etc.

(vi) Joreshimuli (Vill 6) (Census 2001 Code number: 714)

The village Joreshimuli is under the jurisdiction of Kedarhat Gram panchayet of Mathabhanga I block of the district of Cooch Behar. It is situated at a distance of about 25 kilometres North-east of Mathabhanga town. It is a very remote village of the block. According to Census 2001, the total population of the village was 4,215 out of which 2,176 were male and 2,039 were female. The village is situated on the bank of river Jaldhaka. Every year flood occurs in Jaldhaka river. Due to flood agricultural crops are damaged almost every year.

Joreshimuli is a Hindu community dominated village. In one side of the village, there are some Muslim families. Most of the families belong to scheduled castes. According to census 2001, the total literacy rate of the village was 63.2 percent out of which 76.8 percent were male and 48.4 percent were female. So there is a vast gender gap in literacy. Most of the families have very little agricultural land. Due to short of agricultural and lack of employment opportunity in the local area most of the families send migrants to various states like Karnataka, Maharashtra, Delhi etc. to earn higher levels of income.

CHAPTER-V

TREND, PATTERN AND FEATURES OF RURAL-URBAN MIGRATION IN THE STUDY AREA

5.1 Introduction

It has been observed through our field survey in the selected villages of our survey district that rural to urban migration has three important features or characteristics. The first one, migration is largely a distressed phenomenon which is shown in Chapter VI. Migration occurred among the people resulting from their acute poverty. The second feature is that there is no waiting period to the migrants in destinations because of the amalgamation for jobs is ready to them. The absorption for employment is secured through a social network at different migration location. The third and final important characteristic is that migration occurred on a temporary basis. The duration of their migration period varies from one month to five years.

Migration from rural areas to urban areas of Cooch-Bihar district is a recent phenomenon. The beginning of the recent massive rural exodus from this district is just 15 years ago. Initially for people migrated for employment elsewhere in other states of India like Delhi, Gujarat, Rajasthan etc. gradually their number has multiplied by leaps and bounds. It is the success of the initial migrants in terms of income and gains in social status that has encouraged the latter stream of migrants.

Various social, economic and demographic factors have influenced the nature, characteristics and pattern of migration in our study area. In some cases 'political economy' factors also might have been active. But we have not made an enquiry on that issue. We have made below a detailed analysis of the trend, nature, characteristics and pattern of migration in our study area.

5.2 Trend and Pattern of Migrants of the Surveyed Households in the Study Area.

5.2.1 Nature of Migration

We have shown here about the nature of migration of surveyed households whether there is partial family migration or there is full family migration through our field investigation. The Table 5.1 below represents the nature of migration in respect of whether migration took place with full family or with partial family i.e., whether all the members of a family migrated or one or a few members migrated and also depicted it in a bar diagram in Fig. 5.1.

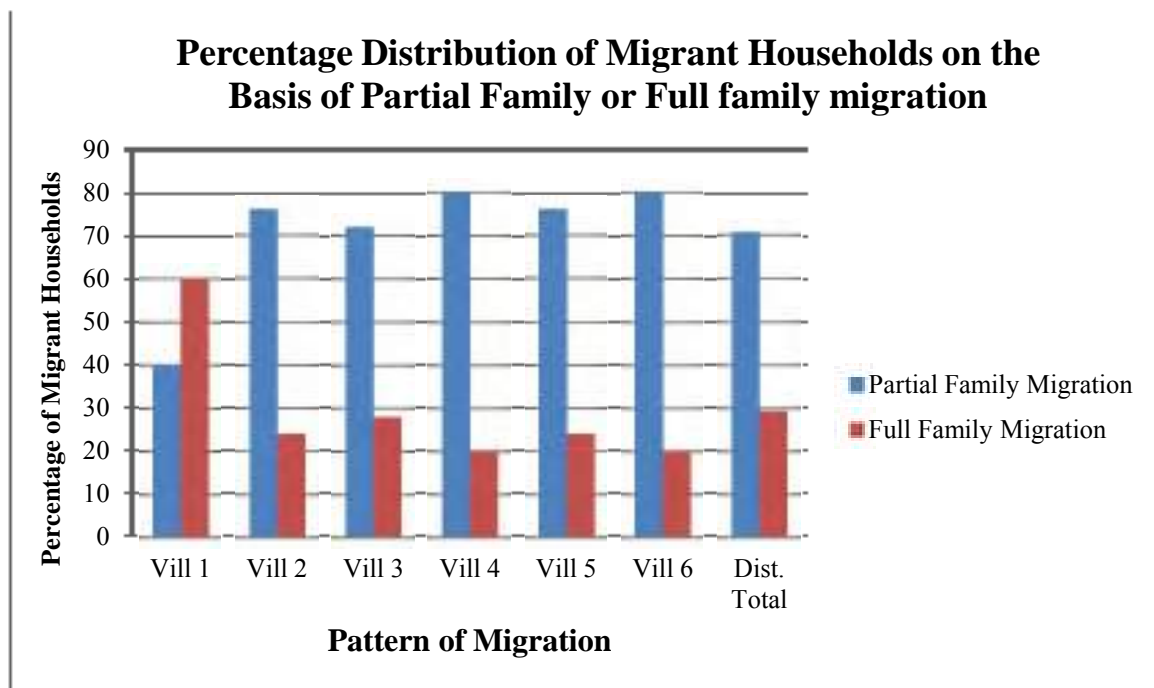
Village	Partial Family (No.)	Partial Family (per cent)	Full Family (No.)	Full Family (per cent)
Village 1	10	40.00	15	60.00
Village 2	19	76.00	06	24.00
Village 3	18	72.00	07	28.00
Village 4	20	80.00	05	20.00
Village 5	19	76.00	06	24.00
Village 6	20	80.00	05	20.00
Dist. Total	106	70.67	44	29.33

Source: Field Survey.

It is revealed from the above Table that the incidence of migration with full family is lower i.e. 44 percent compared to the incidence of migration with partial family i.e. about 71 percent of the surveyed households of Cooch Behar district. Migrants who have migrated with the entire family is the highest (60 percent) in Village 1 and the lowest (20 per cent) in both Villages 4 and 6 in the district. On the other hand, migrants who have migrated with the few family members is the highest (80 percent) for both villages 4 and 6 and the lowest (40 percent) in village 1. So, majority of the surveyed households have migrated with the few

family members and there is also a quite inter-village variations with this two types of migration based on nature.

Fig. 5.1



It may be noted that there are both advantages and disadvantages of migration with full family. In the case of full family migration every one can contribute in earning income at destination. There is no worry for the elderly and young left at the origin. But in case children are accompanied at destination, then they are deprived of getting the basic education.

5.2.2 Gender Division of Migrants

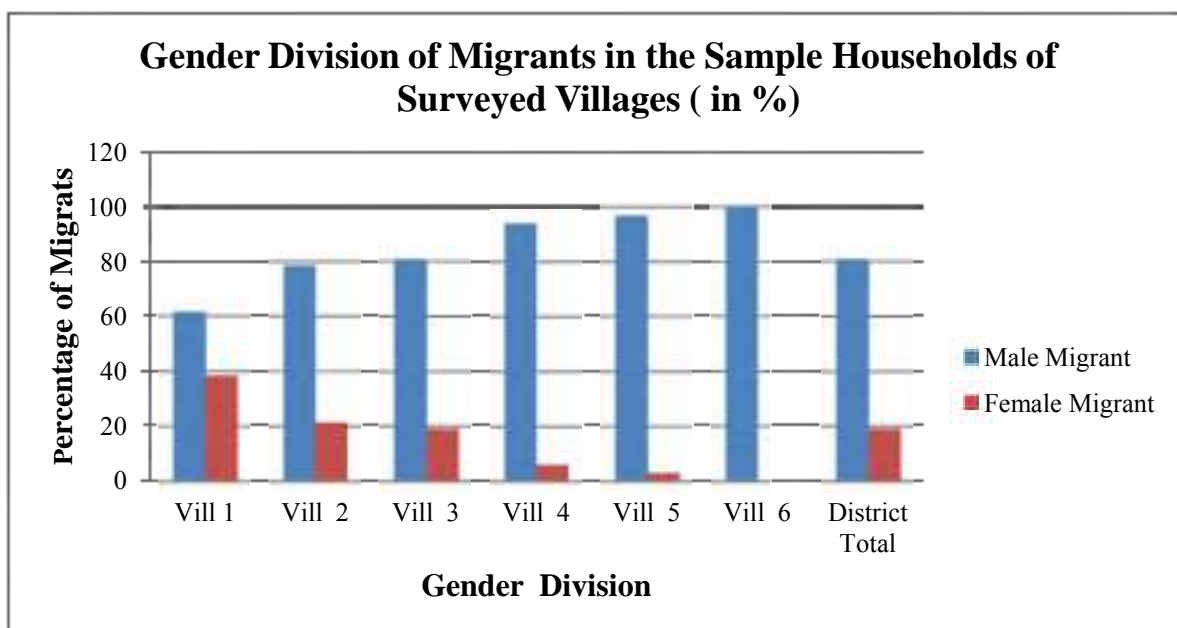
Gender division of migrants is an obvious object of enquiry for migration study. Here, the gender division of migrants in the sample households of surveyed district is represented in Table 5.2 below and is graphically presented with the help of bar diagram in Fig.5.2.

Table – 5.2			
Gender Division of Migrants in the Sample Households			
of Surveyed Villages (in %)			
Villages	Male Migrant	Female Migrant	Total
Village 1	45(61.64)	28(38.36)	73(100.00)
Village 2	33(78.57)	9(21.43)	42(100.00)
Village 3	34(80.95)	8(19.05)	42(100.00)
Village 4	31(93.94)	02(6.06)	33(100.00)
Village 5	30(96.77)	01(3.23)	31(100.00)
Village 6	31(100.00)	00(00.00)	31(100.00)
District total	204(80.95)	48(19.05)	252(100.00)

Source: Field Survey.

It is indicated in the above Table that nearly 81 percent migrant members are male and about 19 percent are female and there is also much inter-village variations among female migrants compared to male migrants. This means that the migrant families are in a vulnerable condition. This is because except in cases of dire need generally female members would like to stay at home to look after the children and elderly. But when possibilities of earning livelihood at the locality of the households is in extremely short supply in those cases only female members would migrate. This is more so in view of the fact that most of the female migrants are illiterate and thus there is no scope for them to be employed in better paid occupations. Actual fact for migration is that most of the female migrants of the surveyed households accompany their spouse/children / relatives to cook food and look after the household matters at the living place of their destinations.

Fig. 5.2



5.2.3 Proportion of Children Migrants

The proportion of children migrant in total children of the surveyed households across the surveyed villages of the district is presented in Table 5.3 and Fig. 5.3 below. By children migrant we mean those whose age is up to 14 years.

Village	Total Children	Migrant Children	Proportion	Percentage
Village 1	45	17	0.38	37.78
Village 2	39	07	0.18	17.94
Village 3	24	03	0.12	12.50
Village 4	48	01	0.02	2.08
Village 5	28	00	0.00	0.00
Village 6	36	01	0.03	2.78
District Total	220	29	0.13	13.18

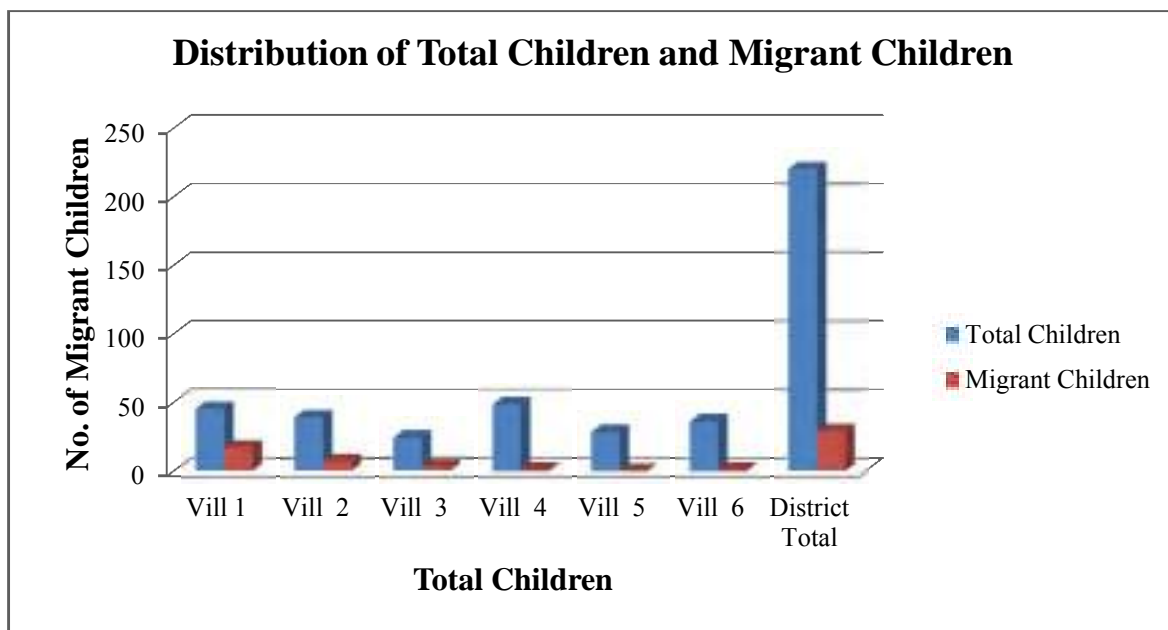
Source: Field Survey.

The data indicated in the Table show that out of 220 children of surveyed villages, only 29 children have migrated with their parents or with their family members that constitute only

about 13 percent i.e., 0.13 in portion of the total children of the migrant households in the district. It can also be seen that there are variations in the incidence of migrant children across the villages. In the surveyed households of the district there are no migrant children in village 5 and only 1 migrant children each of villages 4 and 6 and the highest migrant children (17) could be found in village 1. So, few percentages of children from the total children have migrated outside the district/ state with their parents or with their family members.

Children who migrate along with their family members, relatives and friends are deprived of the charms of their childhood and deprived of getting their schooling. Some of the migrant children do not work in destination. They are not enrolled in school there as most of them are not permanent migrants. They cannot also be enrolled in schools at origin as they do not live there throughout the year. Therefore, the society loses an opportunity to convert this big chunk of population to human resources. It may therefore be said that all such migrant children taken together in India therefore constitute a big number and constitute a permanent and colossal loss of opportunity to produce human resources of the country.

Fig. 5.3



5.2.4 Distribution of Out Migrants on the Basis of Age

The selected Cooch Behar district of West Bengal in our research study on rural-urban migration, it appears that age plays a very important role in understanding its relationship with different variables like destination, education, religion etc. Before showing the relationship among all these variables with migration let us first look at the migration pattern on the basis of age. Table 5.4 shows the distribution of out-migrants regarding the age while Fig.5.4 is the graphical presentation of it.

Village	Upto 14	15-30	31-45	Above 45	Total
Village 1	22(30.14)	33(45.21)	12(16.44)	6(8.21)	73(100.00)
Village 2	7(16.67)	18(42.86)	15(35.71)	2(4.76)	42(100.00)
Village 3	3(7.14)	26(61.91)	9(21.43)	4(9.52)	42(100.00)
Village 4	1(3.03)	23(69.70)	7(21.21)	2(6.06)	33(100.00)
Village 5	0(0.00)	25(80.65)	6(19.35)	0(0.00)	31(100.00)
Village 6	1(3.23)	22(70.96)	7(22.58)	1(3.23)	31(100.00)
District Total	34(13.49)	147(58.33)	56(22.22)	15(5.96)	252(100.00)

Note: Figure in brackets indicate row percentages.

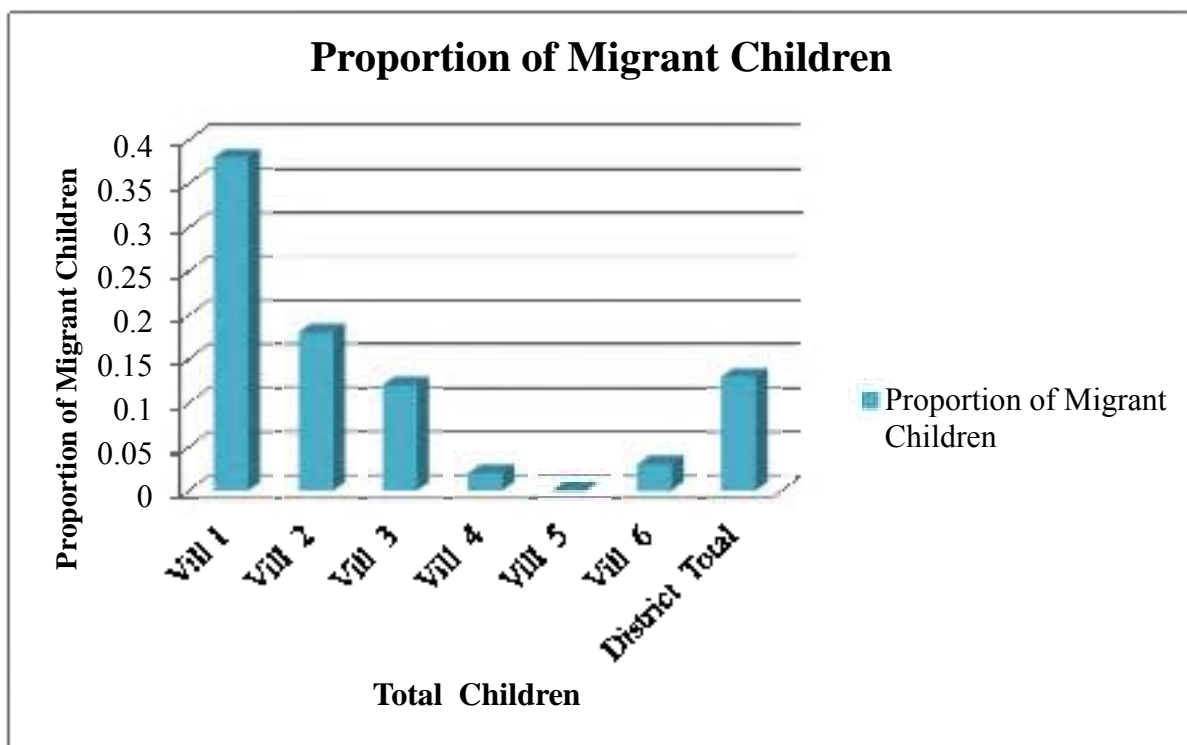
Source: Field Survey.

It is evident from the table that the highest percentage (about 58 percent) of migrants lie in the age group of 15-30, followed by the age-group of 31-45 (about 22 percent), the age-group of upto 14 (about 13 percent) and the age-group of above 45 (nearly 6 percent). So, the age-group of above 45 comprises the lowest and relatively much lower number of migrants as well as lower percentage (about 6 percent) of migrants. However, there are also much inter-village variations among different ages of out-migrants. Thus, the majority percentages of migrants who migrate outside the district belong to the age group of 15-30.

The matter of concern is of course, the group of population belonging to age upto 14. This is because; all children of this age group who are above 6 years of age are actually either drop out from school or did not attend school either at primary level or at secondary level. While

migration of population with age 15 and above has no legal bar in entering the work force, the age-group of population below 14 years engaged in work are considered as child labour. This latter group of population is expected to be students in primary and secondary schools. Failure to retain them is a failure on the part of the state and society. But we can see that this has happened in the district of our study. While the total number of such cases is 34 (nearly 14 percent) that leads the migration of distress.

Fig. 5.4



5.2.5 Distribution of Migrants On the Basis of Age and Gender

Table 5.5 below shows the distribution of migrants on the basis of age and gender while Fig. 5.5 is the graphical presentation of it. . It is revealed that the district taken as a whole highest number of migrants from the age group of 15-30 years (about 61 percent) of male members followed by female members (44 percent) of the same age group.

Table – 5.5

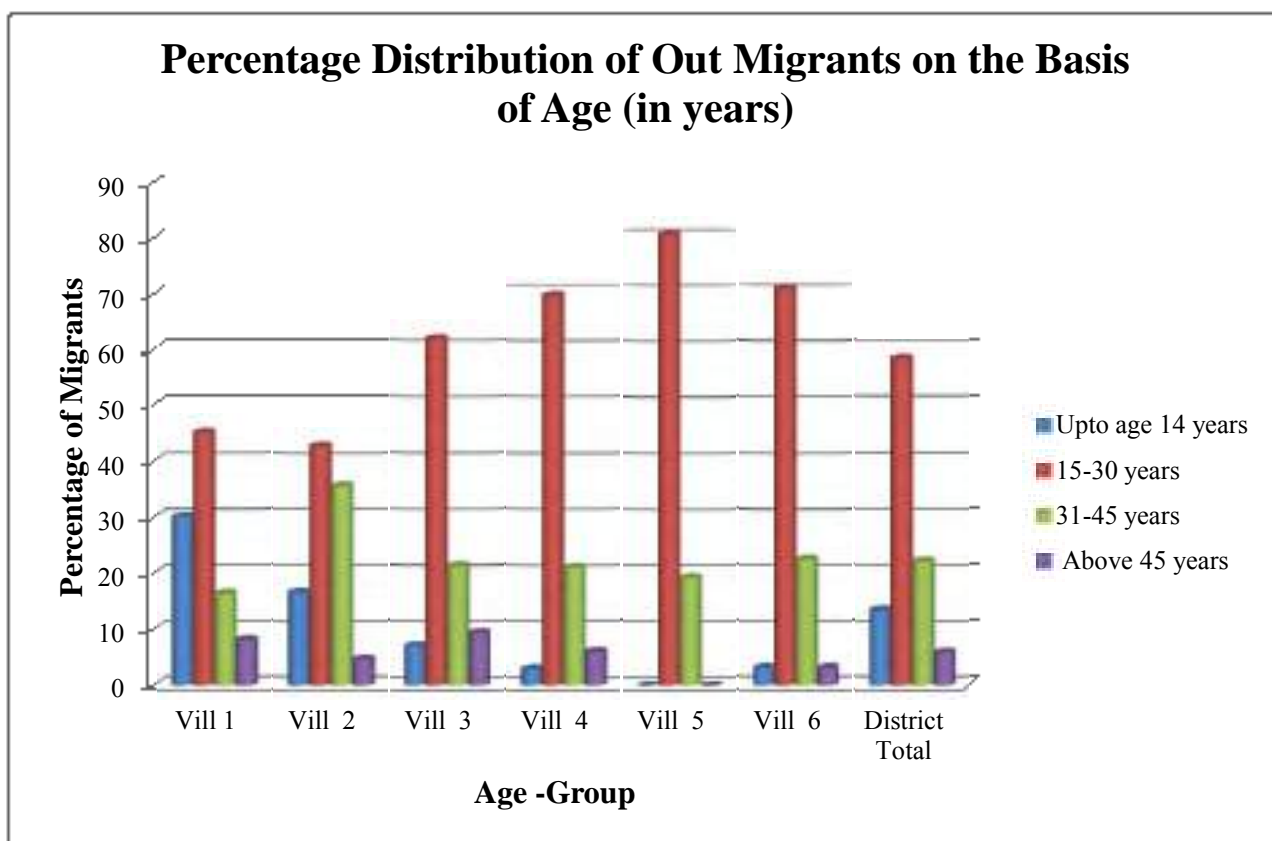
Distribution of Migrants on the Basis of Age & Gender (Percentages)

Village	Upto 14		15-30		31-45		Above 45		Total	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Vill 1	28.89	32.14	44.44	42.86	17.78	17.86	8.89	7.14	100.00	100.00
Vill 2	9.09	44.45	48.49	22.22	36.36	33.33	6.06	0.00	100.00	100.00
Vill 3	5.88	12.50	61.76	62.50	20.59	25.00	11.77	0.00	100.00	100.00
Vill 4	3.23	0.00	70.96	50.00	22.58	0.00	3.23	50.00	100.00	100.00
Vill 5	0.00	0.00	80.65	100.00	19.35	0.00	0.00	0.00	100.00	100.00
Vill 6	3.23	0.00	70.96	0.00	22.58	0.00	3.23	0.00	100.00	0.000
Dist. Total	9.76	29.17	61.46	43.75	22.93	20.83	5.85	6.25	100.00	100.00

Source: Field Survey

The second group is that of age group of 31-45 years of male (about 23 percent) and female (about 21 percent) members. The third group is formed by the age group of members with age upto 14 years of female (about 29 percent) and male (10 percent) members. Thus higher number of female members of age group upto 14 years have migrated compared to male members. The last group is composed of the migrants of the age group above 45 years of female (6.25 percent) and male (5.85 percent) members. Thus, it is expected that the incidence of migration decreases with increase in age. However, there are inter-village variations among different age categories of male and female migrants. In villages 2 and 3, there is no any female migrant of the age group above 45 years. The age groups comprised of upto age of 14 and age of 31-45, there are no female migrants and in village 5, there is no any male and female migrants who actually formed the age group upto 14, no any female member of the age group 31-45 and the age group comprised of the age above 45, there is no any male and female migrant. It is interestingly noticed that in village 6, there is no even a single female migrant of the mentioned age categories. So, many variations between categories of different age groups are observed among surveyed households. Therefore, the major percentages of male and female migrants belong to the age group of 15-30 who migrate outside the district/ state to earn their livelihood and also to maintain socio-economic status of the families.

Fig. 5.5



5.2.6 Destination of Migrants

We have found through our field investigation that there are different types of destination of migrants of the surveyed households. Most of migrant workers have migrated within the country and very few migrated outside the country. We now analyse below about the types of destination of migrants of the surveyed households.

First of all, destination of migrants is important on a number of counts. First, it shows a kind of exposure of migrants to the outside places. Migration to nearer places may indicate that their information about outside places of work is limited and the faraway places may indicate the opposite. Secondly, earning of migrants may be positively related to the distance of migration. Employment at faraway places compared to nearby places may be associated with higher paid work and vice-versa. Thirdly, migration distance may be an indicator of education level of the migrants. Generally migration to long distance places is associated with higher level of education of the migrants, because to cope with the language and culture of destination a higher level of literacy and education is very likely to be necessary. Fourthly, distance of migration may be reflective of age-group of migrants. It may be expected that

people with younger age group (15-30) would migrate to long distance places as the journey involves stress and strain. Fifthly, it may be reflective also of their ability to take risk and adjust with different socio-economic, weather and cultural conditions. It may be believed that young and educated people are more risk taking compared to the too young and elderly people.

Village	1	2	3	4	Total
Vill 1	0(0.00)	9(12.33)	64(87.67)	0(0.00)	73(100.00)
Vill 2	1(2.38)	1(2.38)	40(95.24)	0(0.00)	42(100.00)
Vill 3	0(0.00)	14(33.33)	28(66.67)	0(0.00)	42(100.00)
Vill 4	1(3.03)	3(9.09)	25(75.76)	4(12.12)	33(100.00)
Vill 5	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	31(100.00)	0(0.00)	31(100.00)
Vill 6	2(6.45)	1(3.23)	28(90.32)	0(0.00)	31(100.00)
Dist. total	4(1.59)	28(11.11)	216(85.71)	4(1.59)	252(100.00)

Notes: (i) Figure in brackets indicates row percentages

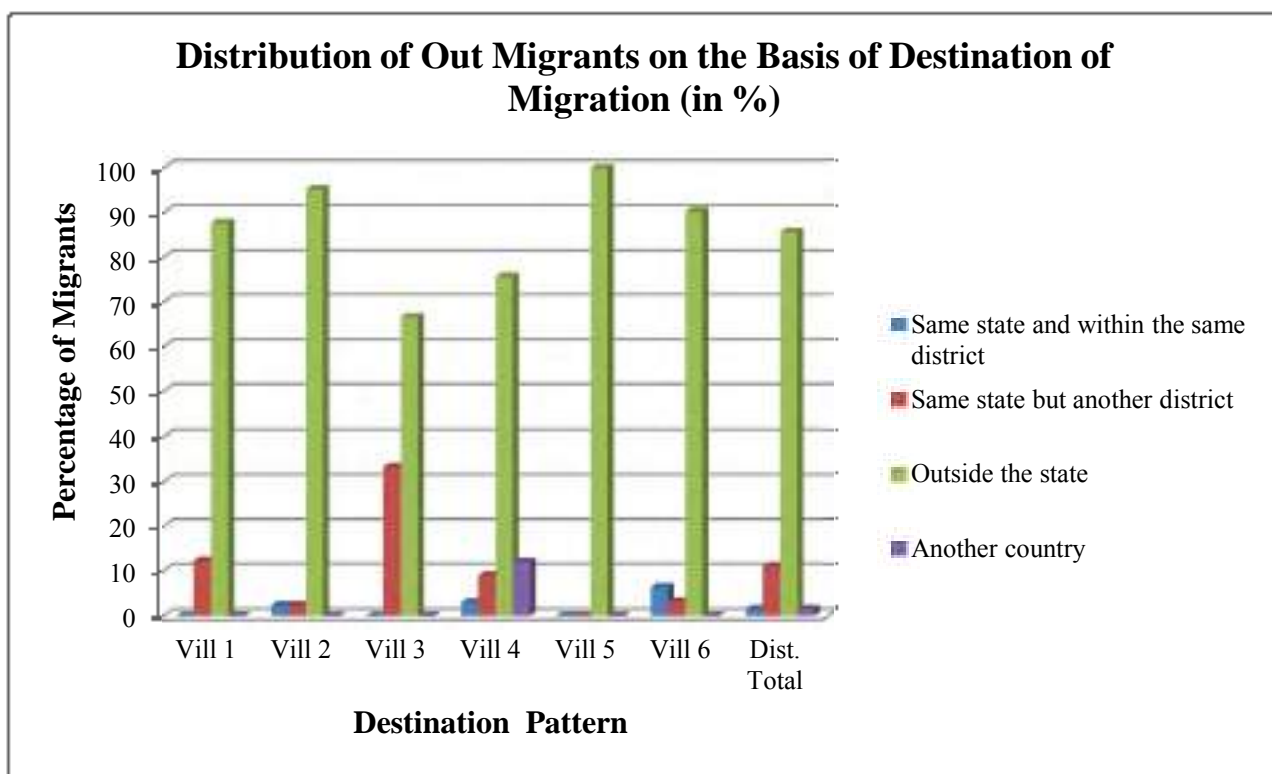
(ii) (1) Same state and within the same district (2) Same state but another district (3) Outside the state

(4) Another country.

Source: Field Survey.

The distribution of migrants on the basis of destination of migration is represented in the Table 5.6 above, which is diagrammatically presented in Fig. 5.6 below. It can be seen that the highest percentage of migrants, that is, nearly 86 percent migrants have migrated outside the state followed by about 11 percent migrated to another district of West Bengal, and about 2 percent migrated either in another place of the same district or in another country from the surveyed households of the district. However, there is a huge inter-village variation among the patterns of migration of out migrants. Thus the majority percentages of migrants have migrated outside the state for either in search of employment or in search of better employment opportunity in the destination areas and also marked differences among different migration patterns are observed from the surveyed villages in the district.

Fig. 5.6



5.2.7 Sector of Employment in Destination

The sector in which the migrant workers are employed in their destinations is an important aspect of migration. This will help us to understand whether migration has taken place from rural to urban areas or from rural to rural areas. It may be broadly being accepted that employment in agriculture sector would mean rural to rural migration. On the other hand employment in industry or service sector would mean that nature of migration is rural to urban. We have presented the relevant data in Table 5.7 below.

Table - 5.7**Distribution of Migrants on the Basis of Sector of Employment at Destinations**

Villages	Agriculture & Allied	Industry	Service	Total
Vill 1	0(0.00)	41(83.67)	8(16.33)	49(100.00)
Vill 2	2(6.67)	25(83.33)	3(10.00)	30(100.00)
Vill3	1(3.03)	6(18.18)	26(78.79)	33(100.00)
Vill 4	3(9.09)	23(69.70)	7(21.21)	33(100.00)
Vill 5	0(0.00)	30(96.77)	1(3.23)	31(100.00)
Vill 6	1(3.33)	29(96.67)	0(0.00)	30(100.00)
Dist Total	7(3.40)	154(74.76)	45(21.84)	206(100.00)

Note: Figures in brackets indicate row percentages.

Source: Field Survey.

Data presented in Table 5.7 and also depicted in a bar diagram in Fig. 5.7(a) and 5.7(b) show that nearly 97 percent migrants have undertaken rural to urban migration (industry and service taken together) and only about 3 percent have undertaken rural to rural migration. Most of the migration has taken place through rural to urban stream in industrial sector. However, there are much inter-village variations among different sectors of employment observed. In villages 1 and 5, no one from the surveyed households migrated in rural areas i.e. in agriculture and allied sector. There is no even a single migrant migrate in the service sector from village 6. The highest migration (96.77 percent) has taken place in industrial sector from village from village 5 and the lowest one (18.18) from village 3 and in service sector just the opposite cases happened. So, the nature of migration from the point of view of sector of employment at destination is very important in view of the fact that, differences in migration pattern as we shall later on makes all the differences in wage and income earnings, level of consumption, saving, amount of remittances sent and improvement in living conditions in destinations in the periods subsequent to migration.

Fig. 5.7(a)

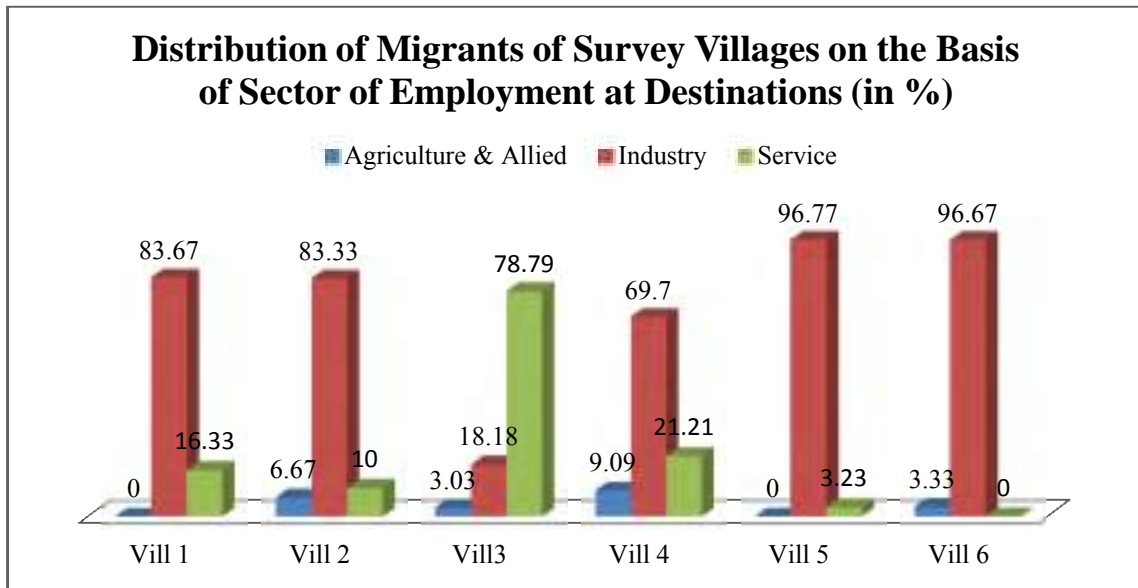
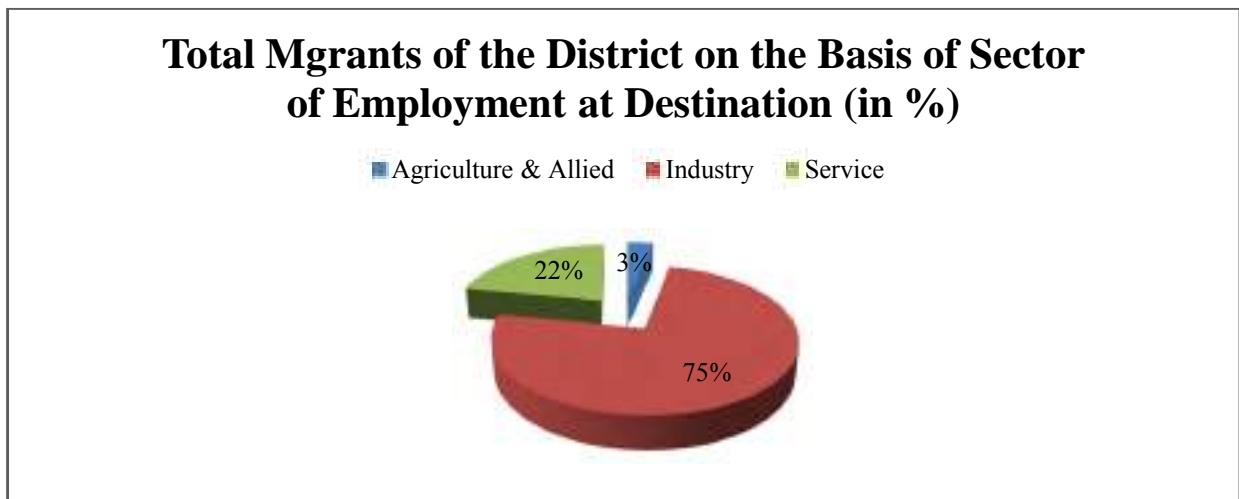


Fig. 5.7(b)



5.3: Characteristics/ Features of Migrant of the Surveyed Households in the Study Area

5.3.1 Work Status of Migrants

Work status of migrants refers whether they work or not at their destination places where they migrated. Some of the migrants migrate with all household members. But all the migrant members do not stay behind engaged in any remunerative work. It was exposed that some of the family members are aged and some are children. Therefore, these members may not work for wages but can manage the temporary inhabitations by making their contribution

in the form of cooking, child rearing, collecting food and other materials of daily necessity etc. Table 5.8 represents the distribution of migrants on the basis of work status, i.e., whether they work or not at destinations and also depicted in bar and pie diagrams in Figs. 5.8(a) and 5.8(b).

Table -5.8					
Distribution of Work Status of Migrants					
Village	Working (No.)	Working (percent)	Non-Working (No)	Non-Working (percent)	Total
Village 1	49	67.12	24	32.88	73(100.00)
Village 2	33	78.57	9	21.43	42(100.00)
Village 3	33	78.57	9	21.43	42(100.00)
Village 4	33	100.00	0	0.00	33(100.00)
Village 5	31	100.00	0	0.00	31(100.00)
Village 6	31	100.00	0	0.00	31(100.00)
Dist. Total	210	83.33	42	16.67	252(100.00)

Source: Field Survey.

It can be noticed in the above table that from the district about 17 percent migrants do not engage in any work as they are unemployed while about 82 percent migrants engage in works as wage employment labour and self employment which are discussed just later. So the distribution of migrants is more distinguishable between the two categories. However, there are much inter-village variations between the two categories of migrants observed. In village 1, the maximum 32.88 percent migrants do not work at destination and it is interestingly seen that in villages there is no anyone migrant do not stay unemployed at destination i.e. they totally got employment. So, overall few families' migrants do not engage with any work at destination. The non-working members are also included in the team of migrants mainly for two reasons. First, some of them are children and they could not be left at home since they belong to comparatively low age and few take education from different institution. The second reason is that some of them are elderly and in their use also done to non-availability of other members or for other reasons they are also included in the team.

Fig. 5.8(a)

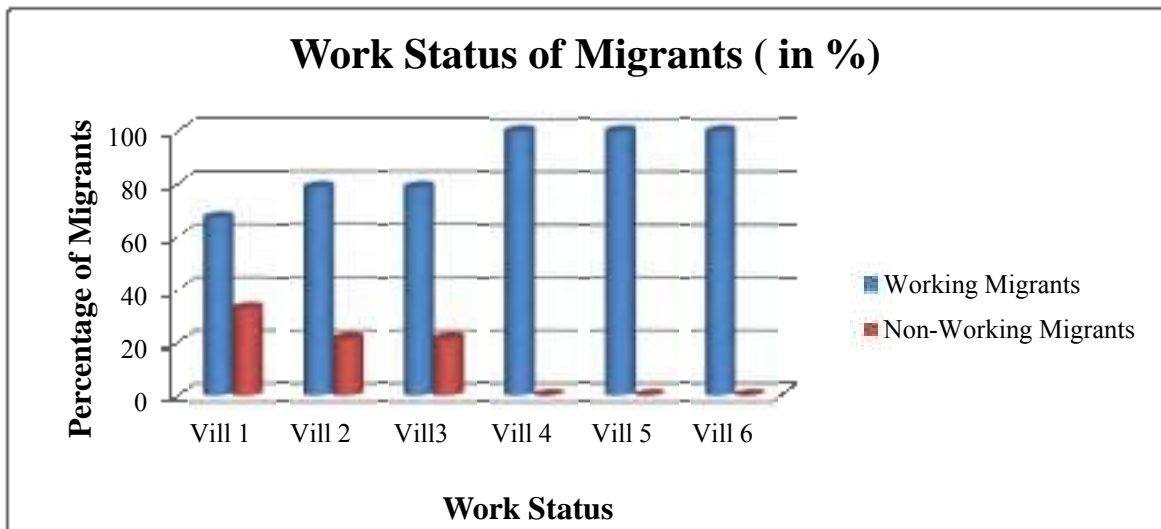
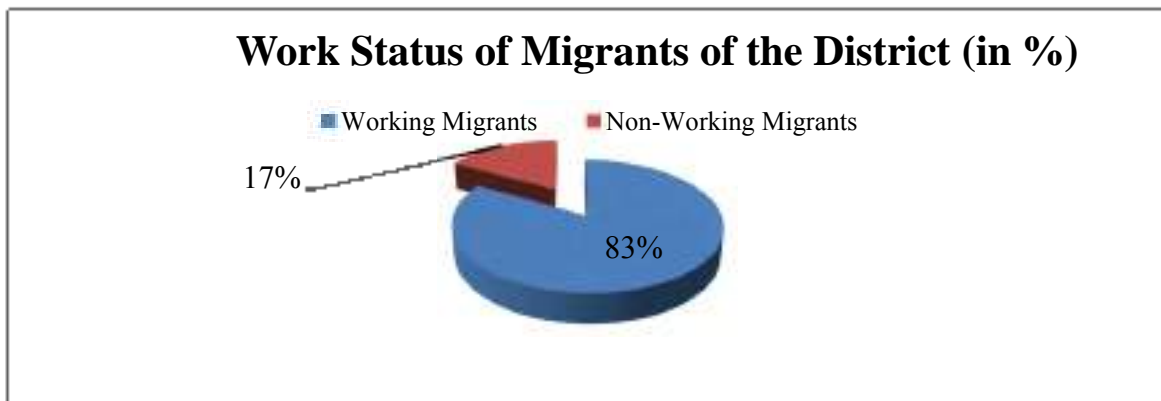


Fig. 5.8(b)



5.3.2 Types of Employment in Destination

We have classified here employment in destination into two categories i.e. wage employment and self employment. Table 5.9 below represents data on types of employment in which migrant workers remain engaged in destination which are diagrammatically presented in Figs. 5.9(a) and 5.9(b).

Table – 5.9				
Distribution of Households on the Basis of Types of Employment in Destination				
Village	Wage employment (No.)	Wage employment (per cent)	Self employment (No.)	Self employment (per cent)
Village 1	22	88.00	3	12.00
Village 2	25	100.00	0	0.00
Village 3	19	76.00	6	24.00
Village 4	24	96.00	1	4.00
Village 5	24	96.00	1	4.00
Village 6	25	100.00	0	0.00
Dist. Total	139	92.67	11	7.33

Source: Field Survey.

It could be seen from the above that out of total 150 households, an overwhelming number of migrants i.e. 139 (about 93 percent), from the district remain engaged in wage employment. However, in the district about 7 percent household migrants remain engaged in self-employment at destination. Regarding these two types of employment, there are a number of variations among villages of the surveyed households. In villages 2 and 6, no one migrant household engaged in self employment at destination. So, most of the migrant households engaged in destination as wage employment to earn their livelihood.

In fact for obvious reasons, the migrant workers are incapable of undertaking any business activity of self-employment. First, being largely from BPL group they have neither capital nor have creditworthiness to set up any business venture. Secondly, they have also no willingness to undertake self-employed activity as their aspiration level is low being suffering from destination and deprivation for a long time. Thirdly, their literacy level is also very low. Fourthly, they have no risk taking capacity in such activities as they have neither experience nor money. Combination of these factors results in their engagement largely in wage employment only.

Fig. 5.9(a)

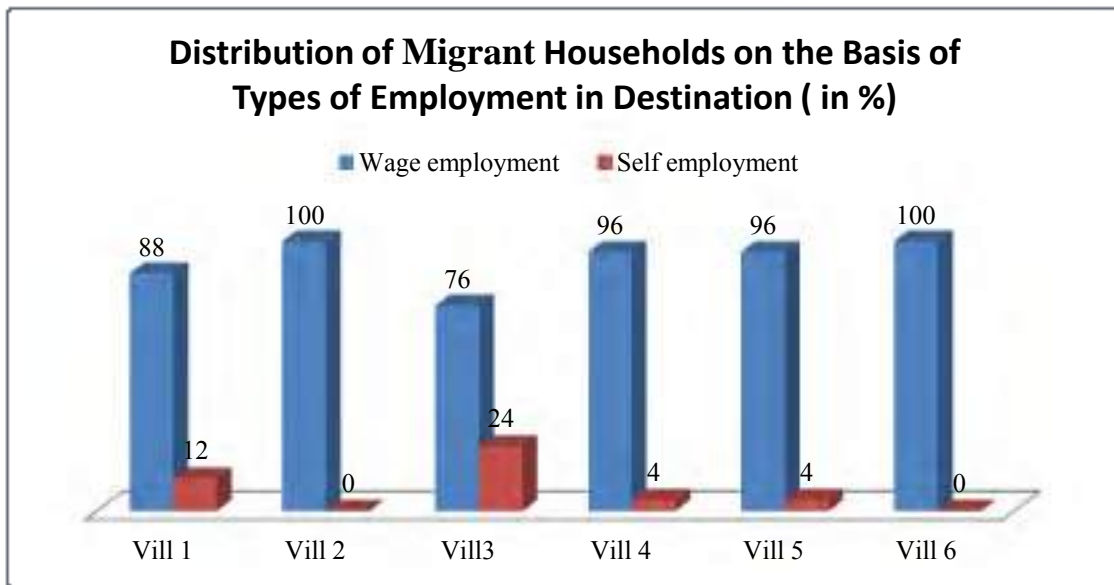
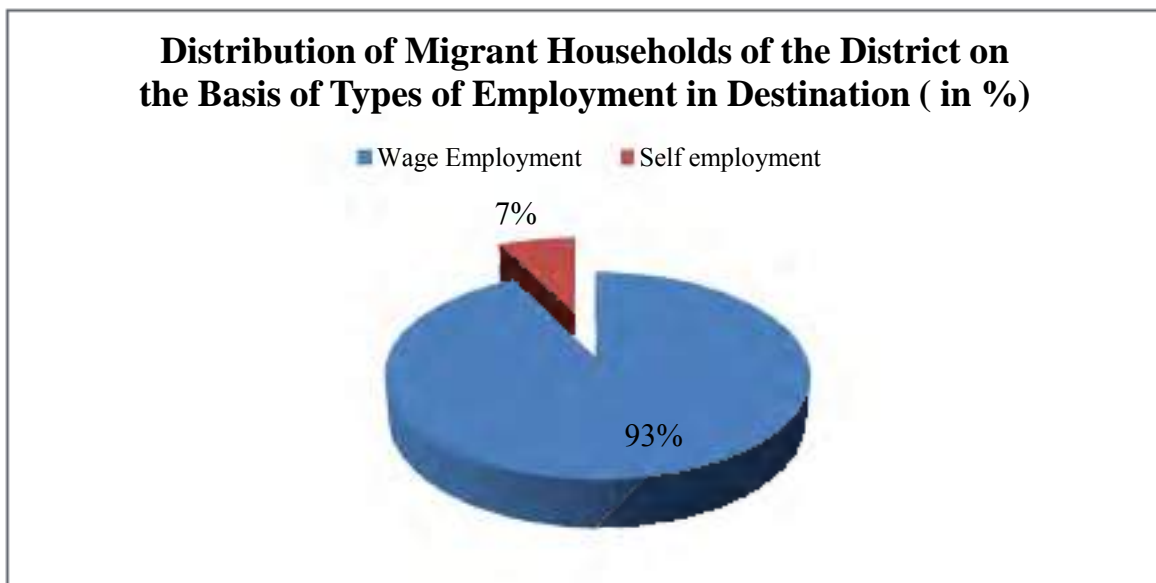


Fig. 5.9(b)



5.3.3 Type of Employment Contract

There are several ways of employment contracted with migrants at destinations. We have investigated it through our field survey.

Table 5.10 below shows the distribution of migrants on the basis of type of employment contract in destination.

Table -5.10**Distribution of Migrants on the Basis of Employment Contract in Destination**

Village	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Total
Village 1	32(66.67)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	16(33.33)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	48(100.00)
Village 2	20(60.60)	0(0.00)	1(3.03)	5(15.16)	7(21.21)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	33(100.00)
Village 3	26(78.78)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	5(15.16)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	2(6.06)	0(0.00)	33(100.00)
Village 4	22(66.66)	0(0.00)	3(9.09)	0(0.00)	3(9.09)	0(0.00)	5(15.16)	0(0.00)	33(100.00)
Village 5	28(90.32)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	2(6.45)	1(3.23)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	31(100.00)
Village 6	28(90.32)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	3(9.68)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	31(100.00)
District Total	156(74.64)	0(0.00)	4(1.91)	12(5.74)	30(14.36)	0(0.00)	7(3.35)	0(0.00)	209 (100.00)

Notes: (i) Figures in brackets indicate row percentages.

(ii) (1) Regular/Daily wage labour (2) Weekly wage labour (3) Contract basis labour (4) Monthly wage labour (5) Casual wage - labour (6) Unorganised sector labour (7) Self employed (8) Not applicable

Source: Field Survey.

It is revealed from the above table that in the district as many as 77 percent of the migrant workers remain employed as regular/daily wage labour. The second way in which labourers got employment is as weekly wage labour. There was no even a single migrant labour that employed in destination as weekly basis. The third way in which labourers remain engaged is as contract basis labour which only about 2 percent migrant of the surveyed households. Then the other ways of employment contracted with migrant labourers are like monthly wage labour casual wage - labour unorganised sector labour, self employed etc. Among the other ways of labour employment, the highest i.e., 14.36 percent labour of the migrant households engaged as casual wage labour at destinations. Thus, migrant workers prefer to be employed either as regular/daily wage labour or as casual wage labour and most of the migrant workers remain engaged as regular/daily wage labour at destinations.

5.3.4 Nature of Employment

We have categorized six types of nature of employment of migrant workers in destination which are discussed below through our field investigation. Table 5.11 and Figs. 5.10(a) and 5.10(b) show below the distribution of migrant workers on the basis of nature of employment i.e., whether they are casual, contractual, permanent or self-employed etc.

