

People and Migration

Ramaiah - A migrant teacher in Hyderabad

My parents and grandparents lived for many years in Mogilidori village, Mandal Chityal, Nalgonda District. They depended on borewells for irrigating their land to cultivate mainly paddy and cotton.

Mogilidori is 80 kms away from Hyderabad, with 150 houses and a population of 700 to 800. Most households here depend on agriculture. In my childhood days, there was no transport or road facility to come from Mogilidori to Hyderabad or even Nalgonda which is about 40 kilometers away.

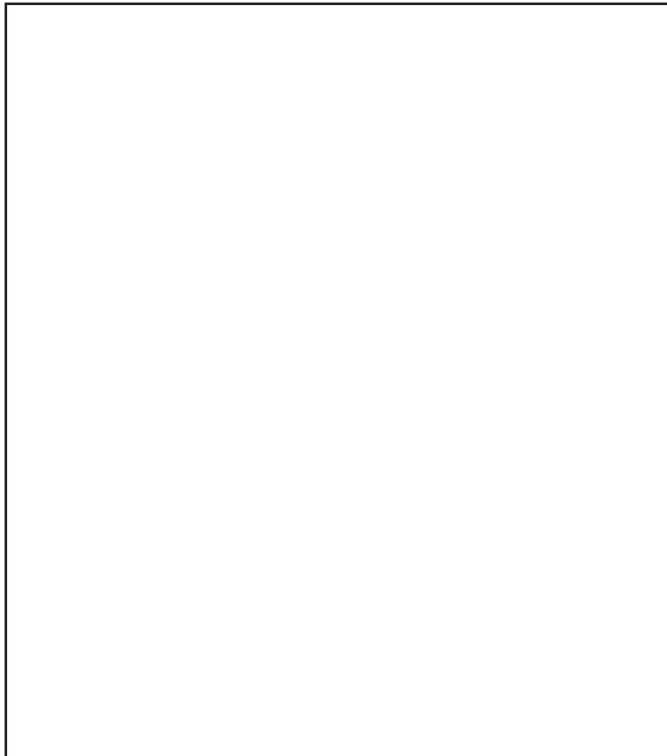
During 1970s, our village had a Government Primary School with students studying classes 1 to 3 (now the school has been upgraded upto 5th class). I studied up to class 3 in Mogilidori. Later I studied classes 4-7 in Chinnakaparthi, a nearby village.

For classes 8-10, I went to Government High School in Peddakaparthi which is about 9 kilometers from Mogilidori. During this time, I stayed in a government run hostel. I came to Hyderabad for my Intermediate and then completed the Teacher Training Certificate Course in Government institutions. A friend helped me to apply for the course and also advised where to stay in Hyderabad.

I got a job as a Government school teacher in 1983 and was posted at Panthangi in Nalgonda district, which is 25 kilometers away from Mogilidori. After two years I was posted in another village school where I worked for 5½ years. During all these years, we - my wife and children resided either in Panthangi or Choutuppal, from where I commuted to school. In the year 2004 we again moved to Hyderabad. For the last 10 years we are not doing any farming. The well we used earlier is dried now.

Land has been given on lease to another person residing in Mogilidori. He pays some money to us and cultivates cotton. Most families who own land during my childhood have migrated to cities, and many erstwhile agricultural labour families now lease the land.





- Draw a sketch map showing Nalgonda and Rangareddy districts along with Hyderabad city. Mark arrow lines linking the names listed in the case study.

Not just this teacher, but also hundreds and thousands of people move to urban locations for education, employment and better opportunities. You require some support for migration to take place. But over time people go to new places, develop relationships with new people, understand and live in a diversified culture.

Measure and classify migration patterns

Migration arises out of various social, economic or political reasons. For identifying a person as a migrant, two criteria are used by the census:

- * “birth place” – place where the person was born
- * “last usual place of residence” – a place where the person had stayed continuously for a period of six months or more

- Here is a list of few people. Categorise them as migrant or non-migrant. Indicate the pattern and guess the probable reasons for migration.

Name	Present address for the last six months	Place of birth	Migrant or non-migrant	Pattern of migration, rural to urban; urban to urban etc and possible reason
Sindhu	Rajahmundry town	Village in East Godavari Dt.		
Grace Oviya	Hyderabad	Vijayawada		
Ali (an NRI)	New Delhi	London		
Ramaiah	Hyderabad	Mogilidori		
Lakshmi	Thimmapuram (for only two months)	Kodandaramapuram in Nellore dt.		
Swathi	Gatlanarsingapur Karimnagar Dt.	Vijayawada		Passed Service Commission Examination

In India, according to census 2001, about 307 million people have been reported as migrants. Migrations can happen due to many reasons. While females report marriage as the most common reason for migration, employment or seeking employment is the most common reason for males to migrate. Dissatisfaction with employment opportunities in the native place, better opportunity for studies, loss in business, family feuds etc are also some of the other reasons that people have stated as reasons for migration in the census surveys.

