

**ACCESS TO SOCIAL SECURITY AND MIGRATION AMONG THE  
SCHEDULED TRIBES IN RAYAGADA DISTRICT, ODISHA**

*Thesis submitted to Jawaharlal Nehru University  
for the award of the degree of*

**DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY**

**KALU NAIK**



**CENTRE FOR THE STUDY OF REGIONAL DEVELOPMENT  
SCHOOL OF SOCIAL SCIENCES  
JAWAHARLAL NEHRU UNIVERSITY  
NEW DELHI-110067  
INDIA  
2018**



जवाहरलाल नेहरू विश्वविद्यालय  
JAWAHARLAL NEHRU UNIVERSITY  
Centre for the Study of Regional Development  
School of Social Sciences  
New Delhi-110067

July 23, 2018

**DECLARATION**

I, Kalu Naik, declare that the thesis entitled, "ACCESS TO SOCIAL SECURITY AND MIGRATION AMONG THE SCHEDULED TRIBES IN RAYAGADA DISTRICT, ODISHA", submitted to the Jawaharlal Nehru University for the award of the degree of DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY, is my bonafide work. The thesis has not been submitted for the award of any degree in this or any other university.


*Kalu Naik*  
Kalu Naik

**CERTIFICATE**

We recommend that this thesis be placed before the examiners for evaluation.


*Sachidanand Sinha*

Prof. Sachidanand Sinha  
(CHAIRPERSON)

 Chairperson  
Centre for the Study of Reg. Dev.  
School of Social Sciences  
Jawaharlal Nehru University  
New Delhi - 110067

*Bhaswati Das*

Bhaswati Das  
(SUPERVISOR)

 Centre for the Study of  
School of Social Sciences  
Jawaharlal Nehru University  
New Delhi - 110067

## *Acknowledgements*

The first and foremost, I would like to give my deep gratitude to my supervisor **Dr. Bhaswati Das** for her keen interest, generous encouragement and constant support throughout the research from beginning to end. She has guided this work with scholarly insights, incisive comments, and required suggestions. For me, she has been more than an academic research supervisor and whatever academic standing I have acquired so far, I owe it to her. Thank you Ma'am for your kind support and inspiration.

I am thankful to Prof. Sachidananda Sinha, the Chairperson of Centre for the Study of Regional Development for his support and timely help during my research. It would not have possible to successfully submit this work without his support and help.

I am thankful to my teachers at the Centre for the Study of Regional Development, Prof. Dependranath Das, Prof. Sharwan Acharya, Prof. Balveer Singh Boutla, Prof. Anuradha Banerjee, Prof. Ravi. S. Srivastva, Prof. Bhupinder Zutshi, Prof. Milap Punia, Prof. Elumalie Kanan, Prof. Indrani Choudhary, Prof. Deepak Kumar Mishra and Dr. Poorva Yadav, Dr. Srinivas Goli, and Dr. Suresh.K, Dr. Vergish, Salven Sir who helped me to broaden my understanding of research and various aspects to comprehend academic research.

I take this opportunity to convey my heartfelt gratitude to the member of documentation Centre of CSR D and all the non-teaching Staff of CSR D, JNU. I also extend my heartfelt thanks to Dr. Bhimrao Ambedkar Central Library, JNU and their staffs who have always been a great support during my research period, I owe to them. I am also grateful to the UGC and JNU Administration for providing the financial aid during my course; it would not have possible to complete my research without the financial aid from them.

I am also thankful to Dr. Rajesh Raushan, Assistant Professor at Indian Institute of Dalit Studies (IIDS), New Delhi, for his suggestion on methodology to understand the nuance of data set. I also extend my thanks to Dr Sweta Bhushan, Research Associate at the National Institute of Urban Affairs, New Delhi, for her insightful comments and thoroughly proof reading in last minutes.

I would like to thank my key Informant of study area, specially Damodar, Dharma, Durgesh, Jagabandhu and also I extend my special thanks to Block Development Officers Praveer Sir, Gouda sir, Sabar Sir and their staff, also special thanks to Sunil Sir DRDA project officer in Rayagada district and also my hearty thank to every Kondh migrant and non-migrant households of my study area for their willing cooperation and warm concern during my data collection. I also thank to my friend Udaya and their family for delicious food and staying at their home during my data collection and also thanks to my friend Mohan and their family.

I am thankful to my Seniors Sarada, Ajay, Komal, Kheraj, Banamali, Deenesh, Siva, Prakesh, Dhananjay, Munil, Gyanendra, for the timely co-operation and help during my Ph.D journey. I also thanks to my Juniors Rakesh, Juel Rana, Rayhan, Ismail, Mukund, Rajani, Bhabna, Narmada and Nalini, who always there for constant discussion and debate on various academic issues.

I extend my sincere gratitude to my parents and my elder sister Mrs. Kamini, and her husband Madhab and my elder brother Kishan and his Wife, and younger brother Sankar, for their constant love, support, goodwill and blessings, which made it possible for me to come so far in my life. I also thanks to my nephew Sivaram, Shakti, Bhakti, Sukun and Rudra their unconditional love and affection during my Ph.D journey.