Village	1	2	3	4	5	6	Total
Vill 1	0(0.00)	15(31.25)	16(33.33)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	17(35.42)	48(100.00)
Vill 2	0(0.00)	7(21.21)	8(24.24)	1(3.03)	0(0.00)	17(51.52)	33(100.00)
Vill 3	0(0.00)	23(69.70)	1(3.03)	0(0.00)	2(6.06)	7(21.21)	33(100.00)
Vill 4	0(0.00)	1(3.03)	3(9.09)	3(9.09)	5(15.15)	21(63.64)	33(100.00)
Vill 5	0(0.00)	12(38.71)	1(3.23)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	18(58.06)	31(100.00)
Vill 6	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	3(9.68)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	28(90.32)	31(100.00)
District Total	0(0.00)	58(27.75)	32(15.31)	4(1.91)	7(3.35)	108(51.68)	209(100.00)

Notes: (i) Figures in brackets indicate row percentages.

(ii) (1) Long term employee with a written contract (2) Long term employee without a written contract (3) Casual day labourer (4) Contract labour (5) Self- Employed (6) Others.

Source: Field Survey.

It could be seen in the above table that about 28 percent cases in the district, migrant labourers remain engaged in destination as long term employee without a written contract. Migrant labourers engaged as casual day labourer were about 15 percent. As contract labourer and self-employed taken together constituted only about 5 percent engagement of labour of the surveyed households at destinations. About 52 percent migrant i.e. the highest percentage engaged as other type of employment mostly on regular wage basis at destinations. There was no even a single migrant engaged as long term employee with a written contract and there were huge inter-village variations among different types of engagement of migrants. Thus, most of the migrant of the surveyed households engaged other type of employment i.e. work as regular wage.

Fig. 5.10(a)

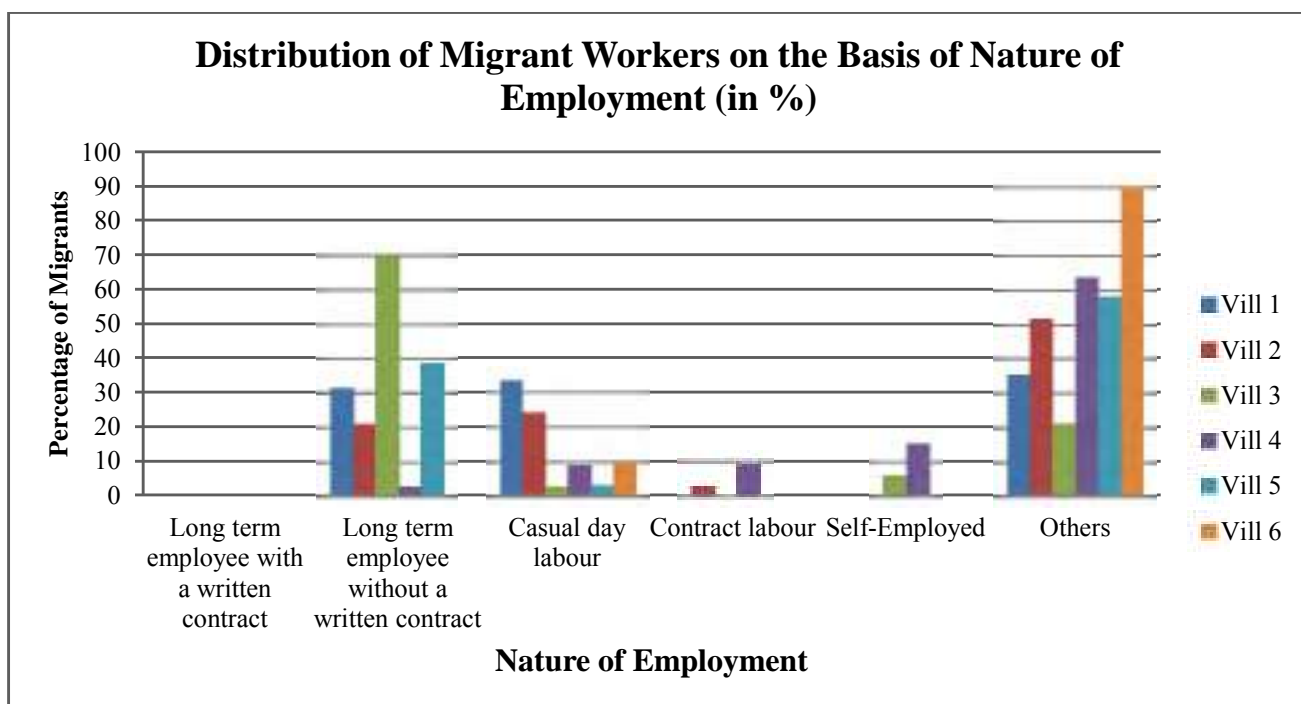
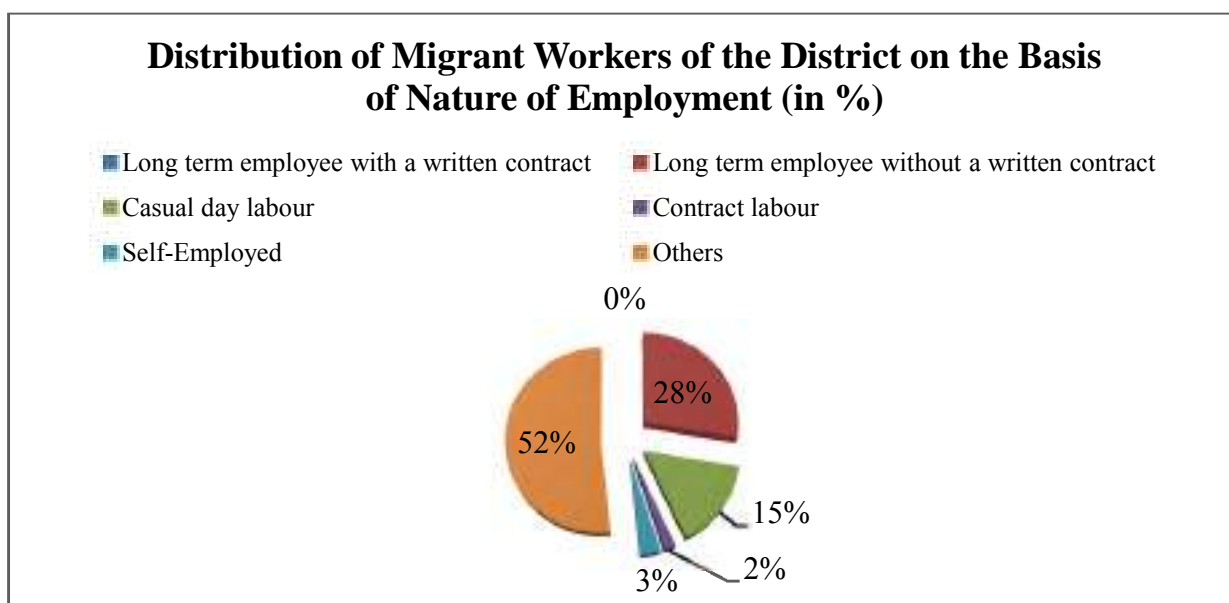


Fig. 5.10(b)



5.3.5 Rates of Wages Received

We have categorized various ranges of rates of wages of migrants received per day at destination that are analysed below through our field investigation. Table 5.12 below shows the rates of wages received by the workers for doing different types of job related activities at

destination which is illustrated with the help of bar and pie diagrams in Figs. 5.11(a) and 5.11(b).

Village	Upto RS. 60	61 to 80	81 to 100	101 to 120	121 to 150	151 & above	Total
Vill 1	0(0.00)	5(10.41)	23(47.92)	14(29.17)	4(8.33)	2(4.17)	48(100.00)
Vill 2	2(6.06)	0(0.00)	12(36.36)	15(45.46)	3(9.09)	1(3.03)	33(100.00)
Vill 3	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	16(48.49)	5(15.15)	10(30.30)	2(6.06)	33(100.00)
Vill 4	4(12.12)	3(9.09)	11(33.33)	6(18.18)	9(27.28)	0(0.00)	33(100.00)
Vill 5	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	7(22.58)	7(22.58)	8(25.81)	9(29.03)	31(100.00)
Vill 6	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	4(12.90)	11(35.48)	8(25.81)	8(25.81)	31(100.00)
District Total	6(2.87)	8(3.83)	73(34.93)	58(27.75)	42(20.09)	22(10.53)	209(100.00)

Note: Figures in brackets indicate row-wise percentages.

Source: Field Survey.

It can be found from the above table that the highest workers (about 35 percent) from the district received a wage in the range of Rs. 81-100 per day. The second major numbers of workers received wage in the range of Rs. 101 to 120 (about 28 percent). The third major category of workers in the district received wages in the range of Rs. 121 to 150 (about 20 percent) at destination. Few percentages of migrant workers (about 11 percent) received wages as per day basis in the range of 151 and above. The ranges of rate of wages upto Rs. 60 and 61 -80 constitute only about 7 percent engagement of labourers at destination that were found to be insignificant. However, there are much inter-village variations among the migrant workers based on the ranges of the rates of wages received at various destinations. Thus most of the migrant workers of the surveyed households received wages at destination in the range of Rs 81-100 per day.

Fig. 5.11(a)

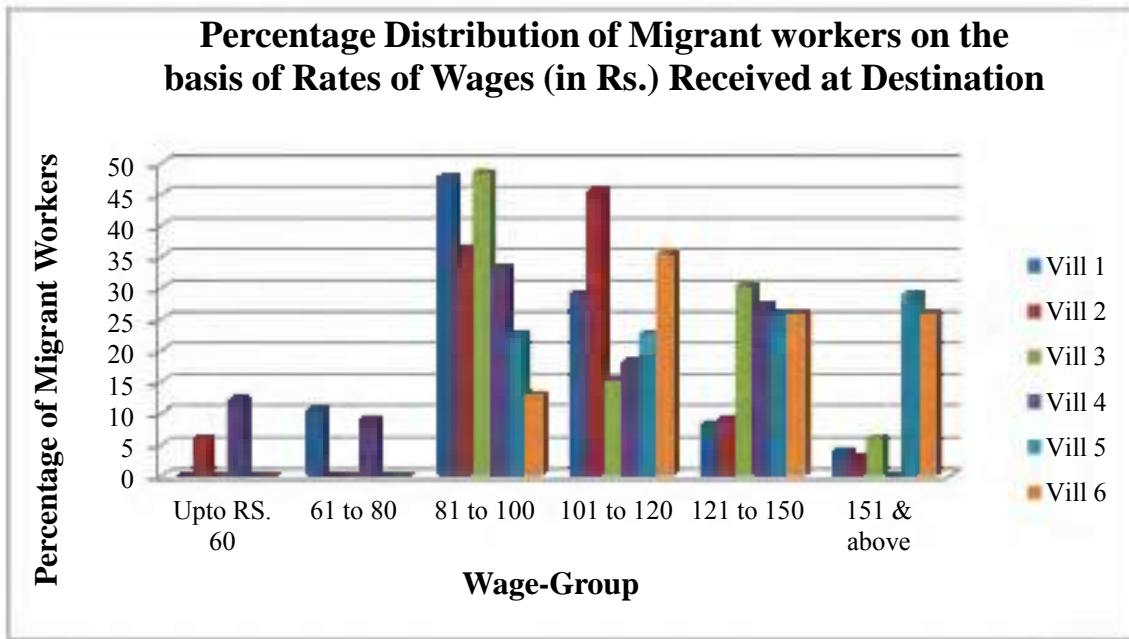
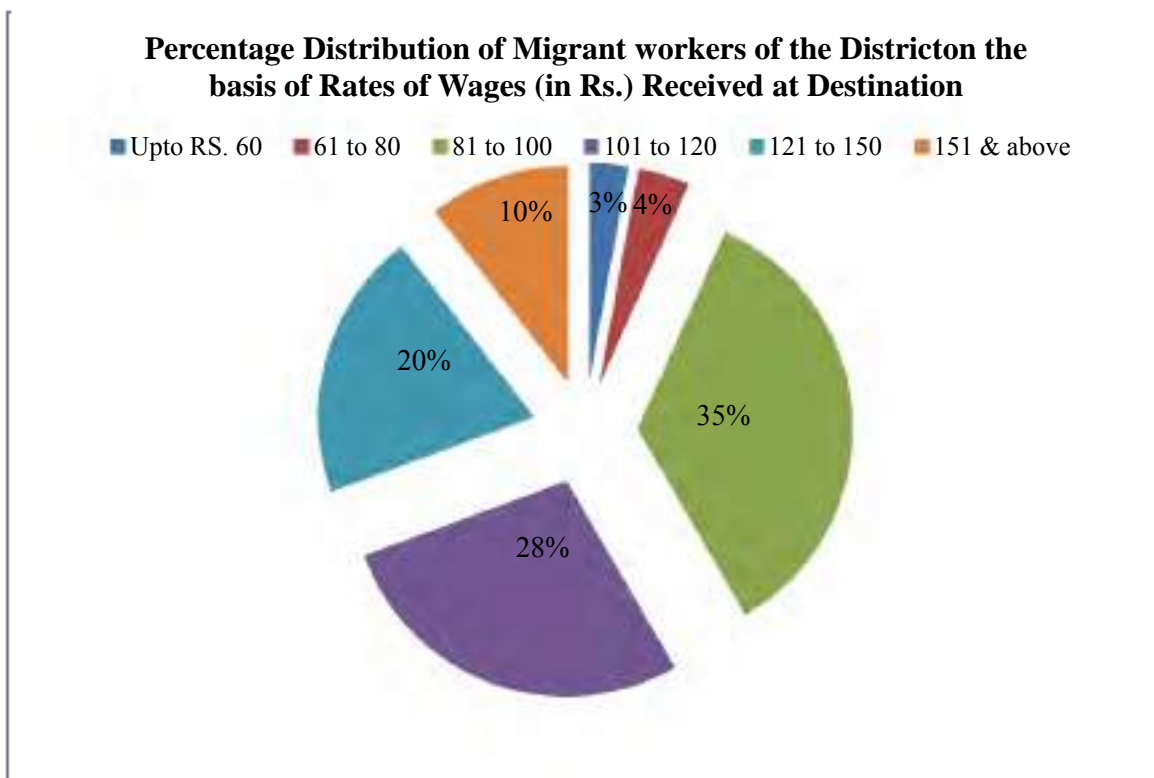


Fig. 5.11(b)



5.3.6 Working Hour Per Day

We have divided the working hours of the migrant workers per day at destination into three parts i.e., upto 6 hours, 7-8 hours and above 8 hours and analysed it through our field investigation. Table 5.13 represents the working hour per day of the migrant workers in different types of works which also depicted in bar and pie diagrams in Figs. 5.12(a) and 5.12(b).

Table – 5.13				
Distribution of Migrant Workers on the Basis of Hour of Work Per Day				
Village	Upto 6 hrs.	7 - 8 hrs.	Above 8 hrs.	Total
Village 1	0(0.00)	47(97.92)	1(2.08)	48(100.00)
Village 2	1(3.03)	26(78.79)	6(18.18)	33(100.00)
Village 3	0(0.00)	33(100.00)	0(0.00)	33(100.00)
Village 4	2(6.06)	29(87.88)	2(6.06)	33(100.00)
Village 5	0(0.00)	29(93.55)	2(6.45)	31(100.00)
Village 6	0(0.00)	31(100.00)	0(0.00)	31(100.00)
District Total	3(1.44)	195(93.30)	11(5.26)	209(100.00)

Note: Figure in brackets indicate the row wise percentages

Source: Field Survey.

Data reveal in the above Table that about 93 percent of the migrants of the surveyed households engaged in the range of 7-8 hours per day with their assigned works. The percentage of migrant workers who engaged with their activities by the working hours above 8 hours per day was only 5 percent and only the 1.44 percentage of migrant workers being engaging with their activities upto 6 hours per day were found to be insignificant. However, there are much inter- village variations among migrant workers regarding the engagement with activities by working hours per day. In villages 3 and 6, there was no any migrant workers engaged by working hours upto 6 hours and above 8 hours per day with activities and in villages 1 and 5, there was no even a single migrant worker engaged by working hours upto 6 hours per day with activities at destination. Therefore, most of the migrant workers engaged with their activities at destinations in the range of 7-8 working hours per day.

Fig. 5.12(a)

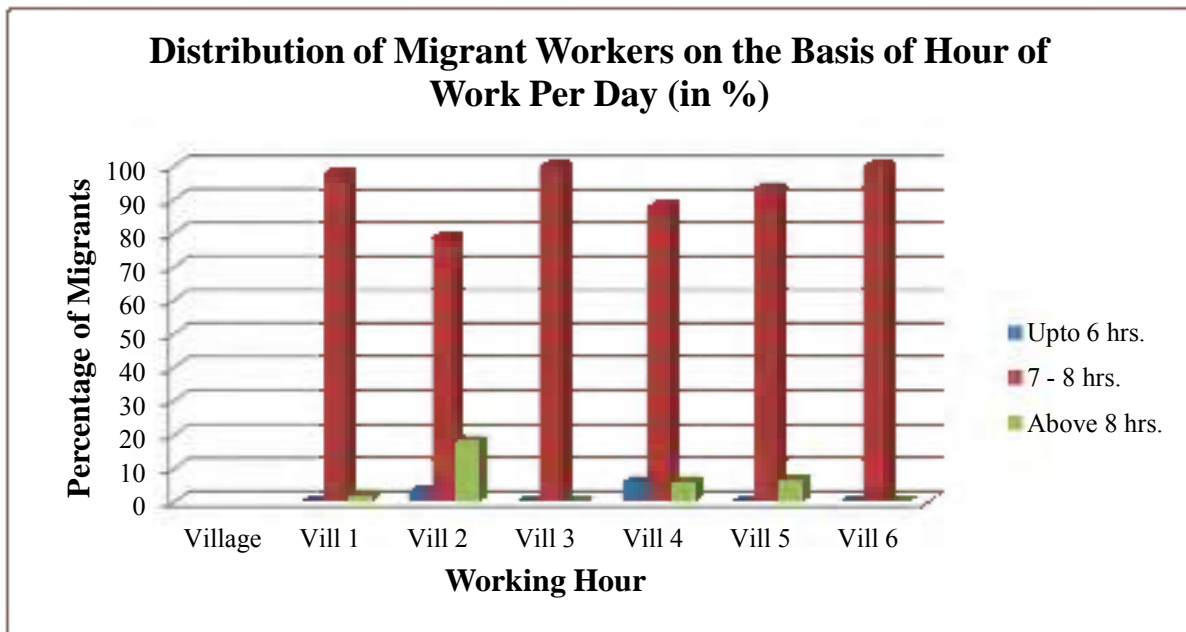
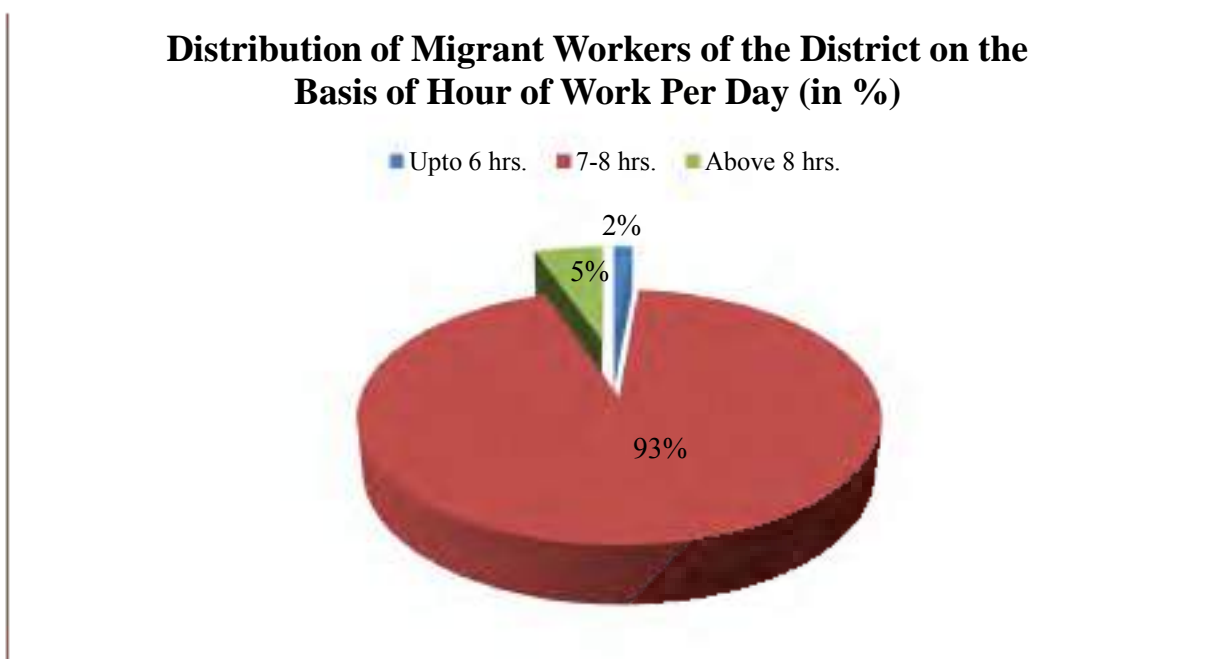


Fig. 5.12(b)



5.3.7 Duration of Stay at Destination

We have divided the migrant workers into five categories on the basis of duration of stay at destination, viz. upto 6 months, 7 to 12 months, 13 to 18 months, 19 to 24 months and above 24 months. Duration of stay at destination is likely to have an effect on the earning of migrant workers in a positive way. Table 5.14 shows the distribution of migrants on the basis of duration of stay at destination and also can be depicted it with the help of bar and pie diagrams in Figs. 5.13(a) and 5.13(b).

Village	Upto 6 months	7 to 12 months	13 to 18 months	19 to 24 months	Above 24 months	Total
Village 1	2(2.74)	11(15.07)	0(0.00)	16(21.92)	44(60.27)	73(100.00)
Village 2	3(7.14)	9(21.43)	0(0.00)	10(23.81)	20(47.62)	42(100.00)
Village 3	1(2.38)	9(21.43)	2(4.76)	8(19.05)	22(52.38)	42(100.00)
Village 4	6(17.65)	4(11.77)	2(5.88)	3(8.82)	19(55.88)	34(100.00)
Village 5	2(6.45)	5(16.13)	1(3.23)	6(19.35)	17(54.84)	31(100.00)
Village 6	2(6.45)	2(6.45)	1(3.23)	9(29.03)	17(54.84)	31(100.00)
District Total	16(6.33)	40(15.81)	6(2.37)	52(20.55)	139(54.94)	253(100.00)

Note: Figures in brackets indicate row percentages.

Source: Field Survey.

Data presented in the above Table reveal that the highest percentage of migrants from the surveyed households (about 55 percent) stayed at destination for a period of above 24 months. The second most duration of stay category of migrants remained for the period of 19 to 24 months in which nearly 21 percent workers migrated. The third most duration of stay category of migrants remained for the period of 7 to 12 months in which about 16 percent migrant workers migrated. A few percentage i.e, about 6 percent migrant workers migrated for the duration upto 6 months. Only about 2 percent migrant workers of the surveyed households migrated for the duration 13 to 18 months that were found to be insignificant. However, there are much inter-village variations among migrant workers regarding the different durations of stay at destination. So, majority of migrant workers migrated for the duration of stay at destination of above 24 months. By staying the above mentioned various

durations at destinations, the migrants remain engaged with their assigned activities being employed in different sectors.

Fig. 5.13(a)

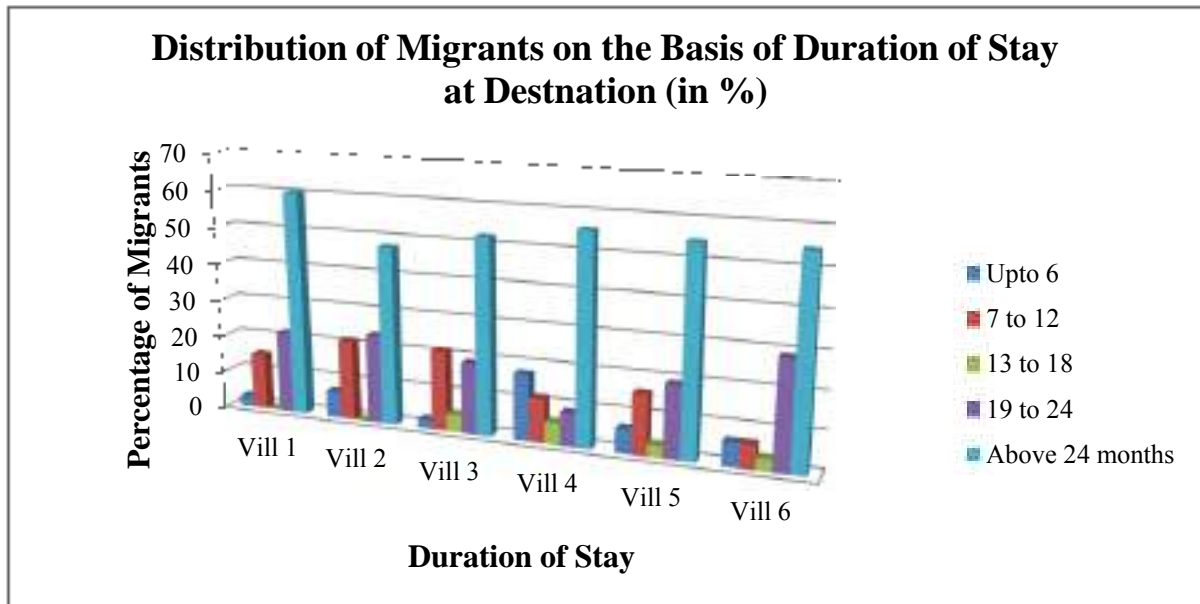
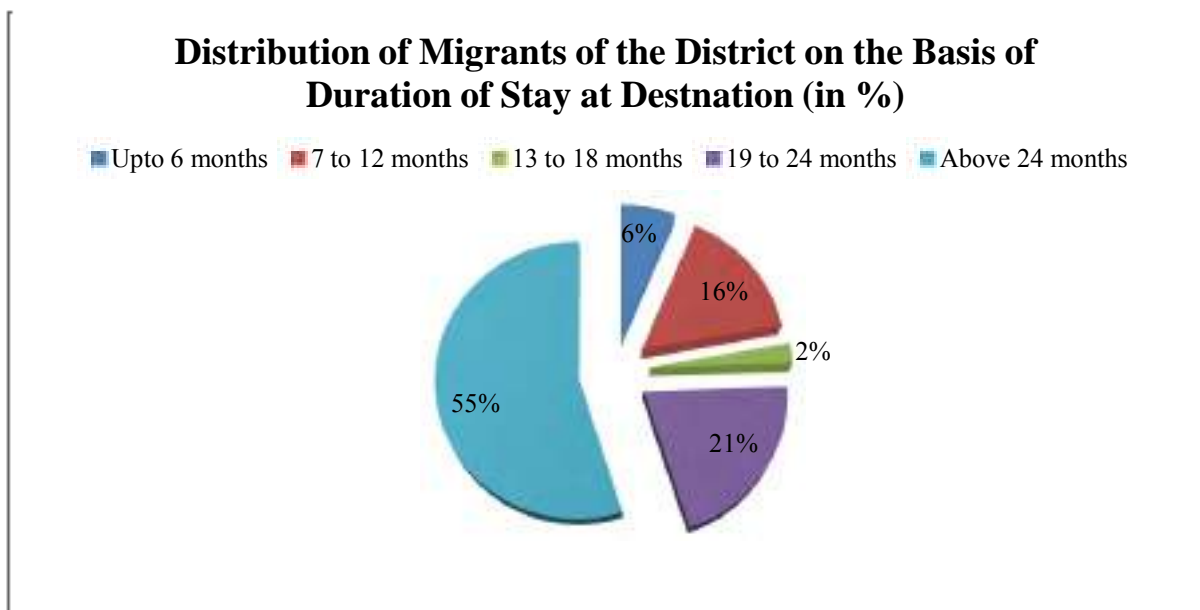


Fig. 5.13(b)



5.3.8 Frequency of Home Visit

We have classified frequency of home visit of migrant workers into four categories i.e., one time visit in a year, twice visit in a year, thrice visit in a year and more than three time visit in a year. Since migration of workers at destinations is not permanent they visit in their home once or several times in a year. However, frequent visit results in a loss of income of the migrants because it involves some transport cost and requires absence from work at destination for some days which also results in loss of income as most of the workers are engaged in temporary casual work. Table 5.15 below presents the distribution of migrants regarding the frequency of home visit.

Village	1	2	3	4	5	Total
Village 1	40(54.79)	31(42.47)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	2(2.74)	73(100.00)
Village 2	27(64.29)	10(23.81)	1(2.38)	4(9.52)	0(0.00)	42(100.00)
Village 3	9(21.43)	25(59.52)	1(2.38)	7(16.67)	0(0.00)	42(100.00)
Village 4	2(5.88)	8(23.53)	10(29.41)	7(20.59)	7(20.59)	34(100.00)
Village 5	3(9.68)	24(77.41)	3(9.68)	1(3.23)	0(0.00)	31(100.00)
Village 6	7(22.58)	19(61.29)	2(6.45)	(3.23)	2(6.45)	31(100.00)
District Total	88(34.78)	117(46.24)	17(6.72)	20(7.91)	11(4.35)	253(100.00)

Notes: (i) Figures in brackets indicate row percentages.

(ii) 1=One time visit in a year; 2=Twice visit in a year; 3=Thrice visit in a year; 4=More than three time visit in a year; 5=Not applicable.

Source: Field Survey.

The data exhibits in the above Table that in the district, the highest about 46 percent migrant workers visited their native village twice in a year and the second most percentage i.e., about 35 percent migrant workers visited their native village once in a year. The frequencies thrice and above thrice in a year constituted only 15 percent migrant to visit their home. Only about 4 percent migrant workers did not visit their native village throughout the year as they used to stay at destination. However, there were much inter-village variations regarding frequencies of home visit among migrant workers of surveyed households. Thus,

majority of the migrant workers of the surveyed households visited their native villages twice in a year.

5.3.9 Duration of Stay during Home Visit

Migrant workers often visit to their native villages from their working places. We were interested in knowing their duration of stay during home visit. We have categorised duration of stay at home during home visit into three parts i.e. from 1 to 15 days stay, from 16 to 30 days stay and more than 30 days. Table 5.16 below presents the distribution of migrants on the basis of duration of stay at origin while their home visits.

village	1	2	3	4	total
Village 1	0(0.00)	64(87.67)	9(12.33)	0(0.00)	73(100.00)
Village 2	1(2.38)	41(97.62)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	42(100.00)
Village 3	23(54.76)	19(45.24)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	42(100.00)
Village 4	7(21.21)	19(57.58)	1(3.03)	6(18.18)	33(100.00)
Village 5	1(3.23)	22(70.97)	8(25.80)	0(0.00)	31(100.00)
Village 6	1(3.23)	14(45.16)	16(51.61)	0(0.00)	31(100.00)
District Total	33(13.10)	179(71.03)	34(13.49)	6(2.38)	252(100.00)

Notes: (i) Figure in brackets indicate the percentage value of total sample of villages / districts.

(ii) 1= 1 to 15 days stay; 2= 16 to 30 days stay; 3=More than 30 days stay; 4= Not applicable

Source: Field Survey.

The data presented in the above table are revealed that about 13 percent of the migrant workers stayed at home for a period between 1 to 15 days during home visit. Then, about 73 percent of the migrant workers stayed at home for a period between 16 to 30 days on their home visit. Next, about 13 percent of the migrant workers spent more than 30 days during their home visit. Only about 2 percent migrant workers would not visit their home. There were much inter-village variations observed among migrant workers regarding the stay at home while their visit from destination areas to their native villages. Thus, majority of the

migrant workers from the surveyed households stayed at home for a period between 16 to 30 days while their home visits.

5.3.10 Staying Arrangement at Destination

There are several ways for migrants to stay at working places (destinations). We have explained below the detailed analysis of staying arrangement of migrant workers at their destination. The Table 5.17 shows the distribution of migrants on the basis of staying arrangement at destination which is also illustrated with the help of bar and pie diagrams in Figs 5.14(a) and 5.14(b).

Table – 5.17						
Distribution of Migrants on the Basis of Staying Arrangement at Destination						
Village	1	2	3	4	5	Total
Village 1	24(32.88)	0(0.00)	27(36.98)	22(30.14)	0(0.00)	73(100.00)
Village 2	15(35.71)	8(19.05)	12(28.57)	2(4.76)	5(11.91)	42(100.00)
Village 3	19(45.24)	0(0.00)	14(33.33)	9(21.43)	0(0.00)	42(100.00)
Village 4	11(33.33)	4(12.12)	1(3.03)	2(6.06)	15(45.46)	33(100.00)
Village 5	2(6.45)	6(19.36)	12(38.71)	4(12.90)	7(22.58)	31(100.00)
Village 6	0(0.00)	6(19.36)	16(51.61)	5(16.13)	4(12.90)	31(100.00)
District Total	71(28.18)	24(9.52)	82(32.54)	44(17.46)	31(12.30)	252(100.00)

Notes: (i) Figures in brackets indicate row percentages.

(ii) (1) Stay with family (2) Stay with other workers (3) Stay with friends (4) Stay with relatives (5) Not Available.

Source: Field Survey.

It can be seen from the above table that about 28 percent migrants of the surveyed households stayed with their family members at destination. Next, only about 10 percent migrant workers stayed with other workers at destination. Then, about 33 percent migrants from the surveyed households stayed with their friends. The percentages of migrant workers stayed with their relatives at destination were about 18 percent and about 12 percent migrant workers could not have such mentioned ways of staying arrangement as they stayed with alone. However, there

were much inter-village variations revealed in the table among migrant workers regarding the ways of stay at destination. Thus, it is revealed that a large number of migrants migrated with family members and in destination they preferred to stay with family members and with their friends.

Fig. 5.14(a)

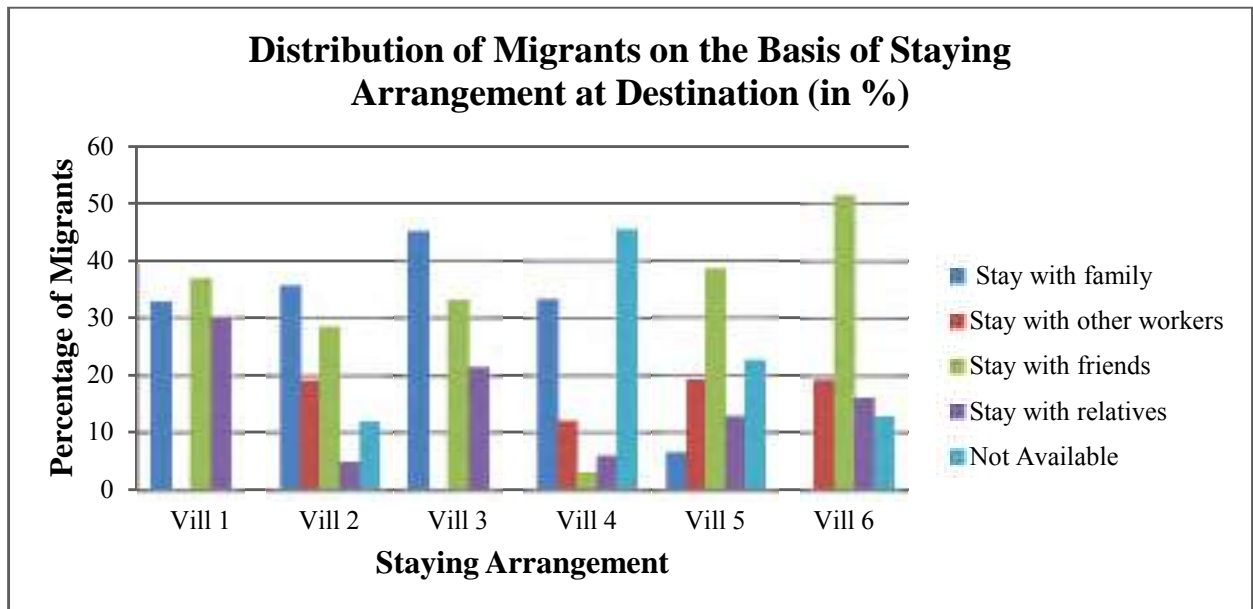
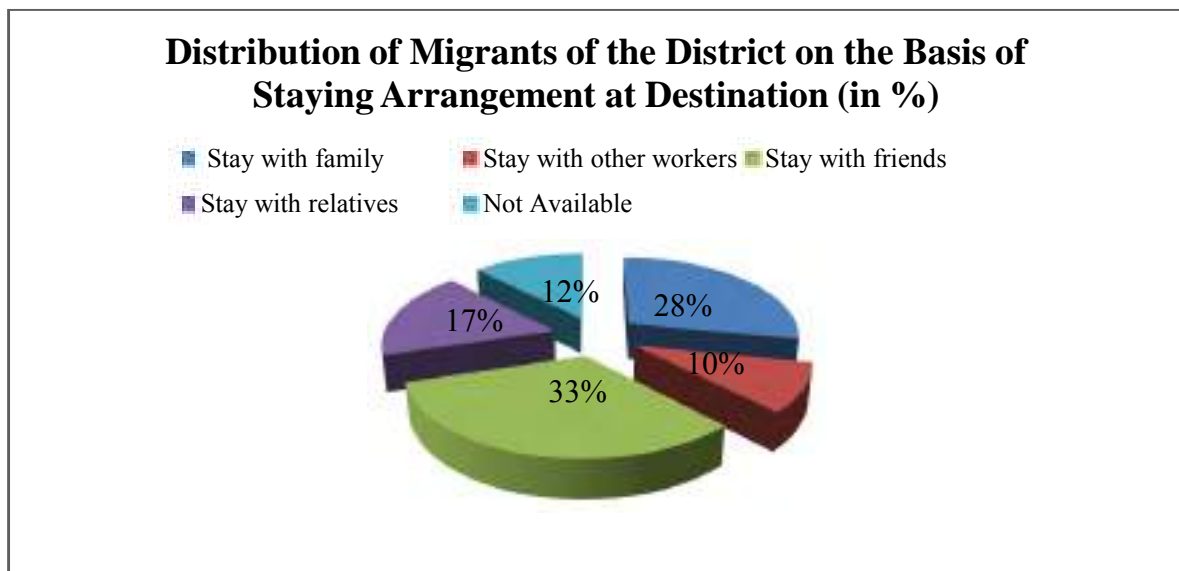


Fig. 5.14(b)



5.3.11 Condition of Housing at Destination

We thought about the necessity to look at the housing arrangements of migrant workers at destinations. For this, we have categorised the condition of housing in several types that are explained below through our field investigation. The collected data on this aspect are presented in Table 5.18 below. It could be seen that in the district about 58 percent migrants lived in pucca houses in destination, nearly 30 percent lived in makeshift tarpaulin houses and 8 percent lived in houses made of tiles. It may be noted that pucca house actually means godown, veranda or similar type of places of the employer where the migrant workers were provided rent-free accommodation. Other types of housing like houses made of leaves or wood formed very insignificant proportion for migrants of the district. However, there were much inter-village variations revealed in the table regarding the conditions of housing. So, the majority migrant workers lived in pucca houses provided by the company or organization at destination. After all, the migrants did not enjoy a very improved housing condition either at origin or at destination. Still it can be said that they were in a little better condition at destination. This is because workers who lived in pucca houses or makeshift tarpauline houses got the toilet facility in sanitary latrines and safe drinking water facility which was not available at their origin.

Table – 5.18

Distribution of Migrants on the Basis of Condition of Housing at Destination

Village	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Total
Village 1	13(27.09)	28(58.33)	4(8.33)	0(0.00)	3(6.25)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	48(100.00)
Village 2	2(6.06)	10(30.30)	21(63.64)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	33(100.00)
Village 3	1(3.03)	32(96.977)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	33(100.00)
Village 4	0(0.00)	14(42.42)	13(39.40)	0(0.00)	1(3.03)	0(0.00)	5(15.15)	0(0.00)	33(100.00)
Village 5	0(0.00)	16(51.61)	14(45.16)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	1(3.23)	0(0.00)	31(100.00)
Village 6	0(0.00)	20(64.51)	10(32.26)	0(0.00)	1(3.23)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	31(100.00)
District Total	16(7.66)	120(57.42)	62(29.66)	0(0.00)	5(2.39)	0(0.00)	6(2.87)	0(0.00)	209(100.00)

Notes: (i) Figures in brackets indicate row-wise percentages.

(ii) 1= Tile; 2= Pucca House; 3= Tarpauline; 4= Mud; 5= Thatch / Straw; 6= Leaves; 7= Wood; 8= others.

Source: Field Survey.

CHAPTER-VI

CAUSES OF MIGRATION – PUSH AND PULL FACTORS

6.1. Introduction

Inter-regional and intra-regional disparities at macro level and primarily lack of employment opportunities resulting low standard of living conditions among different socio-economic groups at micro level are the causes of migration. Migration of the members of households in our survey villages from rural to urban areas is caused by different reasons. The basic and most important reasons were found to poverty and unemployment at origin. Therefore, they undertake migration as a livelihood strategy to meet the food deficit and other fundamental needs.

Most of the families in surveyed villages of the district are near landless. They, therefore, are not self-sufficient with that margin amount of land in food grain and vegetable items production. Besides, there is a huge lack of employment opportunities in their local areas. A very little amount of days during the year they generally get employment like agricultural labour, construction labour, labour of MGNREGA works in the local area etc. So, for their survival and to maintain socio-economic conditions, they are bound to migrate out to the prosperous regions and states in India. We analyse below the causes of migration by using our field survey data.

6.2 Prerequisite Conditions of Migrants for Migration

Before the analysis of factors of migration, we need to discuss the pre-requisite conditions of migrants for migration. The pre-requisite conditions of migrants are like decision making for out-migration, facilitators of migration, status of employment before out-migration, sector of employment before out-migration etc. Now, we discuss below the above mentioned prerequisites conditions of migrants for migration through our field investigation.

6.2.1 Decision Making for Out-migration

The data regarding the entities (family wise) influences the decision to out-migration for employment is revealed in Table 6.1 and also depicted in bar and pie diagrams in Figs. 6.1(a) and 6.1(b). Although, the decision to out-migrate is felt by the family as a whole to earn livelihood by getting employed at a place other than the migrant's native place, there is generally a final entity that plays the key role in migration decision. We collected data from the respondents to know which entity acted as trigger for out-migration.

Distribution of Migrants on the Basis Decision Making Entity (Family wise)				
Village	Self	Spouse	Parents	Total
V ill 1	17(68.00)	0(0.00)	8(32.00)	25(100.00)
V ill 2	23(92.00)	0(0.00)	2(8.00)	25(100.00)
V ill 3	23(92.00)	0(0.00)	2(8.00)	25(100.00)
V ill 4	19(76.00)	0(0.00)	6(24.00)	25(100.00)
V ill 5	25(100.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	25(100.00)
V ill 6	23(92.00)	0(0.00)	2(8.00)	25(100.00)
Dist. Total	130(86.67)	0(0.00)	20(13.33)	150(100.00)

Source: Field Survey.

The results of the surveyed households show that about 87 percent cases the decision to migrate was made by the migrant himself/herself. Only about 13 percent cases the decision to migrate was taken by the parents of the migrants. Interestingly, in Village 5, all the migrant of the surveyed households, the decision to migrate were taken by himself/herself. There was no such type of migrant household among six villages surveyed whose family member was migrated by the decision of their spouses. So, spouse being involved in decision making was found to be insignificant.

Thus, overall picture brings out that most of the migrant of the surveyed households the decision to migrate was taken by himself/herself and taking decision to migrate may be categorised as a push factor.

Fig. 6.1(a)

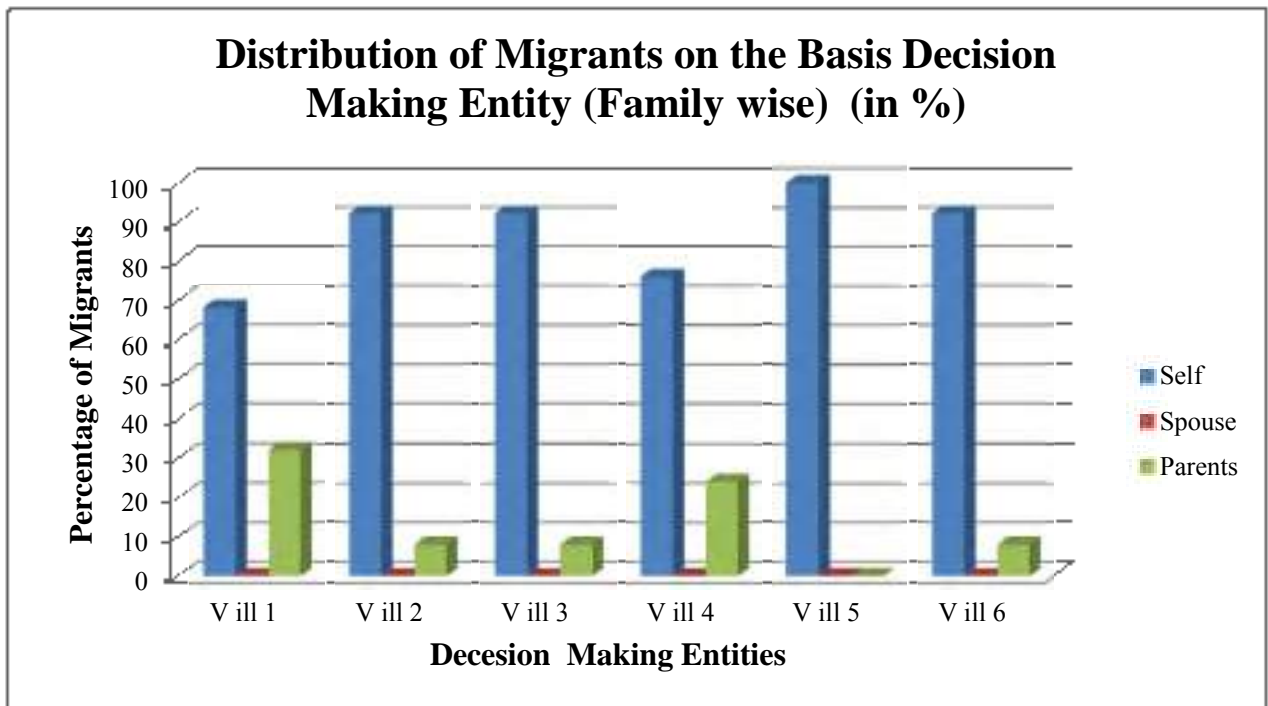
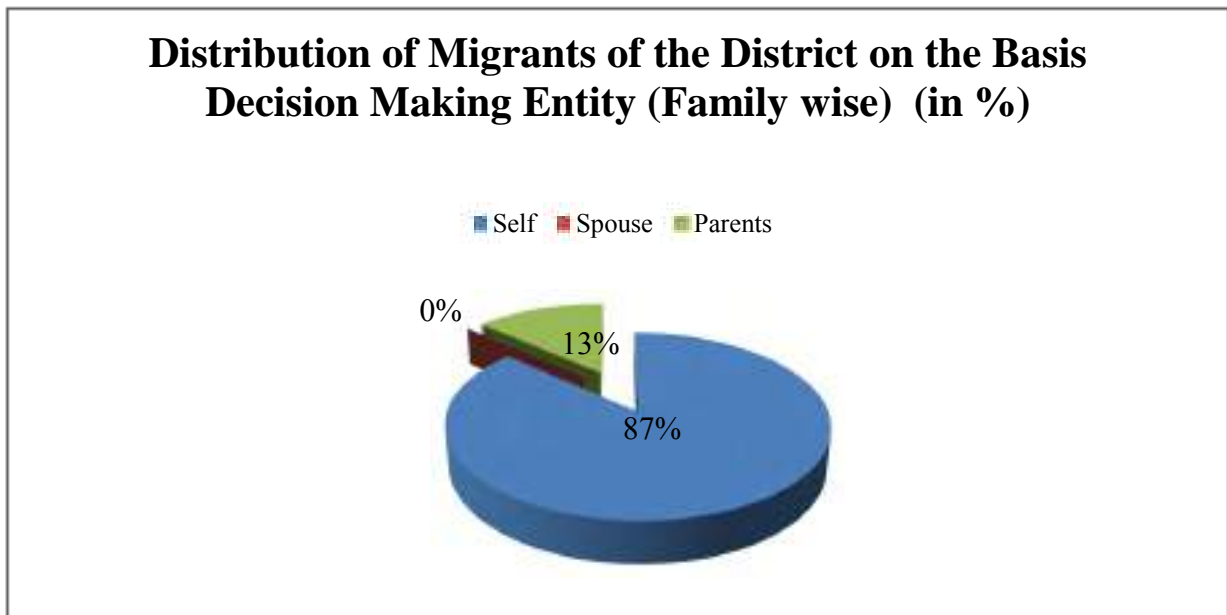


Fig. 6.1(b)



6.2.2 Facilitator of Migration

Rural out-migration is generally facilitated by some agents. The work done as facilitator are like relatives, friends, neighbours, labour recruiters and contractors, media sources like TV, newspaper etc. and employers' agents. The distribution of migrants on the basis of facilitator

of migration as household wise is represented in Table 6.2 below. In the case of more than one facilitator of migration, we have recorded the name of the dominant facilitator.

Table – 6.2								
Distribution of Migrants on the Basis of Facilitator of Migration (Household wise)								
Village	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Total
Vill 1	18(72.00)	4(16.00)	2(8.00)	1(4.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	25(100.00)
Vill 2	14(56.00)	4(16.00)	5(20.00)	1(4.00)	1(4.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	25(100.00)
Vill 3	19(76.00)	1(4.00)	2(8.00)	3(12.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	25(100.00)
Vill 4	1(4.00)	0(0.00)	7(28.00)	15(60.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	2(8.00)	25(100.00)
Vill 5	6(24.00)	7(28.00)	3(12.00)	8(32.00)	0(0.00)	1(4.00)	0(0.00)	25(100.00)
Vill 6	11(44.00)	4(16.00)	1(4.00)	9(36.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	25(100.00)
Dist. Total	69(46.00)	20(13.33)	20(13.33)	37(24.67)	1(0.67)	1(0.67)	2(1.33)	150(100.00)

Notes: (i) Figures in brackets indicate row wise percentage.

(ii) 1= Relatives, friends already living at destination; 2=Relatives, friends living in village/neighborhood; 3=Labour recruiters/contractors from origin (village/neighborhood); 4= Labour recruiters/contractors from destination; 5=Media sources like news paper, TV, radio etc; 6=Employer/employer's agent; 7=others.

Source: Field survey.