Most migrants move only for short distance. Out of the 307 million migrants, about 259 million (84.2%), migrated from one part of the state to another, i.e., from one village or town to another village or town. Around 13% migrated from one state to another (See Table below).

Table 1: Migrations in India (Census 2001)

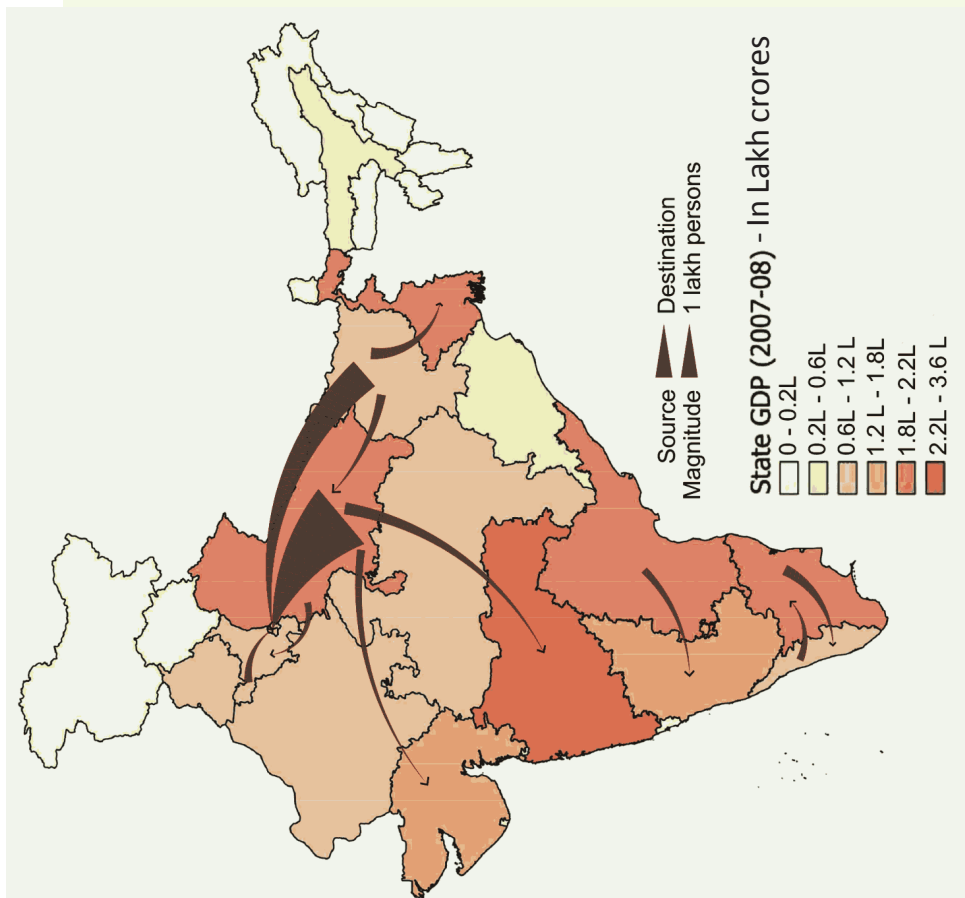
Category	Number of persons	Percentage	Calculating the percentage values	Remarks
Total Population	a. 1,028,610,328			
Total Migrants	b. 307,149,736	29.9	$(b \div a) \times 100$	This is the total percentage of migrants (people who moved from their place of birth).
Migrants within the state of enumeration	c. 258,641,103	84.2	$(c \div b) \times 100$	Of the total migrants (b), these migrated within the state of birth.
Migrants from outside the state but within the country	d. ?	13.8	$(d \div b) \times 100$?	
Migrants from other countries	e. 6,166,930	2.0	$(e \div b) \times 100$?	

Adapted from: Table D1 India, Census of India 2001.