It shows in the above table that among the facilitators of surveyed households of the district, relatives, friends already living at destination acted as the most important facilitators (46 per cent cases); followed by labour recruiters/contractors from destination (about 25 per cent cases); relatives, friends living in village/neighborhood (about 13 per cent cases). Interestingly, it proclaimed the same percentages i.e., about 13 percent between relatives, friends living in village/neighborhood and labour recruiters/contractors from origin (village/neighborhood) acted as facilitator and also same percent i.e., only 0.67 percent between media sources like news paper, TV, radio etc. and employer/ employer's agent performed as facilitator. Only 1.33 percent marked by others (himself/herself) as facilitator. One contradictory result revealed in village 4 is that only 4 percent relatives, friends already living at destination acted as the facilitator i.e., the lowest percentage compared to other villages whereas labour recruiters/contractors from destination acted as facilitator were the highest percentage i.e., 60 percent compared to other villages. Thus, there are much inter-

village variations in the roles played by each of the facilitators of migration of the surveyed district.

6.2.3 Status of Employment before Out-migration

Employment situations before out-migration in family wise of the migrant workers from the surveyed households are presented in Table 6.3 and in Figs. 6.2(a) and 6.2(b) below. It could be seen that out of total surveyed households in the district, 66 percent households' workers were partially employed before out-migration and only 1.33 percent household workers were fully employed before out-migration. On the other hand, about 33 percent households' workers of the surveyed households had totally remain unemployed before out-migration.

Table – 6.3				
Distribution of Migrants on the Basis of Status of Employment Before Out – Migration (Family wise)				
Village	1	2	3	Total
Vil 1	0(0.00)	8(32.00)	17(68.00)	25(100.00)
Vil 2	1(4.00)	18(72.00)	6(24.00)	25(100.00)
Vil 3	0(0.00)	15(60.00)	10(40.00)	25(100.00)
Vil 4	1(4.00)	18(72.00)	6(24.00)	25(100.00)
Vil 5	0(0.00)	19(76.00)	6(24.00)	25(100.00)
Vil 6	0(0.00)	21(84.00)	4(16.00)	25(100.00)
District Total	2(1.33)	99(66.00)	49(32.67)	150(100.00)

Note: (i) Figures in bracket indicate row percentages. (ii) 1=Employed; 2=partially employed; 3=unemployed.

Source: Field survey.

It reveals from the above table that there is huge variation regarding employment status of household workers before migration of surveyed households among the categories of employment mentioned here and also inter-village variations regarding the same categories mentioned. This implies that migrations that have taken place from the district are mostly distress migration in the sense that about 67 percent households; migrants were either partially employed or unemployed. It may be noted that those who were partially employed were not gainfully employed. So to earn sufficient livelihood they had no alternative but to

migrate either in urban or semi-urban or rural areas of other-state or other district of the same state where both employment and higher wages are assured.

Fig. 6.2(a)

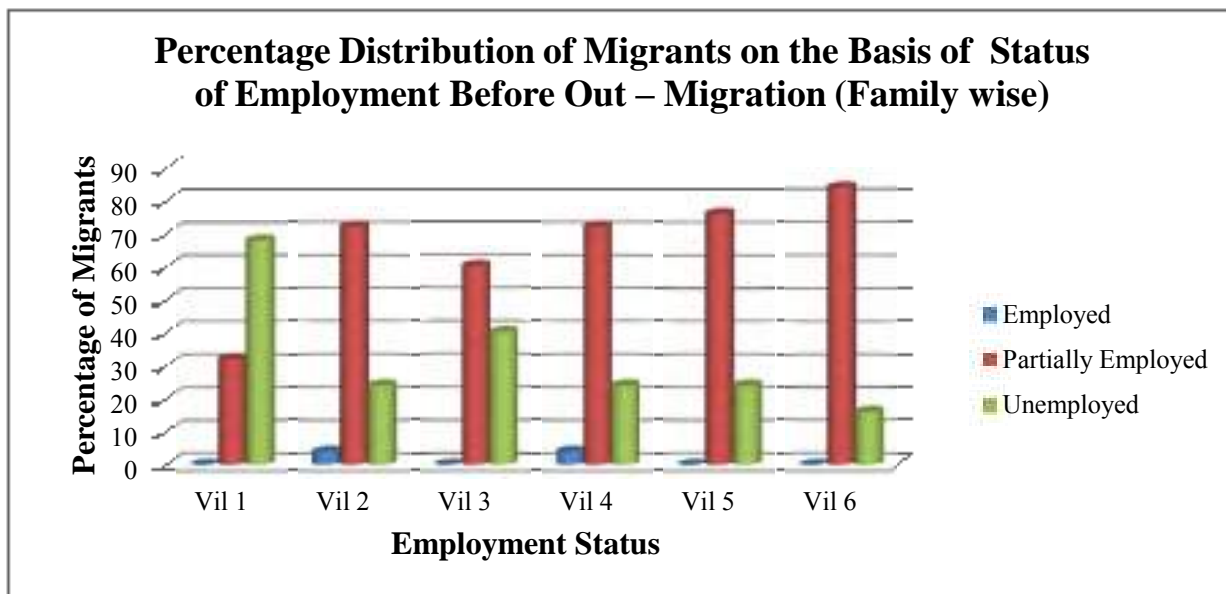
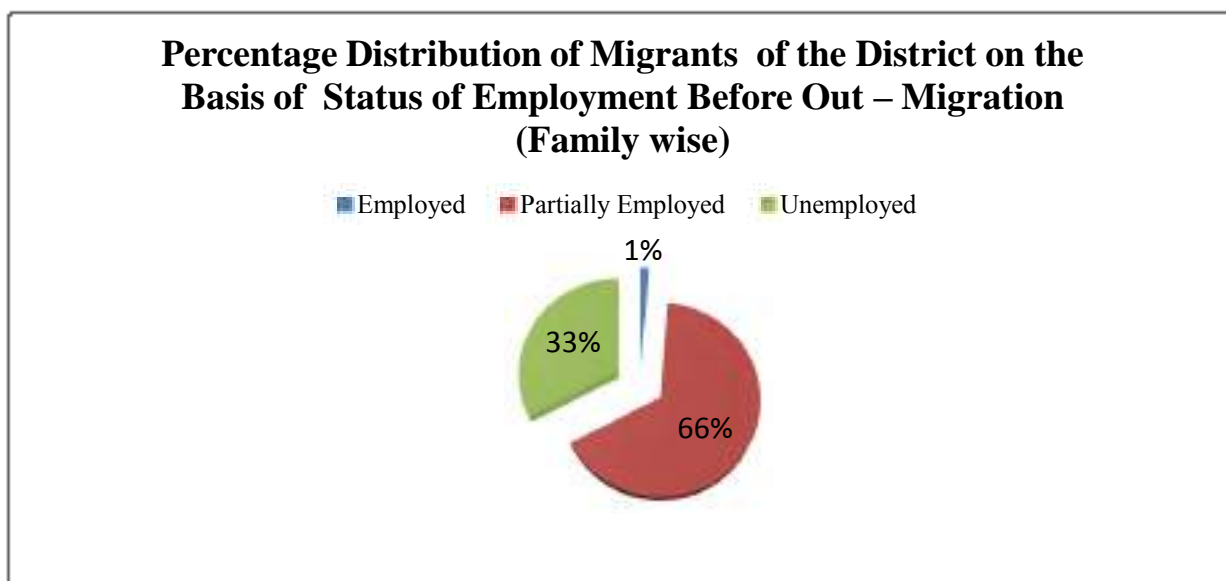


Fig. 6.2(b)



6.2.4 Sector of Employment before Out-migration

We have already seen that 66 percent of the labourers were partially employed and only 1.33 percent fully employed before out migration in the surveyed villages of the district. We have also collected data on their sector of employment before to out-migration. The sectors of

employment before out-migration in household wise of the migrant workers from the surveyed households are represented in Table 6.4 below and also illustrated in bar and pie diagrams in Figs. 6.3(a) and 6.3(b).

Table -6.4

Distribution of Migrants on the Basis of Sector of Employment Before Out - Migration (Household wise)

Village	1	2	3	N.A.	Total
Vill 1	8(32.00)	1(4.00)	0(0.00)	16(64.00)	25(100.00)
Vill 2	23(92.00)	1(4.00)	0(0.00)	1(4.00)	25(100.00)
Vill 3	12(48.00)	2(8.00)	1(4.00)	10(40.00)	25(100.00)
Vill 4	18(72.00)	1(4.00)	0(0.00)	6(24.00)	25(100.00)
Vill 5	13(52.00)	6(24.00)	0(0.00)	6(24.00)	25(100.00)
Vill 6	20(80.00)	1(4.00)	0(0.00)	4(16.00)	25(100.00)
District	94(62.67)	12(8.00)	1(0.67)	43(28.66)	150(100.00)

Note: (i) Figures in brackets indicate row percentages.

(ii) 1=Agriculture related; 2=Manufacturing related; 3=Service related; NA=Not Applicable.

Source: Field Survey.

Data showed in the above Table revealed that about 63 percent of the migrant households of the surveyed villages were engaged in agriculture and its allied activities before out-migration and 8 percent engaged in manufacturing sector. Only 0.67 percent of the migrant households were engaged in service sector. It was also revealed in the table that about 29 percent migrant workers before out-migration were engaged neither agricultural related activities nor manufacturing related activities nor service related activities as they were not got employment in local areas. So most of the migrant households' workers were engaged in agricultural related activities compared to other sectors of employment before out-migration.

On the other hand, service related activities being as one of the sector of employment of migrant workers before out-migration were found to be insignificant. However, there were much inter-village variations observed regarding the different categories of sector of employment.

Fig. 6.3(a)

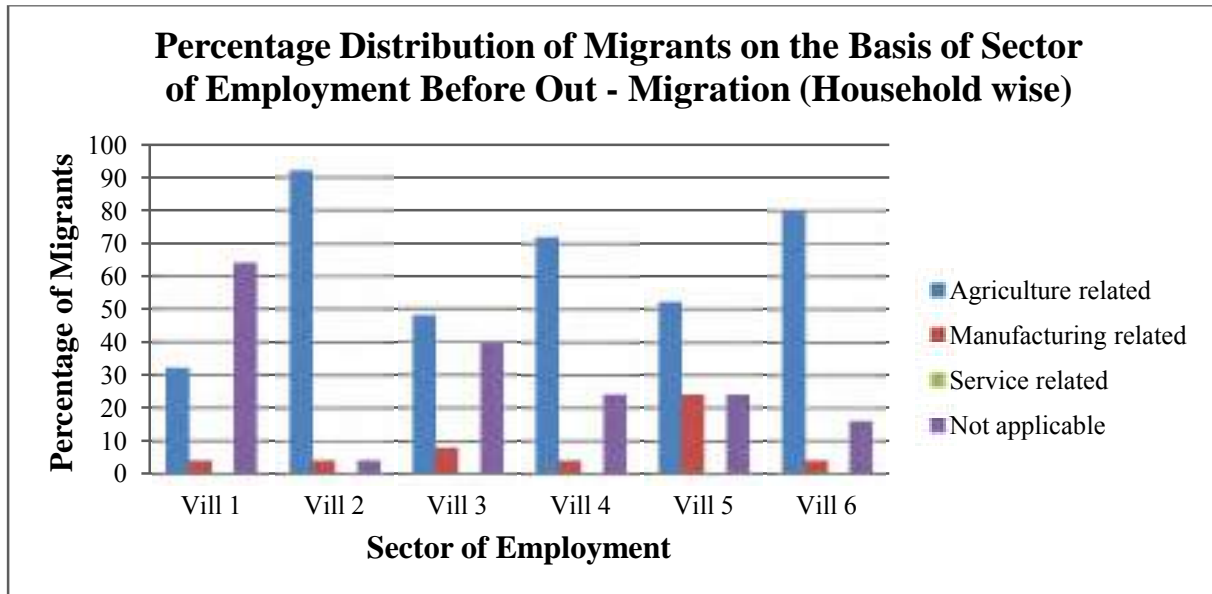
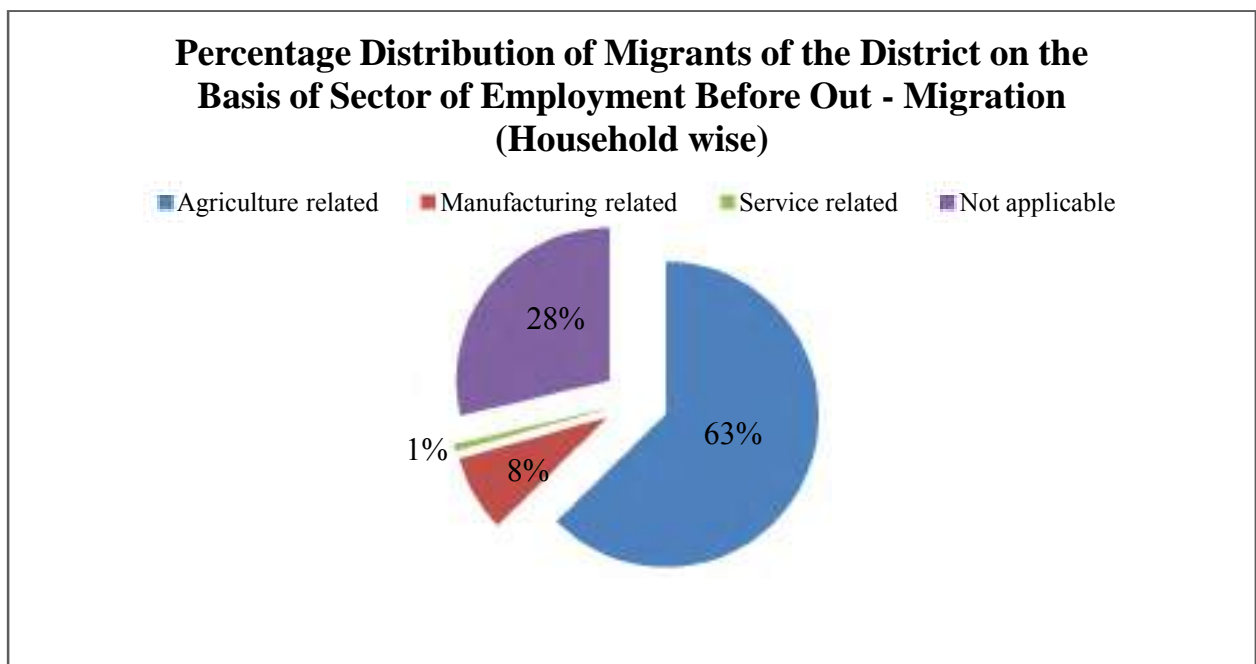


Fig. 6.3(b)



6.3. Factors of Migration Analysis in the Study Area

The factors which motivate people can be classified into five categories. They are economic factors, demographic factors, socio-cultural factors, political factors and miscellaneous factors. Here, we made an attempt to discuss mainly the social and economic factors of migration. Migration is primarily motivated by economic factors. Landlessness, Low agricultural income, agricultural unemployment and underemployment etc. are considered basic factors pushing the migrants towards developed areas with better employment

opportunities. The basic economic factors which motivate migration of people may also be categorized as ‘Push Factors’ and ‘Pull Factors’.

6.3.1 Land Possession and Type of Housing

We emphasize below to the fact that being a revelation of a state of chronic and acute poverty the land possession and type of house conditions led the households to undertake migration as a coping strategy to shield them against further deterioration of their condition of living. The distribution of households regarding land possession and type of house conditions are indicated in Table 6.5, which is graphically presented with the help of bar and pie diagrams in Fig. 6.4(a) and 6.4(b).

Table – 6.5 Distribution of Migrant Households on the Basis of Possession of Land and Type of House

District	Land Size group (in bigha)	No. of Household	Type of house		
			Kutchha	Semi-pucca	Pucca
Cooch Behar	Less than 1	91(60.67)	92(62.59)	1(50.00)	0(0.00)
	1.0-3.0	32(21.33)	30(20.41)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)
	3.1-7.5	19(12.67)	17(11.56)	1(50.00)	1(100.00)
	7.6-15.0	6(4.00)	6(4.08)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)
	15.1-30.0	2(1.33)	2(1.36)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)
	Greater than 30.0	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)
	Total	150(100.00)	147(100.00)	2(100.00)	1(100.00)

Notes: (1) Figures in brackets indicate column percentages. (2) 3 bighas make one acre.

Source: Field Survey.

It is revealed in the above table that the highest about 61 percent households of the district possessed less than 1 bigha of cultivable land followed by about 21 percent households who possessed cultivable land between 1.0 bigha to 3.0 bighas, 13 percent households who occupied land between 3.1 to 7.5 bighas, 4 percent households who occupied land between 7.6 to 15.0 bighas and about 1 percent household who possessed land between 15.1 to 30.0 bighas. There was no even a single household who possessed land greater than 30.0 bighas. Now, as far as types of houses are concerned, the highest about 63 percent households have kutchha houses who possessed less than 1 bigha of cultivable land, followed by 20 percent households who possessed land between 1.0 bigha to 3.0 bighas, 12 percent households who

occupied land between 3.1 to 7.5 bighas, about 4 percent households who occupied land between 7.6 to 15.0 bighas and about 1 percent household who possessed land between 15.1 to 30.0 bighas. There was no even a single household having kutcha house who possessed land greater than 30.0 bighas. Semi-pucca and pucca being the types of houses, the number of households who possessed less than 1 bigha and between 3.1 to 7.5 bighas of cultivable land were found to be insignificant. So, majority of kutcha households have less than one bigha of cultivable land. Thus, land being the main asset in rural areas that depicted a very pitiable economic condition of the households of the district under survey.

Fig. 6.4(a)

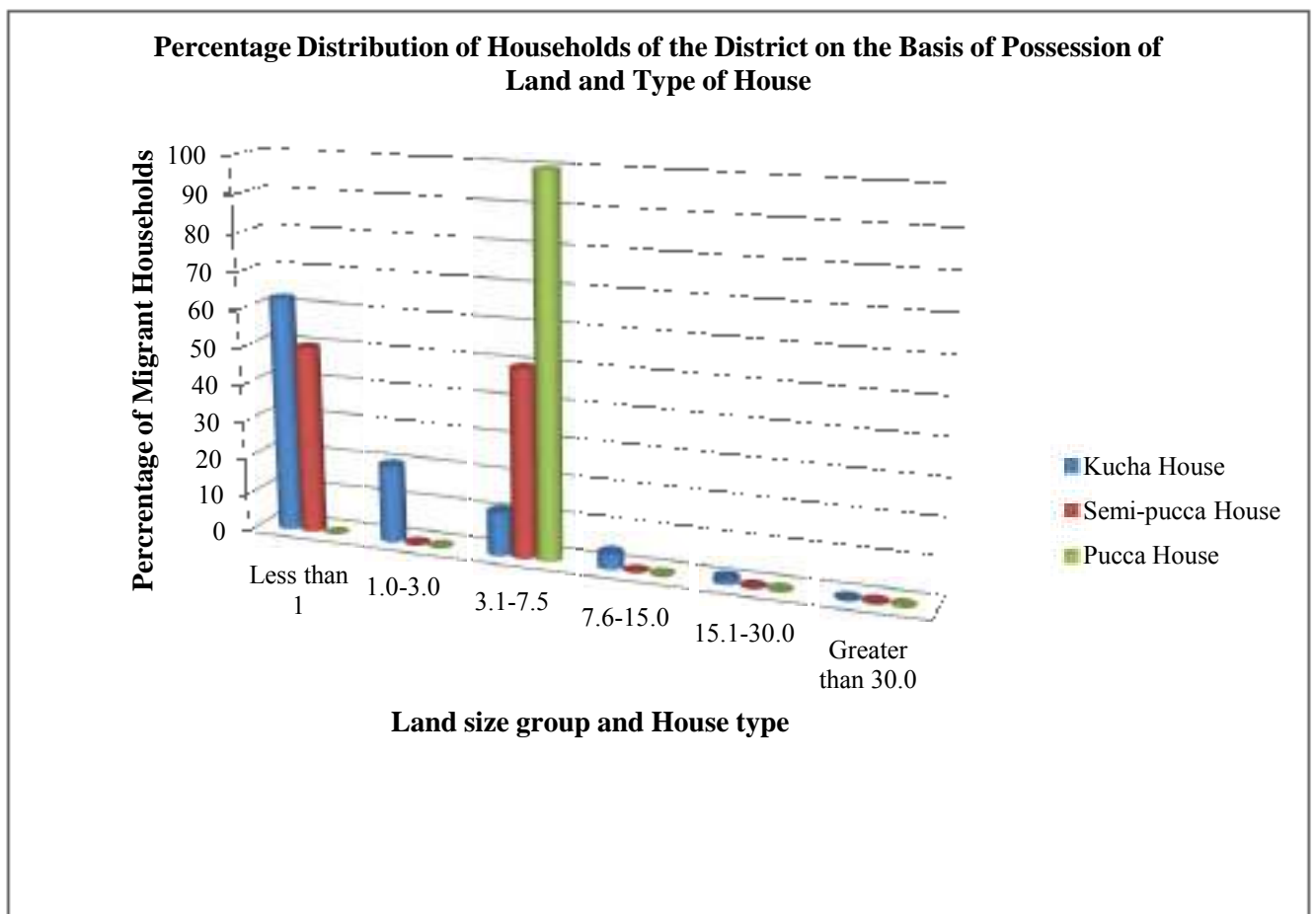
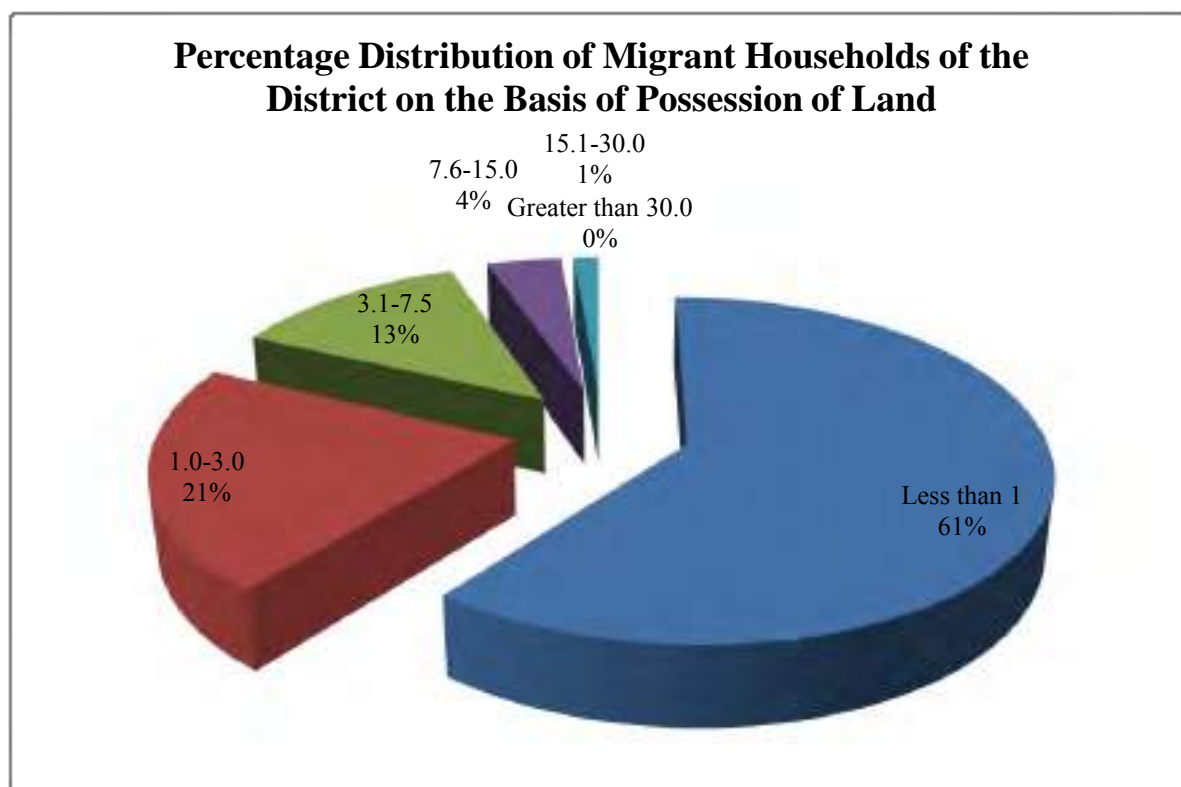


Fig. 6.4(b)



6.3.2 Household Infrastructure: Toilet facility

The same disgraceful condition of living as we have found to the case of land possession in just previous table with regard to the presence and type of toilet facility is hereby further repeated. Table 6.6 shows below the existence and type of toilet facility in the households surveyed.

Table -6.6

Distribution of Households on the Basis of Household Infrastructure: Toilet Facility

Village	Toilet Facility		Type of Toilet			
	Yes	No	Kutchha	Pucca	Semi - Pucca	Open space
Vill 1	14(56.00)	11(44.00)	9(36.00)	4(16.00)	1(4.00)	11(44.00)
Vill 2	16(64.00)	9(36.00)	12(48.00)	3(12.00)	1(4.00)	9(36.00)
Vill 3	24(96.00)	1(4.00)	19(76.00)	6(24.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)
Vill 4	9(36.00)	16(64.00)	9(36.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	16(64.00)

Vill 5	12(48.00)	13(52.00)	4(16.00)	6(24.00)	1(4.00)	14(56.00)
Vill 6	5(20.00)	20(80.00)	3(12.00)	2(8.00)	0(0.00)	20(80.00)
District Total	80(53.33)	70(46.67)	56(37.33)	21(14.00)	3(2.00)	70(46.67)

Note: Figures in brackets indicate row percentages.

Source: Field Survey

It is revealed in the above Table that in Cooch Behar district, about 53 per cent migrant households have their toilet facility and about 47 percent have not their toilet facility. As far as categories of toilets are concerned in Cooch Behar district about 37 percent of the toilets are kutcha, 14 percent are pucca, only 2 percent are semi-pucca and about 47 percent migrant households have not any toilet facility as they normally use open space for toilet. So most of the migrant households surveyed have no toilet facility and semi –pucca as being one of the types of toilet facility was found to be insignificant. Although there is much inter-village variations observed among different categories of toilet.

6.3.3 Household Infrastructure: Drinking Water Sources

Drinking water sources as household infrastructure is one of the most essential sources for livelihood of the migrant households surveyed. There are mainly three types of drinking water sources like Tube well (own), Well (own) and Tube well/ Well (Shared/ Public). Table 6.7 shows below the distribution of migrant households regarding the drinking water sources.

Table – 6.7

Distribution of Households on the Basis of Household Infrastructure: Drinking Water Sources

Village	Tubewell (own)	well (own)	Tubewell / well (Shared / public)	Others (specify)
Vill 1	22(88.00)	0(0.00)	3(12.00)	0(0.00)
Vill 2	18(72.00)	1(4.00)	6(24.00)	0(0.00)
Vill 3	18(72.00)	0(0.00)	7(28.00)	0(0.00)
Vill 4	20(80.00)	1(4.00)	4(16.00)	0(0.00)

Vill 5	13(52.00)	1(4.00)	11(44.00)	0(0.00)
Vill 6	9(36.00)	2(8.00)	14(56.00)	0(0.00)
District Total	100(66.67)	5(3.33)	45(30.00)	0(0.00)

Note: Figures in brackets indicate row percentages.

Source: Field Survey.

It is brought out in the above Table that about 67 percent of surveyed households of Cooch Behar district use tube wells as own source of drinking water, 30 percent households use tube well or well on shared basis as source of their drinking water and only about 3 percent households use well as own source of drinking water. There is no any other source of drinking water in surveyed households. As shared sources of water requires lots of time to be devoted to collect water due to travel requirement to the source of water as well as spending time in standing on the queue, therefore 30 percent surveyed households in Cooch Behar district are normally done this type of troublesome activities to cover drinking water. Well being as one of the source of drinking water was found to be insignificant among the surveyed households. However, it reveals that there are inter-village variations of migrant households among the mentioned different drinking water sources.

6.3.4 Household Infrastructure: House Electrification

One of the most important indicators of standard of living of family is the existence of electricity in a house. It can be used for many proposes like lighting, running various types of electric and electronic gadgets as well as fuel. Data presented in Table 6.8 below exhibited that only about 9 percent surveyed houses were electrified whereas about 91 percent surveyed houses had not gained electricity connection. There is no doubt that poverty was the main cause for which they couldn't afford to have electric connection.

Table – 6.8

Distribution of Households on the Basis of Household Infrastructure: House Electrification

Village	Yes	Yes (%)	No	No (%)
Vill 1	1	4.00	24	96.00
Vill 2	3	12.00	22	88.00
Vill 3	1	4.00	24	96.00
Vill 4	1	4.00	24	96.00
Vill 5	5	20.00	20	80.00
Vill 6	2	8.00	23	92.00
District Total	13	8.67	137	91.33

Source: Field Survey

However, there were inter-village variations exist between having electricity and not having electricity of surveyed households. Thus, it could be supposed that in different aspects of household infrastructure the members of the surveyed households live a sub-human life. This distress condition bounded to push them towards migration to other places to earn a little more in order to somehow maintain and improve their living conditions.

6.3.5 Almost Zero Waiting Period for Migrants at Destination

In Todaro’s migration model it has been conceded that due to urban unemployment, there is a probability that some of the job seekers who are migrating to towns and cities may have to remain unemployed for a certain period to get any job or a coveted job. We have made an attempt to test this proposition from Table 6.9 which can also be depicted in bar and pie diagrams in Figs. 6.5(a) and 6.5(b) below.

Table - 6.9**Distribution of Migrants on the Basis of Whether Had to Wait or Not to Get Job (Family wise) at Destination**

Village	Yes(No.)	Yes (%)	No(No.)	No (%)
Vill 1	0	0.00	25	100.00
Vill 2	0	0.00	25	100.00
Vill 3	0	0.00	25	100.00
Vill 4	0	0.00	25	100.00
Vill 5	1	2.00	24	98.00
Vill 6	0	0.00	25	100.00
District Total	1	0.67	149	99.33

Source: Field Survey.

It could be found in the above table that in 99.33 percent cases the migrant workers did not have to wait in the destination to obtain a job and only 0.67 percent cases the migrant workers had to wait to get job. Thus, waiting to get job for the migrants in the destination was insignificant here. The matter of the fact is that almost there was no waiting by the migrants for jobs but there were jobs waiting to be manned by the migrants at the destination in our study. There were several reasons for this as mentioned below.

First, household workers of the villages of our survey were neither ambitious nor qualified for getting white-collar jobs either in the formal sector or in the informal sector.

Second, friends, relatives, labour recruiters/contractors, employers' agents whoever are the facilitator of migration arranged for the absorption of the migrant workers at the destination before their arrival.

Thirdly, the financial conditions of most of the migrants were so erratic that they couldn't afford to remain unemployed except 2-3 days. Before making journey to the destination, they were already assured of their employment and lodging as well as become informed about the nature and terms and conditions of their work.

Thus, the rural areas of our survey was witnessing massive stream of out-migration towards urban, semi-urban or rural areas that were instantly absorbed at the destination in various non-farm or farm activities without any difficulty and without any major problem of assimilation and adaptation.

Wages and other terms and conditions of employment offered by the employers were quite agreeable to the migrant workers. Therefore, zero waiting period to join jobs at destination is a boon to be out-migrants and is working as an infallible pull factor to them.

Fig. 6.5(a)

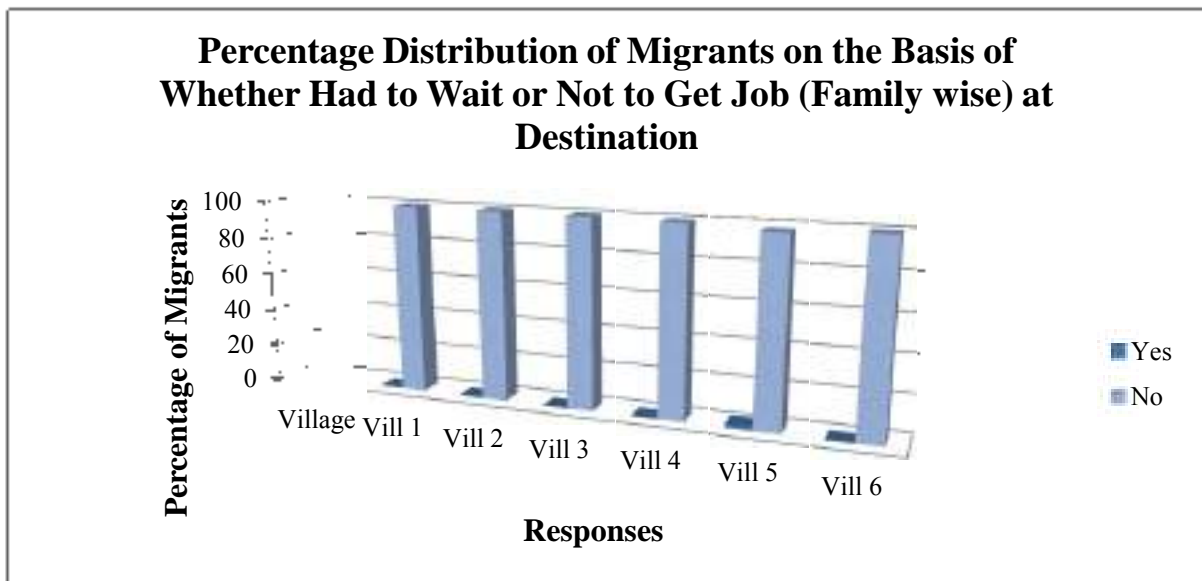
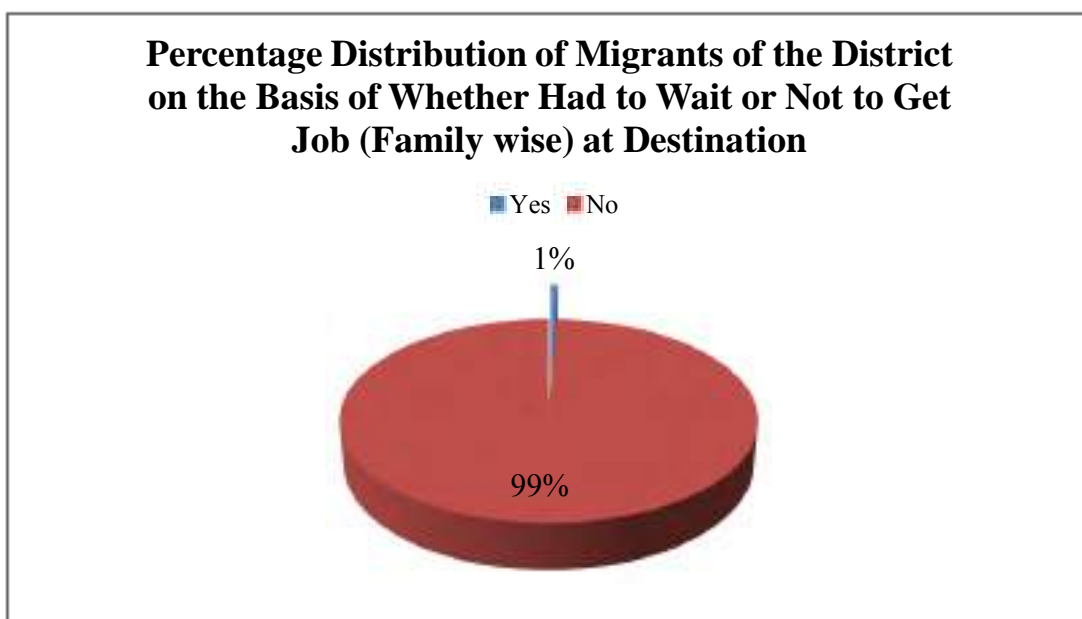


Fig. 6.5(b)



6.3.6 Helping/Motivating Others to Migrate

Migrant households worker motivate others to migrate various places that leads to increase migration rate. We have made an attempt to know from the migrant workers or their family members whether the migrants helped or motivated others to migrate. Table 6.10 represents the migrant workers who helped others to migrate in the destination area which is graphically presented with the help of bar and pie diagrams in Figs. 6.6(a) and 6.6(b).

Table -6.10					
Distribution of Migrants on the Basis of Helping Others to Migrate					
Village	Yes (no.)	Yes (percent)	No (No.)	No (percent)	Total
Vill 1	22	23.16	73	76.84	95(100.00)
Vill 2	20	28.99	49	71.01	69(100.00)
Vill 3	25	40.32	37	59.68	62(100.00)
Vill 4	32	49.23	33	50.77	65(100.00)
Vill 5	8	12.12	31	52.54	39(100.00)
Vill 6	28	47.46	31	52.54	50(100.00)
District Total	135	32.45	281	67.55	416(100.00)

Note: Figures in brackets indicate row percentages.

Source: Field Survey.

Data revealed in the above Table that about 32 per cent migrant workers of surveyed households helped others to migrate and about 68 percent migrant workers did not help others for migration. So, there was a quite portion of migrant workers who motivated others to migrate. The reason for motivation might be that since migration from the district was overwhelmingly rural to urban areas and at distant places, therefore, workers who already migrated worked as a role model or motivator to many prospective migrant workers. Migration to other states and in urban areas was at the same time a charm and an adventure as well as constituted lots of tension and apprehensions to the prospective migrants. In such a condition, many migrant workers motivated the prospective migrants and dispel some of the apprehensions of the latter.

Fig. 6.6(a)

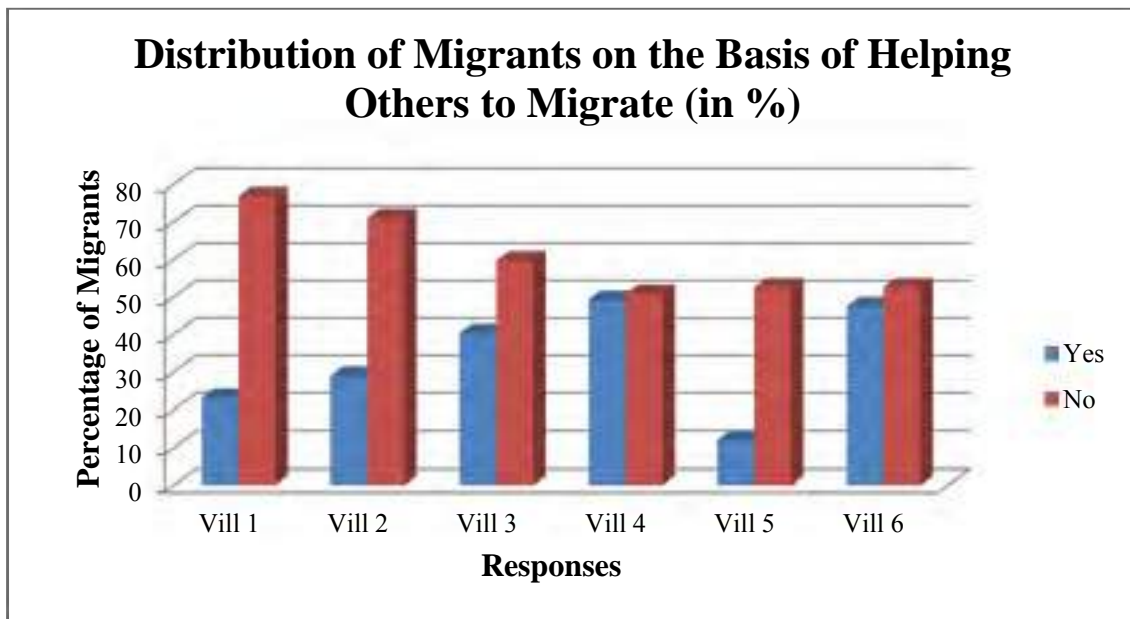
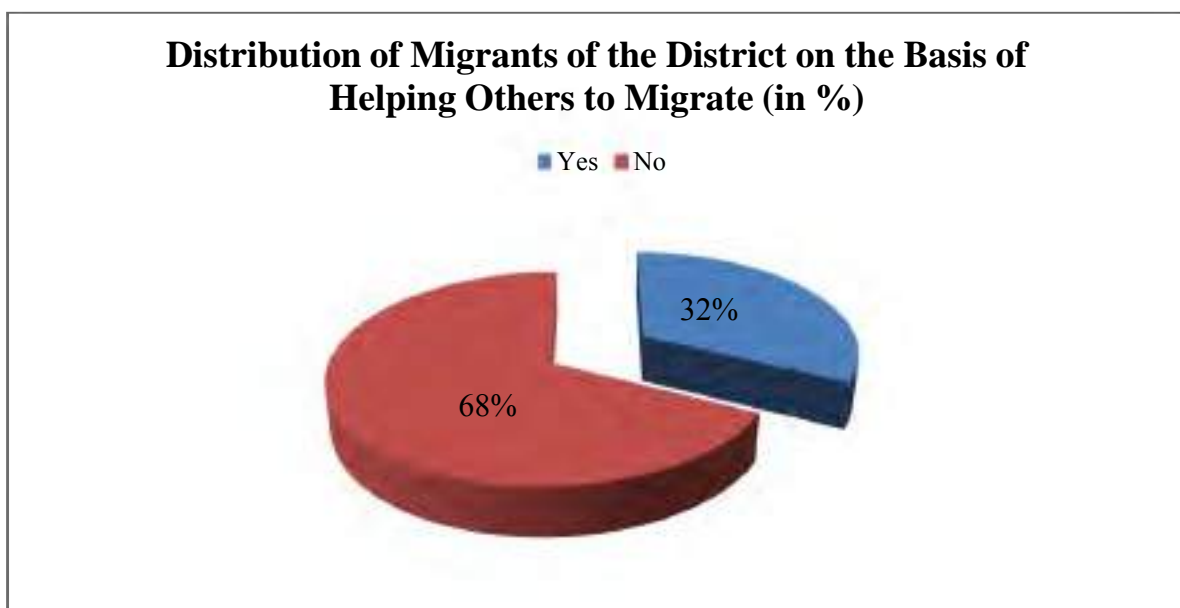


Fig. 6.6(b)



6.3.7 Employment at Origin

Household workers of surveyed households had received varieties of days of employment in a year before out-migration at local areas i.e. at origin. Although, few households did not receive even a single day of employment. Now, it can be seen through our field investigation. The employment scenario for the migrants' households if they stayed at origin instead of migrating are presented in Table 6.11 and in Figs. 6.7(a) and 6.7(b).

Table – 6.11**Distribution of Migrants on the Basis of Days of Employment****Per Year if Would Not Migrate (in Percentages)**

Village/District	No Employment	1 to 120	121 to 200	200 & above	Total
Vill 1	68.00	12.00	20.00	0.00	100.00
Vill 2	0.00	16.00	80.00	4.00	100.00
Vill 3	40.00	0.00	60.00	0.00	100.00
Vill 4	4.00	80.00	16.00	0.00	100.00
Vill 5	4.00	32.00	64.00	0.00	100.00
Vill 6	12.00	40.00	48.00	0.00	100.00
District Total	21.33	30.00	48.00	0.67	100.00

Source: Field Survey

It is revealed from the above Table that about 21 percent households reported that their working members would have remained unemployed, 30 percent reported to get employment for upto 120 days, 48 percent would get employment between 121 to 200 days and less than one percent i.e., 0.67 percent households reported to a have been employed for more than 200 days in a year it they remained in origin instead at migrating. So most of the working members of the surveyed households got employment between 121 to 200 days in a year. Employments consisting of more than 200 days by the working members of the households were found to be insignificant. However, there were much inter-village variations regarding days of employment received in a year.

Now, if the migration of the households would not take place, then the proportion of unemployment in the district would have been in the case of one fifth of the total households, As a result, a larger proportion of the households of the district might afford to remain unemployed in the case of migration not taking place.

The important point to note is that in the best possible situation working age members of 48 percent households of the district would get employed upto 200 days only in a year. It shows that there is a situation of massive underemployment of rural labourers in the villages

of our survey. This indicates that the situation was rife enough to warrant large scale emigration of rural labourers in search of livelihood.

Now, comparing with destinations, employment opportunity is available throughout the year in public and private civil construction sites, in factories, queries, brick kilns etc. It was reported that labourers could work in destinations for all the 365 days of a year if they liked. Moreover, there is no waiting for job to the migrants; rather the jobs are in waiting for the migrants at destinations. This happens due to the fact that the migrants, who are already there in destinations, make arrangements of employment for the potential migrants before the arrival of the latter in destinations. Moreover, most jobs being manual in nature, the new migrants virtually faces very little competition from the local labourers at destinations since there is a huge shortage of labourers at destinations as well as due to the fact that local labourers finds performing such menial jobs beyond dignity. Thus, the problems of demanding higher wages, higher recess time by the local labourers that lead to the problem of lesser degree of control over the local labourers on the part of the employers. Though we have not made our survey at destinations, all these factors have been reported to us by respondents at origin. Thus the push factors on the part of the migrant workers become a pull factor on the part of the employers at destination. The two factors combined reinforce the migration process of the working members of the households which we surveyed.

Fig. 6.7(a)

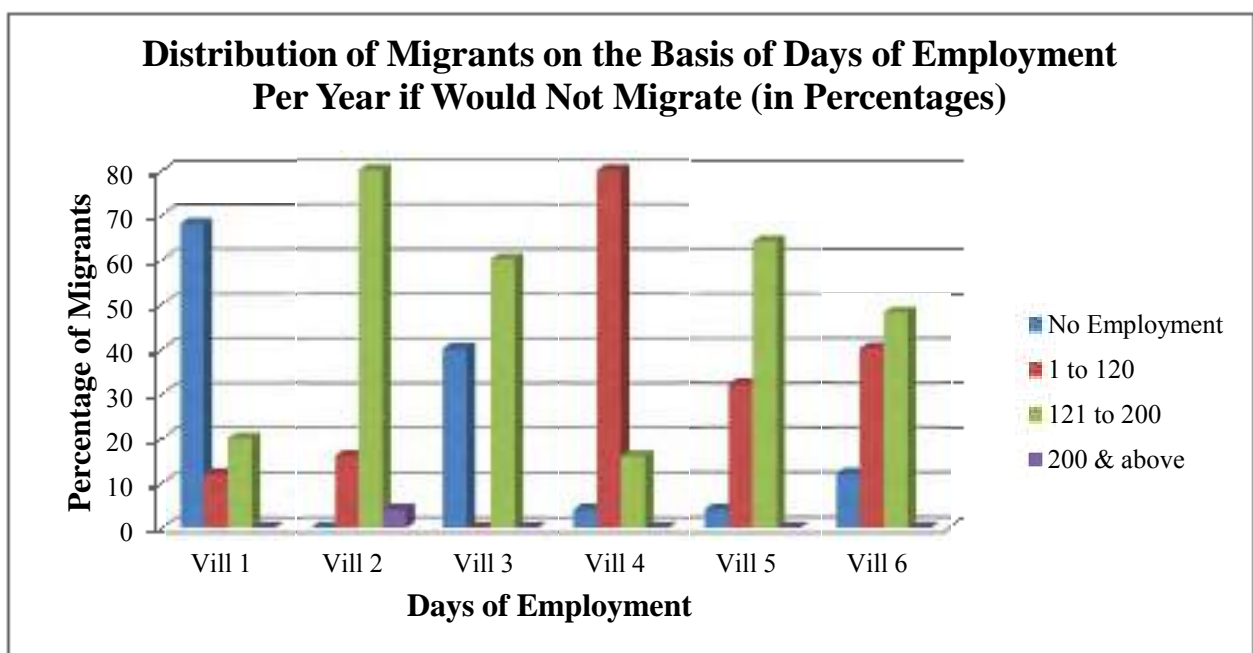
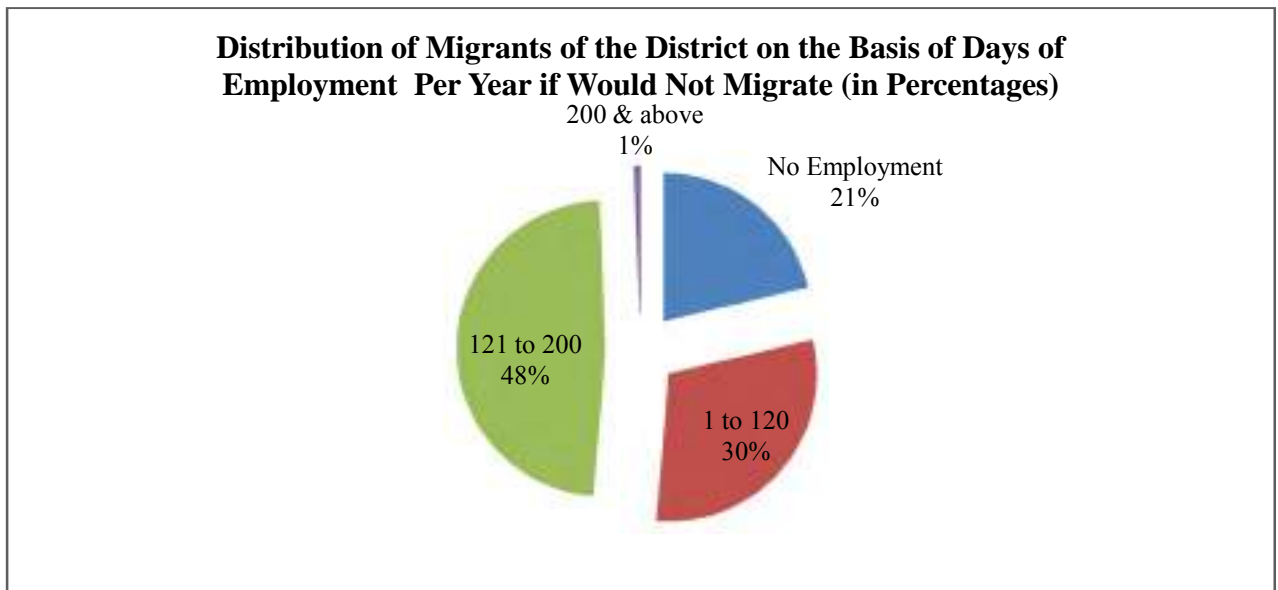


Fig. 6.7(b)



6.3.8 Wages at Origin

One more driving force of migration is the higher wage rates prevailing at destination compared to the lower wages rates at origin. Thus, the former operates as pull factor and the latter acts as push factor of migration. It may be noted that the higher average wage rates at destinations are not part of ‘expected’ income as has been postulated by Todaro, rather it is part of ‘actual’ income due to the fact that there is no ‘probability’ factor working in destinations. The probability of getting employment is hundred out of hundred. So it is the lure of higher wage rates and higher total actual income at destinations compared to the origin that works as a strong driving force or pull factor for out-migration of rural workers from our areas of survey.

Now, the wage rates prevailing and received by the workers who work at origin by performing different types of work are shown in Table 6.12 and also depicted in bar and pie diagrams in Figs. 6.8(a) and 6.8(b) below.