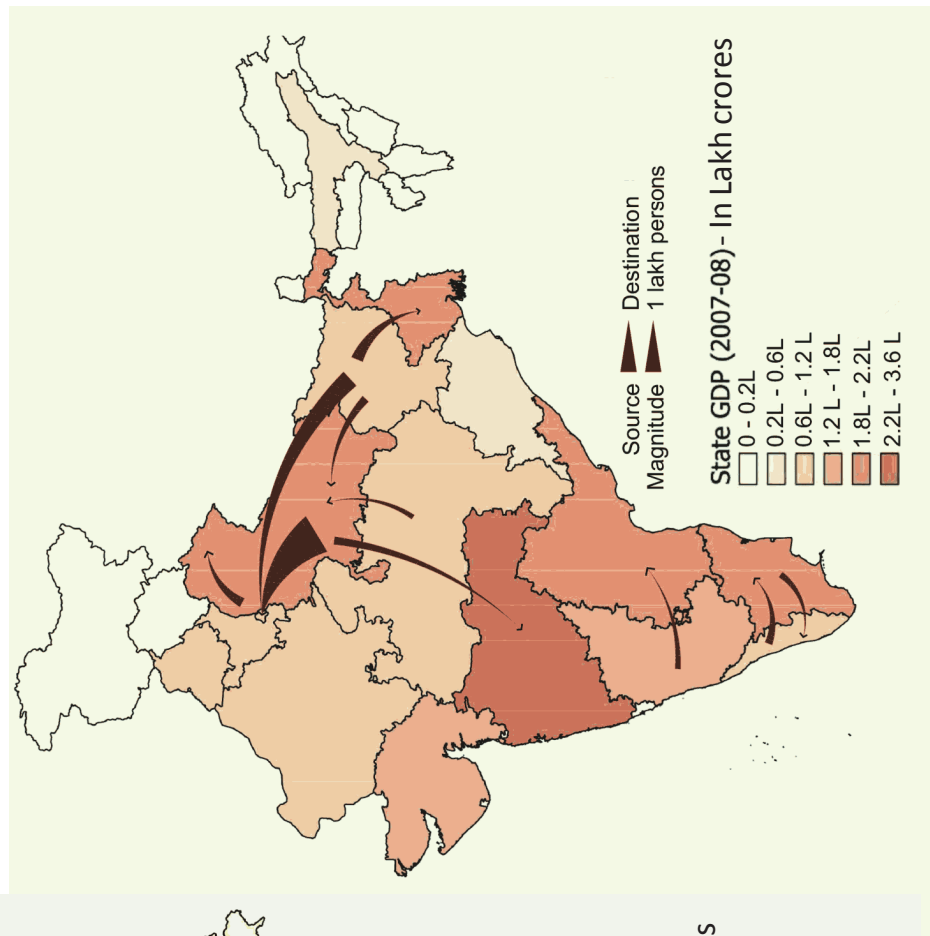
- Read the table again and complete the required information.

Three maps given here depict the migration of people across states in north, east, west and southern part of India. During the last decade (2001-2011), people moved from states such as Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, Rajasthan, Madhya Pradesh, Andhra Pradesh, Chhattisgarh, Jharkhand, Odisha, Uttarakhand and Tamil Nadu to states such as Delhi, Maharashtra, Gujarat, Haryana, Punjab and Karnataka. Mark the recent migration with arrow marks on an India Political Map. Discuss in the class about the differences and commonalities of people moving from one state to another.

**Map 1 : Estimated Major Net Urban to Urban Inter-State Migration
Urban Inter - State Migration : 2001-2011**

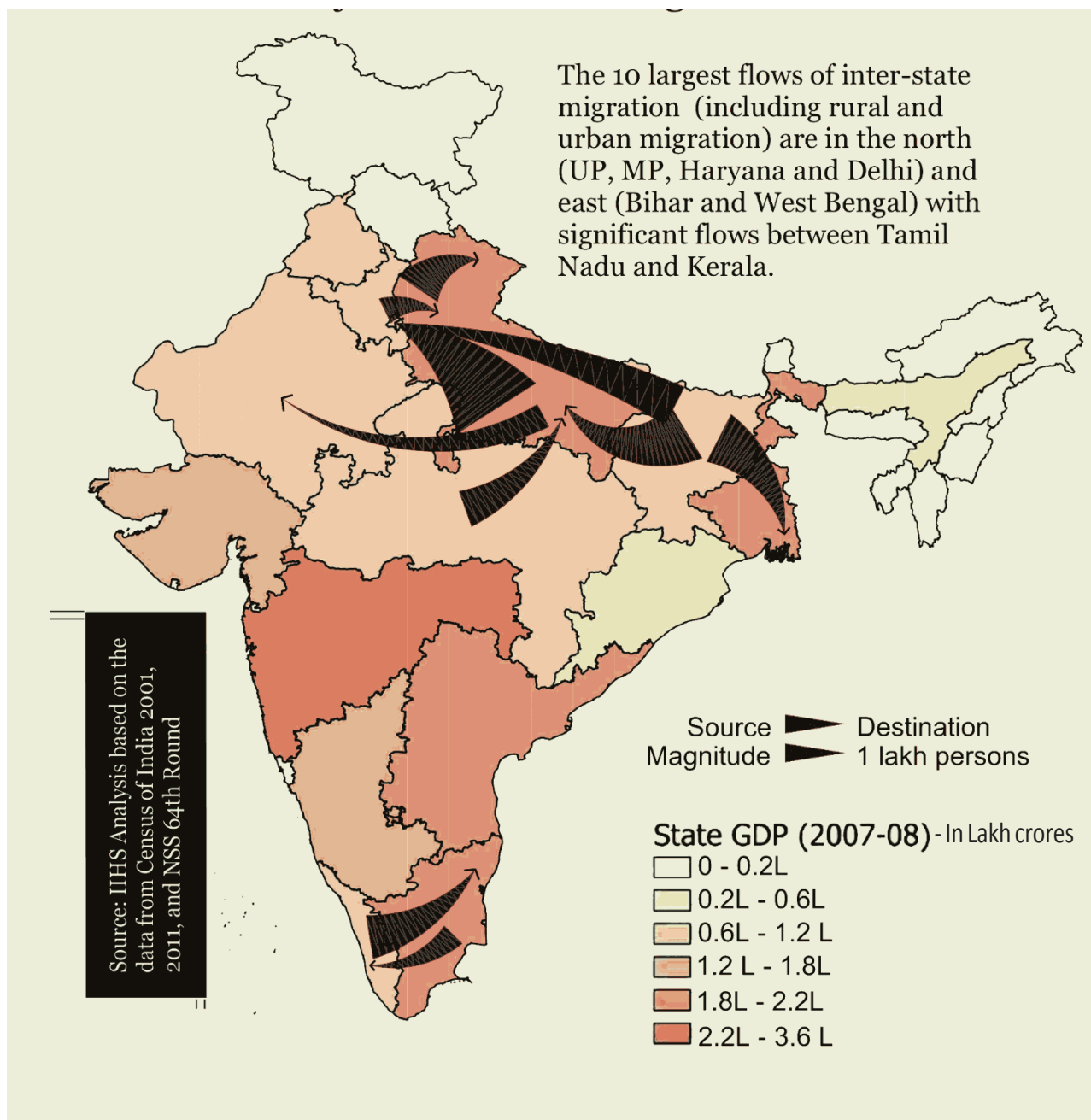


**Map 2 : Estimated Major Net Rural to Urban Inter-State Migration
Urban Inter - State Migration : 2001-2011**



- In map 1 estimate the urban migration to Delhi from UP and Bihar .
- In map 2 estimate the rural to urban migration from Karnataka to AP
- In map 3 Look at Tamil Nadu, what could be reasons out migration and in migration?

Map 3 : Estimated Major Inter - State Migration Streams : 2001- 2011



Rural - Urban migration

People migrate from rural areas mainly due to insufficient employment opportunities and inadequate income available in rural employment. People also migrate with the expectation of higher incomes and more opportunities for family members and maybe better services. Ramaiah was able to find work in the organised sector. However, most urban migrants have to work as labourers and find employment in the unorganised sector. They could be working as hawkers, painters, repair persons, rickshaw pullers, construction labour etc.

For some people from rural areas moving to cities and towns to work in industry and other service activities has been recognised as a natural response to increase their income and for better family prospects. In this process, they have opportunities for education, take up new jobs and acquire new skills. Towns also appear to offer greater

- Interview a person who has come to a town to work in the unorganised sector as a labourer or domestic servant and write her story (see the case study of Ramaiah above).
- If you live in a rural area, interview a person who has come on a vacation from working in a town in the unorganised sector, write his story (see the case study of Ramaiah above).
- Compare and contrast these two situations.

freedom and somewhat less discrimination based on caste and gender. However, many move to urban areas more out of desperation and not having adequate employment opportunities in the rural areas. For these people, living conditions in slums in towns and cities is worse because space is cramped and basic facilities such as drinking water and sanitation aren't available. These people are not able to find jobs in the 'organised sector' and therefore there's no job security and decent income that they were aspiring for. They continue to live as daily workers.