Table-6.12**Distribution of Migrants on their Basis of Rates of Wages (in Rs.) Per day Received at Origin (in percentages)**

Village	Upto to 40	41 to 60	61 to 80	Above 80	Total
Vill 1	12.50	87.50	0.00	0.00	100.00
Vill 2	4.17	95.83	0.00	0.00	100.00
Vill 3	0.00	33.33	66.67	0.00	100.00
Vill 4	0.00	70.00	30.00	0.00	100.00
Vill 5	0.00	66.67	28.57	4.76	100.00
Vill 6	0.00	57.14	42.86	0.00	100.00
District Total	1.84	68.81	28.44	0.91	100.00

Source: Field Survey.

The data expressed in the above table that migrant labourers of the surveyed households would have received wage rates of upto 40 rupees in the case of labourers of about 2 percent households in the district. This indicates that these types of labourers from the surveyed households were faced at distressed situation. Then labourers from nearly 62 per households were received Rs. 41 to Rs. 60. This also indicates a distressed situation of surveyed households as it carried comparatively low wage rate. On the other hand, the labours of about 28 percent households would get Rs. 61 to 80, relatively higher rate of wages and only near about 1 percent household workers were received wages above Rs. 80. However, there were much inter-village variations regarding the wage rates of surveyed households.

It may be mentioned that at the time of field survey year, that is, in the 2013, the government's daily minimum wages were lies between Rs. 115 to Rs.137. So, most of the labourers did not get wages equivalent to government's daily minimum wages. Only about 1 percent household workers were received wages equivalent to government's daily minimum wages.

Though not strictly comparable, (as data have been collected household wise that is presented in Table - 6.3(8), whereas data presented in Table - 5.3(5) have been collected individual migrant worker-wise) still from a rough comparison of wage rates presented in Table - 6.3(8),, and Table - 5.3(5) we see that percentage of workers who received wage rates of upto

Rs 60 is only about 3 percent in case of migrant workers which is nearly 62 percent workers in the district as they were non-migrant. But about 35 percent of the migrant workers of this district earn a wage rate of Rs. above 80 which is available to non-migrant workers from less than one percent of the surveyed households. This shows that there is a tremendous boost in earning due to migration.

Thus, it can be seen that higher wage rates prevailing at destinations has been a driving force of rural out-migration in our study area. The monthly and yearly incomes are also high in the post-migrant situation compared to the pre-migration situation and number of days of employment is much higher in the former situation compared to the latter situation.

Fig. 6.8(a)

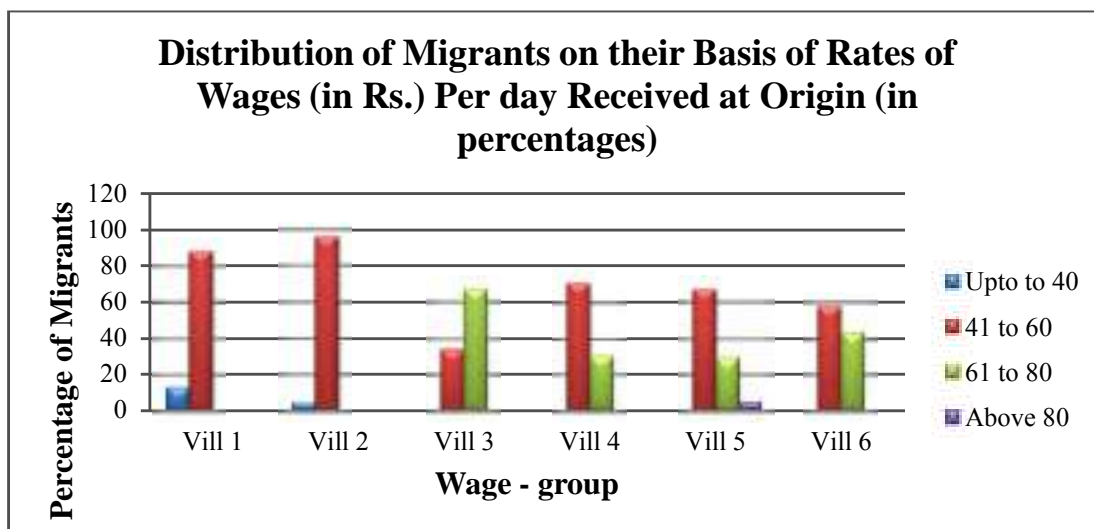
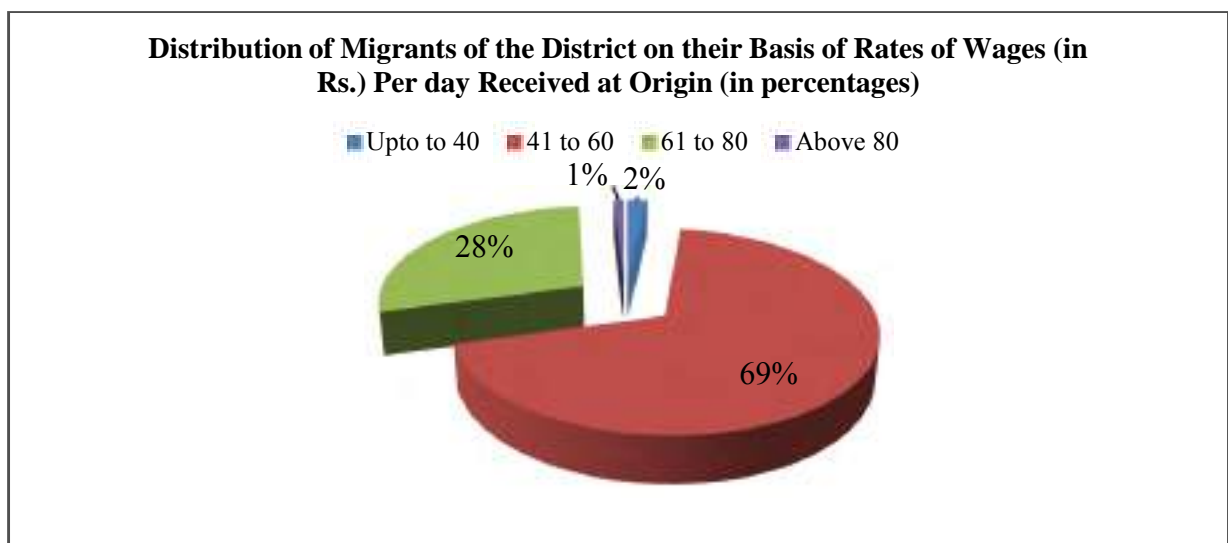


Fig. 6.8(b)



6.3.9 Reasons for Migration

Migration from households may be occurred due to various reasons. It can be broadly classified into two categories – push factors and pull factors. But, what are the specific factors for causing migration of household members? We have tried to find out through our field investigation. Of course, for policy recommendations it is very important to have information on reasons for migration. Table 6.13 below shows the distribution of migrants regarding reasons for migration which is also illustrated with the help of bar and pie diagrams in Figs. 6.9(a) and 6.9(b).

Table-6.13: Distribution of Migrants on the Basis of Reasons for Migration

Village/District	In search of employment	In search of better employment	Business	Transfer of services/contract	Proximity to place work	Health care use	Migration of the parent/earning member of the family	Total
Vill 1	7(9.59)	44(60.27)	1(1.37)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	21(28.77)	73(100.00)
Vill 2	4(9.53)	27(64.27)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	11(26.20)	42(100.00)
Vill 3	37(88.09)	1(2.38)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	4(9.53)	42(100.00)
Vill 4	3(9.09)	28(84.85)	0(0.00)	2(6.06)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	33(100.00)
Vill 5	7(22.58)	24(77.42)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	31(100.00)
Vill 6	12(38.71)	19(61.29)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	31(100.00)
District	70(27.78)	143(56.74)	1(0.40)	2(0.79)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	36(14.29)	252(100.00)

Note: (i) Figure in brackets indicate column percentages.(ii) 1= In search of employment; 2= In search of better employment; 3= business; 5= Transfer of services/contract; 6= Proximity to place work ; 14= Health care use; 17= Migration of the parent/earning member of the family.

Source: Field Survey.

It shows in the above table that in the surveyed households of the district the reasons for migration in order of importance were: ‘in search of better employment’ (nearly 57 percent), ‘in search of employment (nearly 28 percent), ‘migration of the parent/earning member of the family’ (about 14 percent). ‘Other reasons’ for migration were found to be very insignificant.

But, if we compare the reasons for migration with secondary data that are discussed in chapter 3, it is found that according to Census 2001, the most important reason for migration among males (37.6 percent) was due to work or employment whereas marriage was the most important reason for migration of females migrants (64.9 percent) from the place of last residence. So the dominant cause for migration in case of primary data is 'in search of better employment' and in case of secondary data, it is 'work or employment'. Of course, former factor is stronger than the later factor for migrants.

It is noticed in the above table there were huge inter-village variations of the causes of migration. But overall, it could be found that the dominant of migration for villages of the district is that people migrated largely to get better employment, though in villages 3 'in search of employment' was the dominant cause of migration than 'in search of better employment'. That is, in this village people were more unemployed compared to other villages where majority of the migrants migrated in search of better employment. Migration due to the 'migration of parent/earning member of the family' constituted 14 percent of migrants of the district. It may be noted that a good number of migrants in this category belonged to minors, that is, children up to the age of 14 years. The Table shows that in Cooch Behar district in villages 4, 5 and 6 there were no such type of migrants.

From the point of our forgoing analysis it is perhaps clear that both push and pull factors were responsible for effecting out-migration of family members of the household we surveyed in the selected district. However, overall push factors appeared to be stronger than the pull factors.

Fig. 6.9(a)

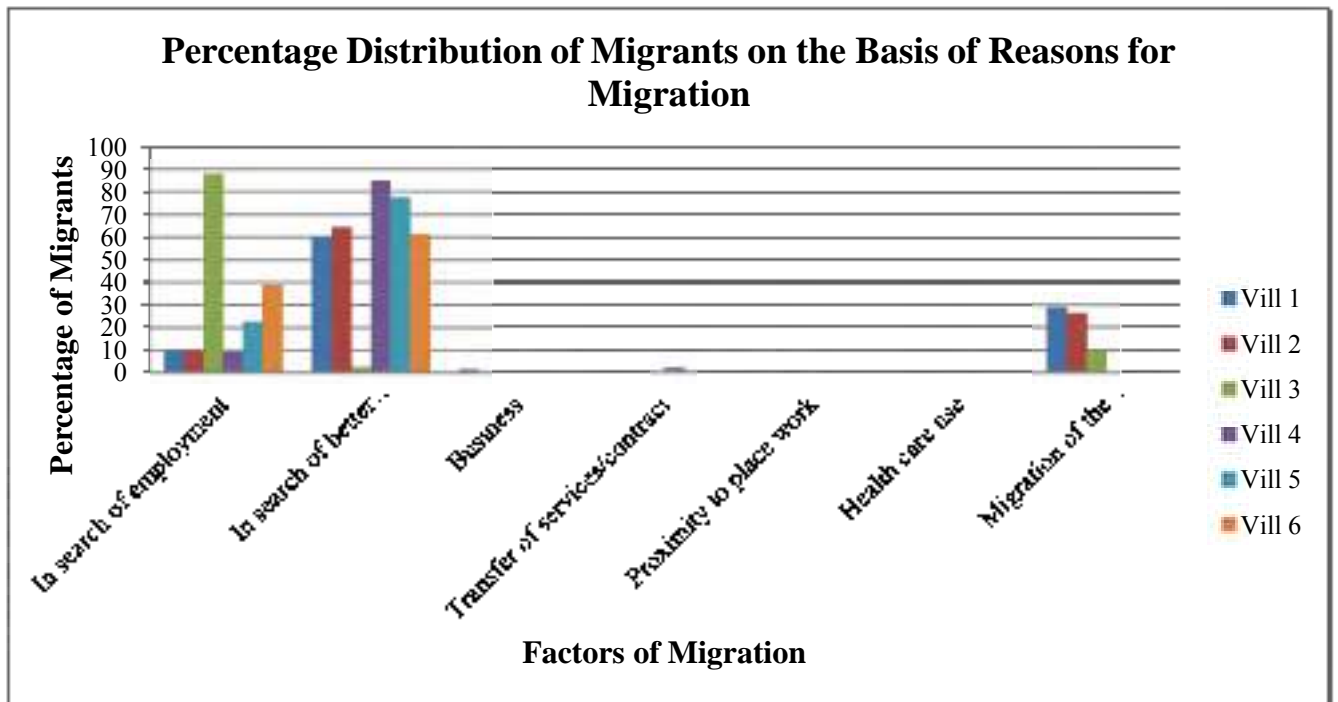
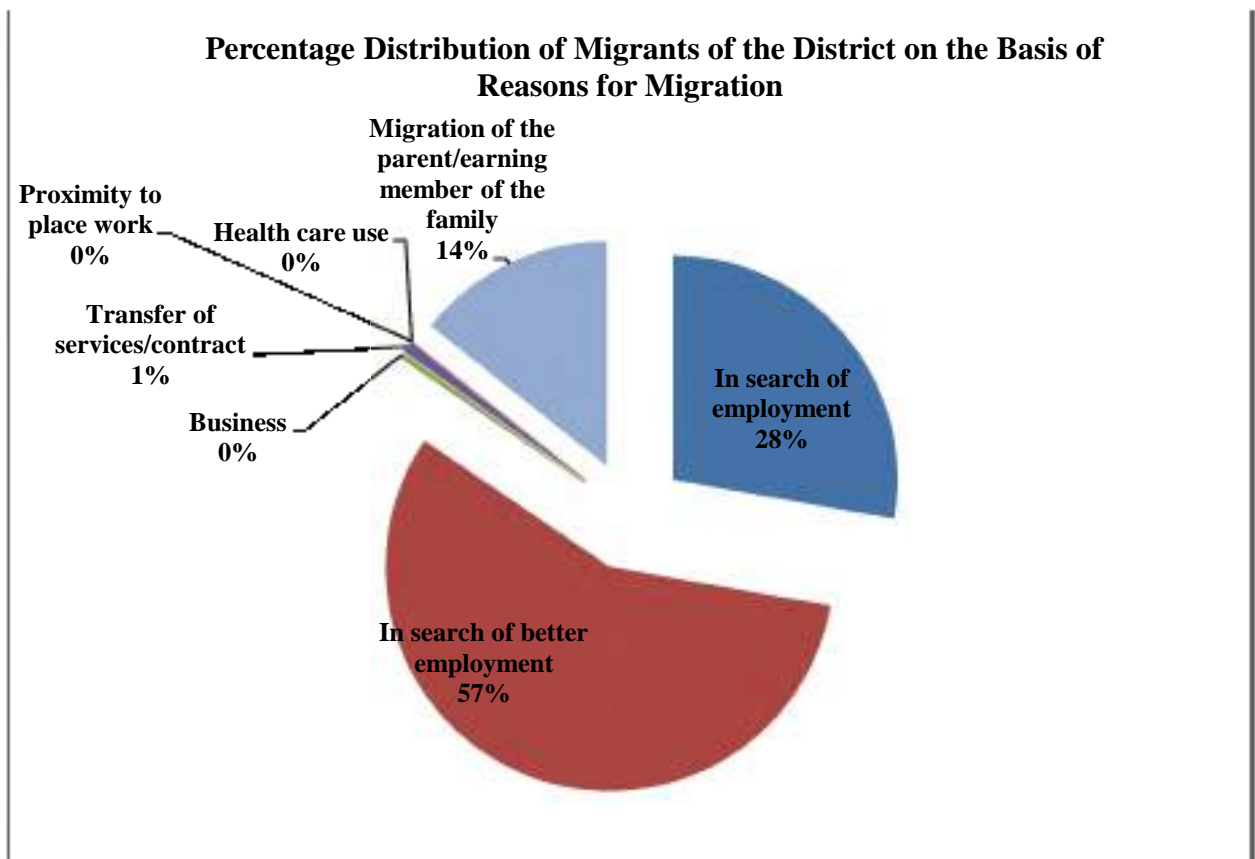


Fig. 6.9(b)



6.4 Test of Hypothesis – 2

2) Push factors are the relatively important determinants of rural-urban migration than pull factors in the study area.

We have tested hypothesis-2 in this chapter through tabular forms and with figures.

From the Tables 6.3, 6.5, 6.12 and 6.13 and the Figures 6.2(a) and 6.2(b), 6.4(a) and 6.4(b), 6.8(a) and 6.8(b) and 6.9(a) and 6.9(b), we have found regarding status of employment before out-migration that out of total surveyed households in the district, 66 percent households' workers were partially employed before out-migration and only 1.33 percent household workers were fully employed before out-migration. On the other hand, about 33 percent households' workers of the surveyed households had totally remain unemployed before out-migration. So, there was lack of employment opportunity for labourers in local areas. Regarding land possession and type of housing, it is found that majority of kutchha households have less than one bigha of cultivable land that is, they are near to landless households. As far as wages at origin are concerned, nearly 62 percent household labourers were received Rs. 41 to Rs. 60. This indicates a distressed situation of surveyed households as it carried out comparatively low wage rate. On the other hand, about 28 percent household labourers were received Rs. 61 to 80 and only near about 1 percent household workers were received wages above Rs. 80. Regarding reasons for migration, the major cause for migration is 'in search of better employment' being as pull factor of migration, other pull factors like better health, better education etc. are insignificant. Thus, overall observation is that push factors are relatively important determinants than pull factors for rural –urban migration. In this context, the hypothesis-2 is true and in this way, it is tested.

6.5 Implementation of MGNREGA and Out- Migration

National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (NREGA) was enacted in September 2005 as one of the most progressive flagships rural employment schemes of UPA Government implemented in February 2006 under the 'Ministry of Rural Development' is the National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (NREGA). This flagship programme was renamed as Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (MGNREGA) on 2nd October, 2009. Under the provision of the Act every rural household willing to do certain specified jobs will be provided with 100 days of guaranteed employment within the village/block/sub-

division. One of the objectives of the Act is to check massive out-migration of rural labourers to urban areas. It is, therefore, expected that implementation of the Act would check the massive out-migration of rural workers in our selected areas also. We had collected data from our selected households to find out how far the implementation of MGNREGA has been able to reduce one of the important push factors of migration, i.e., lack of employment opportunity.

Village/District	Yes (no.)	Yes (%)	No (no.)	No (%)	Total (no.)	Total (%)
Vill 1	25	100.00	0	0.00	25	100.00
Vill 2	25	100.00	0	0.00	25	100.00
Vill 3	24	96.00	1	4.00	25	100.00
Vill 4	19	76.00	6	24.00	25	100.00
Vill 5	22	88.00	3	12.00	25	100.00
Vill 6	17	68.00	8	32.00	25	100.00
District Total	132	88.00	18	12.00	150	100.00

Source: Field Survey.

Now, in order to get employment, a rural household shall have to apply for a job card and obtain it. We made an enquiry in the surveyed households whether they held job cards to be eligible for getting 100 days employment. The results of our survey are displayed in Table 6.14 below.

Data presented in the above Table 6.12 reveal that 88 percent households of Cooch Behar district held job cards under the scheme and only 12 percent households did not get job card under the scheme. A higher percentage of job card holders of surveyed households indicate that the depth of poverty was higher among them as a higher number of them were job hungry.

Thus, from the number of job card holding it appeared that majority of households surveyed in the district were willing to do the jobs provided under the scheme. It also appeared to us that households who did not procure job cards were the APL households. In fact, almost all BPL households were found to be willing to do the jobs provided under the scheme.

However, only holding of job cards is not enough. The willing households are to be provided with much amount of works. We therefore made an investigation to find out whether a household received employment at all under the scheme. The results are being displayed in Table 6.15 below.

Village	Received	Did not receive	Total
Village 1	23 (92.00)	2(8.00)	25(100.00)
Village 2	25 (100.00)	0(0.00)	25(100.00)
Village 3	0(0.00)	25(100.00)	25(100.00)
Village 4	14(56.00)	11(44.00)	25(100.00)
Village 5	21(84.00)	4(16.00)	25(100.00)
Village 6	4(16.00)	21(84.00)	25(100.00)
District Total	88(58.67)	62(41.33)	150(100.00)

Note: Figures in brackets indicate row percentages.

Source: Field Survey

It could be seen from the above table that about 59 percent of the surveyed households of Cooch Behar district received some days of employment and about 41 percent households did not receive even a single day of employment under MGNREGS. So, a large part of households' member did not receive any employment. It was found that there were much inter-village variations regarding employment received and did not receive under the mentioned scheme. In village 3, there was no even a single migrant who received employment under the above mentioned scheme in the last one year. The paradoxical result between villages 5 and 6 found in the table was that in village 5, 84 percent households received some days of employment and remaining 16 percent did not receive even a single day of employment whereas in village 6 only 16 percent households got some days of employment and a large amount of households i.e., 84 percent households did not get any

employment. So, implementations of MGNREGS works were not adequate among the surveyed households of the district.

All over again, provision for job is not the execution of pledge of providing 100 days of employment to the entitled households. These households are to be provided with the stipulated number of employment days. We had collected data on the actual number of days of employment provided to the applicant households through our field investigation. The results are shown in Table 6.16 and in Figs. 6.10(a) and 6.10(b) below.

Village	1 to 5	6 to 10	11 to 16	17 & above	Not Applicable	Total
Vill 1	6(24.00)	17(68.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	2(8.00)	25(100.00)
Vill 2	2(8.00)	23(92.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	25(100.00)
Vill 3	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	25(100.00)	25(100.00)
Vill 4	2(8.00)	7(28.00)	3(12.00)	2(8.00)	11(44.00)	25(100.00)
Vill 5	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	4(16.00)	17(68.00)	4(16.00)	25(100.00)
Vill 6	2(8.00)	2(8.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	21(84.00)	25(100.00)
District Total	12(8.00)	49(32.67)	7(4.67)	19(12.66)	63(42.00)	150(100.00)

Note: Figures in brackets indicate row percentages.

Source: Field Survey.

It is revealed from the above Table that nearly 33 percent households received employment between 6 to 10 days, 12 percent households received 17 days and 8 percent received employment 1 to 5 days only and 42 percent did not receive any employment at all in the district.

Therefore, the above picture of employment arrangements through MGNREGS brought out a very poor state of implementation of MGNREGA among the investigated villages. Such a poor performance of the programme obviously discouraged the job card holders. They, therefore, could not rely on the scheme to get employment for 100 days for the family in a

year. Thus, this programme appeared to have failed miserably in checking rural out-migration from the households of our survey.

Fig. 6.10(a)

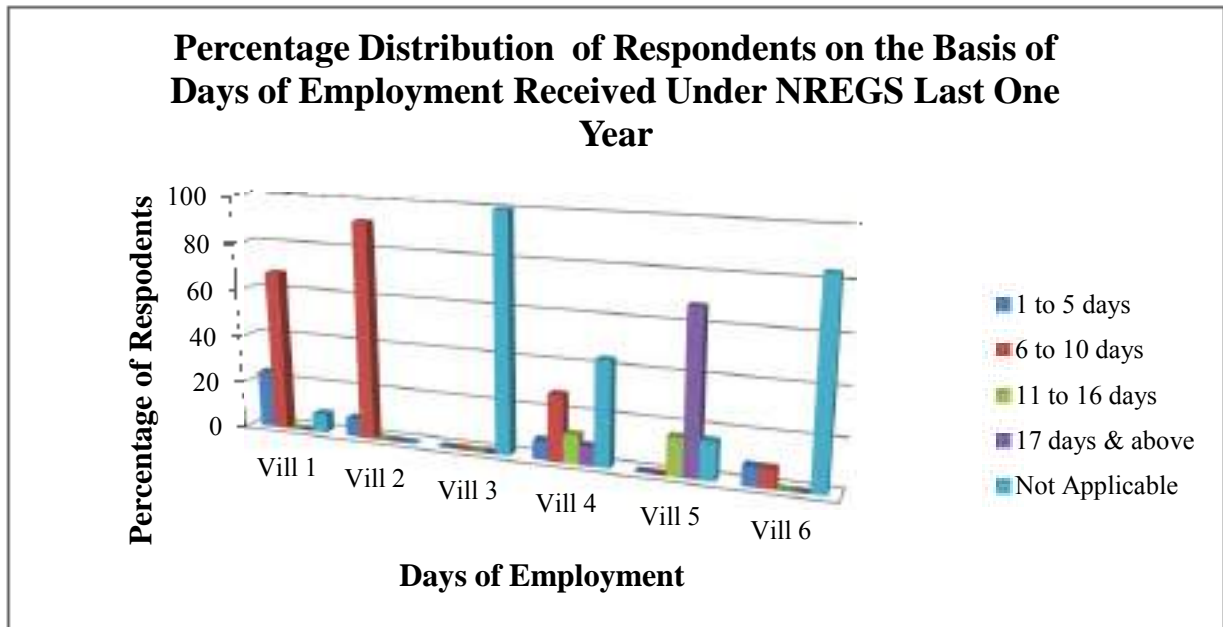
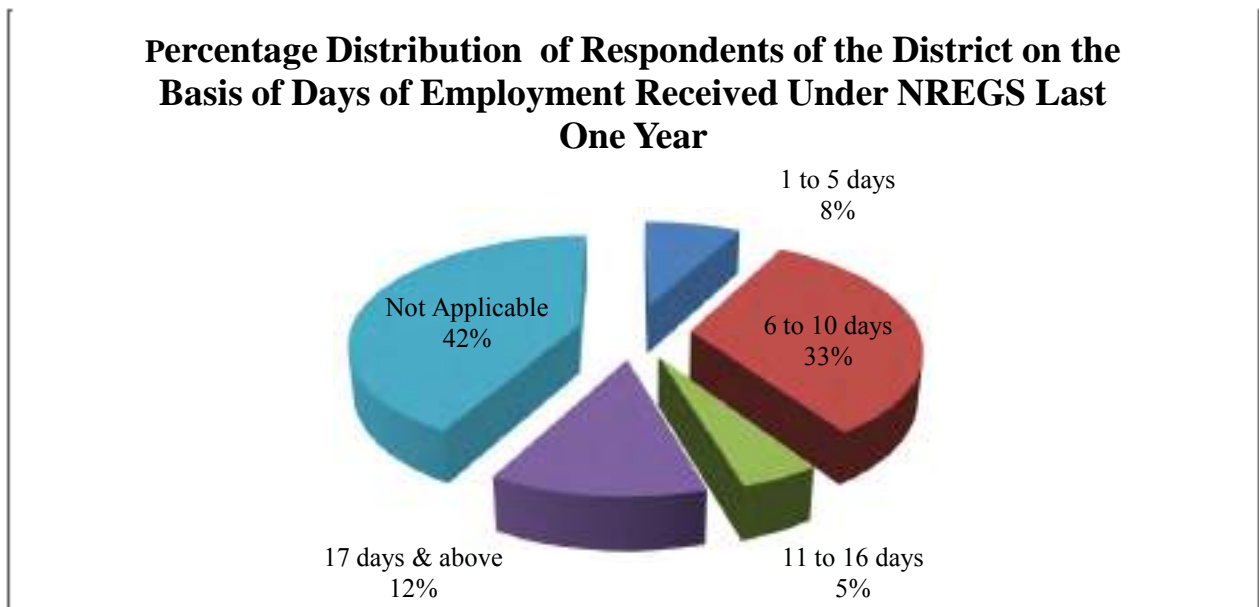


Fig. 6.10(b)



6.6 Test of Hypothesis – 3

3. Urban-rural real income-differential is not the most important cause of rural-urban migration.

We have tested hypothesis-3 through tabular forms and with figures.

From the Tables 5.12 and 6.12 and the Figures 5.11(a) and 5.11(b) and 6.8(a) and 6.8(b), we have found that regarding rates of wages received at destination, most of the migrant workers were received wages in the range of Rs. 81-100 per day engaging as labour in industrial sector. On the other hand, regarding rates of wages at origin, it is found that majority of migrant labour were received wages in the range of Rs. 41-60 per day engaging as agricultural labour in agriculture and allied sector. So, the difference between the rates of urban and rural real wages of migrant workers before and after migration is very marginal amount. Therefore, it is said that urban-rural real income-differential is not the most important cause of rural-urban migration and it is, therefore, true in this context. In this way, hypothesis-3 is tested.

6.7 The Comparative Analyses between Migrant and Non-migrant Households regarding their Nature and Significance

We surveyed a total of 300 migrant and non-migrant households in six villages of Cooch Behar district consisting of 150 migrant households and 150 non-migrant households. The survey had been done on the numbers of mentioned households regarding various aspects like land possession, sector of employment, implementation of MGNREGA in the villages and their adjacent areas, etc that are discussed in detail below. We have tried to find out here the important causes for migration of migrant households and causes for no migration of non-migrant households through the comparative analyses between migrant and non-migrant households regarding their nature and significance.

6.7.1 Land Possession of Migrant and Non-migrant Households

We have categorised here six types of size of cultivable land of migrant and non-migrant households of the surveyed villages of Cooch Behar district and compared between them. The distribution of migrant and non-migrant households based on the types of land possession is presented in Table 6.17, which is graphically presented with the help of bar diagrams in Fig. 6.11(a) and 6.11(b) below.

Table 6.17: Distribution of Migrant and Non-migrant Households on the Basis of Land Possession

District	Land Possessed (in Bighas)	Migrant Households	Migrant Households(in percentage)	Non-Migrant Households	Non-Migrant Households(in percentage)
Cooch Behar	Less than 1	91	60.67	53	35.33
	1.0 – 3.0	32	21.33	43	28.67
	3.1 – 7.5	19	12.67	28	18.67
	7.6 – 15.0	6	4.00	23	15.33
	15.1- 30.0	2	1.33	3	2.00
	Greater than 30.0	0	0.00	0	0.00
	Total		150	100.00	150

Source: Field Survey.

The data indicated in the above Table reveal that in case of migrant households, out of total 150 migrant households 61 percent households possessed first category of agricultural land that is less than 1 bigha whereas from a total of 150 non-migrant households about 35 percent households possessed the same type of agricultural land. But from the second category that is 1.0 – 3.0 to 15.1-30.0, the agricultural lands possessed by the non-migrant households were consecutively greater than those types of land possession of migrant households. There was no any agricultural land of both migrant and non-migrant households that lies greater than 30 bighas. Regarding the type of 7.6 – 15.0 agricultural land, only 4 percent migrant households possessed this type of land. On the other hand, about 15 percent non-migrant households possessed the same type of agricultural land which was obviously much higher than the migrant households. Thus, it is cleared from the above table that due to insufficiency of possession of agricultural land, migrant workers were bound to migrate to eke out their living whereas non-migrant households had comparatively the higher possession of agricultural land than migrant households that was the reason for non-migration.

Fig. 6.11(a)

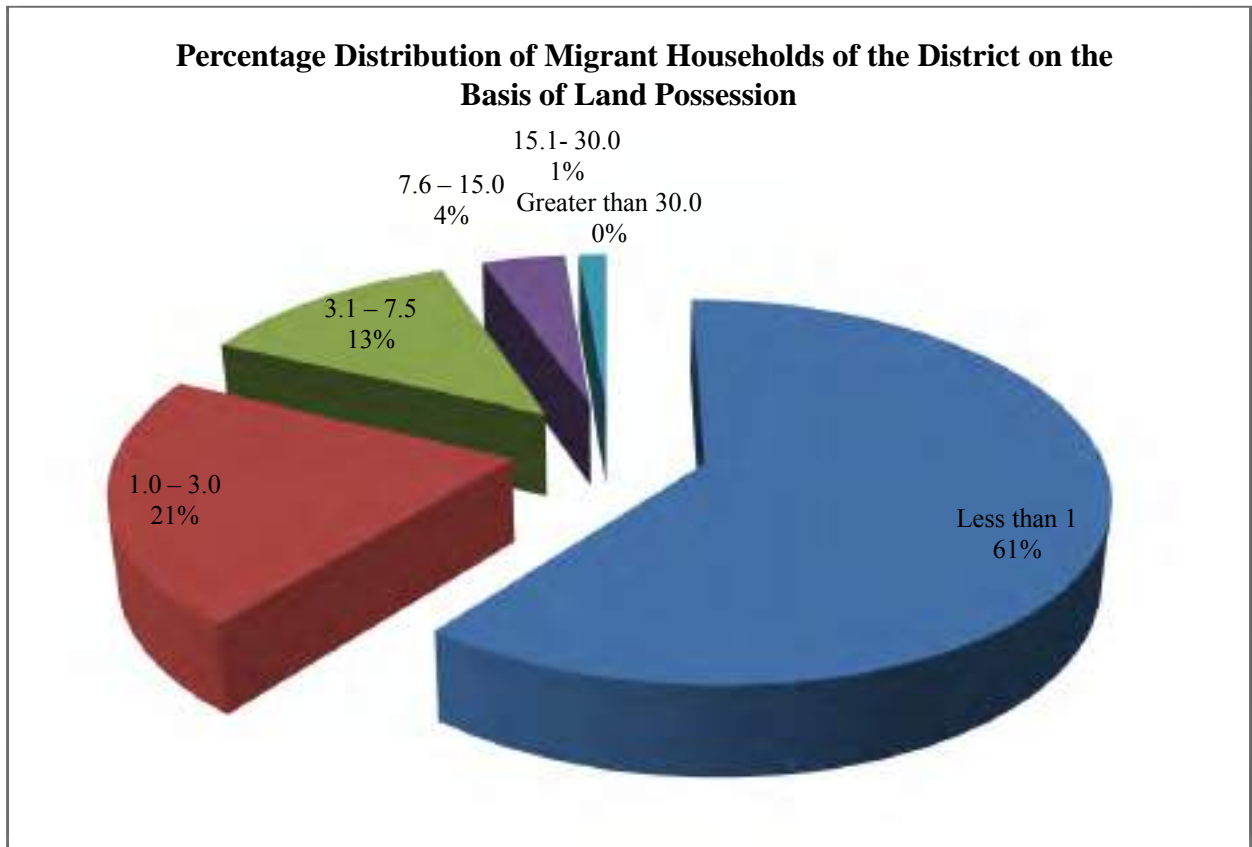
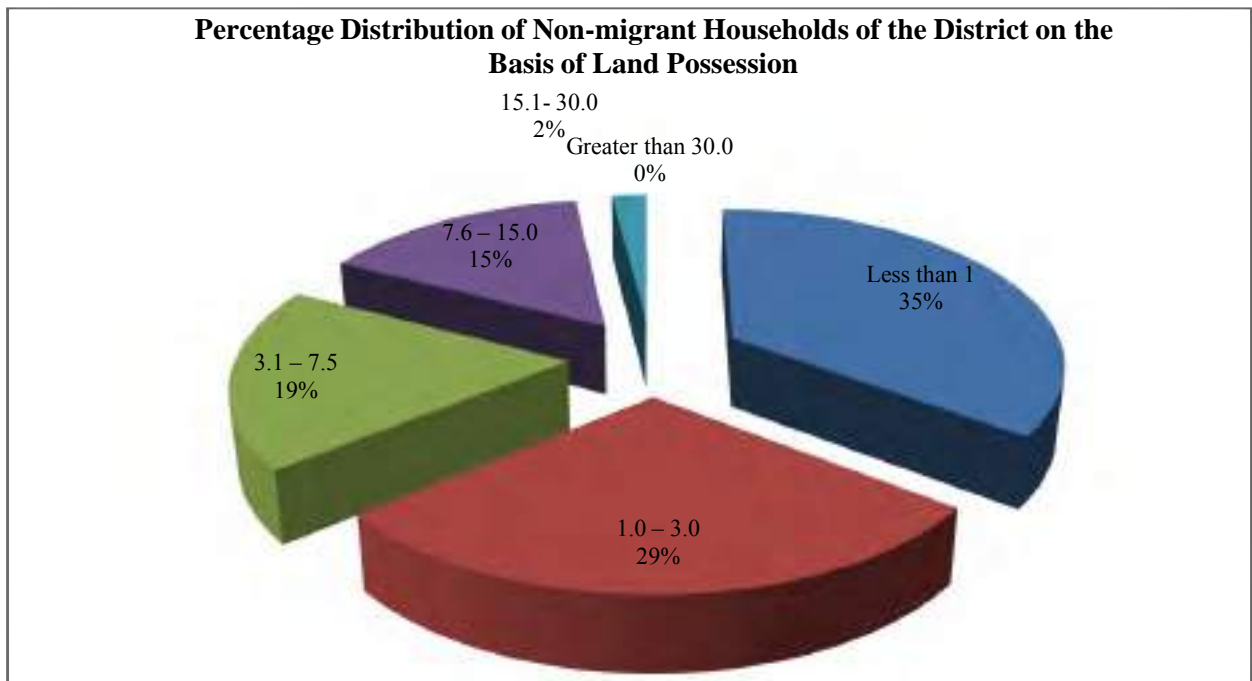


Fig. 6.11(b)



6.7.2 Sector of Employment before Out-migration of Migrant Households and Sector of Employment of Non-migrant Households

Sector of employment is an important factor that results to the economic condition of the household. Here we have divided sectors of employment of both migrant and non-migrant households into three categories as agriculture and allied, industry and service. In case of migrant households who were not getting employed before out-migration, are treated as not applicable. The Table 6.18 and in Figs. 6.12(a) and 6.12(b) below shows the distribution of migrant households on the basis of sector of employment before out-migration and sector of employment of non-migrant households.

Table 6.18: Distribution of Migrant Households on the Basis of Sector of Employment before Out-migration and Sector of Employment of Non-migrant Households

Village	Household Category	Sector of Employment			Not Applicable	Total
		Agriculture & Allied	Industry	Service		
Vill 1	MIG	8(32.00)	1(4.00)	0(0.00)	16(84.00)	25(100.00)
	N-MIG	19(76.00)	1(4.00)	5(20.00)	0(0.00)	25(100.00)
Vill 2	MIG	23(92.00)	1(4.00)	0(0.00)	1(4.00)	25(100.00)
	N-MIG	18(72.00)	1(4.00)	6(24.00)	0(0.00)	25(100.00)
Vill 3	MIG	12(48.00)	2(8.00)	1(4.00)	10(40.00)	25(100.00)
	N-MIG	19(76.00)	0(0.00)	6(24.00)	0(0.00)	25(100.00)
Vill 4	MIG	18(72.00)	1(4.00)	0(0.00)	6(24.00)	25(100.00)
	N-MIG	19(76.00)	0(0.00)	6(24.00)	0(0.00)	25(100.00)
Vill 5	MIG	13(52.00)	6(24.00)	0(0.00)	6(24.00)	25(100.00)
	N-MIG	19(76.00)	0(0.00)	6(24.00)	0(0.00)	25(100.00)
Vill 6	MIG	20(80.00)	1(4.00)	0(0.00)	4(16.00)	25(100.00)
	N-MIG	18(72.00)	1(4.00)	6(24.00)	0(0.00)	25(100.00)
District Total	MIG	94(62.67)	12(8.00)	1(0.67)	43(28.66)	150(100.00)
	N-MIG	112(74.67)	3(2.00)	35(23.33)	0(0.00)	150(100.00)

Source: Field Survey.

The data presented in the above Table reveal that about 63 percent of the migrant households engaged in agriculture and allied activities whereas about 75 percent of the non-migrant households engaged in agriculture and allied activities. So, non-migrant households engaged more than migrant households in that type of activities. For migrant households, only about 9 percent associated with both industrial and service related activities. On the other hand, about 25 percent non-migrant households associated with both industrial and service related activities. Therefore, non-migrant households associated more with those types of activities than migrant households. In case of migrant households, about 29 percent of the households did not get employment opportunity in local areas before out-migration. Although, there were much inter-village variations observed in the above table among migrant and non-migrant households regarding various sectors of employment. Thus, it is cleared that most of the migrant and non-migrant households engaged in agriculture and allied activities and since a quite percentages of migrant households before out-migration did not get employment opportunity in local areas, for this they were forced to migrate outside for getting employment opportunity.

Fig. 12(a)

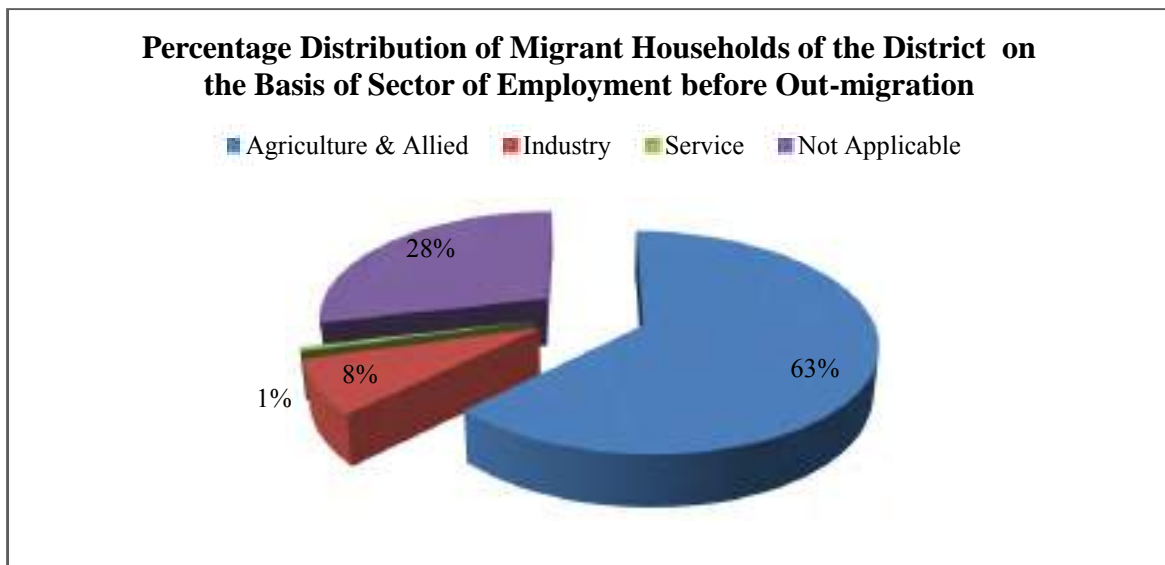
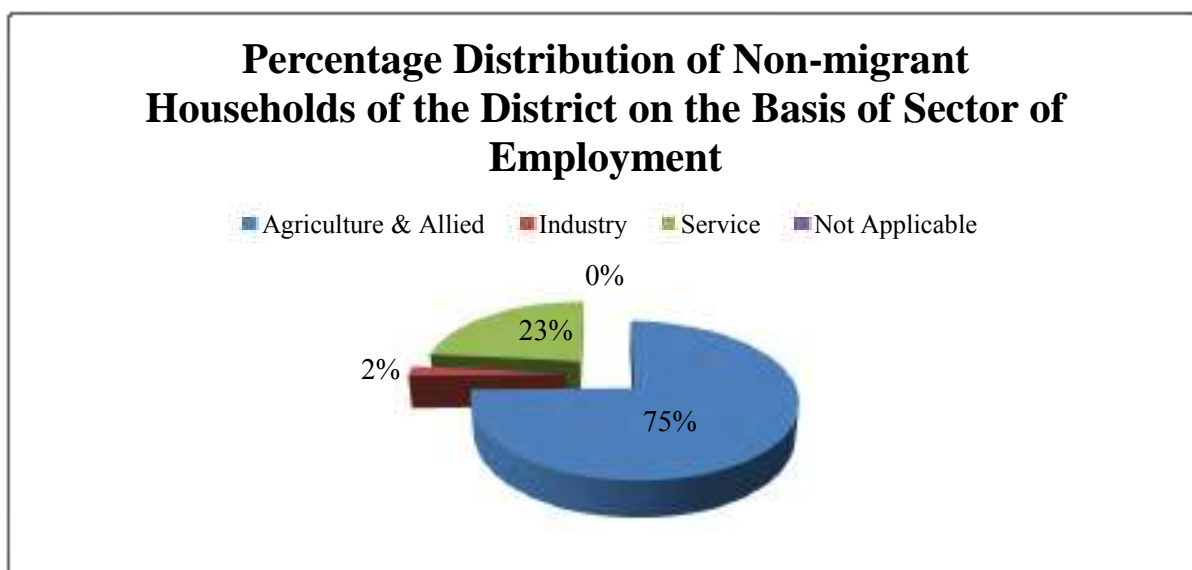


Fig. 6.12(b)



6.7.3 Implementation of MGNREGA of Migrant and Non-migrant Households

Implementation of MGNREGA of migrant and non-migrant households regarding job card holding, received of employment in the last one year and days of employment received in the last one year are explained below. A comparison between migrant and non-migrant households has been made on the above mentioned issues.

6.7.3(a) Job Card holding of Migrant and Non-migrant Households

Job card holding is a necessary factor for getting employment under MGNREGS in local areas of both migrant and non-migrant households. The distribution of migrant and non-migrant households on the basis of job card holding is shown in Table 6.19 which is also depicted with the help of bar diagrams in Figs. 6.13(a) and 6.13(b) below.

Table 6.19: Distribution of Migrant and Non-migrant Households on the Basis of Job Card Holding

Villages	Migrant Households			Non-migrant Households		
	Yes	No	Total	Yes	No	Total
Vill 1	25(100.00)	0(0.00)	25(100.00)	24(96.00)	1(4.00)	25(100.00)
Vill 2	25(100.00)	0(0.00)	25(100.00)	24(96.00)	1(4.00)	25(100.00)

Vill 3	24(96.00)	1(4.00)	25(100.00)	15(60.00)	10(40.00)	25(100.00)
Vill 4	19(76.00)	6(24.00)	25(100.00)	19(76.00)	6(24.00)	25(100.00)
Vill 5	22(88.00)	3(12.00)	25(100.00)	21(84.00)	4(16.00)	25(100.00)
Vill 6	17(76.00)	8(24.00)	25(100.00)	15(60.00)	10(40.00)	25(100.00)
District Total	132(88.00)	18(12.00)	150(100.00)	118(78.67)	32(21.33)	150(100.00)

Note: Figures in brackets indicate row-wise percentages.

Source: Field Survey.

The data revealed in the above table are that the percentage of holding job card of migrant households under MGNREGS of the surveyed households was 88 whereas about 79 percent non-migrant households did hold job card. Only 12 percent of the migrant households did not hold job card. On the other hand, about 22 percent non-migrant households did not hold job card. So, migrant households did hold more job card than non-migrant households under MGNREGS. There were almost inter-village variations noticed in the above table regarding job card holding among migrant and non-migrant households. Only interesting result shows in village 4 that percentage of holding job card and not holding job card among migrant and non-migrant households were same that is, 76 percent for holding job card and 24 percent for not holding job card respectively. Thus, it is observed that although migrant households did hold more job card than non-migrant households yet they migrate outside the district or state as the employment through job card was not enough for maintaining socio-economic condition of the households.

Fig. 6.13(a)

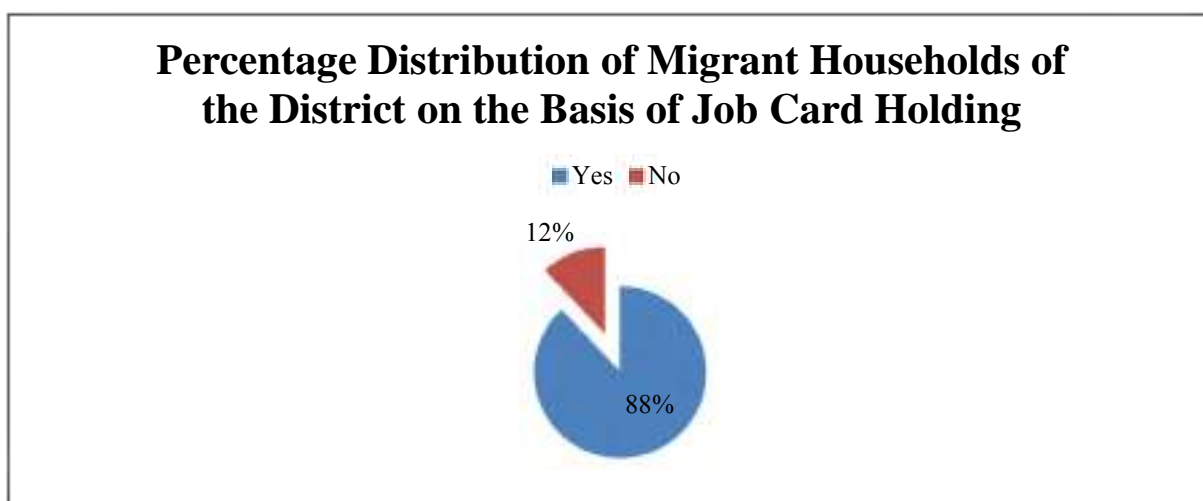
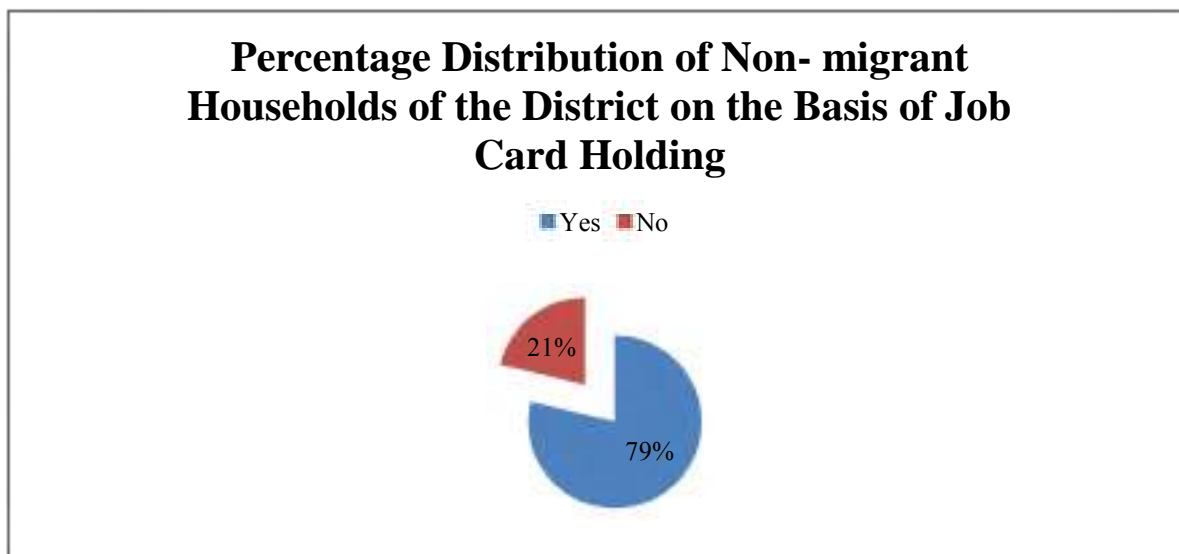


Fig. 6.13(b)



6.7.3(b) Employment Received under MGNREGS of Migrant and Non-migrant Households

The migrant and non-migrant households of the surveyed villages received few employments under MGNREGS in the last one year through holding their job cards. The table 6.20 and Figs. 6.14(a) and 6.14(b) below shows the distribution of migrant and non-migrant households regarding receipt of employment under MGNREGS in the last one year.