Many families have residences both at their origin (native place) and at the destination. They shift between the two places depending on work and seasons. Migration does not necessarily involve movement of all members of the family, and often the wife remains in the rural area.

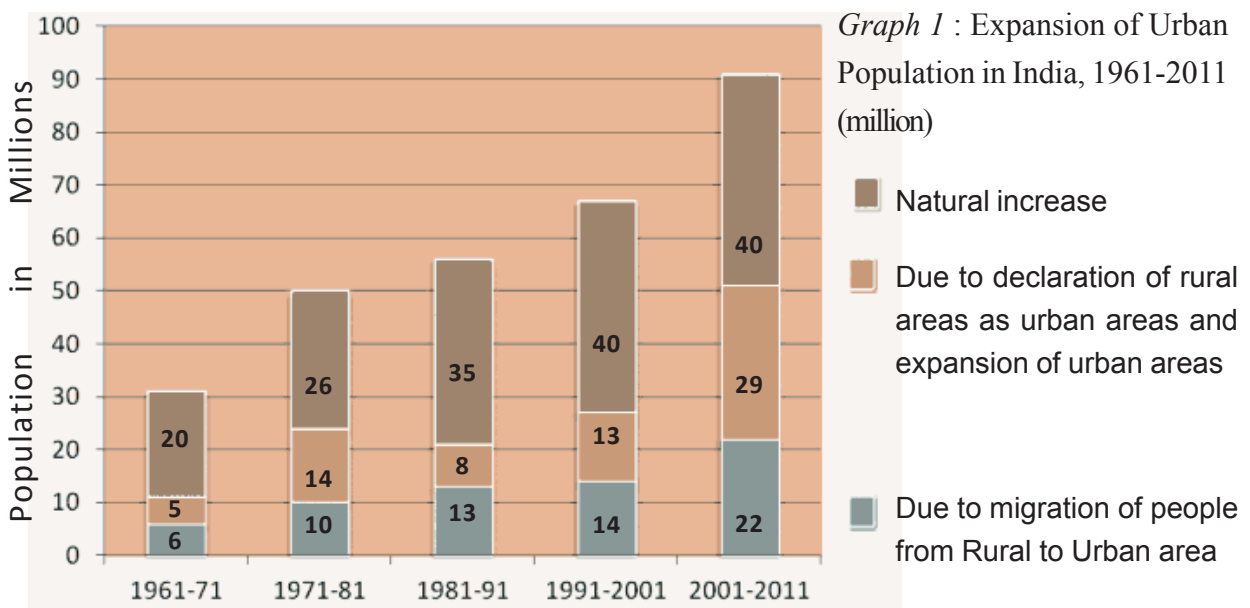
Remittances - money sent by migrants from their destination - are an important means of supplementing, or generating additional incomes for the rural family. The amount of remittances and the pressure to remain in the urban areas depends upon the needs of rural family members. Migrants retain the economic ties in rural areas because they want to safeguard their rights over land and homestead. Families back in rural areas are important for most urban migrants. In fact, it is the family which decides whether their family member should migrate or not.

Urban migrants use different job searching mechanisms depending upon their skills and educational qualifications. Contacts and networks are crucial for getting

urban jobs. In fact villagers pre-arrange their jobs from rural areas and come to urban areas through their contacts or networks. They keep close ties with their rural areas for a variety of reasons. Migrants also pass on the urban opportunities to the rural areas so that potential migrants can engage in rural-based job search. In most cases, migration is the survival strategy for many families.

- Why are contacts and networks essential for getting jobs in urban areas?

Graph 1 shows how the number of persons increased in urban areas – cities and towns during the last five decades, 1961-2011, in India. During 1961-71, population living in urban areas increased by 30 million. Out of this increase, only 6 million, or about one-fifth increase is due to people coming from rural areas to cities and towns. The larger increase is due to natural growth of the urban population already living in the urban areas. The third reason for increase in urban areas is the expansion effect, when some rural areas become small towns.



Calculate the total number of persons added to urban population for each period and percentage of each group. Write sentences for each bullet point. One example is given here:

- ✱ During 2001-2011, there were 91million (40+29+22) people added in the urban population. In terms of percentage, 44% increase was due to natural increase, 32% was due to expansion of urban areas and 24% was due to migration.

- How would you construct a table to show the effect of migration for the entire period 1961-2011?
- When people move out of rural areas which sector of the economy in the rural area loses the most number of people? Why?
- In urban areas, what are the common sector(s) of the economy in which migrants from the rural areas find employment? What are some reasons for this?