Table 6.20: Distribution of Migrant and Non-migrant Households on the Basis of Receipt of Employment under MGNREGS in the last one year

Village	Migrant Households			Non-Migrant Households		
	Received	Did not receive	Total	Received	Did not receive	Total
Vill 1	23 (92.00)	2(8.00)	25(100.00)	12(48.00)	13(52.00)	25(100.00)
Vill 2	25 (100.00)	0(0.00)	25(100.00)	20(80.00)	5(20.00)	25(100.00)
Vill 3	1(4.00)	24(96.00)	25(100.00)	8(32.00)	17(68.00)	25(100.00)
Vill 4	14(56.00)	11(44.00)	25(100.00)	14(56.00)	11(44.00)	25(100.00)
Vill 5	21(84.00)	4(16.00)	25(100.00)	17(68.00)	8(32.00)	25(100.00)
Vill 6	4(16.00)	21(84.00)	25(100.00)	10(40.00)	15(60.00)	25(100.00)
District Total	88(58.67)	62(41.33)	150(100.00)	81(54.00)	69(46.00)	150(100.00)

Note: Figures in brackets indicate row-wise percentages.

Source: Field Survey.

The data presents in the above Table that about 59 percent migrant households received employment under MGNREGS in the last one year whereas 54 percent non-migrant households received employment under MGNREGS in the last one year. In case of migrant households about 42 percent did not receive employment and on the other hand 46 percent non-migrant households did not receive the same. So, employment received by the migrant households was more than employment received by the non-migrant households. Although, there were much inter-village variations regarding receive of employment and did not receive of employment among migrant and non-migrant households surveyed. One absurd result noticed among migrant and non-migrant households in case of villages 3 and 6 is that received of employment under MGNREGA in the last one year is quite less than not received of employment of both migrant and non-migrant households. Here, only 4 percent and 16 percent migrant households of villages 3 and 6 received employment whereas 96 percent and 84 percent migrant households of those same villages did not receive employment. Further, 32 percent and 40 percent non-migrant households of villages 3 and 6 received employment whereas 68 percent and 60 percent non-migrant households of those same villages did not receive employment. Thus, it is cleared that as received of employment under MGNREGS of migrant households is not enough for maintaining socio-economic conditions of the households; they therefore, migrate outside the district or state for further employment opportunities.

Fig. 6.14(a)

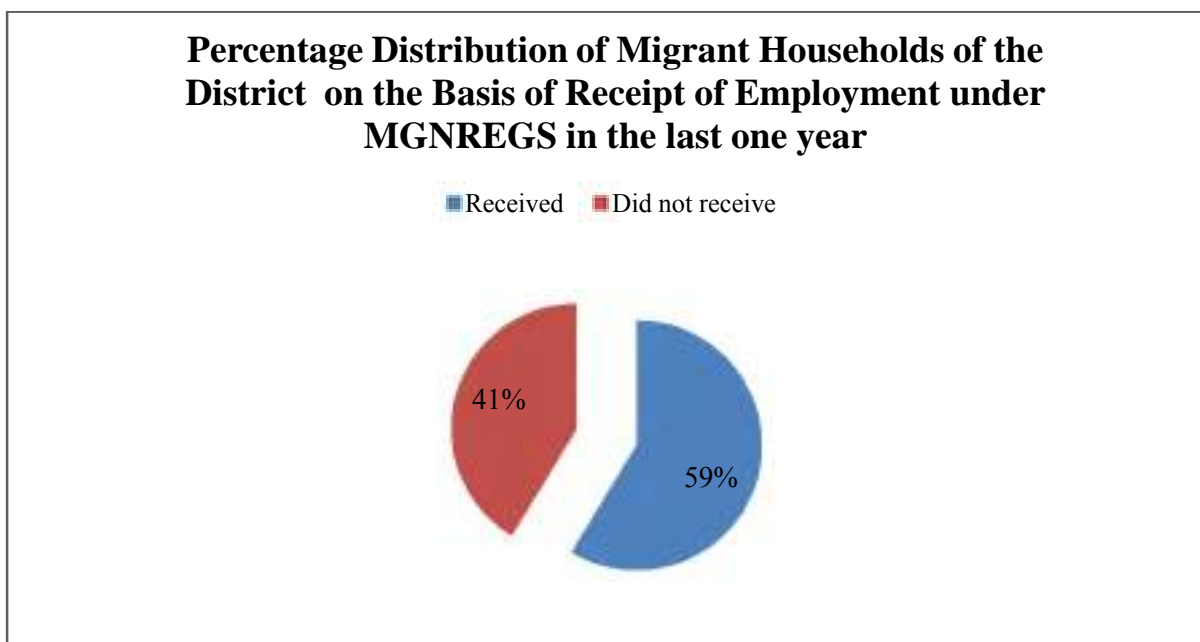
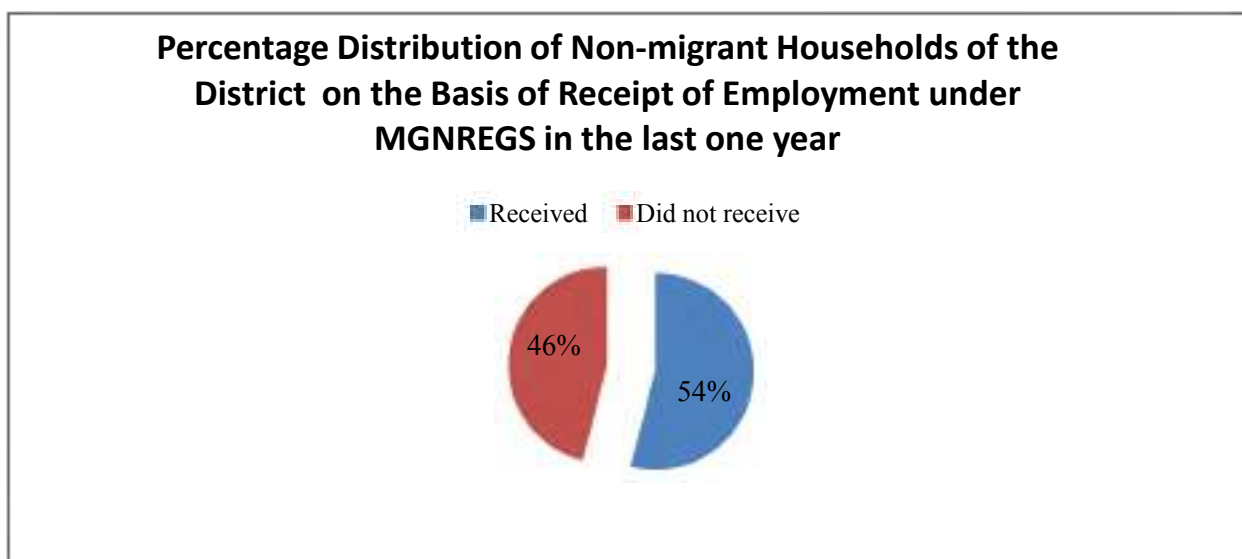


Fig. 6.14(b)



6.7.3(c) Days of Employment Received under MGNREGS of Migrant and Non-migrant Households

We have divided number of days of employment under MGNREGS of migrant and non-migrant households into five categories such as 1 to 5 days, 6 to 10 days, 11 to 15 days, 16 days and above and also N.A. (not applicable). The Table 6.21 and Figs. 6.15(a) and 6.15(b) represents below the distribution of migrant and non-migrant respondents on the basis of days of employment received under MGNREGS in the last one year.

Table 6.21: Distribution of Migrant and Non-migrant Respondents on the Basis of Days of Employment Received Under MGNREGS in the last one year

District	Days of Employment	Migrant Households	Migrant Households(in percentage)	Non-Migrant Households	Non-Migrant Households(in percentage)
Cooch Behar	1 to 5	12	8.00	1	0.67
	6 to 10	49	32.67	14	9.33
	11 to 15	7	4.67	32	21.33
	16 & Above	19	12.66	34	22.67
	N.A.	63	42.00	69	46.00
	Total		150	100.00	150

Note: N.A. means Not Applicable.
Source: Field Survey.

The data showed in the above Table are that about 33 percent which is the highest percentage of migrant households received 6 to 10 days of employment under MGNREGS whereas the highest about 23 percent of non-migrant households received 16 and above days of employment under MGNREGS in the last one year and only about 5 percent which was the lowest percentage of migrant households received 11 to 15 days of employment whereas only about 1 percent which was the lowest percentage of non-migrant households received 1 to 5 days of employment under MGNREGS. So, most of the migrant households received 6 to 10 days of employment and non-migrant households received 16 and above days of employment under MGNREGS in the last one year. In case of migrant household, received of employment between 11 to 15 days was found to be insignificant whereas in case non-migrant households received of employment between 1 to 5 days was found to be insignificant. For migrant households, 42 percent households did not receive any number of days of employment and 46 percent for non-migrant households did not receive any number of days of employment as they did not get job card under MGNREGS.

Thus, it is cleared from the above Table that the majority percentage of migrant households received employment that lies between 6 to 10 days only in the last one year which was not of course enough to maintain their socio-economic condition of the households and for this they are bound to migrate outside the district or states to maintain the mentioned condition.

Fig. 6.15(a)

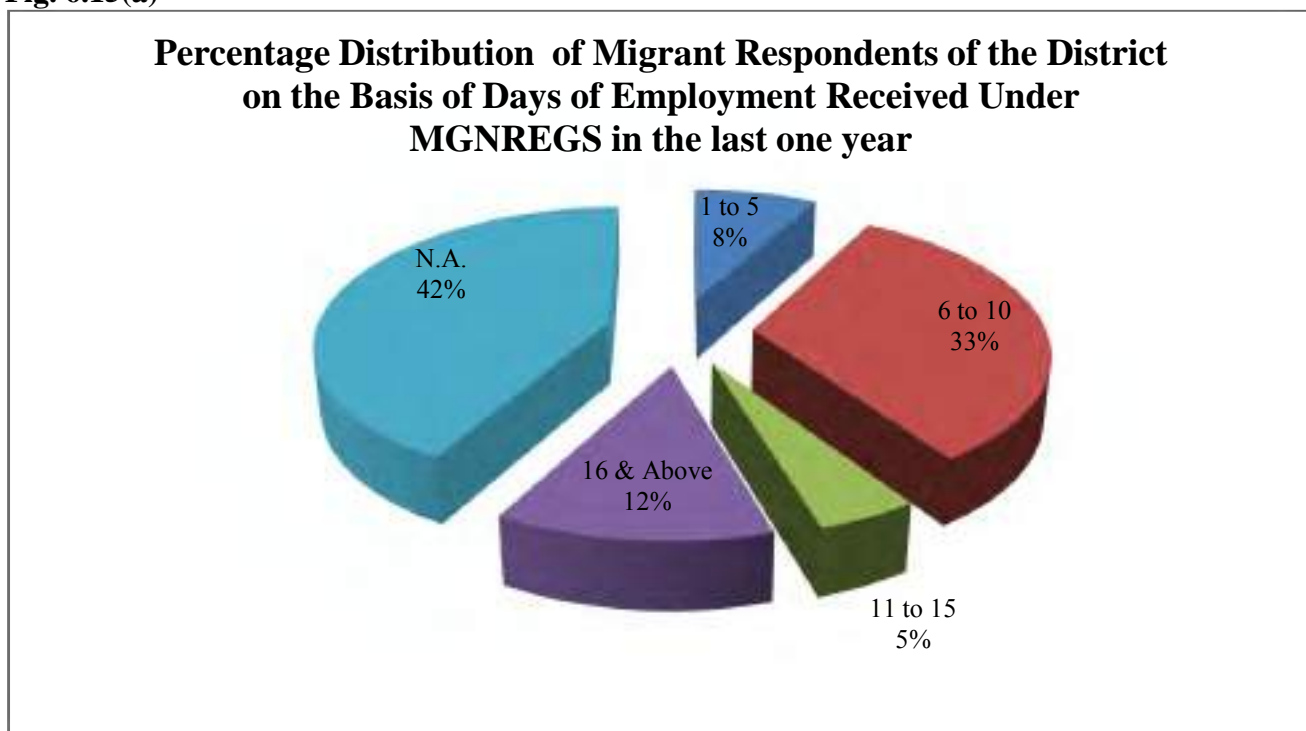
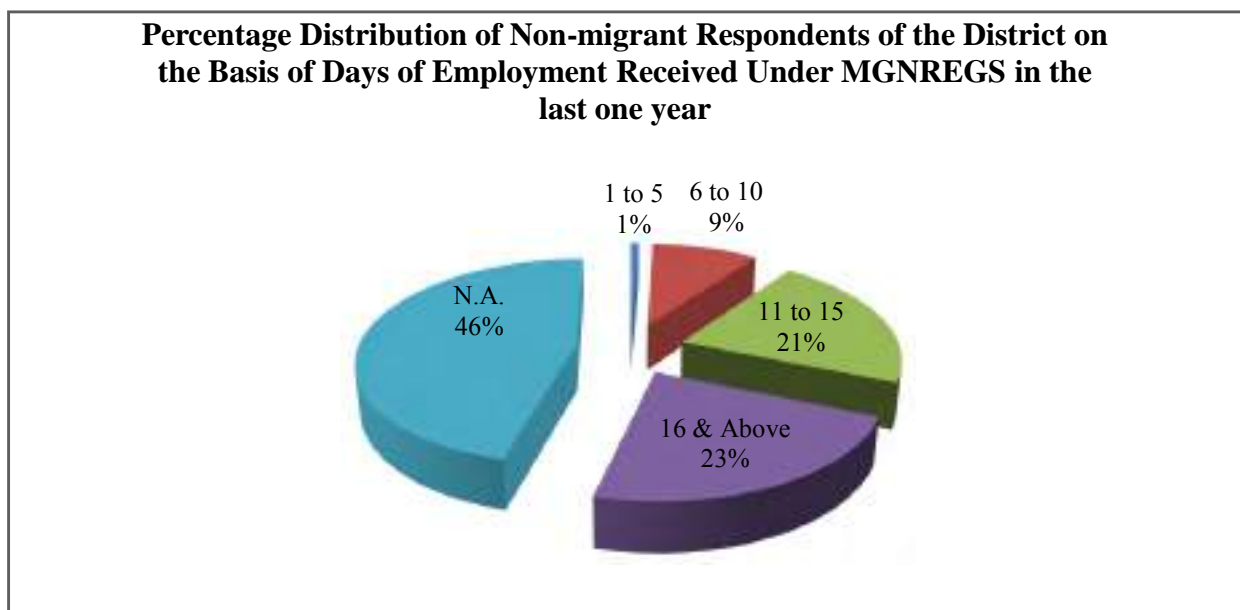


Fig. 6.15(b)



6.7.4 Comparison of Reasons for Migration of Migrants and Reasons for Non-migration of Non-migrants

We have classified here various important factors for migration non-migration separately and compared among those factors. The Table 6.22 shows the distribution of migrants and non-migrants on the basis of reason for migration and reason for non-migration.

Table 6.22: Distribution of Migrants and Non-migrants on the Basis of Reason for Migration and Reason for Non-migration (in %)

Village	Reasons for Migration								Reasons for Non- migration							
	1	2	3	5	6	14	17	Total	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Total
Vill 1	9.59	60.27	1.37	0.00	0.00	0.00	28.77	100.00	8.00	28.00	28.00	20.00	0.00	12.00	4.00	100.00
Vill 2	9.53	64.27	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	26.20	100.00	20.00	44.00	4.00	12.00	0.00	12.00	8.00	100.00
Vill 3	88.09	2.38	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	9.53	100.00	8.00	60.00	4.00	16.00	0.00	0.00	12.00	100.00
Vill4	9.00	84.85	0.00	6.06	6.06	6.06	0.00	100.00	16.00	56.00	8.00	8.00	0.00	0.00	12.00	100.00
Vill 5	22.58	77.42	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	100.00	24.00	52.00	4.00	16.00	0.00	0.00	4.00	100.00
Vill 6	38.71	61.29	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	100.00	4.00	68.00	16.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	12.00	100.00
Dist. Total	27.78	56.74	0.40	0.79	0.00	0.00	14.29	100.00	13.33	51.33	10.67	12.00	0.00	4.00	8.67	100.00

Note: Reason for Migration- 1= In search of employment; 2= In search of better employment; 3= business; 5= Transfer of services/contract; 6= Proximity to place work; 14= Health care use; 17= Migration of the parent/earning member of the family.

Reason for Non-migration- 1= Self-employment in business as well as services; 2= Small or medium size of agricultural land; 3=Marginal family and children due to low age; 4= Hampering family members' education; 5= Employment opportunity for working as casual wage labour-in public works (local area); 6= Social/Political problems in outside (riots, terrorism, bad law and order etc.) ; 7= Others (Govt. service, Major illness like Malaria, Typhoid, Tuberculosis, Retired person, Construction worker like mason etc.)

Source: Field survey.

The data in the above Table reveals that in Cooch Behar district, about 57 percent i.e., the highest percentage of migrants migrated out-side the district or state for in search of better employment followed by in search of employment (about 28 percent), migration of the parent/earning member of the family (about 14 percent), transfer of services/contract (about 1 percent) and business (less than 1 percent). On the other hand, about 53 percent i.e., the highest percentage of non-migrant had small or medium size of agricultural land followed by self-employment in business as well as services (about 13 percent), hampering family members' education (12 percent), marginal family and children due to low age (about 11percent), others like govt. service, major illness like malaria, typhoid, tuberculosis, construction worker (mason) etc. (9 percent) and social/ political problems in outside (riots, terrorism, bad law and order etc. (4 percent). Business and transfer of services or contract being the reasons for migration were found to be insignificant and social/ political problems in outside (riots, terrorism, bad law and order etc) being the reason for non-migration was found to be insignificant. However, there were huge inter-village variations among migrants and non-migrants regarding the various reasons for migration and reasons for non-migration. Thus, it is evident from the above table that the majority of the migrants of the surveyed households migrated outside the district or state due to search for better employment and on the contrary, the majority of non-migrants had small or medium size of agricultural land which is the most important reason for non-migration.

CHAPTER -VII

CONSEQUENCES OF MIGRATION - COSTS AND BENEFITS

7.1 Introduction

Rural out-migration has a number of positive and negative impacts on the migrating population themselves, on the local economy and society, on the receiving regions in terms of meeting up of the demand for labour and contribution of the migrant labour force in the productive activity of the region and finally on the environment. Some of the impacts are direct and immediate and some are indirect and long term. Overall, the positive impacts appeared to be far greater than the negative impacts.

One of the direct impacts was found to be the maintenance and improvement of the level of consumption of the households. Their levels of savings have also increased. They can use the remittances for improvement of housing condition to repay the old debt etc. Remittances have also been used to buy consumer durables, for children's education to buy health care services etc. Moreover, a small proportion of them was found to have acquired some skill while employed at various productive activities. In what follows we have made an analysis of the positive and negative aspects of migration in terms of data collected by us at primary level and the from our field observation and interaction with the respondents, migrants, near family members, neighbours, members of Gram Panchayats and a few other keen observers at local level.

7.2 Analysis of Socio-Economic Consequences of Migration

Consequences of migration can be observed in socio-economic, cultural, political and demographic terms. Here, we have made an attempt to analyse mainly the socio-economic consequences of migration through our field investigation.

7.2.1 Skill Acquired at Destination

Migrants are generally engaged in different types of work while staying at destination. Skill is required to have some of the works. On the contrary, skill is not a necessary condition to obtain some works. Involvement in work in some cases helps to acquire skill and then helps

to migrant workers to obtain higher wages. For example, a worker engaged as unskilled labour in construction work may gradually learn the skill of a mason and can become a mason in near future and earn more. This is a gain or positive impact of migration. We collected data on skill acquired by migrant workers while working at destinations. Table 7.1 shows below the distribution of migrants on the basis of skill acquired at destination which is graphically presented with the help of bar and pie diagrams in Fig. 7.1(a) and 7.1(b).

Village	Total no. of migrants	Yes (no.)	Yes (Percent)	No (no.)	No (Percent)
Vil 1	48	9	18.75	39	81.25
Vil 2	33	16	48.49	17	51.51
Vil 3	33	6	18.18	27	81.82
Vil 4	33	14	42.42	19	57.58
Vil 5	31	8	25.81	23	74.19
Vil 6	31	1	3.23	30	96.77
District Total	209	54	25.84	155	74.16

Source: Field Survey.

Data presented in the above Table reveal that about 26 percent of the migrants acquired some skill while working at destination whereas about 74 percent of the migrants did not acquire any skill and were engaged as an unskilled regular or casual daily labour. Since acquiring skill while working rendered the workers more efficient and skilled and it helped them to earn more in subsequent periods. However, there was a lot of inter-village variations among migrants based on skilled acquired at destinations. Thus, it is appeared that migrant workers from the district of Cooch Behar have the chance of earning higher income in future.

Fig. 7.1(a)

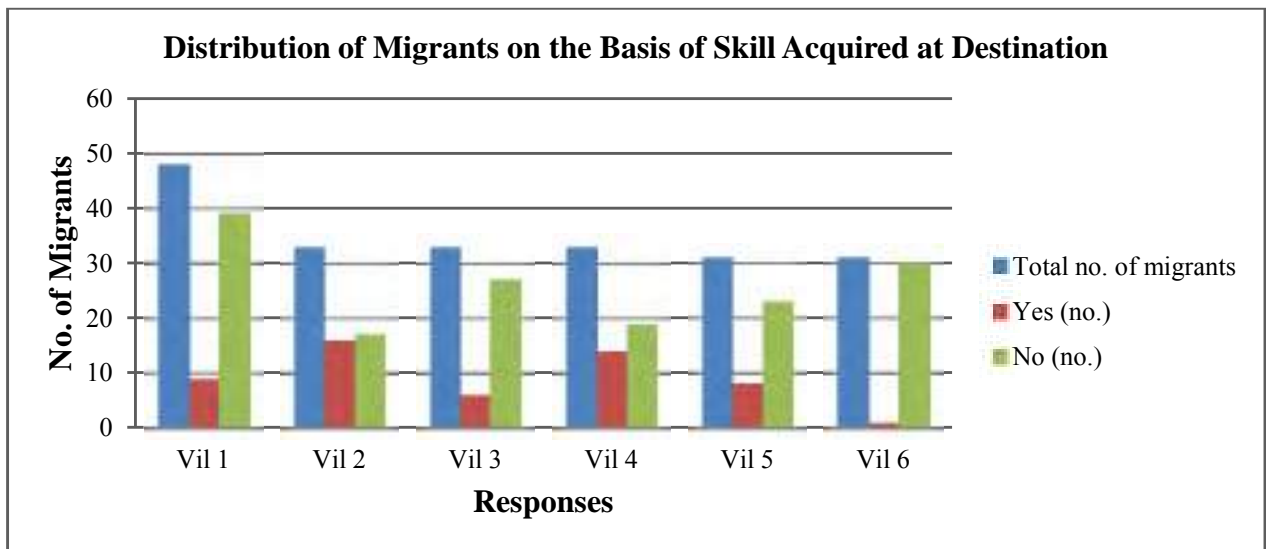
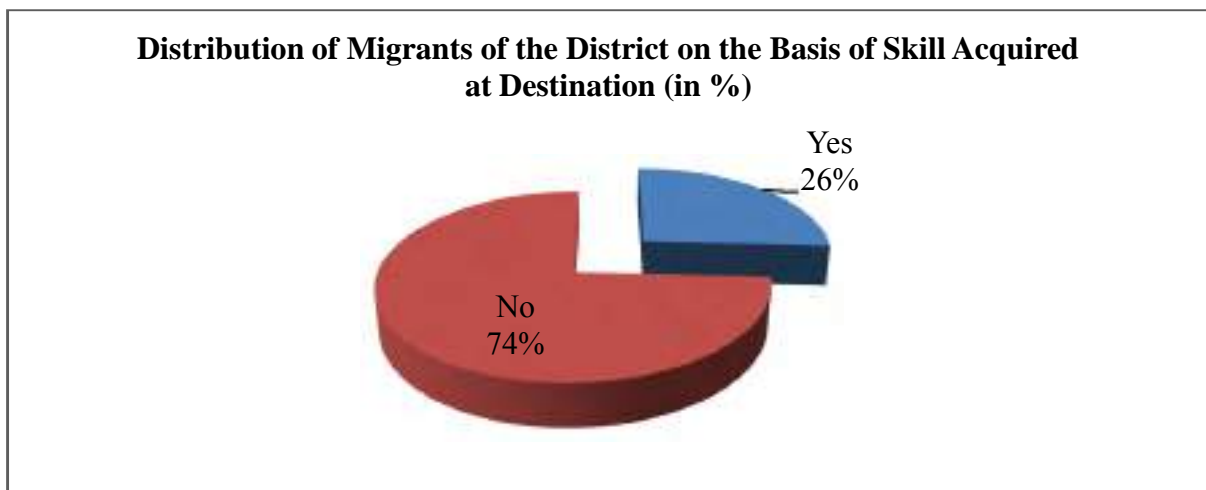


Fig. 7.1(b)



7.2.2 Income Earning of Migrants

The most important objective of migration of people from one area to another area is the earning of income. Here, we have distributed the migrants into five income categories. The Table 7.2 and Figs. 7.2(a) and 7.2(b) represents below the distribution of migrants on the basis of monthly income.

Table – 7.2						
Distribution of Migrants on the Basis of Income (in Rs.) per Month						
Village	Upto 1000	1001-2000	2001-5000	5001-10000	Above 10000	Total
Village 1	0(0.00)	1(2.08)	46(95.84)	1(2.08)	0(0.00)	48(100.00)
Village 2	0(0.00)	4(12.12)	29(87.88)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	33(100.00)
Village 3	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	31(93.94)	2(6.06)	0(0.00)	33(100.00)
Village 4	2(6.06)	17(51.52)	13(39.39)	0(0.00)	1(3.03)	33(100.00)
Village 5	1(3.23)	1(3.23)	25(80.64)	4(12.90)	0(0.00)	31(100.00)
Village 6	0(0.00)	3(9.68)	21(67.74)	7(22.58)	0(0.00)	31(100.00)
District Total	3(1.43)	26(12.44)	165(78.95)	14(6.70)	1(0.48)	209(100.00)

Note: Figures in brackets indicate row-wise percentages.

Source: Field Survey.

It can be found in the above Table that the majority of the migrants (about 79 percent) in the district earned income in the range of Rs. 2001 to Rs. 5000 per month. The second income category in which the next higher number of workers falls was Rs. 1001-2000 (about 12 percent). The third income category where the next higher number of migrants belonged was Rs. 5001 to 10,000 (about 7 percent). Migrants' earning income up to 1000 and above Rs. 10,000 per month constituted only about 2 percent which were found to be insignificant. However, there were huge inter-village variations among migrant workers regarding the earnings of income. Thus, most of the migrant workers earning income remained in between Rs. 2001 to 5000 and with those amounts of income migrant families maintain their socio-economic condition.

Fig. 7.2(a)

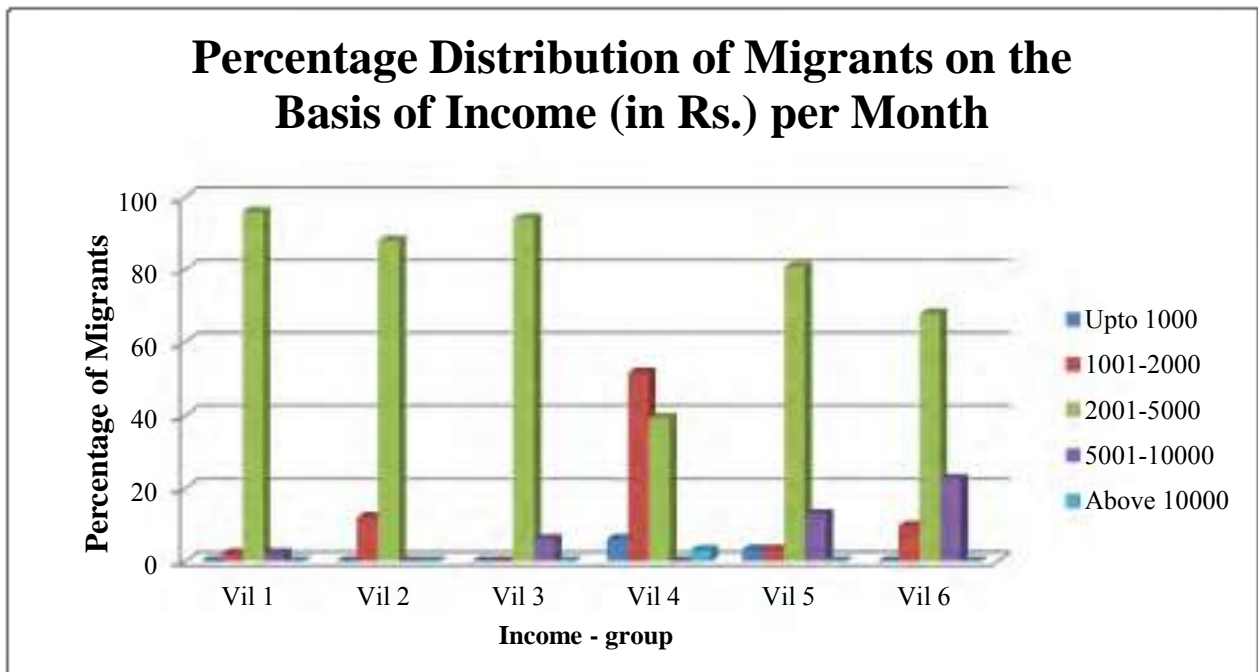
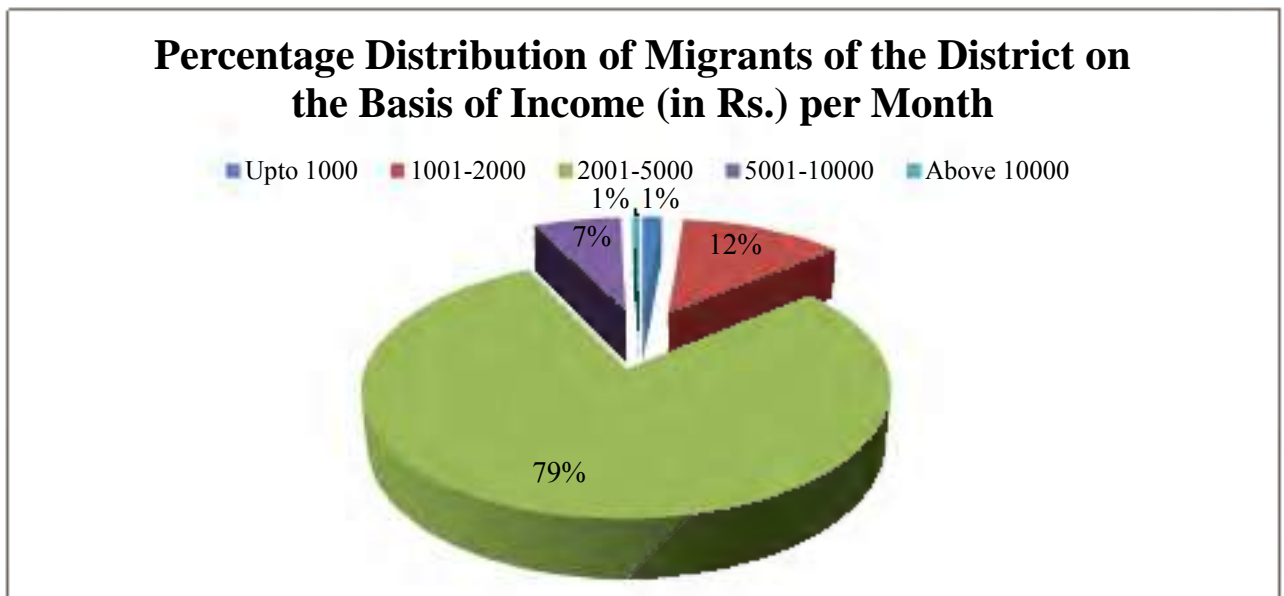


Fig. 7.2(b)



7.2.3 Monthly Total Household Consumer Expenditure at Origin

We have classified the respondents of migrant households into four categories according to their household consumption expenditure level, viz., upto Rs. 2000, Rs. 2001 to Rs. 3000, Rs. 3001 to Rs. 4000 and above Rs. 4000. Table 7.3 shows the distribution of households on the

basis of monthly total consumer expenditure at origin which is also diagrammatically presented in Figs. 7.3(a) and 7.3(b) below.

Table – 7.3					
Distribution of Respondents on the Basis of Monthly Household Consumer Expenditure (in Rs.)					
Village	Upto 2000	2001-3000	3001-4000	Above 4000	Total
VIL 1	12(48.00)	13(52.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	25(100.00)
VIL 2	16(64.00)	6(24.00)	2(8.00)	1(4.00)	25(100.00)
VIL 3	20(80.00)	4(16.00)	1(4.00)	0(0.00)	25(100.00)
VIL 4	12(48.00)	10(40.00)	2(8.00)	1(4.00)	25(100.00)
VIL 5	19(76.00)	5(20.00)	1(4.00)	0(0.00)	25(100.00)
VIL 6	23(92.00)	2(8.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	25(100.00)
Dist. Total	102(68.00)	40(26.67)	6(4.00)	2(1.33)	150(100.00)

Note: Figures in brackets indicate row-wise percentages.

Source: Field Survey.

It can be seen from the above Table that the majority percentage of respondents' monthly households' consumption expenditure (68 percent) were lie upto Rs. 2000. Then, about 27 percent of respondents' monthly households' consumption expenditure remained in between Rs. 2001-3000. The household consumption expenditure levels of respodents between Rs.3000-4000 and above Rs.4000 together constitute only about 5 percent which were found to be insignificant. They spent the above different mentioned amounts monthly through purchasing various items like rice, wheat, meat, edible oil, sugar, pulses etc. and also for tuition and educational items and medical purpose. , there were a lot of inter-village variations revealed in the table regarding the respondents' monthly household consumption expenditure levels. Thus, most of the respondents' monthly households' consumption expenditure remained in upto Rs.2000.

Fig. 7.3(a)

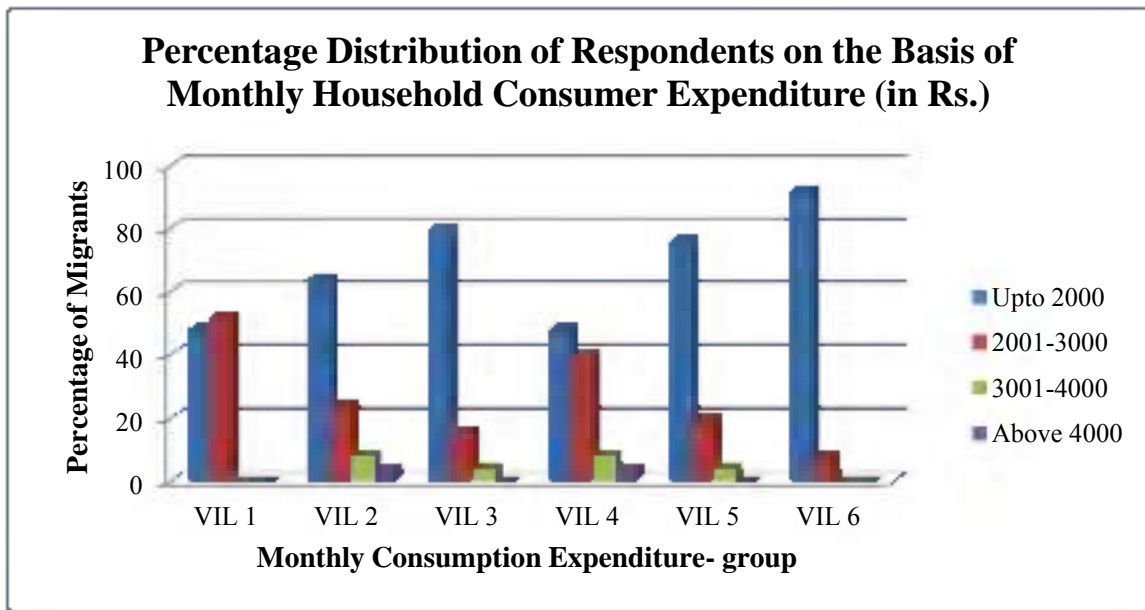
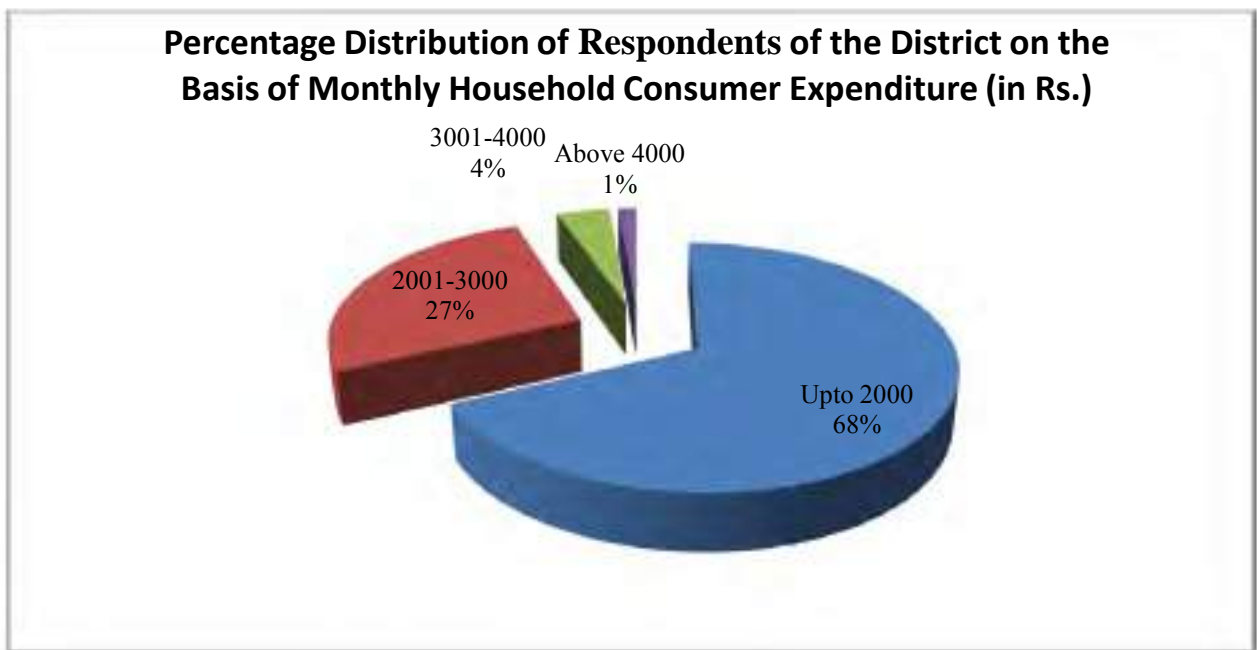


Fig. 7.3(b)



7.2.4 Monthly Consumption of Migrants at Destination

We have divided here the migrants into three monthly consumption categories, viz., upto Rs. 1000, Rs. 1001 to 2000, Rs. 2001 & above. The Table 7.4 shows the distribution of migrants on the basis of monthly consumption expenditure at destinations.

Table – 7.4				
Distribution of Migrant Earners on the Basis of Monthly Consumption (in Rs.)				
Village	Upto 1000	1001-2000	2001 & above	Total
Village 1	37(50.68)	36(49.32)	0(0.00)	73(100.00)
Village 2	15(35.71)	27(64.29)	0(0.00)	42(100.00)
Village 3	8(19.05)	34(80.95)	0(0.00)	42(100.00)
Village 4	19(57.58)	13(39.39)	1(3.03)	33(100.00)
Village 5	2(6.45)	24(77.42)	5(16.13)	31(100.00)
Village 6	4(12.90)	25(80.65)	2(6.45)	31(100.00)
Dist. Total	85(33.73)	159(63.09)	8(3.18)	252(100.00)

Note: Figures in brackets indicate row percentages.

Source: Field Survey.

Data revealed in the above Table are that in the district the highest numbers of migrants (about 63 percent) fell into the consumption category of Rs. 1001 to Rs. 2000 per month. The second higher numbers of migrants (about 34 percent) belonged to the category of upto Rs. 1000. Migrants falling in income category of Rs. 2001 & above formed an insignificant proportion of migrants in the district. However, there were a huge inter-village variations revealed in the table regarding the respondents' monthly consumption expenditure levels at destinations. Thus, most of the migrants monthly consumption expenditure remained the consumption category of Rs. 1001 to Rs. 2000 and migrant earners reported us that their own monthly expenditure were quite high compared to their income level.

7.2.5 Monthly Savings of the Migrants

Saving is one of the most important factors in our real life to maintain specially the socio-economic status of the family. We found out a habit of savings among the migrants. Most of them are found to be interested in saving a part of their income for several reasons. First, many of the migrants left a part of their family members at origin that needed money for their survival as well as for meeting different other needs. Secondly, those who were in destination with all family members, also need saving because of the fact that on their return at origin they require survival for some time till they resume work at origin or till resume work at

destination after their return. Thirdly, to meet unforeseen contingencies also they need saving. Fourthly, to make some permanent improvement in standard of living they need to do some investment like children's education, buying of land at origin, improving housing condition, buying of agricultural machineries etc.

The Table 7.5 and the Figs 7.4(a) and 7.4(b) present below the distribution of monthly saving pattern of the migrant workers.

Village	Upto 1000	1001-2000	2001-3000	3001 & above	Total
Village 1	1(2.08)	30(62.50)	16(33.34)	1(2.08)	48(100.00)
Village 2	14(42.42)	15(45.46)	4(12.12)	0(0.00)	33(100.00)
Village 3	0(0.00)	22(66.67)	9(27.27)	2(6.06)	33(100.00)
Village 4	18(60.00)	11(36.67)	1(3.33)	0(0.00)	30(100.00)
Village 5	3(9.68)	15(48.39)	9(29.03)	4(12.90)	31(100.00)
Village 6	6(19.35)	6(19.35)	12(38.71)	7(22.59)	31(100.00)
Dist. Total	42(20.39)	99(48.05)	51(24.76)	14(6.80)	206(100.00)

Note: Figures in brackets indicate row percentages.

Source: Field Survey

It is revealed from the above Table that the highest percentage (about 48 percent) of migrants from the district made a monthly saving of Rs. 1001-2000 followed by Rs. 2001-3000 (about 25 percent), Rs. upto 1000 (about 20 percent) and Rs. 3001 and above (nearly 7 percent). However, there were a lot of inter-village variations revealed in the table among migrants regarding the different categories of monthly savings. So, majority of migrants saved from their parts of income that ranges from Rs. 1000 to 2000. It is therefore cleared that migrants of the Cooch Behar district as a whole saved a higher proportion of their income to maintain their socio-economic status.

Fig. 7.4(a)

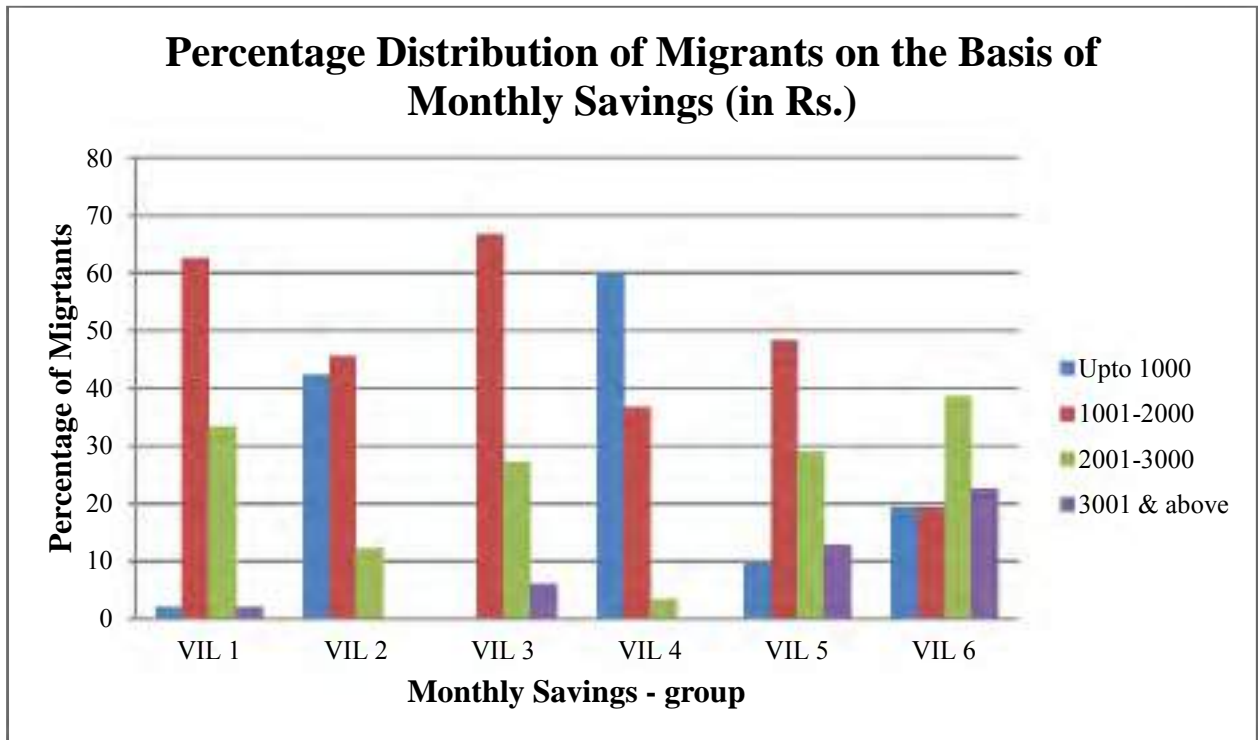
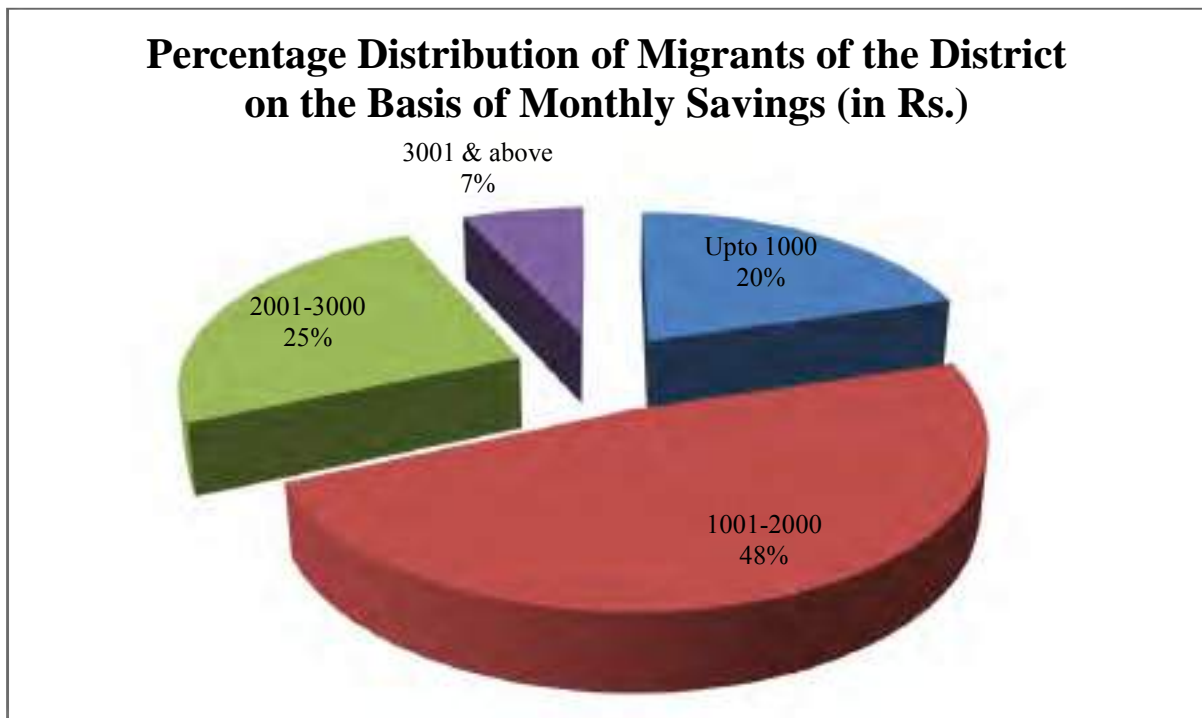


Fig. 7.4(b)



7.2.6 Cases of Remittances Sent

The remittances sent by migrants to the origins from the destinations comprise one of the most important economic consequences of the incident of migration. We observed that there are several ways of sending remittances of the migrants to their family members at origin on regular basis. Migrants usually send a portion of their saving (through post offices or through their friends or relatives or neighbours or through bank account in some cases) to their family members at origin regularly. We investigated to find out the proportion of migrants who send money in different ways in addition to carrying saved money at origin during their home visit. The Table 7.6 below presents the distribution of migrants regarding the remittances sent.

Village	Sent (no.)	Sent (per cent)	Not sent (no.)	Not sent (per cent)	Total (per cent)
Vill 1	47	64.38	26	35.62	73(100.00)
Vill 2	25	59.52	17	40.48	42(100.00)
Vill 3	33	78.57	9	21.43	42(100.00)
Vill 4	25	75.76	8	24.24	33(100.00)
Vill 5	31	100.00	0	0.00	31(100.00)
Vill 6	29	93.55	2	6.45	31(100.00)
Dist. Total	190	75.40	62	24.60	252(100.00)

Source: Field Survey.

The data appeared in the above Table indicate that about 75 percent of the migrants from the surveyed households sent money to their family members at origin and about 25 percent did not send the same. However, there were a much inter-village variations among migrants regarding the remittances sent and not sent. Interestingly, we noticed that in village 5, there was no even a single migrant who did not send money to his family member at origin and a very few percent (about 6 percent) migrants of village 6 did not send money to their family members at origin. Therefore, majority of the migrants sent their money to their family members at origin on a regular basis.

We have also collected data on the basis of frequency of remittances in a year to get more apparent idea about remittances of migrants. The data are represented in Table 7.7 below.

Village	1 Time	2 Times	3 Times	More than 3 times	Total
Vill 1	10(20.84)	36(75.00)	1(2.08)	1(2.08)	48(100.00)
Vill 2	3(12.00)	8(32.00)	11(44.00)	3(12.00)	25(100.00)
Vill 3	5(15.15)	26(78.79)	1(3.03)	1(3.03)	33(100.00)
Vill 4	2(8.00)	7(28.00)	12(48.00)	4(16.00)	25(100.00)
Vill 5	2(6.45)	23(74.19)	4(12.91))	2(6.45)	31(100.00)
Vill 6	0(0.00)	26(89.66)	2(6.89)	1(3.45)	29(100.00)
Dist. Total	22(11.52)	126(65.97)	31(16.23)	12(6.28)	191(100.00)

Note: Figures in brackets indicate row percentages.

Source: Field Survey

It can be found from the above Table that the highest about 66 percent migrant of the surveyed households of Cooch Behar district sent remittances two times at origin, followed by three times (about 16 percent), one time (nearly 12 percent) and more than three times and above (about 6 percent). However, there were a lot of inter-village variations observed among the migrants regarding the times of remittances sent at their origin from their destinations. Thus, it is cleared that the major percentage of migrants sent remittances two times at their origins to maintain their families' socio-economic status.

7.2.7 Amount of Remittances Received

We have divided the amount of remittance into four categories, viz., upto Rs. 5000, Rs. 5001 to 10000, Rs. 10001 to 15000 and Rs. 15000 above. Table 7.8 portrays below the distribution of families of migrants according to receipt of amount of remittances made by the out-migrants which is also diagrammatically presented in Figs. 7.5(a) and 7.5(b). It may be noted that this remittance is the total remittance made by all the migrant workers of a household during the last 365 days. Again, it is also worth mentioning that in addition to the remittances made, a part of earned money is also carried and brought home personally by the migrant

earners themselves while they visit their home during various festival times or in times of need or emergency.

Village	Upto 5000	5001-10000	10001-15000	Above 15000	Total
Vill 1	6(24.00)	12(48.00)	2(8.00)	5(20.00)	25(100.00)
Vill 2	1(4.76)	13(61.91)	5(23.81)	2(9.52)	21(100.00)
Vill 3	12(48.00)	11(44.00)	2(8.00)	0(0.00)	25(100.00)
Vill 4	4(20.00)	7(35.00)	3(15.00)	6(30.00)	20(100.00)
Vill 5	2(8.00)	15(60.00)	3(12.00)	5(20.00)	25(100.00)
Vill 6	3(12.00)	17(68.00)	4(16.00)	1(4.00)	25(100.00)
Dist. Total	28(19.85)	75(53.19)	19(13.48)	19(13.48)	141(100.00)

Note: Figure in brackets indicate row percentages.

Source: Field Survey.

The above Table reveals that the highest number of the district migrants (about 53 percent) made remittances in the range of Rs. 5001 to Rs. 10000. The next higher number of migrants, i.e., about 20 percent made remittances in the range of upto Rs. 5000. As far as third and fourth higher number of migrants making remittances are concerned it was interestingly found the same percentage i.e., 13.48 percentage in the categories of Rs. 10001 to 15000 and Rs. 15001 and above respectively in the district. However, there were huge inter-village variations revealed among the migrants regarding the amount of remittances sent at their origin from their working places. So, the majority of the migrants sent their money to their family members in the range of Rs. 5001 to Rs. 10000. Therefore, the remittances play an important role to the migrants families for their survival as well as improvement of standard of living at present as well as in future. This will become evident from our analysis below of the use of remittances by the families of the migrant workers.

Fig. 7.5(a)

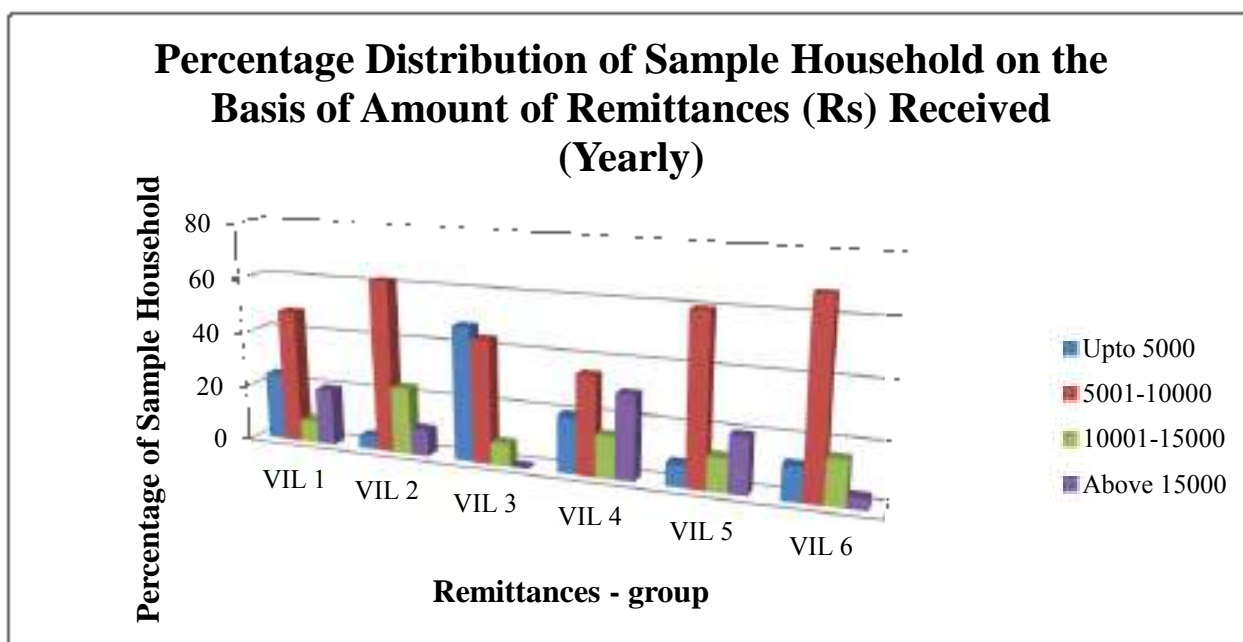
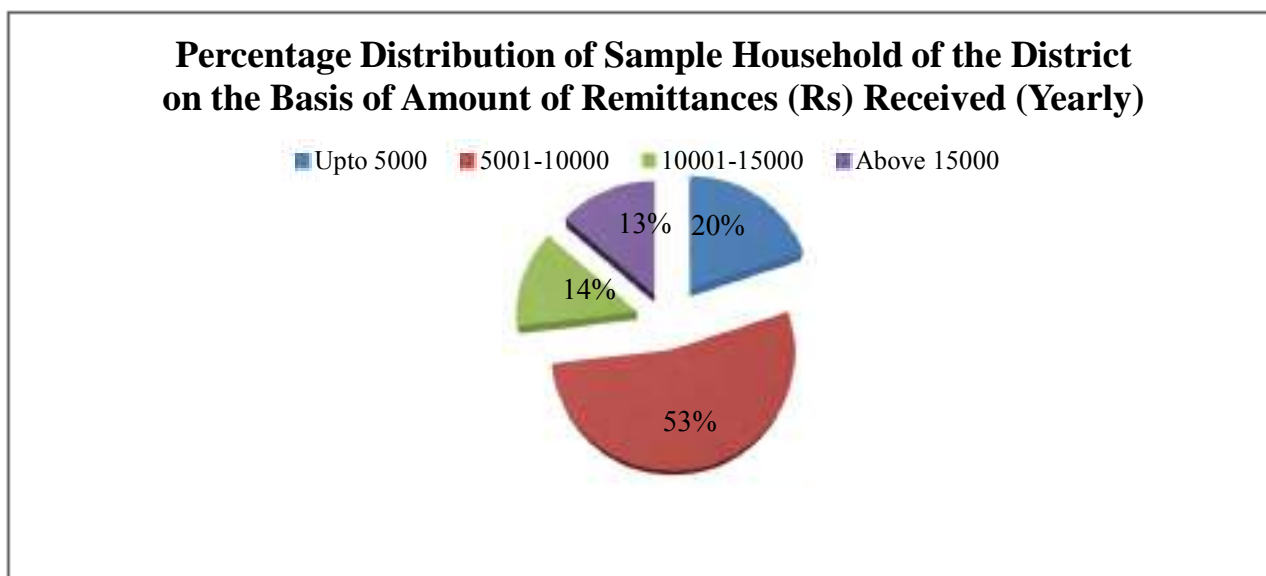


Fig. 7.5(b)



7.2.8 Use of Remittances

The distribution of use of remittances on the basis of poverty status is presented in the Table 7.9 below. The Table reveals the information on the pattern of use of remittances by APL and BPL families on individual items. Appropriate use of remittances by the migrant families lead to modest socio-economic status of the families. Here, we made an attempt to find out on which item remittances sent are used most by the migrant households.

Table 7.9: Distribution of Use of remittances of the Households on the basis of Poverty Status (in percentage)

Village	Poverty Status	No. of Household	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Vill 1	APL	20.00	12.00	8.00	0.00	0.00	20.00	0.00	12.00	8.00
	BPL	80.00	80.00	4.00	12.00	0.00	60.00	8.00	44.00	36.00
Vill 2	APL	8.00	8.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	8.00	8.00
	BPL	92.00	76.00	0.00	40.00	0.00	76.00	4.00	24.00	4.00
Vill 3	APL	12.00	16.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	16.00	0.00	12.00	4.00
	BPL	88.00	80.00	0.00	8.00	0.00	76.00	4.00	72.00	12.00
Vill 4	APL	16.00	8.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	8.00	8.00	0.00	0.00
	BPL	84.00	72.00	4.00	36.00	0.00	44.00	12.00	12.00	4.00
Vill 5	APL	20.00	24.00	4.00	16.00	0.00	8.00	4.00	8.00	8.00
	BPL	8.00	80.00	20.00	44.00	0.00	40.00	16.00	20.00	12.00
Vill 6	APL	56.00	56.00	0.00	20.00	0.00	48.00	0.00	24.00	16.00
	BPL	44.00	44.00	0.00	16.00	0.00	32.00	4.00	8.00	12.00
Dist. Total	APL	22.00	20.67	2.00	6.00	0.00	16.67	2.00	10.67	7.33
	BPL	78.00	72.00	4.67	26.00	0.00	54.67	8.00	30.00	13.33

Note: (a) 1= Food items; 2= Education of households members; 3= Household durable; 4= Marriage and other ceremonies; 5= Health care; 6= other items on household consumer expenditure; 7= For improving housing condition (major repairs purchase of land and buildings, etc.); 8= Debt repayment.

(b) Figures indicate column-wise percentages.

Source: Field Survey.

It is revealed from the above Table that in district total for APL migrant families, the highest 20.67 percent families used remittances sent by the migrant workers on food items and the lowest 2 percent migrant families used remittances on both for education of their household members as well as other items on household consumer expenditure. On the other hand, for BPL migrant families, the highest 72 percent families used remittances sent by the migrant workers on food items and the lowest 4.67 percent migrant families used remittances on education for their household members. Interestingly, it is seen in the table that in case of both APL and BPL families, there was no any use of remittances on marriage and other ceremonies. However, there were huge inter-village variations revealed among the APL and BPL migrant families regarding the use of remittances sent at their origin from their

workingplaces. Thus, on an average of both APL and BPL migrant families, the majority of migrant families used remittances especially on food items.

7.3 A Comparative Analysis between Migrant and Non-migrant Households Concerning Socio-Economic Consequences

As far as socio-economic consequences are concerned, a comparative discussion between migrant and non-migrant households on various aspects such as monthly income, monthly consumption, monthly saving and monthly household consumer expenditure has been made here. We have divided different categories of income, consumption, saving and household consumer expenditure according to their monthly income, monthly consumption, monthly saving, and monthly household consumer expenditure.

7.3.1 Educational Level of Migrants and Non-migrants

We have discussed here the various types of education level of migrants and non-migrants of the surveyed households of Cooch Behar district. The Table 7.10 below shows the distribution of migrants and non-migrants regarding their education levels.

Table 7.10: Distribution of Migrants and Non-migrants on the Basis of Education Level

Distri ct	House hold Cate gory	Gender	No. of M/F	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	10	11	12	13	14	
Cooch Behar	MIG	Male	100.00	31.15	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	35.83	13.82	12.18	5.39	1.40	0.23	0.00	0.00	
		Female	100.00	42.72	0.31	0.00	0.00	0.00	29.72	13.00	10.53	3.41	0.31	0.00	0.00	0.00	
	N-MIG	Male	100.00	17.79	1.62	0.27	0.00	0.27	21.83	7.82	17.25	14.55	8.08	1.62	7.82	1.08	
		Female	100.00	24.92	3.34	0.00	0.00	0.00	24.32	8.21	20.67	12.16	4.26	0.00	1.82	0.30	
		MIG (Total)	Male + Female	100.00	36.13	0.13	0.00	0.00	0.00	33.20	13.47	11.47	4.53	0.94	0.13	0.00	00.00
		N-MIG (Total)	Male + Female	100.00	21.14	2.43	0.14	0.00	0.14	23.00	8.00	18.86	13.43	6.29	0.86	5.00	0.71

Notes: 1=Not literate; 2=Literate without any schooling; 3= Literate without formal schooling: literate through NFEC/AIEP; 4= Literate through TLC/AEC; 5= Others; 6= Literate with formal schooling including EGS: below primary; 7= primary; 8= Upper primary/middle; 10=Secondary; 11= Higher secondary; 12=Diploma / Certificate course; 13=Graduate; 14=Post Graduate and above.

Source: Field Survey.

It can be found from the above Table that in male and female migrants together, the highest about 36 percent migrants had no any education i.e., they are not literate, about 33 percent (the second most) migrants were literate with formal schooling including EGS that is they took education below primary level, about 13 percent (the third most) migrants took the education upto primary level and the education level literate without any schooling and diploma/ certificate course both possessed the lowest percentage i.e., only 0.13 for migrants. On the other hand, the highest 23 percent male and female non-migrants both were literate with formal schooling including EGS that is they took education below primary level, about 21 percent (the second most) non-migrants had no any education i.e., they were illiterate, about 19 percent (the third most) non-migrants took the education upto upper primary level and literate without formal schooling i.e. literate through NFEC/AIEP and others (community education, adult education initiated by village panchayat etc.) both possessed the lowest percentage i.e., only 0.14 for non-migrants. Although, there was a huge variations observed in the above Table between male and female migrants and also between male and female non-migrants regarding various levels of education. Literate without any schooling, higher secondary education and diploma/ certificate course being the education level of migrants were found to be insignificant whereas literate without formal schooling, literate through TLC/AEC, diploma/ certificate course and post graduate and above being the education levels of non-migrants were found to be insignificant. There was no even a single migrant in education levels such as literate without formal schooling, literate through NFEC/AIEP, literate through TLC/AEC, others (community education, adult education initiated by village panchayat etc.), graduate, post-graduate and above. On the other hand, there was no any non-migrant in education levels such as literate through TLC/AEC. So, major percentage of migrants were illiterate i.e., they were out of education because of migration and lack of guidance of the families whereas major percentage of non-migrants took the education below primary level. It is also evident from the above table that a quite percentage of non-migrants of the surveyed households gained higher education levels mentioned in the table whereas migrants of the surveyed households gained very few percentages of higher education levels.

7.3.2 Monthly Income of Migrants and Non-migrants

We have classified here the monthly income of both migrants and non-migrants into five categories such as, upto Rs. 1000, Rs. 1001 to Rs. 2000, Rs. 2001 to Rs. 5000, 5001 to Rs.

10000 and above 10000. The Table 7.11 below shows the distribution of migrants and non-migrants on the basis of monthly income which is also depicted in bar diagrams in Figs. 7.6(a) and 7.6(b).

Table 7.11: Distribution of Migrants and Non-migrants on the Basis of Monthly Income (in Rs.)

Village	Household Category	Monthly Income (in Rs.)					Total
		Upto 1000	1001-2000	2001-5000	5001-10000	Above 10000	
Vill 1	MIG	0(0.00)	1(2.08)	46(95.84)	1(2.08)	0(0.00)	48(100.00)
	N-MIG	4(9.52)	11(26.19)	27(64.29)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	42(100.00)
Vill 2	MIG	0(0.00)	4(12.12)	29(87.88)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	33(100.00)
	N-MIG	4(9.30)	12(27.91)	24(55.81)	3(6.98)	0(0.00)	43(100.00)
Vill 3	MIG	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	31(93.94)	2(6.06)	0(0.00)	33(100.00)
	N-MIG	10(22.22)	4(8.89)	28(62.22)	2(4.45)	1(2.22)	45(100.00)
Vill 4	MIG	2(6.06)	17(51.52)	13(39.39)	0(0.00)	1(3.03)	33(100.00)
	N-MIG	5(10.63)	18(38.30)	21(44.68)	1(2.13)	2(4.26)	47(100.00)
Vill 5	MIG	1(3.23)	1(3.23)	25(80.64)	4(12.90)	0(0.00)	31(100.00)
	N-MIG	7(16.67)	7(16.67)	27(64.28)	1(2.38)	0(0.00)	42(100.00)
Vill 6	MIG	0(0.00)	3(9.68)	21(67.74)	7(22.58)	0(0.00)	31(100.00)
	N-MIG	1(3.44)	2(6.90)	24(82.76)	2(6.90)	0(0.00)	29(100.00)
District Total	MIG	3(1.43)	26(12.44)	165(78.95)	14(6.70)	1(0.48)	209(100.00)
	N-MIG	31(12.50)	54(21.77)	151(60.89)	9(3.63)	3(1.21)	248(100.00)

Note: Figures in brackets indicate row-wise percentages.

Source: Field Survey.

It is revealed from the above Table that the highest percentage i.e., about 79 percent of migrants from the district earn a monthly income of Rs. 2001-5000 followed by Rs. 1001-2000 (about 13 percent), Rs.5001-10000 (about 7 percent), Upto Rs. 1000 (about 1 percent) and above 10000 (0.48 percent). On the other hand, the highest percentage i.e., about 70 percent of non-migrants from the district earn a monthly income of Rs. 2001-5000 followed

by Rs. 1001-2000 (about 22 percent), Upto Rs. 1000 (about 13 percent), Rs. 5001-10000 (about 4 percent), and above 10000 (about 1 percent). However, there are a lot of inter-village variations noticed in the table among migrants and non-migrants regarding the different categories of monthly income. So, majority of migrants and non-migrants earn their income that ranges from Rs. 2001 to 5000 through engaging various types of non-agricultural activities by migrants at destinations like labour in construction work, mason work, brick klin work, labour of rod binding work, etc, and through involving specially on agricultural activities by non-migrants at local areas. Although the percentage of earned income of non-migrants is higher than the percentage of earned income of migrants in the case of income category of Rs. 1000 to 2000.

Fig. 7.6(a)

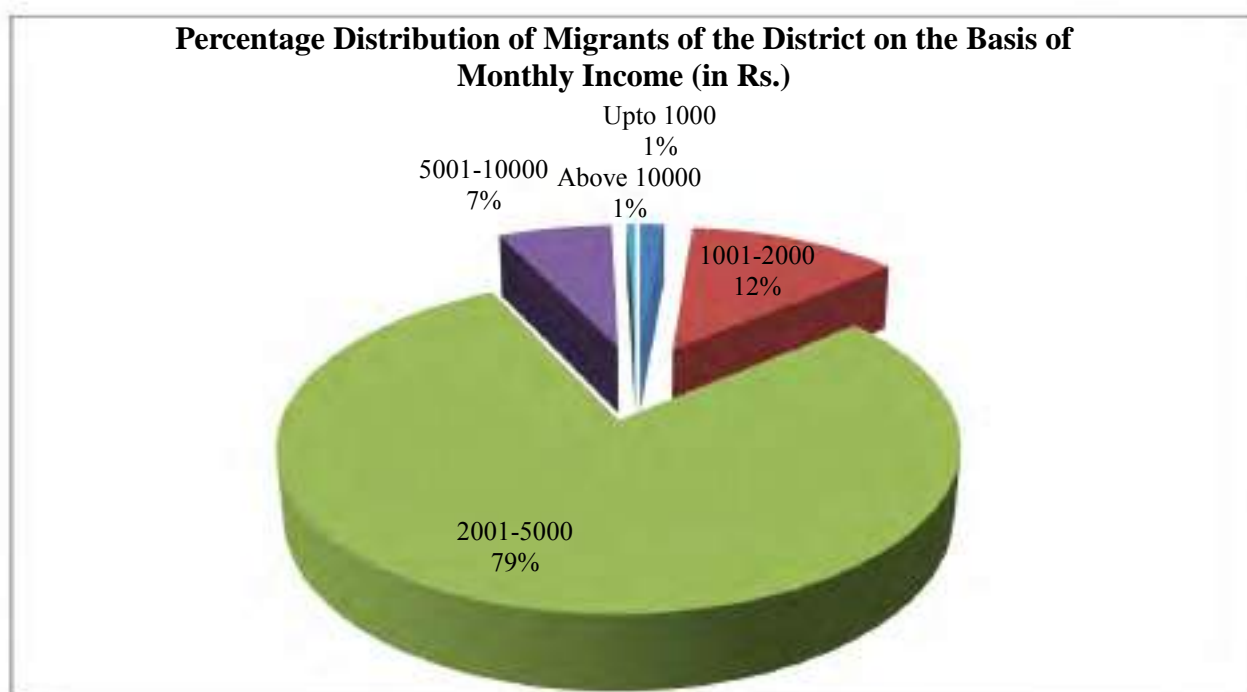
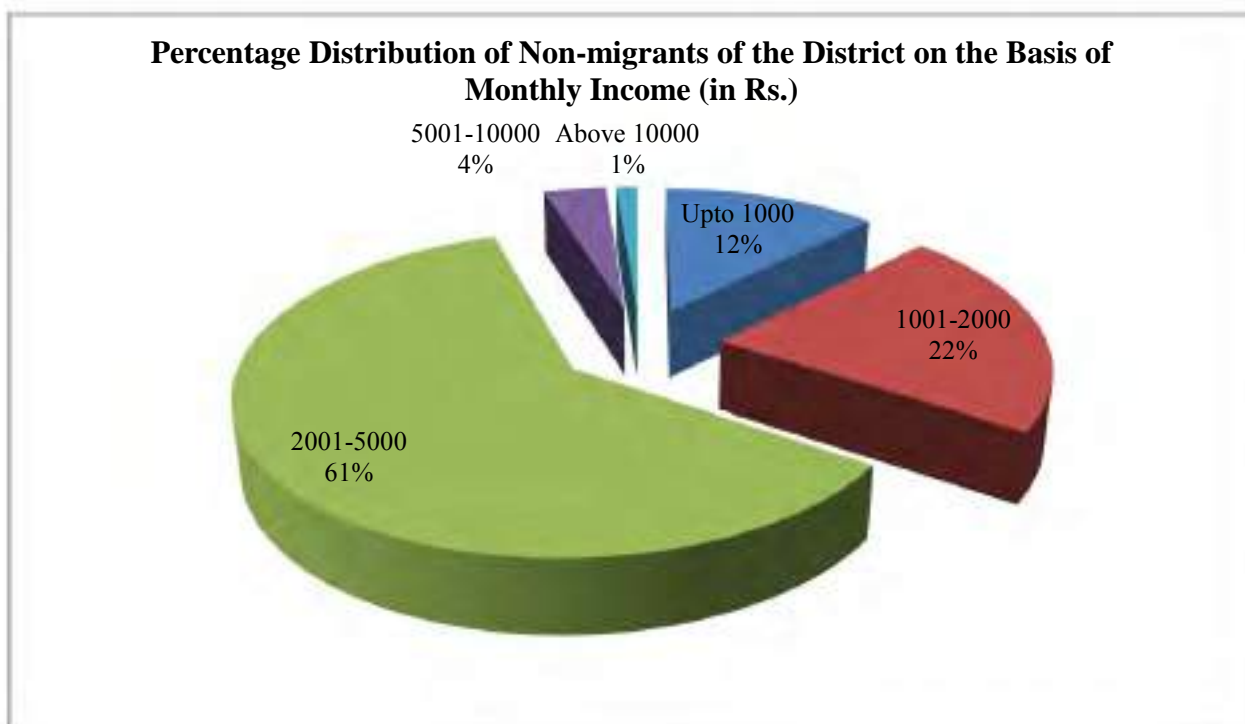


Fig. 7.6(b)



7.3.3 Monthly Consumption of Migrants and Non-migrants Households' Earners

Consumption is a necessary factor for incarnation in every human life. Here, we discuss monthly consumption of migrants and non-migrants households' earners. We have divided the monthly consumption of both migrant and non-migrant households' earners into four categories such as, upto Rs. 1000, Rs. 1001 to Rs. 2000, Rs. 2001 to Rs. 3000, and 3001 and above. The Table 7.12 and the Figs. 7.7(a) and 7.7(b) below present the distribution of migrant and non-migrant households' earners on the basis of monthly consumption.

Table 7.12: Distribution of Migrant and Non-migrant Households' Earners on the Basis of Monthly Consumption

Village	Household Category	Monthly Consumption (in Rs.)				Total
		Upto 1000	1001-2000	2001-3000	3001 & above	
Vill 1	MIG	37(50.68)	36(49.32)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	73(100.00)
	N-MIG	18(42.86)	24(57.14)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	42(100.00)
Vill 2	MIG	15(35.71)	27(64.29)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	42(100.00)

	N-MIG	13(30.23)	29(67.44)	1(2.33)	0(0.00)	43(100.00)
Vill 3	MIG	8(19.05)	34(80.95)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	42(100.00)
	N-MIG	17(37.78)	25(55.55)	3(6.67)	0(0.00)	45(100.00)
Vill 4	MIG	19(57.58)	13(39.39)	1(3.03)	0(0.00)	33(100.00)
	N-MIG	29(61.70)	15(31.92)	3(6.38)	0(0.00)	47(100.00)
Vill 5	MIG	2(6.45)	24(77.42)	5(16.13)	0(0.00)	31(100.00)
	N-MIG	25(59.52)	17(40.48)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	42(100.00)
Vill 6	MIG	4(12.90)	25(80.65)	2(6.45)	0(0.00)	31(100.00)
	N-MIG	10(34.48)	17(58.62)	2(6.90)	0(0.00)	29(100.00)
District Total	MIG	85(33.73)	159(63.09)	8(3.18)	0(0.00)	252(100.00)
	N-MIG	112(45.16)	127(51.21)	9(3.63)	0(0.00)	248(100.00)

Note: Figures in brackets indicate row-wise percentages.

Source: Field Survey.

It can be found in the above Table that about 63 percent migrant households' earners consume monthly by spending the amount of Rs. 1000-2000 whereas about 51 percent non-migrant households' earners consume monthly by spending that same amount. About 34 percent migrant households' earners consume monthly by spending the amount of Rs. upto 1000 whereas about 45 percent non-migrant households' earners consume monthly by spending that same amount and only 3 percent migrant households' earners consume monthly by spending the amount of Rs. 2001- 3000 whereas about only 4 percent non-migrant households' earners consume monthly by spending that same amount. So, the percentage of monthly consumption of migrant households' earners is higher than the percentage of monthly consumption of non-migrant households' earners in case of Rs. 1000-2000. On the other hand, for the case of consumption category of Rs. upto 1000, the percentage of monthly consumption of migrant households' earners is quite less than the percentage of monthly consumption of non-migrant households' earners and also for the case of consumption category of Rs. 2001-3000, the percentage of monthly consumption of migrant households' earners is little less than the percentage of monthly consumption of non-migrant households' earners. There is no even any single number of migrant and non-migrant households' earner whose monthly consumption level lies of Rs. 3001 and above. Thus, it is cleared that most of the migrant and non-migrant households' earners consume monthly by spending the amount of Rs. 1000-2000.

Fig. 7.7(a)

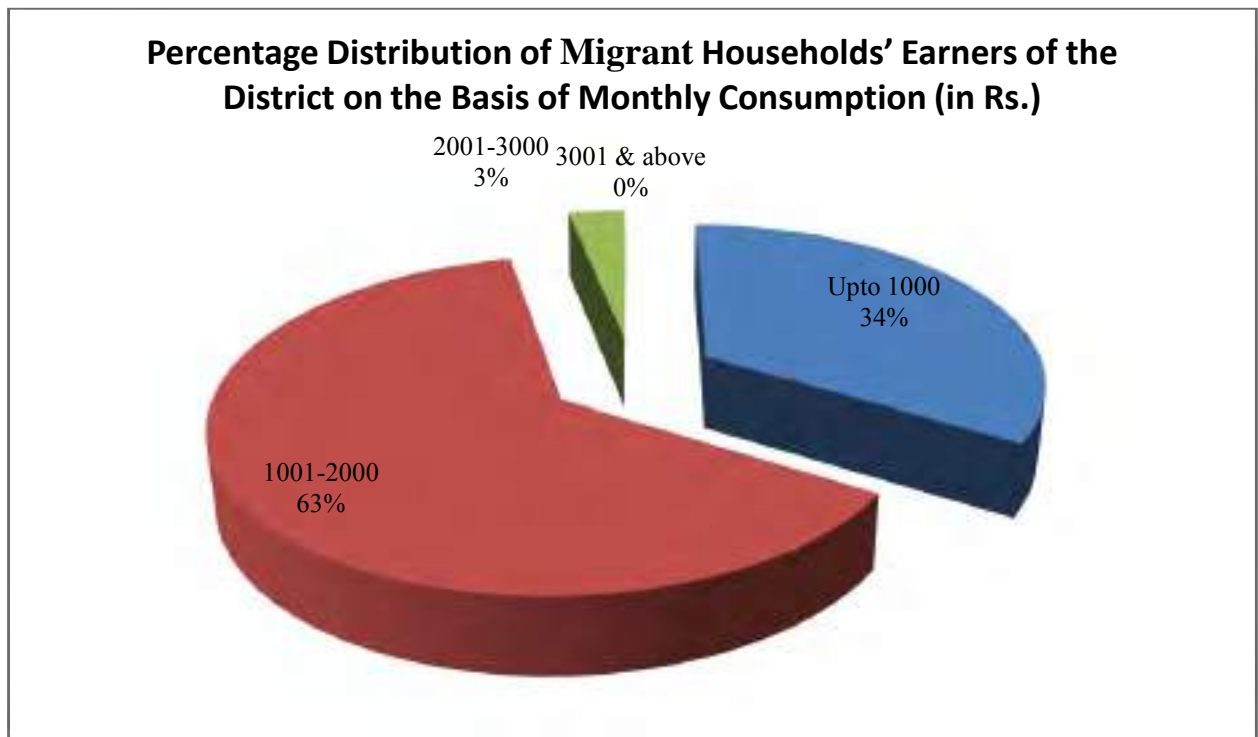
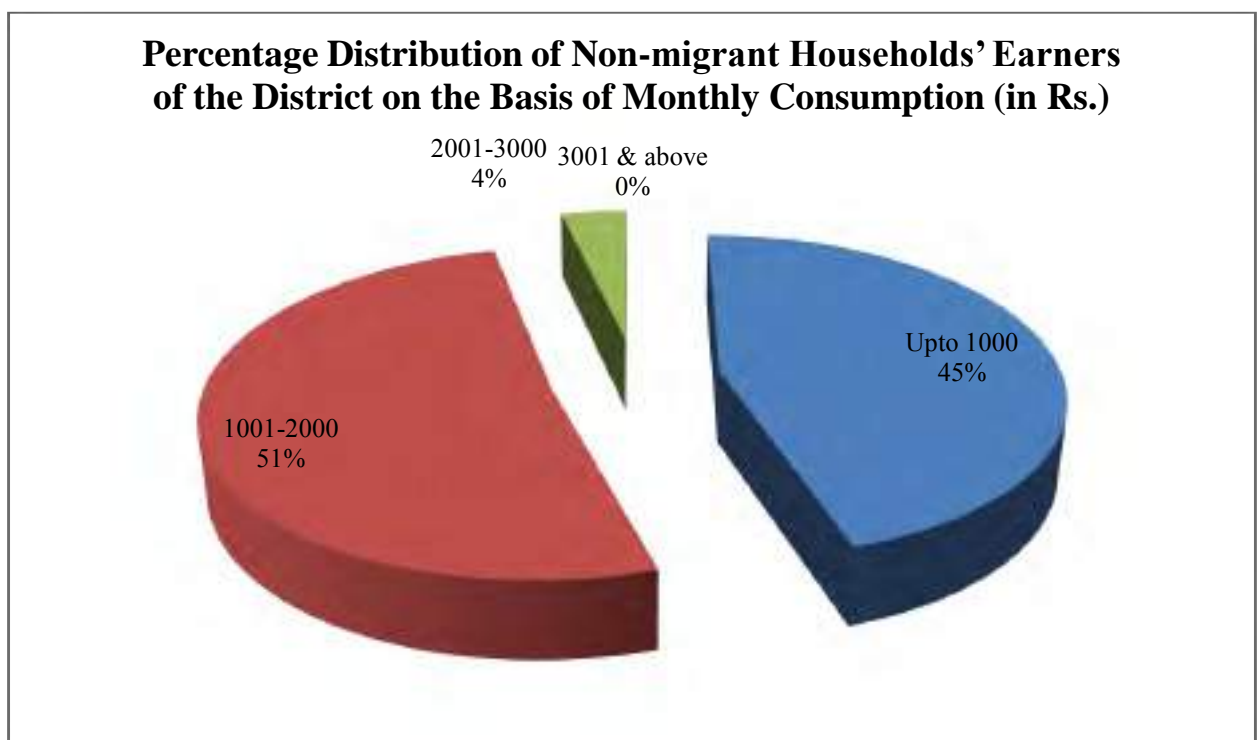


Fig. 7.7(b)



7.3.4 Monthly Saving of Migrant and Non-migrant Households' Earners

Saving is an important tool to maintain the socio-economic status of the family or household to every earner. Here, we discuss the monthly saving of migrant and non-migrant households' earners. We have divided the monthly saving of both migrant and non-migrant households' earners into four categories such as, upto Rs. 1000, Rs. 1001 to Rs. 2000, Rs. 2001 to Rs. 3000, and 3001 and above. The Table 7.13 below represents the distribution of migrant and non-migrant households' earners on the basis of monthly saving which is also depicted in bar diagrams in Figs. 7.8(a) and 7.8(b).

Table 7.13: Distribution of Migrant and Non-migrant Households' Earners on the Basis of Monthly Saving

Village	Household Category	Monthly Saving (in Rs.)				
		Upto 1000	1001-2000	2001-3000	3001 & above	Total
Vill 1	MIG	1(2.08)	30(62.50)	16(33.34)	1(2.08)	48(100.00)
	N-MIG	13(30.95)	23(54.76)	5(11.91)	1(2.38)	42(100.00)
Vill 2	MIG	14(42.42)	15(45.46)	4(12.12)	0(0.00)	33(100.00)
	N-MIG	16(37.21)	20(46.51)	4(9.30)	3(6.98)	43(100.00)
Vill 3	MIG	0(0.00)	22(66.67)	9(27.27)	2(6.06)	33(100.00)
	N-MIG	14(31.11)	18(40.00)	8(17.78)	5(11.11)	45(100.00)
Vill 4	MIG	18(60.00)	11(36.67)	1(3.33)	0(0.00)	30(100.00)
	N-MIG	17(36.17)	25(53.19)	2(4.26)	3(6.38)	47(100.00)
Vill 5	MIG	3(9.68)	15(48.39)	9(29.03)	4(12.90)	31(100.00)
	N-MIG	11(26.19)	24(57.14)	5(11.91)	2(4.76)	42(100.00)
Vill 6	MIG	6(19.35)	6(19.35)	12(38.71)	7(22.59)	31(100.00)
	N-MIG	1(3.45)	18(62.07)	6(20.69)	4(13.79)	29(100.00)
District Total	MIG	42(20.39)	99(48.05)	51(24.76)	14(6.80)	206(100.00)
	N-MIG	72(29.03)	128(51.61)	30(12.10)	18(7.26)	248(100.00)

Note: Figures in brackets indicate row-wise percentages.

Source: Field Survey.

The data bring out in the above Table that about 48 percent migrant households' earners from the district saved monthly amount of Rs. 1001-2000 followed by Rs. 2001-3000 (about 25

percent), upto Rs.1000 (about 20 percent), and 3001 and above (about 7 percent) . On the other hand, about 52 percent of non-migrant households' earners from the district saved monthly amount of Rs. 1001-2000 followed by upto Rs. 1000, Rs. 2001-3000 (about 12 percent) and 3001 and above (about 7 percent). So, the majority of both migrant and non-migrant households earners saved monthly amount of Rs.1001-2000 and in comparison, the percentages of monthly saving amount of upto Rs.1000, Rs. 1001-2000 and 3001 and above of migrant households' earners were less than percentages of monthly saving of those same amounts of non-migrant households' earners. Only the percentage of monthly saving amount of Rs. 2001-3000 of migrant households' earners was greater than the percentage of monthly saving of that same amount of non-migrant households' earners. Although, there were huge inter-village variations among migrant and non-migrant households' earners regarding various types of monthly saving amount. It is therefore cleared that both migrant and non-migrant households' earners of Cooch Behar district as a whole saved a higher proportion of their income to maintain their socio-economic status of the households.

Fig. 7.8(a)

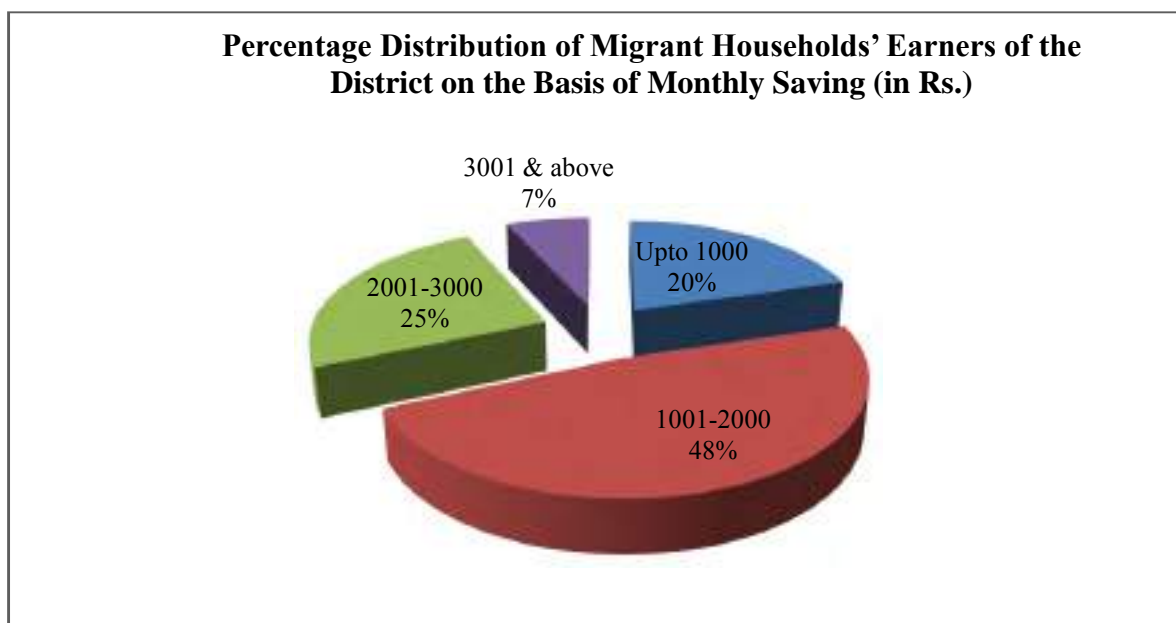
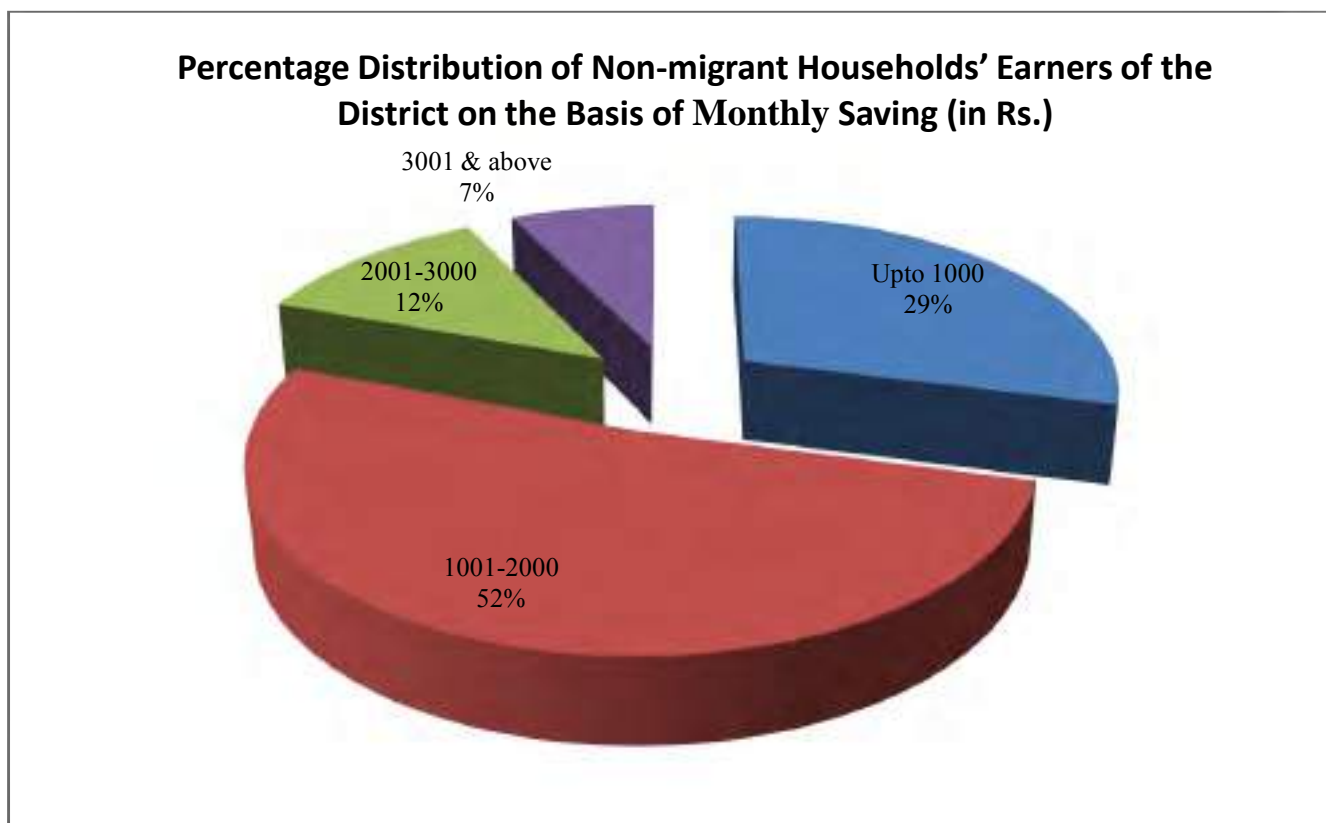


Fig. 7.8(b)



7.3.5 Monthly Household Consumer Expenditure of Respondents of Migrant and Non-migrant Households

We have classified here the monthly household consumer expenditure of both the respondents of migrant and non-migrant households into four categories, such as, upto Rs. 2000, Rs. 2001-3000, Rs. 3001-4000 and above Rs. 4000. An attempt has been made in those connection in the Table 7.14 below to distribute respondents of migrant and non-migrant households regarding monthly households' consumer expenditure on various items like cereals and cereal products, pulses and pulse products, vegetables, fruits and nuts, edible oil, fuel and light, durable goods, medical expenses, educational expenses etc. which is also diagrammatically presented in Figs. 7.9(a) and 7.9(b).

Table 7.14: Distribution of Respondents of Migrant and Non-migrant Households on the Basis of Monthly Household Consumer Expenditure (in Rs.)

Village	Household Category	Monthly Household Consumer Expenditure (in Rs.)				
		Upto 2000	2001-3000	3001-4000	Above 4000	Total
Vill 1	MIG	12(48.00)	13(52.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	25(100.00)
	N-MIG	0(0.00)	12(48.00)	9(36.00)	4(16.00)	25(100.00)
Vill 2	MIG	16(64.00)	6(24.00)	2(8.00)	1(4.00)	25(100.00)
	N-MIG	1(4.00)	16(64.00)	8(32.00)	0(0.00)	25(100.00)
Vill 3	MIG	20(80.00)	4(16.00)	1(4.00)	0(0.00)	25(100.00)
	N-MIG	2(8.00)	14(56.00)	4(16.00)	5(20.00)	25(100.00)
Vill 4	MIG	12(48.00)	10(40.00)	2(8.00)	1(4.00)	25(100.00)
	N-MIG	7(28.00)	8(32.00)	7(28.00)	3(12.00)	25(100.00)
Vill 5	MIG	19(76.00)	5(20.00)	1(4.00)	0(0.00)	25(100.00)
	N-MIG	5(20.00)	15(60.00)	3(12.00)	2(8.00)	25(100.00)
Vill 6	MIG	23(92.00)	2(8.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	25(100.00)
	N-MIG	1(4.00)	15(60.00)	7(28.00)	2(8.00)	25(100.00)
District Total	MIG	102(68.00)	40(26.67)	6(4.00)	2(1.33)	150(100.00)
	N-MIG	16(10.67)	80(53.33)	38(25.33)	16(10.67)	150(100.00)

Note: Figures in brackets indicate row-wise percentages.

Source: Field Survey.

The data in the above Table reveal that 68 percent of respondents of migrant households' monthly household consumer expenditure were lie upto Rs.2000 whereas about only 11 percent of respondents of non-migrant households monthly household consumer expenditure remained in that same category. About 27 percent of respondents of migrant households monthly household consumer expenditure ranged from Rs 2001 to Rs.3000 whereas about 53 percent of respondents of non-migrant households monthly household consumer expenditure ranged from that same category. Only about 5 percent in total of respondents of migrant households remained for the monthly household consumer expenditure categories of Rs.

3001-4000 and above Rs. 4000 which were found to be insignificant. On the other hand, 36 percent in total of respondents of non-migrant households lied for the monthly household consumer expenditure categories of Rs. 3001-4000 and above Rs. 4000 which were quite higher than the respondents of migrant households lied in those same categories. However, there were much inter-village variations observed from the above Table among the respondents of migrant and non-migrant households regarding the different categories of monthly household consumer expenditure. Thus, it clearly brings out that the respondents of non-migrant households comparatively spent monthly more on various household items than the respondents of migrant households.

Fig. 7.9(a)

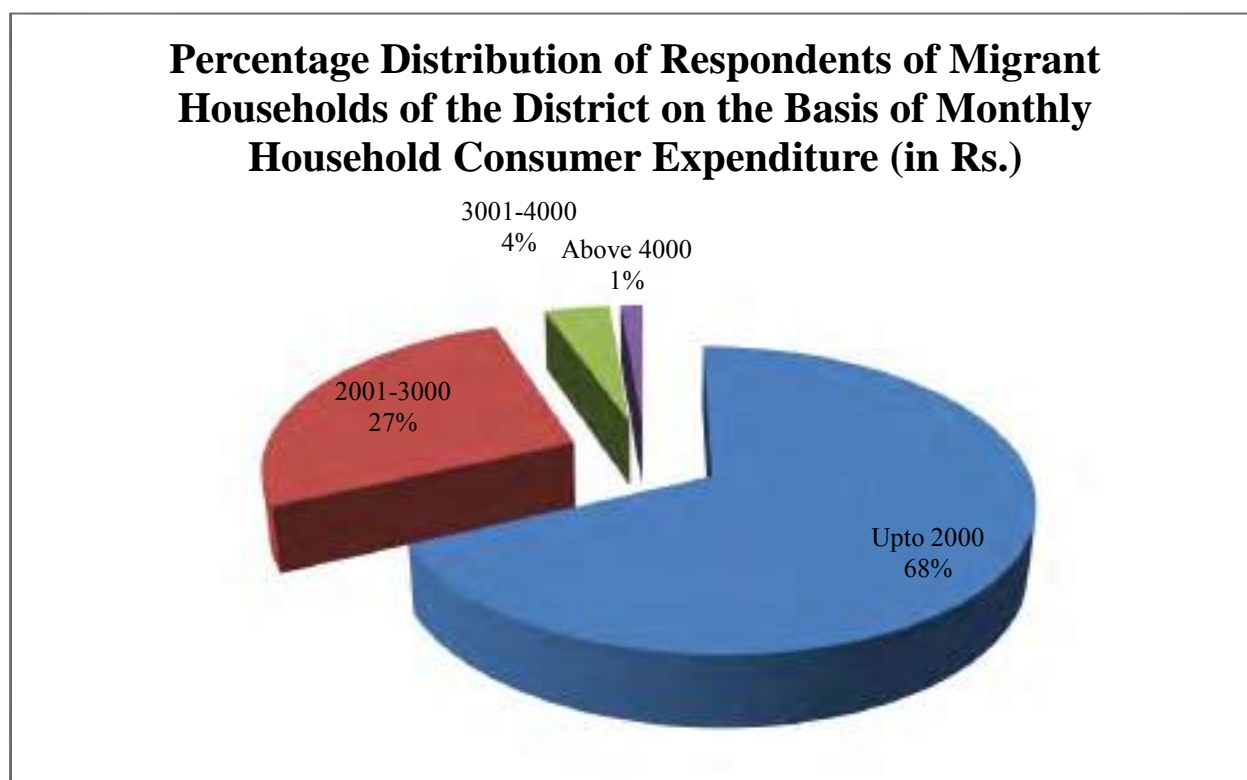
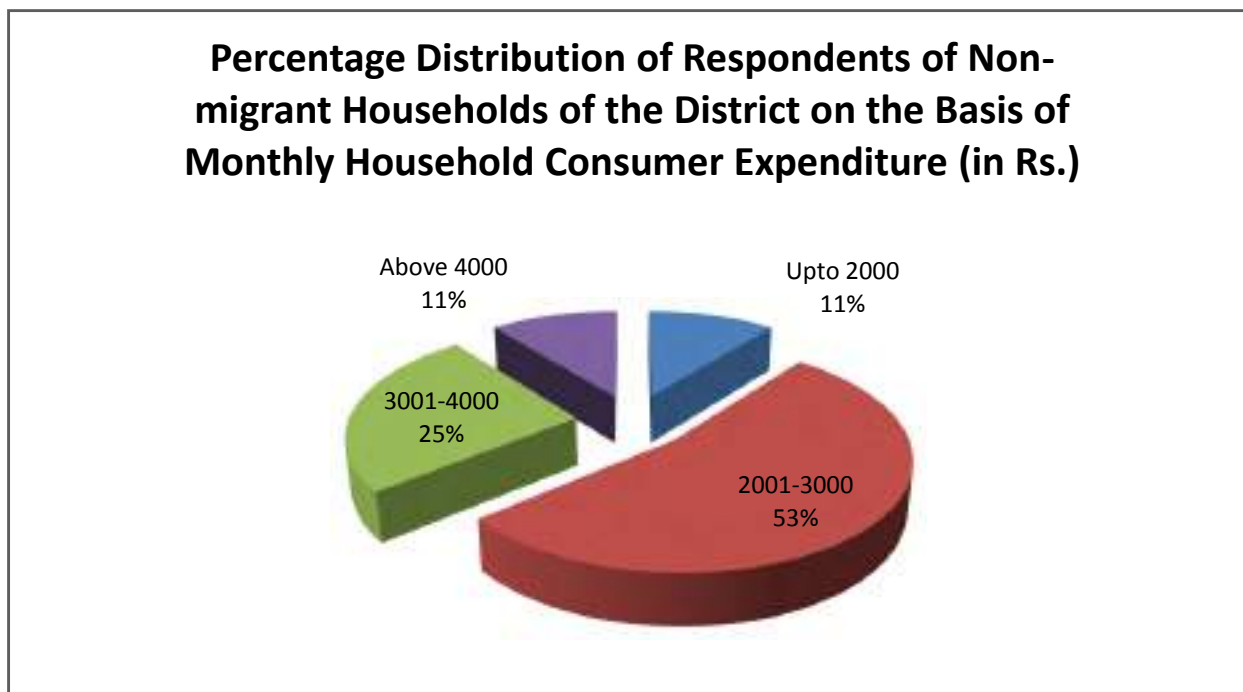


Fig. 7.9 (b)



7.3.6 Assets Holding

Holding of assets of the household is one of the important factors for maintaining socio-economic status of the family and also holding more assets results the improvement of the socio-economic condition of the household. Here, we discuss the electric equipments and furniture items as assets holding of migrant and non-migrant households.