Seasonal and Temporary Migration

According to national census surveys, every fourth person in India is a migrant. During 2001-2011, migration increased but not as large as in the 1980s. This may be within a state or outside. You have read the story of Ramiah, a rural to urban migrant. You have also interviewed someone who has come into a town as a labourer. We have examined the statistics of rural – urban migration and the multiple reasons for migration. However, it is significant that rural to rural migration has increased. Some of this may not be captured by census data because the period of stay is often less than six months. The number of seasonal migrants is underestimated in India due to limitations in the definition of the term ‘migrant’ used in national surveys.

The sugarcane cutters of Maharashtra

Maharashtra is one of the popular states of India which produce sugar. It has 186 cooperative sugar factories. Large scale sugarcane cultivation began here in the early 1970s after the Koina dam was built. A study estimates that about 6,50,000 labourers migrate from central to western Maharashtra for sugarcane cutting each year. Of these around 2,00,000 are children in the elementary school age group of 6-14 years. They come with their family members.

The sugarcane cutters camp for the season in clearings earmarked by factories. These are in the vicinity of the fields. Each family is provided with a bamboo mat and poles, which are converted into a small conical hut or *kopi*. Tyre centre settlements have 200-500 *kopis* and *Gadi* centres have 50-100 *kopis*. The *kopis* are cramped together, and bullocks are parked in front. Animals and humans live together in congested conditions.

The work units move to the fields in the early hours of the morning where they cut cane throughout the day, about 1.5 ton per person. The payment rate per ton varies between Rs.80 and 100. The field is divided into strips, and each strip is assigned to one work unit. The man and woman cut the cane, remove the leaves, and throw it on the ground, the child takes the cane and puts it on a pile. The piles thus made are then tied into bundles, carried on the head by men and women and put on to carts.

- Why is there a shortage of sugarcane cutters in western Maharashtra?
- What would happen to children who come with their parents? Is it possible to bring these children to schools? Are there any provisions in the government laws for educating these children?
- Why are sugarcane cutters employed only for six months? What work might they do during the other six months of the year?
- How could the living conditions of these workers be improved?
- The seven districts in western Maharashtra – Nasik, Ahmadnagar, Pune, Satara, Sangli, Kolhapur and Sholapur – comprise the “sugar belt” which extends into Surat (Gujarat) in the north and Belgaum (Karnataka) in the south. Five districts of the arid Marathwada region – Beed, Jalgaon, Ahmadnagar, Nasik and Jalna – send out labour to this sugar belt for six months every year for sugarcane harvesting.
- Draw arrow lines on a map showing districts of origin and destination of migrants.

The men drive the carts to the factory where they might have to wait in queue for several hours before they get to offload the cane. The women, meanwhile, walk several kilometers back to the settlement. They have to fight exhaustion all the time.

A large section of rural workers migrate for a short duration and particularly due to distress caused in rural areas. They are mainly agricultural labourers or marginal farmers in their place of origin and mostly belong to low income households, dalits and adivasis.

We have seen how sugarcane cutters in Maharashtra move from one rural area to another. Rural seasonal migrants work in agriculture and plantations, brick kilns, quarries, construction sites and fish processing. Some examples for these are given below.

A study of the rice producing belt of West Bengal in the late 1990s suggests that more than 5 lakh migrants,

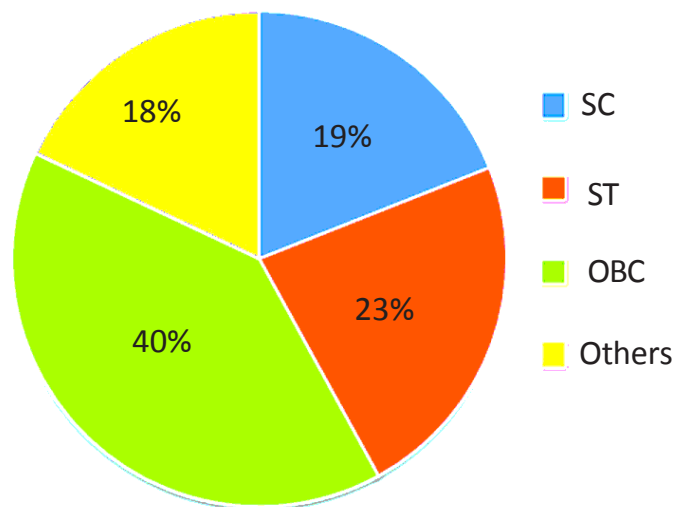
mostly tribals and other low castes move to Bardhaman district during harvest season. Their number is increasing over the years. While males from Saora tribals have a long history of migrating to work in Assam plantations, Munda and Santhal men migrate to work in mining sites in Odisha. Nearly 50,000 women from Kerala migrate annually to work in fish processing industries of Maharashtra.