7.3.6(a) Asset (Electric Equipments) Holding of Migrant and Non-migrant Households

Electric equipments are the important asset of households in which electrification of households is a necessary condition for the use of such equipments. Various types of electric equipments have been shown here. The Table 7.15 below puts forward the distribution of migrant and non-migrant households regarding the asset (electric equipments) holding.

**Table-7.15: Distribution of Migrant and Non-migrant Households on the Basis of Asset
(Electric Equipments) Holding**

Village	Household Category	Electric Equipments (in Number)								
		Refrigerator	B/W TV	Colour TV	Dish Antenna	Transistor /Radio	Telephone/Mobile	Ceiling Fans	Tube lights	Others
Vill 1	MIG	0	2	2	1	10	22	0	0	3
	N-MIG	0	6	0	0	9	22	1	2	1
Vill 2	MIG	0	2	1	1	8	26	6	4	3
	N-MIG	0	8	3	0	4	11	6	5	2
Vill 3	MIG	0	2	4	1	6	27	3	2	0
	N-MIG	1	3	8	7	1	24	16	7	5
Vill 4	MIG	0	11	2	2	8	24	2	7	3
	N-MIG	0	4	6	6	1	20	8	8	3
Vill 5	MIG	2	11	6	2	5	23	8	14	8
	N-MIG	0	3	6	4	2	18	4	9	2
Vill 6	MIG	0	7	0	0	8	32	0	0	0
	N-MIG	0	7	1	1	5	21	3	4	2
District Total	MIG	2	35	15	7	45	154	19	27	17
	N-MIG	1	31	24	18	22	116	38	35	15

Source: Field Survey.

The data exhibit in the above Table that the telephone/mobile being an electric equipment occupied the highest number i.e., 154 whereas refrigerator possessed the lowest number for migrant households. On the other hand, for non-migrant households, also the telephone/mobile being an electric equipment occupied the highest number i.e., 116 whereas refrigerator possessed the lowest number. However, in comparison, the number of electric equipments of migrant households like refrigerator, B/W TV, transistor/radio, telephone/mobile, tubelights and other electric equipments such as iron, tape recorder, table fans, etc were higher than those types of electric equipments of non-migrant households whereas the number of electric equipments such as colour TV, dish antenna and ceiling fans of migrant households were less than those categories of electric equipments of non-migrant households. Thus, due to more electrification of houses and purchasing capacity of non-migrant households, the number of electric equipments such as colour TV, dish antenna and ceiling fans were higher than migrant households. Refrigerator being electric equipment was found to be insignificant for both migrant and non-migrant households. Although, there were huge inter-village variations regarding the number of different electric equipments among

migrant and non-migrant households. Thus, it is cleared that on an average the number of electric equipments of migrant households were higher than the number of electric equipments of non-migrant households due to much utilisation of remittances sent by the migrants to their families.

7.3.6(b) Asset (Furniture Items) Holding of Migrant and Non-migrant Households

Furniture items are also the significant asset of every household. Here we have showed the various types of furniture items of migrant and non-migrant households. The Table 7.16 below represents the distribution of migrant and non-migrant households regarding the asset (furniture items) holding.

Table 7.16: Distribution of Migrant and Non-migrant Households on the Basis of Asset (Furniture Items) Holding

Village	Household Category	Furniture Items (in No.)						
		Cots/ Beds	Chairs/B enches	Tables	Almirahs/C upboards	Sofa Sets	Dressing Table	Others
Vill 1	MIG	60	47	29	21	0	12	0
	N-MIG	60	61	25	20	0	7	0
Vill 2	MIG	64	43	31	26	0	15	2
	N-MIG	36	30	15	26	0	6	0
Vill 3	MIG	55	45	25	30	0	10	0
	N-MIG	43	47	23	38	0	9	2
Vill 4	MIG	59	52	26	30	0	10	1
	N-MIG	54	51	22	35	0	11	0
Vill 5	MIG	50	37	25	27	0	16	1
	N-MIG	52	54	24	37	0	6	2
Vill 6	MIG	58	41	27	25	0	18	5
	N-MIG	47	45	26	40	1	11	0
District Total	MIG	346	265	163	159	0	81	9
	N-MIG	292	288	135	196	1	50	4

Source: Field survey.

It is revealed from the above Table that considering the various furniture items for the surveyed households of Cooch Behar district, the total number of cots /beds of migrant households was 346 whereas the total number of that same furniture item of non-migrant households was 292. For the migrant households, the total number of chairs/benches was 265 whereas it was 288 for non-migrant households. Next, the total number of tables of migrant households was 163 whereas for non-migrant households it was 135. And, the total number of almirahs/cupboards of migrant households was 159 in which for the non-migrant households it was 196. There was no even a single sofa set of migrant households whereas only 1 sofa set was there for non-migrant households that were found to be insignificant. The total number of dressing tables and other furniture items like wooden tools, ulnas etc. of migrant household was 90 whereas it was 54 for non-migrant households. Although, there were significant inter-village variations regarding the number of various furniture items among migrant and non-migrant households. Hence, on an average, the total number of furniture items of migrant households was higher than the total number of furniture items of non-migrant households. So, more furniture items were purchased by the migrant households through proper utilization of remittances sent by the migrants.

7.4 Test of Hypothesis – 4

4) There has been a marked improvement in socio-economic conditions of the families of migrant workers.

We have tested hypothesis-4 through tabular forms.

From the Tables 7.9, 7.15 and 7.16, we have found that regarding the use of remittances of the households on the basis of poverty status, on an average of both APL and BPL migrant families utilize remittances especially on food items and regarding asset holding, they utilize remittances to purchase few necessary electric equipments like fans, tubelights, radio, mobile, etc. and furniture like cots/beds, chairs, benches, almirah (wooden) etc. So, from the mentioned tables, it is observed that there has not been any marked improvement in socio-economic conditions of the families of migrant workers. Thus, the above hypothesis is not true in this context. In this way, the hypothesis-4 is tested.

CHAPTER -VIII

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND POLICY RECOMMENDATIONS

8.1 Summary

First of all, Chapter I introduces the problem under study. Then it contains the objective of the study, research questions, research hypotheses, conceptual framework, justification of the study, research methodology and plan of the study. At last, it covers the limitations of the study.

Chapter II describes the reviews of relevant literature on the research topic. Four categories of topical research works have been reviewed. Firstly, studies which have dealt with theoretical issues of migration. Secondly, research works which have been conducted at empirical level. These have been divided into two parts: those which are mainly based on secondary data and those, which are largely based on field survey data. Thirdly, we have reviewed those works which deal with the problem of rural-urban migration in other countries than India and the case of international migration. Then, we have reviewed the review articles on internal rural-urban migration. Finally, we have identified the research gap in this chapter.

Chapter III interprets the rural-urban migration scenario in India and in West Bengal by utilizing secondary data mainly on Census 2001 and 1991 and NSSO Reports of various rounds. We have included here some relevant data of 2011 Census to obtain more consistency with field survey data as we done field survey in the year 2013. In this chapter, we have at first introduced the rural-urban migration scenario in India and in West Bengal. Then we have examined the various issues of migration like migration by place of birth and by place of last residence, migration rates, net migration rate of some major state in India etc. Here, inter-state migration of migrants, migration within the state of migrants by place of birth and by place of last residence of some major states in India through different streams of migration, migration rates of different categories of persons, what are net migration rates of some major states in India? are specially discussed. Next, the distribution of migrants though different streams of migration and trend and pattern of rural-urban migration in India are

elucidated. The various reasons for migration and their comparisons with the data of different census cited above are also expounded. At last, we have examined the trend and pattern of rural urban migration in West Bengal.

Chapter IV sets forth the demographic and socio-economic profile of the survey area. Here, in the beginning, we have discussed about the study district of Cooch Behar where the location and of its boundary, brief history of the district, demographic profile based on 2001 Census and 2011 Census Report, and a brief description of the economy are delineated. Then we have analysed the the demographic and socio-economic profiles of migrant workers based on the villages surveyed of the district. For the analysis, we have divided at first the demographic profile of migrant workers and then the socio-economic profile of migrant workers. Lastly, the demographic and socio-economic descriptions of the surveyed villages in Cooch Behar district have been summarized.

Now, the major findings of the demographic profile based on primary data are delineated in the following.

1. There is almost symmetrical distribution among population of the sample villages found with respect to its division among adult male, adult female, male child and female child.
2. The presence of a substantial proportion of relatively young migrant labour force (20-30 years of age) among the respondents was observed.
3. The small sized migrant families (about 11.33 percent) consisting of upto 3 members are usually nuclear that we found through our field investigation.
4. It was found that out of 100 percent migrant households of surveyed villages, 68 percent migrant households belong to Hinduism whereas 32 percent belong to Muslims. There is no even a single Christian migrant household from the sample villages of Cooch Behar district.
5. It was seen that about 51 percent migrant households belong to SC category and about 47 percent belong to others that is General category whereas only 1 percent of migrant households belong to ST category among all six surveyed villages. There is no even a single OBC category migrant household among the six surveyed villages.

6. It could be noticed that only 22 percent migrant households belong to APL category whereas 78 percent migrant households belong to BPL category among total six surveyed villages of the district. It revealed that most of the migrant households were under BPL category.

Also, the major findings of the socio-economic profile based on primary data are delineated as under.

7. As far as education levels of migrant households are concerned, the majority percentages of migrant household members in the district are illiterate. As many as 31 percent male members and almost 43 percent female members are illiterate. Among the literacy of male and female, the highest (35 percentage of male) and the highest (29 percent of female) belong to the below primary category, that is, who are just literate. There is no any member of migrant who takes either the degree of graduation or post-graduation or technical level of education.

8. It was noticed that out of total 150 migrants' households of sample villages, the major 93(62.00 percent) migrant households occupied cultivable land less than one bigha, that is, they might be define as landless or near landless families.

9. The data also revealed table that majority percentage of migrant households belonging to social status as well as poverty status possessed cultivable land only less than 1 bigha. The interesting result was found from the survey data that although 1.70 percentages of BPL migrant households occupied between 15.1-30.0 bighas of cultivable land, there was no any percentage of APL migrant households who possessed the same amount of cultivable land. Including both social and poverty status of migrant households, there was no any percentage of migrant household who possessed greater than 30.0 bighas of cultivable land.

10. Majority (about 89.47 percent) male migrants acted as principal earner of the family while about 10.53 percent female migrants performed as principal earner of the family. They, therefore, engaged with a number of principal activities in destination areas.

11. Regarding work status/ occupational engagement of members of migrant households in the district, the data expressed that the out of the total male and female members of surveyed households, the highest 25.07 percentage of male and female members engaged in other types of work like building construction labour, road construction

labour, loading and unloading types of labour, mason, shuttering labour etc. and the lowest 0.13 percentage of male and female members did not engage in work but for seeking or available to get work. So, it could be observed that most of the male and female members engaged as regular salaried or wage employee and other types of work like mason, shuttering labour, building construction labour etc. although there is a lack or crisis of work in the local area throughout the year.

12. The data brought out that out of the total 483 members of migrant surveyed households, only 44 members i.e., 9.11 percentage engaged with subsidiary occupation like agriculture and allied activities, agriculture labour, construction labour etc. It indicated that very few members engaged with subsidiary activity.

Chapter V analyses the trend, pattern and features of rural–urban migration in the study area. Here, the analyses of this chapter are divided into two parts-(i) the trend and pattern of rural-urban migration in the study area and (ii) Characteristics or features of rural-urban migration in the study area.

Now, at first, the core results of trend and pattern of migrants of the surveyed households in the study area are outlined in the following.

1. Based on nature of migration, the data revealed that the incidence of migration with full family was lower i.e. 44 percent compared to the incidence of migration with partial family i.e. about 71 percent in the surveyed households of Cooch Behar district. It could, therefore, be observed that the majority percentage of the surveyed households migrated outside with few family members.
2. It could be found that nearly 81 percent migrant members are male and about 19 percent are female and also a huge inter-village variations among female migrants compared to male migrants was observed. This means that the migrant families were in a vulnerable condition. This is because except in cases of dire need generally female members would like to stay at home to look after the children and elderly
3. As far as children migrants are concerned, out of 220 children of surveyed villages, only 29 children migrated with their parents or with their family members that constituted only about 13 percent i.e., 0.13 in portion of the total children of the migrant households in the district. It is, therefore, cleared that few percentages of

children from the total children migrated outside the district/ state with their parents or with their family members.

4. The data highlighted that the highest percentage (about 58 percent) of migrants lie in the age group of 15-30, followed by the age-group of 31-45 (about 22 percent), the age-group of upto 14 (about 13 percent) and the age-group of above 45 (nearly 6 percent). Thus, the majority percentages of migrants who migrate outside the district belong to the age group of 15-30.
5. It could be found from the surveyed households of the district that nearly 86 percent migrant migrated outside the state followed by about 11 percent migrated to another district of West Bengal, and about 2 percent migrated either in another place of the same district or in another country. Thus the majority percentages of migrants have migrated outside the state for either in search of employment or in search of better employment opportunity in the destination areas.
6. Data revealed that nearly 97 percent migrants have undertaken rural to urban migration (industry and service taken together) and only about 3 percent have undertaken rural to rural migration. Most of the migration has taken place through rural to urban stream in industrial sector.

And, then the core results of characteristics/features of migrants of the surveyed households in the study area are delineated as under.

7. It could be noticed that about 17 percent migrants did not engage in any work as they were unemployed while about 82 percent migrants engaged in works as wage employment labour and self employment. So the distribution of migrants was more distinguishable between the two categories.
8. Out of total 150 households, an overwhelming number of migrants i.e. 139 (about 93 percent), from the district remain engaged in wage employment. However, in the district about 7 percent household migrants remain engaged in self-employment at destination. So, most of the migrant households engaged in destination as wage employment to earn their livelihood.
9. Majority (about 77 percent) of the migrant workers remain employed as regular/daily wage labour The second way in which labourers got employment was as weekly wage

- labour. Interestingly, there was no even a single migrant labour of the surveyed households employed in destination either weekly basis or unorganized sector labour.
10. Regarding the nature of employment, it could be seen that about 28 percent cases in the district, migrant labourers remain engaged in destination as long term employee without a written contract. Migrant labourers engaged as casual day labourer were about 15 percent. As contract labourer and self-employed taken together constituted only about 5 percent engagement of labour at destinations. About 52 percent migrant i.e. the highest percentage engaged as other type of employment mostly on regular wage basis at destinations. There was no even a single migrant engaged as long term employee with a written contract.
 11. As far as the rates of wages received at destination are concerned, the highest workers (about 35 percent) from the district received a wage in the range of Rs. 81-100 per day. The second major numbers of workers received wage in the range of Rs. 101 to 120 (about 28 percent). The third major category of workers in the district received wages in the range of Rs. 121 to 150 (about 20 percent) at destination. Only about 11 percent received wages as per day basis in the range of 151 and above. So, most of the migrant workers of the surveyed households received wages at destination in the range of Rs 81-100 per day.
 12. Data revealed that about 93 percent of the migrants of the surveyed households engaged in the range of 7-8 hours per day with their assigned works. The percentage of migrant workers who engaged with their activities by the working hours above 8 hours per day was only 5 percent and only the 1.44 percentage of migrant workers being engaging with their activities upto 6 hours per day were found to be insignificant. Therefore, most of the migrant workers engaged with their activities at destinations in the range of 7-8 working hours per day.
 13. Regarding duration of stay of migrants at destination, it could be found that the highest percentage of migrants from the surveyed households (about 55 percent) stayed at destination for a period of above 24 months. The second most duration of stay category of migrants remained for the period of 19 to 24 months in which nearly 21 percent workers migrated. The third most duration of stay category of migrants remained for the period of 7 to 12 months in which about 16 percent migrant workers migrated. So, majority of migrant workers migrated for the duration of stay at

destination of above 24 months where the migrants remain engaged with their assigned activities being employed in different sectors.

14. The highest about 46 percent migrant workers visited their native village twice in a year and the second most percentage i.e., about 35 percent migrant workers visited their native village once in a year. The frequencies thrice and above thrice in a year constituted only 15 percent migrant to visit their home. Only about 4 percent migrant workers did not visit their native village throughout the year as they used to stay at destination. Thus, majority of the migrant workers of the surveyed households visited their native villages twice in a year.
15. About 13 percent of the migrant workers stayed at home for a period between 1 to 15 days during home visit. Then, about 73 percent of the migrant workers stayed at home for a period between 16 to 30 days on their home visit. Next, about 13 percent of the migrant workers spent more than 30 days during their home visit. Only about 2 percent migrant workers would not visit their home. Thus, majority of the migrant workers from the surveyed households stayed at home for a period between 16 to 30 days while their home visits.
16. It could be noticed that about 28 percent migrants of surveyed households stayed with their family members at destination and only about 10 percent migrant workers stayed with other workers at destination. Then, about 33 percent migrants from the surveyed households stayed with their friends. The percentages of migrant workers stayed with their relatives at destination were about 18 percent and about 12 percent migrant workers could not have such mentioned ways of staying arrangement as they stayed with alone. Thus, it was revealed that a large number of migrants migrated with family members.
17. Regarding the condition of housing at destination, it could be seen that in the district about 58 percent migrants lived in pucca houses in destination, nearly 30 percent lived in makeshift tarpaulin houses and 8 percent lived in houses made of tiles. It may be noted that pucca house actually means godown, veranda or similar type of places of the employer where the migrant workers were provided rent-free accommodation. Other types of housing like houses made of leaves or wood formed very insignificant proportion for migrants of the district. So, the majority migrant workers lived in pucca houses provided by the company or organization at destination. After all, the

migrants did not enjoy a very improved housing condition either at origin or at destination.

Chapter VI describes the causes of migration with push and pull factors. The analyses of this chapter are classified into four parts - (i) Prerequisites conditions of migrants for migration (ii) Factors of migration analysis (iii) Implementation of MGNREGA and out-migration and (iv) The comparative analyses between migrant and non-migrant households regarding their nature and significance.

Now, at first, the major findings of prerequisites conditions of migrants for migration of surveyed households in the study area are outlined in the following.

1. Data revealed that about 87 percent cases, the decision to migrate was made by the migrant himself/herself. Only about 13 percent cases the decision to migrate was taken by the parents of the migrants. There was no such type of migrant household among six villages surveyed whose family member was migrated by the decision of their spouses.
2. Among the facilitators of surveyed households, relatives, friends already living at destination acted as the most important facilitators (46 per cent cases); followed by labour recruiters/contractors from destination (about 25 per cent cases); relatives, friends living in village/neighborhood (about 13 per cent cases). Only 1.33 percent marked by others (himself/herself) as facilitator.
3. It could be seen that out of total surveyed households in the district, 66 percent households' workers were partially employed before out-migration and only 1.33 percent household workers were fully employed before out-migration. On the other hand, about 33 percent households' workers of the surveyed households had totally remain unemployed before out-migration.
4. Data stated that about 63 percent of the migrant households of the surveyed villages were engaged in agriculture and its allied activities before out-migration and 8 percent engaged in manufacturing sector. Only 0.67 percent of the migrant households were engaged in service sector. It was also revealed in the table that about 29 percent migrant workers before out-migration were engaged neither agricultural related activities nor manufacturing related activities nor service related activities as they were not got employment in local areas. So most of the migrant households' workers

were engaged in agricultural related activities compared to other sectors of employment before out-migration.

Next, the core results of factors of migration analysis in the study area are delineated as under.

5. Data revealed that 98 percent households lived in kutchha houses and only little over 1 percent households lived in semi-pucca houses and less than one per cent households lived in pucca houses in the district of Cooch Behar. As far as the land category wise distribution of households was concerned, it could be viewed that almost all the surveyed households possessing land less than one bigha (i.e., households which were landless or near landless), were having kutchha houses. The same was true for different other categories of households having land between 1 bigha to 30 bighas. However, there was no even any single migrant household who had land greater than 30 bighas. Thus, land being the main asset in rural areas that depicted a very pitiable economic condition of the households under survey.
6. It was exposed that in Cooch Behar district, about 53 per cent migrant households had their own toilet facility and about 47 percent had no such type of facility. As far as categories of toilets were concerned in the district, about 37 percent of toilets were kutchha, 14 percent were pucca, only 2 percent were semi-pucca and about 47 percent migrant households had no any toilet facility as they normally used open space for their toilet. So most of the migrant households surveyed had no toilet facility and semi-pucca as being one of the types of toilet facility was found to be insignificant.
7. Data revealed that about 67 percent of surveyed households of Cooch Behar district use tube wells as own source of drinking water, 30 percent households use tube well or well on shared basis as source of their drinking water and only about 3 percent households use well as own source of drinking water. There is no any other source of drinking water in surveyed households. As shared sources of water requires lots of time to be devoted to collect water due to travel requirement to the source of water as well as spending time in standing on the queue, therefore 30 percent surveyed households in Cooch Behar district are normally done this type of troublesome activities to cover drinking water.
8. It could be found that only about 9 percent surveyed houses were electrified whereas about 91 percent surveyed houses had not gained electricity connection. There is no

doubt that poverty was the main cause for which they couldn't afford to have electric connection.

9. In respect of almost zero waiting period, it could be found that in 99.33 percent cases the migrant workers did not have to wait in the destination to obtain a job and only 0.67 percent cases the migrant workers had to wait to get job. Thus, waiting to get job for the migrants in the destination was insignificant here. The matter of the fact is that almost there was no waiting by the migrants for jobs but there were jobs waiting to be manned by the migrants at the destination in our study.
10. Data revealed that about 32 per cent migrant workers of surveyed households helped others to migrate and about 68 percent migrant workers did not help others for migration. So, there was a quite portion of migrant workers who motivated others to migrate. The reason for motivation might be that since migration from the district was overwhelmingly rural to urban areas and at distant places, therefore, workers who already migrated worked as a role model or motivator to many prospective migrant workers.
11. About 21 percent households reported that their working members would have remained unemployed, 30 percent reported to get employment for upto 120 days, 48 percent would get employment between 121 to 200 days and less than one percent i.e., 0.67 percent households reported to have been employed for more than 200 days in a year if they remained in origin instead of migrating. So most of the working members of the surveyed households got employment between 121 to 200 days in a year. Employments consisting of more than 200 days by the working members of the households were found to be insignificant.
12. The data expressed that migrant labourers of the surveyed households would have received wage rates of upto 40 rupees in the case of labourers of about 2 percent households in the district. This indicates that these types of labourers from the surveyed households were faced distressed situation. Then labourers from nearly 62 per households would receive Rs. 41 to Rs. 60. This also indicates a distressed situation of surveyed households as it carried comparatively low wage rate. On the other hand, the labours of about 28 percent households would get Rs. 61 to 80, relatively higher rate of wages and only near about 1 percent household workers would have received wages above Rs. 80.

13. Regarding the reasons for migration, it could be found that in the surveyed households of the district the reasons for migration in order of importance were: 'in search of better employment' (nearly 57 percent), 'in search of employment (nearly 28 percent), 'migration of the parent/earning member of the family' (about 14 percent). 'Other reasons' for migration were found to be very insignificant. Although, there were huge inter-village variations of the causes of migration. But overall, it could be found that the dominant of migration for villages of the district is that people migrated largely to get better employment, though in villages 3 'in search of employment' was the dominant cause of migration than 'in search of better employment'. That is, in this village people were more unemployed compared to other villages where majority of the migrants migrated in search of better employment. Migration due to the 'migration of parent/earning member of the family' constituted 14 percent of migrants of the district. It may be noted that a good number of migrants in this category belonged to minors, that is, children up to the age of 14 years.

After that, the major findings of the implementation of MGNREGA and out-migration of surveyed households in the study area are outlined in the following.

14. Data revealed that 88 percent households of Cooch Behar district held job cards under the scheme and only 12 percent households did not get job card under the scheme. A higher percentage of job card holders of surveyed households indicate that the depth of poverty was higher among them as a higher number of them were job hungry.
15. About 59 percent of the surveyed households of Cooch Behar district received some days of employment and about 41 percent households did not receive even a single day of employment under MGNREGS. So, a large part of households' member did not receive any employment. It was found that there were much inter-village variations regarding employment received and did not receive under the mentioned scheme. The paradoxical result between villages 5 and 6 found in the table was that in village 5, 84 percent households received some days of employment and remaining 16 percent did not receive even a single day of employment whereas in village 6 only 16

percent households got some days of employment and a large amount of households i.e., 84 percent households did not get any employment.

16. Nearly 33 percent households received employment between 6 to 10 days, 12 percent households received 17 days and 8 percent received employment 1 to 5 days only and 42 percent did not receive any employment at all in the district. Therefore, the employment arrangements through MGNREGA brought out a very poor state of implementation of MGNREGS among the investigated villages.

Finally, the core results of the comparative analyses between migrant and non-migrant households regarding their nature and significance are summarised in the following.

17. The data indicated that in case of migrant households, out of total 150 migrant households 62 percent households possessed first category of agricultural land that is less than 1 bigha whereas from a total of 150 non-migrant households about 35 percent households possessed the same type of agricultural land. But from the second category that is 1.0 – 3.0 to 15.1-30.0, the agricultural lands possessed by the non-migrant households were consecutively greater than those types of land possession of migrant households. There was no any agricultural land of both migrant and non-migrant households that lies greater than 30 bighas. Regarding the type of 7.6 – 15.0 agricultural land, only 4 percent migrant households possessed this type of land. On the other hand, about 15 percent non-migrant households possessed the same type of agricultural land which was obviously much higher than the migrant households.
18. About 63 percent of the migrant households engaged in agriculture and allied activities whereas about 75 percent of the non-migrant households engaged in agriculture and allied activities. So, non-migrant households engaged more than migrant households in that type of activities. For migrant households, only about 9 percent associated with both industrial and service related activities. On the other hand, about 25 percent non-migrant households associated with both industrial and service related activities. Therefore, non-migrant households associated more with those types of activities than migrant households. In case of migrant households, about 29 percent of the households did not get employment opportunity in local areas before out-migration.

19. It could be found that the percentage of holding job card of migrant households under MGNREGA of the surveyed households was 88 whereas about 79 percent non-migrant households did hold job card. Only 12 percent of the migrant households did not hold job card. On the other hand, about 22 percent non-migrant households did not hold job card. So, migrant households did hold more job card than non-migrant households under MGNREGA. There were almost inter-village variations noticed in the above table regarding job card holding among migrant and non-migrant households. Only interesting result shows in village 4 that percentage of holding job card and not holding job card among migrant and non-migrant households were same that is, 76 percent for holding job card and 24 percent for not holding job card respectively.
20. About 59 percent migrant households received employment under MGNREGA in the last one year whereas 54 percent non-migrant households received employment under MGNREGA in the last one year. In case of migrant households about 42 percent did not receive employment and on the other hand 46 percent non-migrant households did not receive the same. So, employment received by the migrant households was more than employment received by the non-migrant households. One absurd result noticed among migrant and non-migrant households in case of villages 3 and 6 is that received of employment under MGNREGA in the last one year is quite less than not received of employment of both migrant and non-migrant households. Here, only 4 percent and 16 percent migrant households of villages 3 and 6 received employment whereas 96 percent and 84 percent migrant households of those same villages did not receive employment. Further, 32 percent and 40 percent non-migrant households of villages 3 and 6 received employment whereas 68 percent and 60 percent non-migrant households of those same villages did not receive employment.
21. Regarding the days of employment received under MGNREGA in the last one year among migrant and non-migrant respondents, it could be observed that about 33 percent which is the highest percentage of migrant households received 6 to 10 days of employment under MGNREGA whereas the highest about 23 percent of non-migrant households received 16 and above days of employment under MGNREGA in the last one year and only about 5 percent which was the lowest percentage of migrant households received 11 to 15 days of employment whereas only about 1 percent

which was the lowest percentage of non-migrant households received 1 to 5 days of employment under MGNREGA. So, most of the migrant households received 6 to 10 days of employment and non-migrant households received 16 and above days of employment under MGNREGA in the last one year. In case of migrant household, received of employment between 11 to 15 days was found to be insignificant whereas in case non-migrant migrant households, 42 percent households did not receive any number of days of employment and 46 percent for non-migrant households did not receive any number of days of employment as they did not get job card under MGNREGA.

22. In respect of comparison of reasons for migration of migrants and reasons for non-migration of non-migrants, the data revealed that in Cooch Behar district, about 57 percent i.e., the highest percentage of migrants migrated out-side the district or state for in search of better employment followed by in search of employment (about 28 percent), migration of the parent/earning member of the family (about 14 percent), transfer of services/contract (about 1 percent) and business (less than 1 percent). On the other hand, about 53 percent i.e., the highest percentage of non-migrant had small or medium size of agricultural land followed by self-employment in business as well as services (about 13 percent), hampering family members' education (12 percent), marginal family and children due to low age (about 11percent), others like govt. service, major illness like malaria, typhoid, tuberculosis, construction worker (mason) etc. (9 percent) and social/ political problems in outside (riots, terrorism, bad law and order etc. (4 percent). Business and transfer of services or contract being the reasons for migration were found to be insignificant and social/ political problems in outside (riots, terrorism, bad law and order etc) being the reason for non-migration was found to be insignificant.

Chapters VII discusses the consequences of migration with costs and benefits. The analyses of this chapter are classified into two parts - (i) Analyses of socio-economic consequences of migration (ii Comparative analyses between migrant and non-migrant households regarding socio-economic consequences.

Here, the major findings of socio-economic consequences of migration in the study area are delineated in the following.

1. Data presented that about 26 percent of the migrants acquired some skill while working at destination whereas about 74 percent of the migrants did not acquire any skill and were engaged as an unskilled regular or casual daily labour. Since acquiring skill while working rendered the workers more efficient and skilled and it helped them to earn more in subsequent periods. However, there was a lot of inter-village variations among migrants based on skilled acquired at destinations.
2. The majority of the migrants (about 79 percent) in the district earned income in the range of Rs. 2001 to Rs. 5000 per month. The second income category in which the next higher number of workers falls was Rs. 1001-2000 (about 12 percent). The third income category where the next higher number of migrants belonged was Rs. 5001 to 10,000 (about 7 percent). Migrants' earning income up to 1000 and above Rs. 10,000 per month constituted only about 2 percent that were found to be insignificant. However, there were huge inter-village variations among migrant workers regarding the earnings of income. Thus, most of the migrant workers earning income remained in between Rs. 2001 to 5000.
3. It could be indicated that the majority percentage of respondents' monthly households' consumption expenditure (68 percent) were lie upto Rs. 2000. Then, about 27 percent of respondents' monthly households' consumption expenditure remained in between Rs. 2001-3000. The household consumption expenditure levels of respodents between Rs.3000-4000 and above Rs.4000 together constituted only about 5 percent which were found to be insignificant. Thus, most of the respondents' monthly households' consumption expenditure remained in upto Rs.2000.
4. The highest numbers of migrants (about 63 percent) fell into the consumption category of Rs. 1001 to Rs. 2000 per month. The second higher numbers of migrants (about 34 percent) belonged to the category of upto Rs. 1000. Migrants falling in income category of Rs. 2001 to 3000 and of Rs. 3001 and above formed an insignificant proportion of migrants in the district. However, there were a huge inter-village variations revealed in the table regarding the respondents' monthly consumption expenditure levels at destinsations. Thus, most of the migrants monthly consumption expenditure remained the consumption category of Rs. 1001 to Rs. 2000.
5. Data stated that the highest percentage (about 48 percent) of migrants from the district made a monthly saving of Rs. 1001-2000 followed by Rs. 2001-3000 (about 25

percent), Rs. upto 1000 (about 20 percent) and Rs. 3001 and above (nearly 7 percent). However, there were a lot of inter-village variations revealed in the table among migrants regarding the different categories of monthly savings. So, majority of migrants saved from their parts of income that ranges from Rs. 1000 to 2000.

6. About 75 percent of the migrants from the surveyed households sent money to their family members at origin and about 25 percent did not send the same. However, there were a much inter-village variations among migrants regarding the remittances sent and not sent. Interestingly, we noticed that in village 5, there was no even a single migrant who did not send money to his family member at origin and a very few percent (about 6 percent) migrants of village 6 did not sent money to their family members at origin.
7. The highest about 66 percent migrant of the surveyed households of Cooch Behar district sent remittances two times at origin, followed by three times (about 16 percent), one time (nearly 12 percent) and more than three times and above (about 6 percent). However, there were a lot of inter-village variations observed among the migrants regarding the times of remittances sent at their origin from their destinations. Thus, it is cleared that the major percentage of migrants sent remittances two times at their origins.
8. It could be found that the highest number of the district migrants (about 53 percent) made remittances in the range of Rs. 5001 to Rs. 10000. The next higher number of migrants, i.e., about 20 percent made remittances in the range of upto Rs. 5000. As far as third and fourth higher number of migrants making remittances are concerned it was interestingly found the same percentage i.e., 13.48 percentage in the categories of Rs. 10001 to 15000 and Rs. 15001 and above respectively in the district. However, there were huge inter-village variations revealed among the migrants regarding the amount of remittances sent at their origin from their working places. So, the majority of the migrants sent their money to their family members in the range of Rs. 5001 to Rs. 10000.
9. In district total for APL migrant families, the highest 20.67 percent families used remittances sent by the migrant workers on food items and the lowest 2 percent migrant families used remittances on both for education of their household members as well as other items on household consumer expenditure. On the other hand, for

BPL migrant families, the highest 72 percent families used remittances sent by the migrant workers on food items and the lowest 4.67 percent migrant families used remittances on education for their household members. Interestingly, it is seen in the table that in case of both APL and BPL families, there was no any use of remittances on marriage and other ceremonies. However, there were huge inter-village variations revealed among the APL and BPL migrant families regarding the use of remittances sent at their origin from their working places.

And the core results of comparative analyses between migrant and non-migrant households regarding socio-economic consequences are precisely outlined in the following.

10. Data revealed that in male and female migrants together, the highest about 36 percent migrants had no any education i.e., they are not literate, about 33 percent (the second most) migrants were literate with formal schooling including EGS that is they took education below primary level, about 13 percent (the third most) migrants took the education upto primary level and the education level literate without any schooling and diploma/ certificate course both possessed the lowest percentage i.e., only 0.13 for migrants. On the other hand, the highest 23 percent male and female non-migrants both were literate with formal schooling including EGS that is they took education below primary level, about 21 percent (the second most) non-migrants had no any education i.e., they were illiterate, about 19 percent (the third most) non-migrants took the education upto upper primary level and literate without formal schooling i.e. literate through NFEC/AIEP and others (community education, adult education initiated by village panchayat etc.) both possessed the lowest percentage i.e., only 0.14 for non-migrants. Although, there was a huge variations observed in the above table between male and female migrants and also between male and female non-migrants regarding various levels of education. Literate without any schooling, higher secondary education and diploma/ certificate course being the education level of migrants were found to be insignificant whereas literate without formal schooling, literate through TLC/AEC, diploma/ certificate course and post graduate and above being the education levels of non-migrants were found to be insignificant.

11. The highest percentage i.e., about 79 percent of migrants from the district earned a monthly income of Rs. 2001-5000 followed by Rs. 1001-2000 (about 13 percent), Rs.5001-10000 (about 7 percent), Upto Rs. 1000 (about 1 percent) and above 10000 (0.48 percent). On the other hand, the highest percentage i.e., about 70 percent of non-migrants from the district earned a monthly income of Rs. 2001-5000 followed by Rs. 1001-2000 (about 22 percent), Upto Rs. 1000 (about 13 percent), Rs. 5001-10000 (about 4 percent), and above 10000 (about 1 percent). However, there were a lot of inter-village variations noticed in the table among migrants and non-migrants regarding the different categories of monthly income. So, majority of migrants and non-migrants earned income that ranges from Rs. 2001 to 5000 through engaging various types of non-agricultural activities by migrants at destinations like labour in construction work, mason work, brick klin work, labour of rod binding work, etc, and through involving specially on agricultural activities by non-migrants at local areas.
12. About 63 percent migrant households' earners consumed monthly by spending the amount of Rs. 1000-2000 whereas about 51 percent non-migrant households' earners consumed monthly by spending that same amount. About 34 percent migrant households' earners depleted monthly by spending the amount of Rs. upto 1000 whereas about 45 percent non-migrant households' earners depleted monthly by spending that same amount and only 3 percent migrant households' earners swallowed monthly by spending the amount of Rs. 2001- 3000 whereas about only 4 percent non-migrant households' earners swallowed monthly by spending that same amount. So, the percentage of monthly consumption of migrant households' earners was higher than the percentage of monthly consumption of non-migrant households' earners in case of Rs. 1000-2000. On the other hand, for the case of consumption category of Rs. upto 1000, the percentage of monthly consumption of migrant households' earners was quite less than the percentage of monthly consumption of non-migrant households' earners and also for the case of consumption category of Rs. 2001-3000, the percentage of monthly consumption of migrant households' earners was little less than the percentage of monthly consumption of non-migrant households' earners.
13. About 48 percent migrant households' earners from the district saved monthly amount of Rs. 1001-2000 followed by Rs. 2001-3000 (about 25 percent), upto Rs.1000 (about

20 percent), and 3001 and above (about 7 percent) . On the other hand, about 52 percent of non-migrant households' earners from the district saved monthly amount of Rs. 1001-2000 followed by upto Rs. 1000, Rs. 2001-3000 (about 12 percent) and 3001 and above (about 7 percent). So, the majority of both migrant and non-migrant households earners saved monthly amount of Rs.1001-2000 and in comparison, the percentages of monthly saving amount of upto Rs.1000, Rs. 1001-2000 and 3001 and above of migrant households' earners were less than percentages of monthly saving of those same amounts of non-migrant households' earners. Only the percentage of monthly saving amount of Rs. 2001-3000 of migrant households' earners was greater than the percentage of monthly saving of that same amount of non-migrant households' earners.

14. 68 percent of respondents of migrant households' monthly household consumer expenditure were lie upto Rs.2000 whereas about only 11 percent of respondents of non-migrant households monthly household consumer expenditure remained in that same category. About 27 percent of respondents of migrant households monthly household consumer expenditure ranged from Rs 2001 to Rs.3000 whereas about 53 percent of respondents of non-migrant households monthly household consumer expenditure ranged from that same category. Only about 5 percent in total of respondents of migrant households remained for the monthly household consumer expenditure categories of Rs. 3001-4000 and above Rs. 4000 which were found to be insignificant. On the other hand, 36 percent in total of respondents of non-migrant households lied for the monthly household consumer expenditure categories of Rs. 3001-4000 and above Rs. 4000 which were quite higher than the respondents of migrant households lied in those same categories.
15. As far as asset holding of migrant and non-migrant households are concerned, the data exhibited that the telephone/mobile being an electric equipment occupied the highest number i.e., 154 whereas refrigerator possessed the lowest number for migrant households. On the other hand, for non-migrant households, also the telephone/mobile being an electric equipment occupied the highest number i.e., 116 whereas refrigerator possessed the lowest number. However, in comparison, the number of electric equipments of migrant households like refrigerator, B/W TV, transistor/radio, telephone/mobile, tubelights and other electric equipments such as iron, tape recorder, table fans, etc were higher than those types of electric equipments of non-migrant

households whereas the number of electric equipments such as colour TV, dish antenna and ceiling fans of migrant households were less than those categories of electric equipments of non-migrant households. Thus, due to more electrification of houses and purchasing capacity of non-migrant households, the number of electric equipments such as colour TV, dish antenna and ceiling fans were higher than migrant households. Refrigerator being electric equipment was found to be insignificant for both migrant and non-migrant households.

16. Considering the various furniture items for the surveyed households of Cooch Behar district, the total number of cots /beds of migrant households was 346 whereas the total number of that same furniture item of non-migrant households was 292. For the migrant households, the total number of chairs/benches was 265 whereas it was 288 for non-migrant households. Next, the total number of tables of migrant households was 163 whereas for non-migrant households it was 135. And, the total number of almirahs/cupboards of migrant households was 159 in which for the non-migrant households it was 196. There was no even a single sofa set of migrant households whereas only 1 sofa set was there for non-migrant households that was found to be insignificant. The total number of dressing tables and other furniture items like wooden tools, alnas etc. of migrant household was 90 whereas it was 54 for non-migrant households. Although, there were significant inter-village variations regarding the number of various furniture items among migrant and non-migrant households. Hence, on an average, the total number of furniture items of migrant households was higher than the total number of furniture items of non-migrant households.

On the whole, it was found that out-migration is a boon to the migrant workers and other members of their families.

8.2 Conclusions

According to 2001 Census, migration data by the place of last residence express that the maximum number of migrants migrated within the state for the duration of 20 years and above i.e., permanent migration. The migrants migrated within the state were minimum for the duration of less than one year i.e., temporary migration and also the same patterns found for migrants migrated from other states of India. The number of migrants from other states in the country has recorded highest growth (by 53.6%) among migration trends, which would indicate increasing mobility due to migration for work/employment and education in other states.

According to NSSO data of different rounds, it is viewed that low migration rate among rural males signified that males neither from rural areas nor from urban areas had the tendency to migrate to rural areas.

During the period of 1983 to 2000, it is observed that the percentage of male migrants to the total population remained almost constant i.e., about 7 per cent - for rural areas and showed little variation - between 24 to 27 per cent - in urban areas. A rising trend in the case of females, however, was noticeable in percentage of migrants to the total population over this period.

It is also observed that the net- migration rate per 1000 of people among the major states of India was the highest for Haryana (79) followed by Maharashtra (44), West Bengal (27) and Punjab (25) in 1999-2000.

As far as growths of migrants by migration streams in India during the decade of 1991-2001 are concerned, there are some negative percentages of growth of males and female migrants in rural to rural, rural to urban and urban to rural migration streams of intra-district and inter-district migration during the decade. On the other hand, there are all positive percentages of growth of intercensal migrants in interstate migration stream.

According to NSSO data of 1999-2000 on migration in the respect of trend and pattern of rural-urban migration in India, it is observed that the proportion of migration for males in each period of migration was greater than the proportion of migration for females in each period of migration and it also observed that the overall movement of males from rural to urban areas was more frequent than females.

According to 2001 census, with duration of residence 0-9 years by rural- urban status of place of last residence and the place of enumeration, it is explored that out of 97.5 million internal

migrants in the country, 53.3 million (54.7%) migrants moved within rural areas and about 20.6 million migrants (21.1% of the total migrants) migrated from rural areas to urban areas. Regarding reasons for migration, according to 1991 census data, out of total 82.1 million migrants (both male and female) by last residence about 36.1 million were female migrants who moved on account of marriage. The proportion of female migrants who had migrated due to marriage declined slightly to 64.9% in 2001 from 65.9% in 1991. Obviously, 'Work/Employment' and 'Family moved' continue to be important reasons among males migrants.

In respect of the nature of movement of migration according to 64th round NSSO Survey in West Bengal, it is viewed that both the cases of permanent and temporary migration with duration of stay more than 12 months, number of female migrants was noticeably higher than the number of male migrants due to marriage.

As far as the internal migrants by the types of migration streams for West Bengal are concerned, the most of migration for both male and female occurred through the streams of rural to rural and rural to urban migration.

Based on the above major findings we can draw the following conclusions from the study.

1. The rural out-migration that has been witnessed in our survey villages is a revelation of severe economic distress.
2. The decadal growth rate of population during 1991-2001 has been recorded as 7.86 percent in the district. It reveals an idea about the general relative distribution pattern of population in the state as well as also in the whole country from the demographic profile of sample villages.
3. The migrant families mainly dependent upon with male migrants to maintain their socio-economic status.
4. In overall out-migration pattern, the dominant has been rural to urban migration in the district of Cooch Behar.
5. Migration from Cooch Behar district has been mainly non-seasonal and longer duration.
6. Most of migrant workers have migrated within the country and very few migrated outside the country.

7. Most of the migration of Cooch Behar district has taken place through rural to urban stream in industrial sector.
8. Majority of the migrant of the surveyed households engaged other type of employment i.e. work as regular wage at destination and received wages in the range of Rs 81-100 per day.
9. Migration of children along with adult male or female members has resulted in the deprivation of these children of basic education. Households having children migrants are likely to face a bleak future as deficiency in schooling of the migrant children will prevent them from coming out of poverty trap.
10. Destination, type of employment and earning of the migrants are closely correlated to the level of literacy of the migrants. Broadly, migrants with above-primary level education prefer to migrate in semi-urban or urban areas to be employed in non-farm sector. Naturally, migrants with higher levels of literacy earn more than those with lower levels of literacy.
11. Migrants are conscious about their role and responsibility in the family. Most of them did not wait for the opinion of their parents or spouses to take decision to migrate. Majority took decision themselves to migrate to save the self and family from starvation and distressed condition.
12. Social network and kinship was the dominant facilitator of migration. Thus, social relations have a lot of meaning and significance in rural society till today.
13. Underemployment situation prevailing at origin was the very important cause (push factor) of migration. Migrants hardly found employment for 7 months in a year at the origin. But they need job throughout the year to overcome their hunger and the state of destitution.
14. Our study does not support Todaro's migration theory. No migrant worker remains unemployed at destination. Jobs are ready to absorb the migrants at destinations. So the migrants' 'actual earning' (in contrast to 'expected earning' in Todaro's model) is much higher at destinations due to full employment and higher wage rates there as compared to origin. Thus, full employment throughout the year and higher wages and higher income at destination were the strongest pull factors for migration.

15. Both push and pull factors are responsible for causing out-migration of the rural workers. However, push factors were stronger than the pull factors. Actually, in most cases migration was undertaken as a last resort of survival strategy.
16. It reveals from our study that workers who already migrated worked as a role model or motivator to many prospective migrant workers.
17. Introduction of National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (NREGA) (since 2nd October 2009, it has been renamed as Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act – MGNREGA) has not been successful in checking rural out-migration from our study areas. The implementation of the scheme is being done half-heartedly.
18. There are both positive and negative socio-economic impacts of migration on the life, livelihood and living conditions of the migrant population and their family members at origin. Positive impacts were visible in the form of higher income earning, higher consumption level, saving some money out of higher income and to use the money remitted by the migrants for the purposes of buying food, health care services, improving housing condition, repaying debt etc. But the families of the migrants could not use the remitted money for the purpose of education of their children as they had to meet other pressing needs having higher priority in their lives. The negative impacts were found in the form of lack of attention to elderly and children who were left at origin, occasional accidents at work sites at destinations, occasional theft and looting of their cash and belongings while on journey by train or bus for home visit, and sporadic harassment by their employers in terms of provision of sub-human shelter, food and working condition at destinations.

Migration and movement of people from one area to another is a continuous and eternal churning process bringing both joys and sorrows to the migrants. Nevertheless, on the whole out-migration has proved to be a definite boon to the migrants and their family members in our survey areas.

8.3 Suggestions and Policy Recommendations

The study leads us to make certain suggestions from our findings and conclusions for the improvement of standard of living and quality of life of the migrants and their family members and their neighbours who are in a similar socio-economic condition. We would like to formulate the following few practical suggestions and policy recommendations.

1. The first and foremost measure to be taken at the government level is to implement its current wage-employment and self-employment programmes and other income-augmenting policies for the rural poor. Creation of employment opportunities at local level would help to check migration of women and children. Women and children need to remain at origin. Because in that case women would be able to look after their children and elderly members of the family and send their children to school. Children, by getting their basic education, and if condition becomes favorable, can take their secondary, higher secondary and still higher level of education. Being educated they can permanently improve their socio-economic condition.
2. It is crucially important that imbalances between economic opportunities in rural and urban sectors be minimized specifically since migrants are assumed to respond differentials in expected incomes, if we mark the urban 'expected' wage as the real wage.
3. More technical institution should be established by the Government so that people can take technical education easily for acquiring more skills that helps to have better company job through migration at destination.
4. Strengthening of self-help groups by effective management of micro-credit programme may help the rural poor to break the vicious cycle of poverty. Members of the groups should be provided with more training for production and marketing of their produce and services.
5. Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (MGNREGA) will have be implemented widely in rural areas in West Bengal as well as overall in India by the Central Government through active initiation of Panchayat members to check out-migration, especially of female workers.

6. Existing programmers of agricultural and rural development are to be properly implemented with good governance. Measures are to be taken to increase agricultural productivity by expanding irrigation facilities and expanding the area under high yielding varieties. Public investment in irrigation is to be increased. Conditions should be created to facilitate private investment in agricultural development. More activities in the allied sector of agriculture like live-stock, animal husbandry, horticulture and floriculture are to be undertaken. Through more and more public and private investment it is possible to increase employment opportunities in these allied sectors of agriculture.
7. Finally, in spite of the above suggestions and recommendations to check rural out-migration, we recommend promotion of rural-urban migration of rural population to be absorbed in non-agricultural employment in urban areas in the short run for economic reasons. However, it is obvious that more educated manpower should undertake migration from rural areas, as that will bring more income and prosperity. To facilitate out-migration, more transport facilities are to be provided within rural areas, from rural areas to near and far destinations of migrants in terms of expansion of railway networks and bus routes; better telecommunication facilities are to be provided and more rural banking facilities are to be created.

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Appendices

Appendix - A
Published Paper

Appendix-A.1

Dynamics of Rural to Urban Migration of Agricultural Labourers: A Micro Level Study in Cooch Behar District of West Bengal

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Contents

- Cultural Rights of Adivasis: A Study of Paradigms and 1-22
 Thesis of Andhra Pradesh
 MALLI GANDHI
- Sustainable Use of Natural Resources and People's 23-31
 Participation in India
 ABDEL HADI
- Population, Poverty and Environmental Linkages in Bhutan 33-47
 ANIL BHUMALI & ANIL KUMAR BISWAS
- Small Landholding Prefer Custom Hiring Mechanization of 49-58
 Agriculture in West Bengal
 CHINMOY SARKAR
- Community Mobilisation and Assessing the Status of Janati 59-73
 Suraksha Yojana: A Case Study
 SIDDHARTHA SANKAR LAHA
- Dynamics of Rural to Urban Migration of Agricultural Labourers: 75-87
 A Micro-level Study in Cooch Behar District of West Bengal
 SUJIT MAJUMDAR & KANAK KANTI BAGCHI
- Role of Information Technology in Indian Agriculture- 89-102
 An Exploratory Study
 PARTHA CHATTOPADHYAYA, ANIL BHUMALI & DURJAY SARKAR
- Managing Natural Resources for Poverty Reduction 103-112
 SWATI SENITA BABU
- Utilisation of Funds Obtained Through Various Centrally 113-136
 Sponsored Schemes – A Study of Two Districts of West Bengal
 TARAN KUMAR GHOSH, PARAMITA DASGUPTA & K. K. BAGCHI

- Is Inflation related to Economic Growth in India? 137-145
An Econometric Study
KANCHAN DATTA
- The Tea Crisis, Its Magnitude and the Condition of 147-161
Poverty-Stricken Women Plantation Workers in Doars
MONALISA CHAKRAVORTY

DYNAMICS OF RURAL TO URBAN MIGRATION OF AGRICULTURAL LABOURERS: A MICRO-LEVEL STUDY IN COOCH BEHAR DISTRICT OF WEST BENGAL

Sujit Majumdar & Karak Kanti Bagchi***

Introduction

Dynamics of rural to urban migration of agricultural labourers with the attraction of employment and other opportunities is an age-old phenomenon. There are several theories of migration. The most popular and influential theory of rural-urban migration is that of Todaro (Todaro, 1969). In contrast to earlier models of one-way migration, Todaro regarded such migration as a two-stage phenomenon. He recognized a dichotomy in urban economy while analyzing rural to urban migration.

According to Todaro's model, in the first stage, the unskilled rural workers migrate to an urban area and initially spend a certain period of time in the urban traditional sector. In the second stage, they eventually attain jobs in more permanent modern sector. Besides Todaro's rural-urban migration theory, there is Stark (Stark, 1999) model of migration.

Agriculture sector is facing a number of problems in the post-reform period and especially since the first decade of

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the present century. One of the major problems is related to supply of inputs like labour, credit, fertiliser, water etc. Among these, currently the most acute problem is the supply of labour. Farmers are not getting adequate supply of labour during busy agricultural seasons. Though there is a gradual upward trend in mechanisation of agricultural operations and consequent reduction in requirement of labour, still the rate of decline of labour supply appears to be greater than that in the demand for labour. Several factors are responsible for this observed fall in the supply of agricultural labour. Though the phenomenon requires an in-depth study to reach at convincing conclusion, but it is apparent that general decline in the rate of growth of agricultural labour force as a result of decline in fertility rate in agricultural labour households, preference for non-agricultural work of the working age members of agricultural labour households of present generations, out-migration of workers from agricultural labour households to semi-urban and urban areas to be absorbed in non-farm employment, wage employment and self-employment programmes run by the government, etc. are the reasons for a sharp fall in the supply of agricultural labours.

Among other causes, in recent times rural-urban migration of agricultural labourers to work in non-farm informal sector in semi-urban and urban areas has drawn the attention of researchers to a considerable extent. In the present paper we have made an analysis of how the phenomenon of out-migration of agricultural labour is causing a decline in the supply of agricultural labourers during busy seasons. Thus, the main objective of this paper is to ferret out the dynamics of such out-migration with the help of data collected through field survey. The paper is organised as follows. In section II, we have explained the data and methodology used for the study. In section III we have analysed the dynamics of rural-urban migration of agricultural labourers in Cooch Behar district of West Bengal. In section IV, we have drawn conclusion on the basis of our analysis of primary data.

Data and Methodology

The study is based on primary data. Primary data have been collected from the selected households of selected villages through personal interview with the migrant individual or with one of the senior members of the migrants' households by using structured questionnaire. The field survey was conducted at the places of origin of the migrants in the middle of the year 2010.

The study is comprised of 150 households in the district of Cooch Behar of West Bengal. First of all, we have selected three blocks of the district on the basis of verbal discussion and information collected from the functionaries of Zilla Parishad and officials of the planning and development department of the district and other relevant human and media sources and published sources like West Bengal Human Development report 2004. Then from each block two villages having approximately 150-200 households have been selected

purposely. Prior to the main survey, we conducted a pilot survey where we found that out-migration of rural labourers had taken place at least from 35% households. Based on this finding we selected villages with 150-200 households so that our targeted 25 households are obtained from the selected villages. These villages had been selected on the basis of information from the above-noted sources and the Gram Panchayat functionaries. From these households, 25 had been purposively chosen from where rural to urban migration for employment of at least one member had taken place. Thus altogether 150 households had been surveyed from 6 villages of the district.

Dynamics of Rural to Urban Migration

Members of the households of our survey villages migrated to urban or semi-urban areas for different reasons. The basic and most important reasons were found to be poverty and unemployment at origin. Therefore, to meet food deficit and to meet other needs they undertake migration as a livelihood strategy. Of the households we surveyed in the district, more than 80 per cent were found to be near landless. They, therefore, are not self-sufficient in food production. Due to lack of irrigation facilities, agriculture is a seasonal occupation in the study areas. Sufficient employment opportunities are not available in these areas. Thus, for the sake of survival they have to migrate out to prosperous regions and States to be absorbed in non-agricultural sector. We have analysed below the causes of migration by using our field survey data.

Status of Employment before Out-migration

Table 1 depicts employment situation before out-migration of the workers from the surveyed households. It can be seen that from about 66 per cent households workers were partially employed before out-migration in Cooch Behar district. On the other hand, workers only from less than 2 per cent households of Cooch Behar district were fully employed. Again, workers from nearly 33 per cent households of Cooch Behar district were unemployed before their out-migration.

Table 1
Distribution of Migrants on the Basis of Status of Employment Before Out-Migration

Villages/District	Employed	Partially employed	Unemployed	Total
Cihotmalabari (Vill 1)	-	8 (32.00)	17 (68.00)	25 (100.00)
Dakshin Kharja Gitaldaha (Vill 2)	1 (4.00)	18 (72.00)	6 (24.00)	25 (100.00)
Gopaipar (Vill 3)	-	15 (60.00)	10 (40.00)	25 (100.00)
Sajer Par Choramara (Vill 4)	1 (4.00)	18 (72.00)	6 (24.00)	25 (100.00)
Asokbari I (Vill 5)	-	19 (76.00)	6 (24.00)	25 (100.00)
Jorsimuli (Vill 6)	-	21 (84.00)	4 (16.00)	25 (100.00)
Cooch Behar (District)	2 (1.33)	99 (66.00)	49 (32.67)	150 (100.00)

Note: Figures in bracket indicate row percentages.

This implies that migrations that have taken place from the district are mostly distress migration. It may be noted that those who were partially employed were not gainfully employed. So to earn sufficient livelihood they had no alternative but to migrate either in urban or semi-urban areas or other-state or other districts of the same state where employment and higher income is assured.

Nature of Employment before Out-migration

As far as the sector of employment prior to out-migration is concerned it can be found from Table 2 below that nearly 63 per cent of the workers in Cooch Behar district remained employed in the primary sector, i.e., agriculture and allied activities before their out-migration. Again, about 8 per cent of them remained engaged in the manufacturing related works and less than one per cent of them were engaged in service related works. Therefore, most of the migrants were engaged in agriculture and allied activities before their out-migration.

Table 2
Distribution of Migrants on the Basis of Sector of Employment Before Out-Migration

Village/District	Agriculture and allied	Manufacturing	Service	N.A.	Total
Vill 1	8(32.00)	1(4.00)	-	16(64.00)	25(100.00)
Vill 2	23(92.00)	1(4.00)	-	1(4.00)	25(100.00)
Vill 3	12(48.00)	2(8.00)	1(4.00)	10(40.00)	25(100.00)
Vill 4	18(72.00)	1(4.00)	-	6(24.00)	25(100.00)
Vill 5	13(52.00)	6(24.00)	-	6(24.00)	25(100.00)
Vill 6	20(80.00)	1(4.00)	-	4(16.00)	25(100.00)
District	94(62.67)	12(8.00)	1(0.67)	43(28.66)	150(100.00)

Note: (i) Figures in brackets indicate row percentages. (ii) N.A. - not applicable.

Land Possession and Type of Housing

A state of chronic and acute poverty led the households to undertake migration as a coping strategy to shield them against further deterioration of their condition of living.

Table 3
Distribution of Households on the Basis of Possession of Land and Type of House

District	Land Size group (in bigha)	No. of Household	Type of house		
			Kutcha	Semi-pucca	Pucca
Cooch Behar	Less than 1	93(62.00)	92(62.58)	1(50.00)	0(0.00)
	1.0-3.0	30(20.00)	30(20.51)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)
	3.1-7.5	19(12.67)	17(11.57)	1(50.00)	1(100.00)
	7.6-15.0	6(4.00)	6(4.08)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)
	15.1-30.0	2(1.33)	2(1.36)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)
	Greater than 30.0	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)
Total		150(100.00)	147(100.00)	2(100.00)	1(100.00)

Notes: (1) Figures in brackets indicate column percentages. (2) 3 bighas make one acre.

Table 3 shows the distribution of households on the basis of possession of land and type of house. From the above Table, it is revealed that out of the total households surveyed in the district most of households live in kutcha houses having less than one bigha of land. Out of the total surveyed households there are only two semi-pucca houses and one pucca house having less than one bigha of land and land between 3.1 to 7.5 bighas. Therefore, land being the main productive asset in rural areas this depicts a very pitiable economic condition of the households which we surveyed.

Zero Waiting Period

In Todaro's migration model it has been conceded that due to urban unemployment, there is a probability that some of the job seekers migrating to towns and cities may have to remain unemployed for a certain period to get any job or a coveted job. We have made an attempt to test this proposition and found that in the district of Cocha Behar 99.33 per cent cases (Table 4) the migrant workers did not have to wait in the destination to get a job and only 0.67 per cent migrant worker did have to wait for getting a job. So there was a very little waiting by the migrant for getting job at destination. In fact there is almost no waiting by the migrants for jobs but there are jobs waiting to be manned by the migrants at the destination in our study. There are several reasons for this.

Table 4
Distribution of Migrants on the Basis of Whether Had to Wait or Not to Get Job
(Family wise) at Destination

Village/District	Yes (No.)	Yes (%)	No (No.)	No (%)
Vill 1	-	-	25	100.00
Vill 2	-	-	25	100.00
Vill 3	-	-	25	100.00
Vill 4	-	-	25	100.00
Vill 5	1	2.00	24	98.00
Vill 6	-	-	25	100.00
District	1	0.67	149	99.33

First, workers of the villages which we surveyed are neither ambitious nor qualified for getting white-collar jobs either in the formal sector or in the informal sector.

Secondly, friends, relatives, labour recruiters/contractors, employers' agents whoever are the facilitator of migration arrange for the absorption of the migrant workers at the destinations before their arrival there.

Thirdly, the financial conditions of most of the migrants are so precarious that they cannot afford to remain unemployed more than 2-3 days at destinations. In fact, through social network, they are assured of their

employment and lodging as well as become informed about the nature and terms and conditions of their work before reaching destinations.

Thus, currently the rural areas of our survey are witnessing massive stream of out-migration towards urban or semi-urban areas. Wages and other terms and conditions of employment offered by the employers are quite agreeable to the migrant workers. Therefore, zero waiting periods to get jobs at destinations is a strong pull factor to the present and prospective out-migrants.

Reasons for Migration

As there was out-migration of workers for employment from all the families of sample villages of the district; during interview, we directly asked respondents about the reasons for their migration. Table-5 reveals that in Cooch Behar district the reasons for migration in order of importance are: 'in search of employment' (nearly 28 per cent), 'in search of better employment' (nearly 37 per cent), 'migration of the parent/earning member of the family' (14 per cent). 'Other reasons' are very insignificant.

Table 5
Distribution of Migrants on the Basis of Reasons for Migration

Village/ District	In search of employment	In search of better employment	Business	Transfer of services/ contract	Proximity to place work	Health care use	Migration of the parent/ earning member of the family	Total
Vill 1	7(9.46)	45(60.81)	1(1.35)	-	-	-	21(28.38)	74(100.00)
Vill 2	4(9.53)	27(64.27)	-	-	-	-	11(26.20)	42(100.00)
Vill 3	33(88.09)	1(2.38)	-	-	-	-	4(9.53)	42(100.00)
Vill 4	3(9.39)	28(84.85)	-	2(6.06)	-	-	-	33(100.00)
Vill 5	7(22.58)	24(77.42)	-	-	-	-	-	31(100.00)
Vill 6	12(38.71)	19(61.29)	-	-	-	-	-	31(100.00)
District	70(27.66)	144(56.92)	1(0.40)	2(0.80)	-	-	36(14.22)	253(100.00)

Note: Figure in brackets indicate row percentages.

There are inter-village variations of the causes of migration. But overall, it could be found that the dominant feature of migration from villages of Cooch Behar district is that people migrated largely to get better employment, though in village 3 'in search of employment' is the very dominant cause of migration than 'in search of better employment'. That is, in this village people were more unemployed compared to other villages where majority of the migrants migrated 'in search of better employment'.

Migration due to the 'migration of parent/earning member of the family' constituted 14 per cent of migrants of the district. It may be noted that a good number of migrants in this category belong to minors, that is, children upto the age of 14 years. The Table shows that in Cooch Behar district in villages 4, 5 and 6 there were no such migrants.

From the foregoing analysis it is perhaps clear that both push factors (low productivity, low income, landlessness, unemployment or underemployment, low wages etc.) and pull factors (better wages with better living conditions, more employment, better employment, better conditions of work, better health and educational facilities etc.) are responsible for effecting out-migration of family members of the household we surveyed in the selected district. However, push factors appeared to be stronger than the pull factors.

Implementation of NREGA and Out-Migration

It is quite helpful to the job-hungry families, especially for its women members if jobs are available in the local areas. This is because there are several problems associated with out-migration of women labourers elsewhere outside the village to attend job while leaving their children and elderly at home. It is also difficult for them to commute daily to the work places located at long distance due to problem of transport, finance, time constraint etc. In order to minimise the problem, the Government of India has passed the National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (NREGA) in 2005. It was renamed as MGNREGA since 2nd October 2009. Under the provision of the Act every rural household willing to do certain specified jobs will be provided with 100 days of guaranteed employment in a year within the village/block/sub-division. One of the objectives of the Act is to check massive out-migration of rural labourers to urban areas. So, it is expected that implementation of the Act would stop the huge out-migration of rural workers. It is therefore, important to find out how far the implementation of NREGA has been able to reduce one of the push factors of migration, viz., lack of employment opportunity.

Under the Scheme, in order to get employment, a rural household shall have to apply for a job card and obtain it. The position of holding of job cards by the families we surveyed is displayed in Table 6 below.

Table 6
Distribution of Migrants on the Basis of Job Card Holding

Village/District	Yes (no.)	Yes (%)	No (no.)	No (%)	Total (no.)	Total (%)
Vill 1	25	100.00	-	-	25	100.00
Vill 2	25	100.00	-	-	25	100.00
Vill 3	24	96.00	1	4.00	25	100.00
Vill 4	19	76.00	5	24.00	25	100.00
Vill 5	22	88.00	3	12.00	25	100.00
Vill 6	17	68.00	8	32.00	25	100.00
District	132	88.00	18	12.00	150	100.00

Data presented in Table 6 above reveal that 88 per-cent households of the surveyed villages of Cooch Behar district hold job cards under the scheme and 12 per cent does not hold. Therefore, a high percentage of job card holders

indicating that depth of poverty is high among them as a higher number of them are job hungry.

Thus, from the number of job cards holding it appears that majority of households surveyed are willing to do the jobs provided under the scheme. It was found that households who did not procure job cards are mostly the BPL households. In fact, almost all BPL households were found to be willing to do the works provided under the scheme.

Again, provision of job only for a few days in a year is not the fulfilment or promise of providing 100 days of employment to the eligible families. These families are to be provided with the stipulated number of 100 days of employment days. Actual number of days of employment provided to the applicant households is shown in Table 7 below.

Table 7
Distribution of Respondents on the Basis of Days of Employment
Provided Under NREGS Last One Year

Village/District	1 to 5	6 to 10	11 to 16	17 & above	N/A. (No.)	Total
Vill 1	6(24.00)	17(68.00)			2(8.00)	25(100.00)
Vill 2	2(8.00)	23(92.00)				25(100.00)
Vill 3					25(100.00)	25(100.00)
Vill 4	2(8.00)	7(28.00)	3(12.00)	2(8.00)	11(44.00)	25(100.00)
Vill 5			4(16.00)	17(68.00)	4(16.00)	25(100.00)
Vill 6	2(8.00)	2(8.00)			21(84.00)	25(100.00)
District	12(8.00)	49(32.67)	7(4.67)	19(12.66)	63(42.00)	150(100.00)

Note: Figures in brackets indicate row percentage.

It can be seen from Table 7 above that in the preceding 365 days of our field survey 8 per cent households received employment between 1 to 5 days, 32 per cent households received between 6 to 10 days, nearly 5 per cent received employment between 11 to 16 days, nearly 13 per cent household received employment for 17 days and above and 42 per cent household did not receive even a single day of employment. Thus, the above scenario of provision of employment through NREGA shows a very poor state of implementation of NREGS. Such a poor performance of the programme obviously discourages the job card holders. They could not rely on the scheme to get employment for 100 days for the family in a year. The households, therefore, rely more on out-migration to earn their livelihood than on employment provided through NREGS and other available local employment. The programme appeared to have failed miserably in checking rural out-migration from the households surveyed in the district.

It appeared to us that apathy of the Gram Panchayat (GP) members is the most important cause of such a state of affair. They are not much interested in proper implementation of the scheme. The reasons for this apathy appeared to

be the lack of 'incentives' to the Gram Panchayat functionaries. The scope of rent-seeking in terms of bribes from the beneficiaries or embezzlement of money has been minimized by making the provision of payment of wages very formal and transparent. The functionaries entrusted with the implementation of the scheme treat it as an additional duty without remuneration and a burden due to the absence of any legal or illegal *quid pro quo* for performing the function.

Employment

Table 8 reveals the employment scenario for the migrants' households if they did stay at origin instead of migrating. It can be seen from the Table 8 below that working age members of 21 per cent families would have remained unemployed, about 30 per cent would get employment for up to 120 days, about 48 per cent would get employment between 121 to 200 days and nearly one per cent reported to have been employed for more than 200 days in a year only if they remained in origin instead at migrating.

Table 8
Distribution of Migrants on the Basis of Days of Employment
Per Year if Would Not Migrate (in percentage)

Village/District	No Employment	1 to 120	121 to 200	200 & above	Total
Vill 1	68.00	12.00	20.00	-	100.00
Vill 2	0.00	16.00	80.00	4.000	100.00
Vill 3	40.00	0.00	60.00	0.00	100.00
Vill 4	4.00	80.00	16.00	0.00	100.00
Vill 5	4.00	32.00	64.00	0.00	100.00
Vill 6	12.00	40.00	48.00	0.00	100.00
District	21.33	30.00	48.00	0.67	100.00

In the event of non-migration, there would have been unemployment in about 1/5th of total households of Cooch Behar district. The reason for this observed difference might be inherent in the land holding profile and poverty profile of the households.

The important point to note is that in the best possible situation members of working age of only about 48 per cent households would have been employed upto 200 days only in a year. It shows that there is a situation of massive underemployment of rural labourers in the villages of our survey. This indicates that the situation was rife enough to warrant large scale emigration of rural labourers in search of livelihood.

This also explains the supply demand gap of agricultural labourers in West Bengal as well as in India as a whole. What happens is that in slack season there is huge unemployment of agricultural labourers. This leads to a massive exodus of agricultural labourers in particular and rural labour in general particularly in slack seasons. This, therefore, results in a shortage in the supply

of agricultural labourers in the face of their high demand during busy seasons. This also results in a huge gap in demand and supply and a consequent rise in the wage level and escalation of cost of cultivation to farmers and becomes one of the contributing factors of making agriculture a non-remunerative occupation. Although some of the migrant labourers return to their farms during busy agricultural seasons, this can not make up the huge gap between demand and supply. This happens for two reasons. First, migrants who return, they work mainly in their own small holding. Secondly, since all migrant labourers do not return due to the receipt of higher wages and earnings in both farm and non-farm employment at destinations, this little increase in the supply of agricultural labour, can not fulfil the excess demand during busy agricultural season.

Employment opportunity is always there in destinations, compared to origin throughout the year in public and private civil construction sites, in factories, quarries, brick kilns etc. and in areas with prosperous, perennial agricultural sector. Labourers could work in destinations for all the 365 days of a year if they liked. Moreover, there is no waiting for job to the migrants; rather the jobs are in waiting for the migrants at destinations. This happens due to the fact that the migrants who are already there in destinations, make arrangements of employment for the potential migrants prior to their arrival there. Moreover, most jobs being manual in nature, the new migrants virtually faces very little competition from the local labourers at destinations since there is a huge shortage of labourers there to do such jobs as the local labourers find performing such menial jobs beyond dignity. The problems of demanding higher wages, higher recess time by the local labourers and the difficulty in controlling the local labourers on the part of the employers are also matters of consideration.

Thus the push factors on the part of the migrant workers become a pull factor on the part of the employers at destination. The two factors combined reinforce the emigration process of the working members of the households at origin.

Wages at Origin and Destination

One more driving force of migration is the higher wage rates prevailing at destination compared to the lower wages rates at origin. Thus, the former operates as pull factor and the latter acts as push factor of migration. It may be noted that the higher average wage rates at destinations are not part of 'expected' income as has been postulated by Todaro, rather it is part of 'actual' income due to the fact that there is no 'probability' factor working in destinations. The probability of getting employment is almost hundred out of hundred. So it is the lure of higher wage rates and higher total actual income at destinations compared to the origin that works as a strong driving force or pull factor for out-migration of rural agricultural workers.

Table 9
Distribution of Migrants on their Basis of Rates of Wages (in Rs.) Received
Per day at Origin (in percentages)

Village/District	Up to 40	41 to 60	61 to 80	Above 80	Total
Vill 1	12.50	87.50	0.00	0.00	100.00
Vill 2	3.17	95.83	0.00	0.00	100.00
Vill 3	0.00	33.33	66.67	0.00	100.00
Vill 4	0.00	70.00	30.00	0.00	100.00
Vill 5	0.00	66.67	28.37	4.76	100.00
Vill 6	0.00	57.14	42.86	0.00	100.00
District	1.84	68.81	28.44	0.91	100.00

The above Table shows the wage rates prevailing and received by the workers who work at origin by performing different types of work. It can be seen that labourers of the surveyed households would receive wage rates for up to 40 rupees in the case of labourers of nearly 2 per cent households in the district. This indicates that few labourers from the surveyed households were in distressed situation. Then labourers from nearly 69 per cent and 28 per cent of surveyed households of the district would receive Rs. 41 to Rs. 60 and Rs. 61 to Rs. 80 respectively. This also implies a greater distressed situation. The labours of nearly 3 per cent surveyed household would have received this relatively higher rate of wages.

Table 10
Distribution of Migrants on the Basis of Rates of Wages (in Rs.) Received
Per Day at Destination (in percentages)

Village/District	Up to Rs. 60	61 to 80	81 to 100	101 to 120	121 to 150	151 & above	Total
Vill 1	0.00	10.42	52.08	25.00	8.33	4.17	100.00
Vill 2	6.45	3.23	35.49	41.93	9.67	3.23	100.00
Vill 3	0.00	0.00	50.00	15.62	28.13	6.25	100.00
Vill 4	6.25	12.50	31.25	18.75	21.87	9.38	100.00
Vill 5	0.00	0.00	22.58	22.58	25.81	29.03	100.00
Vill 6	0.00	0.00	10.35	34.48	24.14	31.03	100.00
District	1.97	4.93	35.47	26.10	18.72	12.81	100.00

The Table 11 shows the wages received in the post-migration situation. It can be seen from the table that percentage of workers who received wage rates for up to Rs. 60 is nearly 2 per cent only in case of migrant workers which is nearly 69 per cent in the case of non-migrant workers of the surveyed households in the district. Almost similar situation for the workers of the wage rate of Rs. 61 to Rs. 80. But 93 per cent of the migrant workers earn a wage rate of Rs. 80 and above which is available to non-migrant workers from less than one per cent of the surveyed households. This shows that there is a tremendous boost in earning due to migration which leads a remarkable improvement in the post-migration situation compared to the pre-migration situation.

Thus in the surveyed district, it can be seen that higher wage rates prevailing at destinations has been a driving force of rural out-migration in our study area. The increasing and varying incidence and volume of rural out-migration situation compared to the pre-migration situation and number of days of employment is much higher in the former situation compared to the latter situation. For a rational individual labour, therefore, it was not possible to remain in origin except certain compelling personal, familial or social reasons. However, this resulted in a supply-demand gap of agricultural labourers in busy seasons.

Conclusion

We would like to conclude that out-migration is definitely a boon to the migrant labourers on a number of counts. However, it is a matter of concern for farmers as they face an acute scarcity of labour during busy agricultural seasons. In addition, we would like to draw the following conclusions from our empirical study on the issue of rural to urban migration of agricultural labourers in our study area:

1. The rural out-migration that has been witnessed in our survey villages is a reflection of severe economic distress.
2. Both push and pull factors are responsible for causing out-migration of the rural workers. However, push factors were stronger than the pull factors. Actually, in most cases migration was undertaken as a last resort of survival strategy.
3. Introduction of National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (NREGSA) on 15 October 2005, it has been reported by various studies (Kishor Kumar Employment Guarantee Act - 2005 study) has not been successful in checking rural out-migration from our study areas. The implementation of the scheme is being done half-heartedly.
4. The massive out-migration of agricultural labourers for several reasons has resulted in a situation of huge supply-demand gap of agricultural labourers during busy seasons that leads to an increase in wages of working agricultural labourers. This in turn is causing an escalation of cost of cultivation.

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Appendix - B
Certificate of Presented Paper

Appendix-B.1

UGC (SAP) DRS –II NATIONAL SEMINAR

On

“Regional Issues Concerning Development and Women
in Development” (March 21, 2013) – Organised by the
Department of Economics, University of North Bengal



UGC (SAP) DRS – II NATIONAL SEMINAR

on

“Regional Issues Concerning Development and Women in Development”

March 21, 2013

Organised by

Department of Economics

University of North Bengal

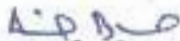
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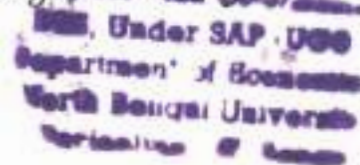
CERTIFICATE


This is to certify that Prof. / Dr. / Mr. / Mrs. Sujit Majumdar, Research Scholar,
Department of Economics of North Bengal University

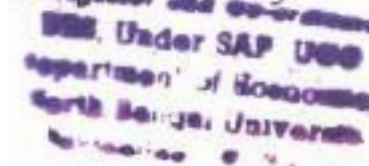
has attended the UGC (SAP) DRS-II NATIONAL SEMINAR held on March 21, 2013 organised by the
Department of Economics, University of North Bengal, India.

He/She presented a paper titled ..The Impact of MGNREGA on Out-Migration and
Poverty Reduction in Rural Economy; A Case Study of Cooh Behare District in West Bengal.


Prof. Anil Bhuiyali
SAP-DRS- Coordinator,
Department of Economics,
North Bengal University




Prof. Sanchari Roy Mukherjee
SAP-DRS- II. Coordinator,
Department of Economics,
North Bengal University.



Appendix - C

Questionnaires

Appendix-C.1

Schedule for Migration Study (for
Migrant Household Schedule)

Schedule for Migration Study

ICSSR-Supported Research Project on

**DYNAMICS OF RURAL-URBAN MIGRATION IN WEST BENGAL: A CASE
STUDY OF TWO DISTRICTS**

Department of Economics,

University of North Bengal,

Dist. Darjeeling, West Bengal, PIN - 734 013.

Project Director: Dr. K. K. Bagchi

Research Associate: Shri Bipul Sarkar; Research Investigator: Shri Sujit Majumdar

Schedule No. /Date

SURVEY AREA PROFILE

Names of (i) Village (ii) Hamlet (Para).....
(iii) Gram Panchayat (iv) Block.
(v) Sub-division (vi) District.....

IDENTIFICATION OF SAMPLE HOUSEHOLD:

- 1) (a) Name of head of household (hhh).....
(b) Age (c) Father's/Husband's name.
- 2) Name of informant..... (a) Age.....
(b) Occupation..... (c) Father's/Husband's Name
(d) Relationship with hhh
- 3) Response code¹:
- 4) Since when you are living in this village (years/generations)?
- 5) If in-migrant in this village, specify place of origin:
- 6) How many rooms at house? :
- 7) Type of house: Kutchha -01, Semi-pucca -02, Pucca- 03.
- 8) Is there toilet facility? Yes-01, No-02.
- 9) If yes, type of toilet: Kutchha- 01, Pucca-02, Semi-pucca 03, Open space -04
- 10) What is the provision for drinking water? Tubewell (own)- 01, Well (own)- 02,
Tubewell/well (shared/public)- 03, Others (specify)- 04:
- 11) Electrified house? Yes-01, No-02
- 12) Type of household: APL - 01, BPL - 02

¹ Item 3 Response Code: informant: cooperative & capable - 1, cooperative but not capable - 2, busy - 3, reluctant - 4, others - 9.

13) HOUSEHOLD CHARACTERISTICS						
1	Household size (No. of members)			9	If code 1 in item 8.	Location of last usual place of residence (code)
2	Principal sector of work (NIC-2004)	Description:		10		Pattern of migration (code)
		Code (5-digit)			11	Reason for migration (code)
3	Principal occupation (NIC-2004)	Description:		12		Whether any former member of the household migrated out any time in the past (yes-1, no-2)
		Code (3-digit)				
4	Household type (code)			13	If 1 in item 12,	Male
5	Region (code)			14	Number of members who migrated out	Female
6	Social group (code)			15		Amount of remittances received during the last 365 days (Rs.) (to be copied from entry against S' no. 99, col.10 of question no. 13)
7	Land possessed as on date of survey (code)			16		If entry > 0 in item 15, use of remittances (maximum three codes in descending order of amount used)
8	Whether the household migrated to the village of enumeration during the last 365 days (yes-01, no-02)			17		Monthly household consumer expenditure (Rs.) (to be copied from item no. 21, question no. 17)

Codes for Question no. 13

Item 4: Household type.

For rural areas: self employed in non agriculture-1, agriculture labour-2, other labour-3, self-employed in agriculture-4, others-9

For urban areas: self employed-1, regular wage/salary earnings-2, casual labour-3, others-9

Item 5: Religion: Hinduism-1, Islam-2, Christianity-3, Sikhism-4, Jainism-5, Buddhism-6, Zoroastrianism-7, Others-9

Item 6: Social group: schedule tribe-1, schedule caste-2, other backward class-3, others-9

Item 7: Land possessed (area in bigha):

Less than 1 01	7.6-----15.004
1-----1 02	15.1-----30.005
1.1-----7.5 03	greater than 30.006

Item 9: Location of last usual place of residence: same district: rural-1, urban-2, same state but another district: Rural-3, urban-4, another state: rural-5, urban-6, another country-7

Item 10: Pattern of migration: temporary-1, permanent-2

Item 11: Reason for migration:

In search of employment-01, in search of better employment-02, business-03, to take up employment/better employment-04, transfer of services/contact-05, proximity to place of work-06, studies-07, natural disaster (drought, flood, tsunami, etc.)-08, social/political problems (riots, terrorism,

political refugee, bad law and order, etc.)-10, displacement by development project-11, acquisition of own house/flat-12, housing problem-13, health care-14, post retirement-15, marriage-16, others-19

Item 16: Use of remittances:

For household consumer expenditure: on food items-01, education of household members-02, household durable-03, marriage and other ceremonies-04, health care-05, others items on household consumer expenditure-06, for improving housing condition (major repairs, purchase of land and buildings, etc.)-07, debt repayment-08, financing working capital-09, initiating new entrepreneurial activity-11, saving/investment-12, others-19

Codes for Question No. 14

Col. 13: **Relation of head:**

Self-1, spouse of head-2, married child-3, spouse of child-4, unmarried child-5, grandchild-6, father/mother/father-in-law/mother-in-law-7, brother/sister/brother-in-law/sister-in-law/other relative-8, servant/employees/other non-relative-9

Col. 16: **Marital status:**

Never married-1, currently married-2, widowed-3, divorced/separated-4

Col. 17: **Educational level:**

Not literate-01, literate without any schooling-2, literate without formal schooling-3, literate through NCT/WEP-03, literate through IIC/MIC-04, others-05, literate with formal schooling including IGS: below primary-06, primary-07, upper primary-08, secondary-09, higher secondary-10, diploma/certificate courses-12, graduate-13, post-graduate and above-14, technically educated-15 (specify)

Col. 18 & 19: 153: **Work status:**

Worked in his enterprise/self-employed/own account worker-10, employee-11, worked as helper in NE enterprise/family worker-21, worked as regular/salaried wage employee-31, worked as casual wage labourer in public works-32, in other types of work-51, did not work but was seeking and/or available for work-81, attended educational institution-91, attended domestic duties only-92, attended domestic duties and also engaged in fire collection of goods (Vegetables, roots, tree products, eated food, etc.) or in agriculture, weaving, etc. for household use-93, attends performers, musicians, etc.-94, not able to work due to disability-95, other (specifying begging, mendicancy, etc.)-97

Col. 210: **Principal sector of work:**

Agriculture & allied-1
Manufact-2
Services-3

15) PARTICULARS OF OUT-MIGRANTS WHO MIGRATED OUT ANY TIME IN THE PAST (Lk. FOR HOUSEHOLDS WITH ENTRY IN ITEM 12 QUESTION NO. 12)

Sl. No.	Sex (Male-1, Female-2)	Present age (Years)	Present place of residence (Code)	Reason for migration (Code)	Period since leaving the household	Whether presently engaged in any economic activity (Yes-1, No-2, Nil)	Monthly income (Rs.) (Principal + subsidiary)	Monthly consumption (Rs.)	Monthly Savings (Rs.)	Whether sent remittances during the last 365 days (Yes-1, No-2)	If 1 in column-11,	
											Number of times remittances sent during the last 365 days	Amount of remittance sent during the last 365 days (Rs.)
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)
01												
02												
03												
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Codes for Question No. 15

Col. (4) Present place of residence: same state and within the same district-1, same state but another district-2, Outside the state-3, another country-4, not known-9

Col. (5) Reasons for migration:

In search of employment-01, in search of better employment-02, business-03, to take up employment/better employment-04, transfer of services/contract-05, proximity to place of work-06, studies-07, natural disaster/drought, flood, tsunami, etc.-08, social/political problems/risks, terrorism, political refugee, bad law and order, etc.-10, displacement by development project-11, acquisition of own house/flat-12, housing problem-13, health care-14, post retirement-15, marriage-16, migration of the parent/earning member of the family-17, others-19

16. MISCELLANEOUS QUESTIONS

- i. **Who has helped in choosing the place of migration?**
- Relatives, friends already living at destination -01
 - Relatives, friends living in village/neighbourhood -02
 - Labour recruiters/contractors from origin/village/neighbourhood -03
 - Labour recruiters- contractors from destination -04
 - Media sources like news paper, TV, radio etc. (specify the exact source)-05
 - Employer/employer's agent -06
 - Others (specify) -07:
- ii. **Which of these sources was the most important for the migrant to migrate?**
-
- iii. **Who primarily made the decision for movement to the destination?**
- Self - 01, Spouse - 02, Children-03, Parents- 04, Other relatives (specify) -05
 - Labour contractor/agent -06
- iv. **Please explain how the decision was made for the migrant to move to the last destination:**
-
- v. **Out-migrated alone/with family member(s)?** (Alone - 01, with family member(s) -02)
- vi. **Did the out-migrant have to wait for getting a job?** Yes - 01, no - 02
- vii. **If yes, the time period** (1 year/monthly)
- viii. **In that time how did the migrant met his/her needs?**
- ix. (a) **Stay & food:** Own resource-01, help from friends-02, help from relatives-03, Others specify -04
- (b) **Search for job:** self-01, help of friends -02, help of relatives-03, help of agents-04, help of employers-05, other sources, specify-06
- x. **Type of employment in which engaged** - wage employment-01, self-employment-02
- xi. **Nature and type of work done in the place of destination? (Details)**
- Migrant 1:
- Migrant 2:
- Migrant 3:
- Migrant 4:
- Migrant 5:
- xii. **Any new skill acquired at destination (manual, writing, work) Yes-01, No-02**
- (a) If yes, give details.

Migrant 1
 Migrant 2
 Migrant 3
 Migrant 4
 Migrant 5

xiii. Rate(s) of wages received? (Per day/week/month). Rs.

Migrant1 Migrant2 Migrant 3 Migrant4 Migrant5

xiv. Wages are paid on the basis of what? Piece rate-01 , per hour-02 , per day-03, others-04 (specify). Migrant 1 Migrant 2 Migrant 3 Migrant 4 Migrant 5

xv. How many hours to work per day?hours

Migrant 1Migrant 2 Migrant 3 Migrant 4 Migrant 5

xvi. Nature of employment? Long term employee with a written contract-01 , Long term employee without a written contract-02 , Casual day labourer -03, Contract labour -04 , Self-employed-05, Others (specify)-06

Migrant1 Migrant2 Migrant 3 Migrant4 Migrant5

xvii. Condition of housing at destination: Tile-01, Pucca house-02 , tarpauline -03, Mad -04 , Thatch, straw-05, leaves-06, Wood -07.Others (specify)-08

Migrant 1 Migrant 2 Migrant 3 Migrant 4 Migrant 5

xviii. Do you stay single? Yes-01 No-02

Migrant1 Migrant 2 Migrant 3 Migrant 4 Migrant 5

xix (a) If no, describe the staying arrangement

Migrant1 Migrant 2 Migrant 3 Migrant 4 Migrant 5

xx. (a)Has the migrant helped people from his locality/region to migrate to his/her present destination? Yes-01 No-02

Migrant1 Migrant2 Migrant 3 Migrant4 Migrant5

(b) If yes, how many of them approximately?

Migrant1 Migrant2 Migrant 3 Migrant4 Migrant5

(c) Who are they Friends-01 Relatives-02 neighbours-03

Migrant1 Migrant2 Migrant 3 Migrant4 Migrant5

xxi. How did the migrant facilitate their migration at the destination: on his own 01, help from his employer-02, Help from labour recruiters/contractors-03, Others, specify -04 ...

Migrant 1 Migrant 2 Migrant 3 Migrant 4 Migrant 5

xvii. (a) Did the migrants face any major illness/accident at destination during sojourn?

Yes-01 No-02

Migrant 1 Migrant 2 Migrant 3 Migrant 4 Migrant 5

(b) If yes, describe the disease & how the treatment was done (about total expenses, person bear's the expenses, type of institution etc.

Migrant1 Migrant 2 Migrant 3 Migrant 4 Migrant 5

xviii. (a) Did you face any problem in destination (regarding food, lodging, weather, language, culture etc.) [Make a list/describe]. Yes-01 No-02

(b) If yes, what type of problem faced?

Migrant1 Migrant2 Migrant 3 Migrant4 Migrant5

.....

xxv. Duration of stay in destination (in months)& Frequency of home visit (give details).

Migrant1 Migrant2 Migrant 3 Migrant4 Migrant5

.....

.....

.....

xxv. Duration of stay while in home visit at origin (in days/months/year):

Migrant1 Migrant2 Migrant 3 Migrant4 Migrant5

xxvi. If out-migrated for work to several destinations over the last few years, write (1) the following

Sl. No. of migrant	Place names where the migrant lived for at least six months (start with place of both)	Duration of stay (month/year)	Status	If employed sector of employment	Specific Job	Status of job ⁱⁱⁱ

Code I: Employed-01, Unemployed and looking for job-02, Student-03

Code II: Agriculture and related-01, Manufacturing-02, Services-03

Code III: Self-employed-01, Casual-02, Contract-03, Regular-04

xxv. Status of employment before out-migration: Employed-01, Partially employed-02, Unemployed-03

xxvi. If employed, before migration nature of principal employment? Agriculture and related-01, Manufacturing related-02, Service related-03

xxvii. If not migrated what would have been the days of employment per month/year?

.....

xxviii. Earnings: Per day:, Per week:, Per month:

xxix. If self employed, nature and type of self-employment in the place of destination? (Details of trade/business/ service/manufacturing, etc.)

.....

xxxv. Reasons for choosing the present self-employment

(education/skill/experience/others):

.....
.....

xxxiii. Adverse effect of migration on family members, if any (inability to meet after old parents/other members/young children etc./young children, level of education – make a list):

Migrant1	Migrant2	Migrant 3	Migrant4	Migrant5
.....
.....
.....

xxxiv. a) Whether members living at the origin received Job Card under NREGS (100 days employment programme): Yes-01 No-02

b) If yes, whether received employment in the last one year? Yes-01 No-02

c) If yes, how many days in the last one year?

xxxv. a) Whether gets two square meals a day for the 365 days in year? Yes-01 No-02

b) If no, then for how many months gets two square meals a day? months

Overall Remarks:

Date:

Signature:

17) HOUSEHOLD CONSUMER EXPENDITURE (Origin)				
Sl. No.	Item group	Value of consumption (Rs.) during		
		Last 7 days	Last 30 days	Last 365 days
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
1.	Cereals & cereal products (includes maiz, chow, maida, sup, noodles, bread/bakery, barley, cereal substitutes, etc.)			
2.	Pulses & pulse products (includes soyabean, gram products, besan, sattu, etc.)			
3.	Milk & milk products (includes milk condensed/ powder, baby food, ghee, butter, ice-cream, etc.)			
4.	Edible oil & vanaspathi			
5.	Vegetables and fruits (including garlic, ginger, mango, banana, coconut, dates, kishmish, moringa, other dry fruits, etc.)			
6.	Egg, fish & meat			
7.	Sugar (includes gur, candy (misri), honey, etc.)			
8.	Spices, salt and other food items (includes beverages such as tea, coffee, fruit juice and processed foods such as biscuits, cake, pickles, sauce, dry chilies, cherry powder, etc.)			
9.	Tan, tobacco & intoxicants			
10.	Fuel & light			
11.	Entertainment (includes cinema, picnic, sports, club fees, video cassettes, cable charges, etc.)			
12.	Personal care and effects, toiletries article & other sundry articles (includes spectacles, torch, umbrella, lighter, tooth-past, hair-oil, shaving blades, electric bulbs, tube light, glassware, hucker, washing soap, agarbatti, insecticide, etc.)			
13.	Consumer services and conveyance (includes domestic servant, tailoring, grinding charges, telephone, legal expenses, pet animals, porter charges, bus/auto/taxi fare)			
14.	Rent/lease rent, consumer taxes and cesses (including water charges, etc.)			
15.	Medical expenses (non-institutional)			
16.	Sub-total items 1 to 15)			
17.	Medical (institutional)			
18.	Tuition fees and other fees, schoolbooks and other educational articles (includes private tutor, school/college fees, newspaper, library fees, stationery, internet charges, etc.)			
19.	Clothing, bedding and footwear			
20.	Durable goods (almirah, khat, cycle, radio, TV, pumpset, watch, clock etc.)			
21.	Sub-total (items 17 to 20)			
22.	Average monthly expenditure for items 17 to 20 (item 21 x (30/365))			
23.	Monthly household consumer expenditure (item 16+item 22)			

Appendix-C.2

Questionnaire for Field Survey (for Non-Migrant Household Schedule)

Questionnaire for field survey for the Ph. D. Research Work

Title: AN ENQUIRY INTO THE CAUSES AND CONSEQUENCES OF
RURAL-URBAN MIGRATION IN WEST BENGAL
WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO COOCH BEHAR DISTRICT

SUJIT MAJUMDAR (Junior Research Fellow)

(under Rajiv Gandhi National Fellowship)

Supervisor: DR. KANAK KANTI BAGCHI

Professor

Department of Economics,

University of North Bengal,

Dist. Darjeeling, West Bengal, PIN - 734 013.

Schedule No. Date

SURVEY AREA PROFILE

Names of (i) Village (ii) Hamlet (Para)
(iii) Gram Panchayat (iv) Block (v) Sub division
..... (vi) District

IDENTIFICATION OF SAMPLE HOUSEHOLD:

- (a) Name of head of household, (b)
Age (c) Father's/Husband's name:
- Name of informant (a) Age (b)
Occupation (c) Father's/Husband's Name
- Response code: 1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
- How many rooms at house? *
- Type of house: 1. *Auroha* 2. *Semi-pucca* 3. *Pucca*!
- Is there toilet facility? 1. Yes 2. No

* Item 2 Response Code: informant, cooperative & capable cooperative but not capable 2. busy 3. reluctant -
4. others - 9.

7. If yes, type of inlet: Kutcha-01, Pucca-02, Semi-pucca-03
8. What is the provision for drinking water? Tube well (own)-1, Well (own)-2
9. Tube well/well (shared/public)-3, Others (specify)-4
10. Electrified house? Yes-01, No-02
11. Type of household: AFS-01, BPL-02

12) HOUSEHOLD CHARACTERISTICS			
1	Household size (No. of members)		Religion (code)
2	Principal sector of work (NIC-2004)	Description Code (5-digit)	Social group (code)
3	Principal occupation (NIC-2004)	Description Code (5-digit)	Land possessed as on date of survey (code)
4	Household type (code)		Monthly household consumer expenditure (Rs.) (to be copied from item no. 23 question no. 19)

Codes for Question no. 12

Item 4: Household type

For rural areas: self-employed in non agriculture-1, agriculture labour-2, other
labour-3, self-employed in agriculture-4, others-9

Item 5: Religion: Hinduism-1, Islam-2, Christianity-3, Sikhism-4, Jainism-5, Buddhism-6, Zoroastrianism-7,
Others-9

Item 6: Social group: schedule tribe-1, schedule caste-2, other backward class-3, others-4

Item 7: Land possessed (area in bighas)

Less than 1	01	7.6-----15.0	04
1-----3	02	15.1-----30.0	03
3.1-----7.5	03	greater than 30.0	05

Codes for Question No. 13

Col (3) Relation of head:

Self - spouse (0) one-2, married child-3, spouse of one female child-4, unmarried child-5, grandchild-6, father, mother, father-in-law, mother-in-law, brother-in-law, other -7, live-in-sister-in-law, other -8, live-in-sister-in-law, other -9, live-in-brother-in-law, other -10

Col (6) Marital status:

Never married-1, currently married-2, divorced-3, widowed-4, widower-5

Col (7) Educational level:

N=, illiterate, 01= illiterate without any schooling, 02= illiterate with some schooling, illiterate through NCT, All-Post, illiterate through H.E., All-Post, illiterate, illiterate with formal schooling including L.C.S. below primary to post-graduate, illiterate primary/middle/secondary-09, high secondary-10, diploma/certificate course-12, graduate-13, post-graduate and above-14, technically educated-15, specific-

Col (8) & Col (10) Work status:

Worked in his enterprise (self-employed)-0, own account worker -1, employee-2, worked as helper in his enterprise (unpaid family worker)-21, worked as regular/salaried wage employee-1, worked as casual wage labour in public works-41, or other types of work-3, did not work but was seeking and available for work-81, attended educational institution-91, attended domestic duties only-92, attended domestic duties and also engaged in free collection of goods (Vegetables, roots, firewood, settled land, etc.) sewing, tailoring, weaving, etc. for household use-93, remitters, pensioners, remittance recipients, etc.-94, not able to work due to disability-95, others including begging institution, etc.-97

Col (10) Principal sector of work:

Agriculture & allied-1

Industry-2

Services-3

14) PARTICULARS OF HOUSEHOLD MEMBERS REGARDING INCOME, CONSUMPTION AND SAVING

Sl No	Sex (Male-1, female-2)	Present age (Years)	Monthly income (Rs.) If regular - Subsidiary	Expenditure (Rs.)	Monthly Savings (Rs.)
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15) HOUSEHOLD CONSUMER EXPENDITURE				
Sl. No	Item group	Value of consumption (Rs.) during		
		Last 7 days	Last 30 days	Last 365 days
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
1	Cereals & cereal products (includes millet, chana, maida, suji, noodles, bread (bakery), barley, cereal substitutes, etc.)			
2	Pulses & pulse products (includes soyabean, gram products, besan, sattu, etc.)			
3	Milk & milk products (includes milk condensed powder, baby food, ghee, butter, icecream, etc.)			
4	Edible oil & vanaspathi			
5	Vegetables and fruits (including garlic, ginger, orange, banana, coconut, dates, kishmish, mangoes, other dry fruits, etc.)			
6	Egg, fish & meat			
7	Sugar (includes gur, candy (misri), honey, etc.)			
8	Spices, salt and other food items (includes beverages such as tea, coffee, fruit juice and processed foods such as biscuits, cake, pickles, sauce, dry chutney, chutney powder, etc.)			
9	Pan, tobacco & intoxicants			
10	Fuel & light			
11	Entertainment (includes cinema, picnic, sports, club fees, video cassettes, cable charges, etc.)			
12	Personal care and effects, toilet article & other sundry articles (includes spectacles, torch, umbrella, lighter, tooth-pest, hair-oil, shaving blades, electric bulbs, tube light, glassware, bucket, washing soap, agarbati, insecticide, etc.)			
13	Consumer services and conveyance (includes domestic servant, tailoring, grinding charges, telephone, legal expenses, pet animals, porter charges, bus/auto/taxi fare)			
14	Rent/lease rent, consumer taxes and cesses (including water charges, etc.)			
15	Medical expenses (non-institutional)			
16	<u>Sub-total</u> items 1 to 15)			
17	Medical (institutional)			
18	Tuition fees and other fees, schoolbooks and other educational articles (includes private tutor, school/college fees, newspaper, library fees, stationary, internet charges, etc.)			
19	Clothing, bedding and footwear			
20	Durable goods (almirah, khat, cycle, radio, TV, pumpset, watch, clock etc.)			
21	<u>Sub-total</u> (items 17 to 20)			
22	Average monthly expenditure for items 17 to 20 [(item 21) ÷ (30 ÷ 365)]			
23	Monthly household consumer expenditure (item 16+item 22)			

Remarks, if any:

16. a) Whether the family received Job Card under NREGS (100 days employment programme):

Yes-01 No-02

b) If yes, whether received employment in the last one year? Yes-01 No-02

c) If yes, how many days in the last one year?

17. a) Whether gets two square meals a day for the 365 days in year? Yes-01 No-02.

b) If no, then for how many months gets two square meals a day? months

Overall Remarks:

Date .

Signature

19. INDEBTEDNESS

Loan no	Month and year of borrowing	Principal	For formal sector loans, amount or subsidy, if any	Collateral	Rate of interest	Amount outstanding			Source of borrowing (code)	Purpose of borrowing	
						Principal	Interest	Total			
					Specify if per month, per annum or other				1 Commercial bank 2 Cooperative bank 3 Cooperative society 4 Land development bank 5 Moneylender 6 Small peasant 7 Medium peasant 8 Other (specify)	9 Self-accum 10 Pull-out 11 Social order 12 Big trader 13 Subsidized person 14 Friends and relatives (no interest payment) 15 Other (specify)	

12/202