Construction sites in most urban areas depend on migrant workers. It is also common to see migrants selling plastic goods, vegetables, and engage in other petty businesses and casual labour. A large section of such migrants are from tribal communities & from drought-prone areas of the state. Seasonal migrants are not only poor but have little or no land at their native place. The Graph 2 gives the details of short term migrants – those who stayed away from their native places for not more than 6 months during the year prior to survey.

The National Commission of Rural Labour in its report in 1990s found that uneven development and regional disparity triggered and accelerated seasonal migration. In some tribal areas intrusion of outsiders and displacement of people for construction of dams and mining have increased distress seasonal migration.

In agriculture sector, employers go to the native place of migrants and recruit them. Contractors (also called agents), traders who belong to the same caste, community or source area are used by employers of quarries in Delhi, coffee plantations of Karnataka, and farming in Punjab. Such workers come with workers who are already migrated. Contractors retain part of the migrants earnings apart from payments they receive from employers. Sometimes, the contractors also work as supervisors.

Graph 2 : Social Background of short term migrants in India, 2007-08



- Describe an example of seasonal migration of your region.

What happens when people migrate?

Migrant labourers spend more on food as they cannot get food grains from fair price shops at their workplaces. As they live in harsh circumstances and in unhygienic conditions, they suffer from health problems and are prone to disease. Those working in quarries, brick kilns, construction sites and mines suffer from body ache, sun stroke, skin irritation and lung diseases. When employers do not follow safety measures, accidents in industrial areas and construction sites are also common. Migrants are not able to access various health and family care programmes as they do not belong to the organised sector. In the case of women migrant workers, there is no maternity leave. This means they have to go back to work very soon after childbirth.

When families migrate, children accompanying their parents do not have crèche facilities. Grown up children are not able to continue their studies at their parents' new workplaces. Schools in their native place refuse to take them again when they come back. They finally become dropouts. When males leave their families this is also a major challenge for women who have to take care of all the responsibilities of the family and elderly people who need care. Young girls in such families are required to take care of siblings and many of them become dropouts.

Migration leaves a considerable mark on the migrants also. Exposure to different environment, stress associated with it, food available and social atmosphere leave a deep impact on migrants. This also depends on the length of migration. They have greater exposure to ideas and try to challenge older notions.

Most migrants and particularly those going for long term send remittances. In some regions of India, nearly one-third of households depend on the remittances sent by their migrant members. Majority of seasonal migrants either remit or bring

- What can be done so that migrants are able to get food, health and family care programmes?
- There are some initiatives taken by government and voluntary agencies. Find out if there is any such initiative in your area. Invite some persons from such agencies for a talk in the school.

back savings. Migration allows households to meet debt and other obligations without having to sell assets. It is also common to find migrant families buying house, land, agricultural machinery and consumer durables. Some migrants might take up jobs in the destination, acquire skills required in the destination area, become aware of how to get regular jobs and migrate regularly or permanently.



Fig 8.1 : National boundaries are protected against migrants. Here are examples of a) USA on Mexican border b) South Korea on North Korean border c) India on Bangladesh border. What do you think of migrants across the border?

International migration

One-third of the world's 200 million international migrants, less than 70 million people, according to the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), moved from one developing country to another. International migration from India is of two types:

People with technical skills and professional expertise have migrated to countries such as USA, Canada, United Kingdom, Australia and other developed countries. IT professionals, doctors and management professionals are an example of this type. Indians migrating to countries such as UK and Canada in 1950s and 1960s were unskilled whereas in the later years, mostly professionals went to these countries. In recent times, Indian professionals also go to countries such as Germany, Norway, Japan and Malaysia. In the 1950s about 10,000 persons a year went to developed countries and in 1990s this has increased to more than 60,000 a year.

The second type of international migration is unskilled and semi-skilled workers migrating to oil exporting countries of the West Asia on temporary contracts. Almost all these workers come back after a specific period depending on the employment situation in the destination countries. During the last few decades Saudi Arabia and UAE (United Arab Emirates) have been the major destination for most of the 3 million Indian workers in the West Asia. Every year, more than 3 lakh workers migrate to West Asia. Nearly three-fifths of workers going to the West Asia are from Kerala, Tamil Nadu and Andhra Pradesh. A considerable section of these workers are engaged in construction projects, maintenance, services, transport and telecommunications.

Also important is the impact that international migration has on regions of the migrants. For the families of migrants the impact is visible as they are able to pay back loans, buy assets and the standard of life improves. A study has shown that nearly one-fifth of total income of Kerala is accounted for by the remittances sent by its workers from the West Asia. In 1970s, the average per capita consumption in Kerala was less than national average, but after 30 years, it has increased above the national average by 40% (see Box).



- Draw arrow lines on a World Map depicting people from India going to different countries mentioned in the above passages.

Weak rupee a boon as remittance inflows to Kerala top Rs. 75,000 crore

At a time when the country is reeling under the pressure of a weak rupee, non-resident Keralites are laughing their way to the banks with remittance inflows crossing the year-end target of Rs. 75,000 crore in just six months of 2013.

Kerala has set a new record in remittances this year by already reporting a whopping 36% year-on-year increase in inflows as of June-end at Rs. 75,883 crore.

This is a net incremental addition of Rs. 20,220 crore over Rs. 55,663 crore in June 2012,

according to data provided by the State Level Bankers Committee (SLBC), which has 32.8% of the total bank deposits in the state.

The over 2.5 million Keralites living outside the country contribute over 35% of the GDP of Kerala, where companies hawking premium products and luxury cars are reporting brisk sales during the ongoing Onam season, the largest festival of the state, while elsewhere in the country, barring Punjab, which is another NRI bastion, they are down in dumps.

In the last fiscal year, at Rs. 60,000 crore, the

remittances contributed to a third of the state GDP. If the inflows continue, this fiscal year it could well be about 40% of the state's GDP...

According to a report by the Migration Unit of the Centre for Development Studies, Thiruvananthapuram, remittances today account for 1.6 times the revenue receipt of the Kerala government, 6.2 times what the state gets from the Centre as revenue transfer, and is more than twice the government's annual expenditure.

Source: The Hindustan Times, September 15, 2013, Mumbai

The Emigration Act, 1983 is the Indian law governing migration and employment of Indians abroad. It also lays out conditions to safeguard the interests of workers emigrating for employment. Embassies set up by the Indian Government in different countries are expected to follow the legal procedures and protect the welfare of the international migrants as given in the Emigration Act. At times, migrant workers are not paid their salaries, recruitment agents cheat prospective workers or collect more than the prescribed fees for their role in getting work for workers abroad. Employers also terminate the job contract before its expiry, change the employment contract to the disadvantage of migrant workers, pay less than the agreed salary and freeze fringe benefits and other perks. They often force workers to do overtime without making additional payments, and deny permission to keep one's own passport. Indian migrant workers seldom lodge any complaint against their foreign employers for the fear of losing their jobs.

Key words

Migration Immigration Emigration Seasonal Border Boundary

Improve your learning

1. Draw a table with following items and summarise various examples in the context of migrant labourers: (1) migrant labour; (2) reasons for the migration (3) living standards of the migrants (4) economic impact in their lives (5) economic impact on the lives of people from where they migrated.
2. Compare and contrast the migration from rural to urban areas and rural to rural areas.
3. Which of the following could be considered as seasonal migration? Why?
 - a. Women moving from their parents' house to husband's house due to marriage
 - b. Turmeric harvesters moving from one district to another district in Tamil Nadu for three months in a year
 - c. Cycle rickshaw pullers in Delhi coming from rural parts of Bihar for six months a year
 - d. Women from Nalgonda district come to work as domestic maids in Hyderabad
4. Do you think migrants are trouble makers/ trouble shooters in their destinations? Justify your answer.
5. The following are migrants of different types. Classify them into internal and international migrants.
 - a. People going from India to Saudi Arabia to work as technicians.
 - b. Agricultural labourers going from Bihar to Punjab
 - c. Brick workers going from Odisha to Andhra Pradesh
 - d. Teachers coming from China to India to teach Chinese to Indian Children
6. 'Most children of migrant families become drop-outs.' Do you agree with this statement? Justify your answer.
7. How does rural to urban migration increase the purchasing power of people in rural areas?
8. Why only professionals are able to go to developed countries? Why cannot unskilled workers migrate to these countries?
9. Why are only unskilled workers from India wanted in West Asian countries?
10. Why are workers from three states able to go to a considerable extent to work in the West Asia?
11. Describe the similarities and differences between the impacts of internal and international migration.