I also acknowledge and extend my heartfelt thanks to my friends Ajit, Alok, Ajit Kumar, Archana Kumari, Balakrushna, Bailochan, David, Devadatta, Devesh, Lingaraj, Manasi, Maitra, Megha, Nidhi, Praveen Kumar, Rabiul, Reetuparna, Sarveswar, Sarmistha, Sudha, Sucheta, Subhash and Zapate for their emotional support, care and concern and for their kind assistance, cooperation, and valuable suggestions in the course of my study. I am thankful to my friends for being with me in the hours of need and making my JNU years a memorable experience.

Kalu Naik

## CONTENTS

<i>Certificate</i>	<i>i</i>
<i>Declaration</i>	<i>ii</i>
<i>Acknowledgement</i>	<i>iii</i>
<i>Abbreviations</i>	<i>v</i>
<i>List of Tables</i>	<i>viii</i>
<i>List of Figures</i>	<i>ix</i>
<i>List of Maps</i>	<i>x</i>

CHAPTERS	TITLES	PAGE NO
<b>I</b>	<b>INTRODUCTION</b> 1.1 Introduction 1.2 Theoretical Discourses and Empirical Evidence of Social Security 1.3 Need of Such Programmer in India 1.4 Social Security and Migration Process 1.5 Historical Evolution of Social Security: An Indian Context 1.6 Understanding Security and Tribal Migration 1.7 Social Security Schemes 1.8 Objectives 1.9 Research Questions 1.10 Conclusion	<b>1-52</b>
<b>II</b>	<b>REVIEW OF LITERATURE</b> 2.1 Concept and Theoretical Orientation of Migration 2.2 Classical Theory of Migration 2.3 Neo-Classical Theory of Migration 2.4 World System Theory 2.5 Factors of Rural-urban Migration and its Relation with Livelihood 2.6 Social Networks of the Migrants 2.7 Theory of Social Networks and Migration 2.8 Cumulative Causation Theory	<b>53-79</b>

	2.9 Duration of Work and Living Condition of Rural Urban Migration and its Consequences 2.10 Gap in Literature	
<b>III</b>	<b>DASEBASE AND METHODOLOGY</b> 3.1 Statement of the Problem 3.2 Data Sources 3.2.1 Secondary Sources 3.2.2 Primary Sources 3.3 Local of the Study Area and Selection of District 3.4 Selection of Village 3.5 Selection of Sample Household 3.6. Pilot Study 3.7 Data Analysis 3.8 Descriptive Statistics 3.9 Statistical Techniques 3.10 Assets Index/ Wealth Index 3.11 Logit Model 3.12 Limitation of Study 3.13 Chapterization 3.9 Conclusion	<b>80-100</b>
<b>IV</b>	<b>PROFILE OF STUDY AREA</b> 4.1 Demographic Profile of Study Area 4.2 Demographic Profile of Sample Household 4.3 Socio-Economic Background of Household 4.4 Basic amentias and Housing Condition of Sample Household 4.5 Conclusion	<b>101-126</b>
<b>V</b>	<b>ACCESS OF VARIOUS SOCIAL SECURITY SCHEMES AT ORIGIN AND MIGRATION</b> 5.1 MGNREGA in Odisha 5.2 Public Distribution System (PDS) 5.3 Odisha Tribal Empowerment and Livelihood Programme 5.4 Odisha Livelihood Mission	<b>127-168</b>

	5.5 Logit Analysis 5.6 Conclusion	
<b>VI</b>	<b>SOCIAL NETWORKING AND WORKING CONDITION OF MIGRANTS</b> 6.1 Social Networking and Migration 6.2 Working Condition of Migrants 6.3 Remittances of Migrants 6.4 Living Condition of Migrants 6.5 Living Condition of Migrants after Migration 6.6 Conclusion	<b>167-203</b>
<b>VII</b>	<b>SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION</b> 7.1 Summary 7.2 Conclusion 7.3 Suggestion	<b>205-220</b>
	<b>Bibliography</b> <b>Appendix</b>	<b>221-233</b>

## LIST OF TABLES

Serial No.	Name of Tables	Page No.
1.1	Distribution of Labour (in crore) by Sector and Type of Employment 2004-05 and 2011-12	6
1.2	Number of Migrants over the Decades in India 1961-2001	22
1.3	Distribution of Out-Migration across the Various States	23
1.4	Distribution of Migrants by Reason for Migration in India	25
1.5	Distribution of Migrants by Social Category in India	26
1.6	Number of Out-Migration from Odisha to Various States	35
1.7	Region-wise Out-Migration Rate by Gender in Odisha	37
1.8	Out-Migration Rate by Social Categories in Odisha	38
1.9	Gender-wise Out-migration Rate by Different Religious Groups in Odisha	39
1.10	Distribution of Educational Status of Out-Migrants of Odisha	40
1.11	Distribution of Out-Migrants by Religion for Migration in Odisha	41
1.12	Rate of Rural Seasonal Migration in Odisha by Social Category	42
1.13	Top Shares of Destination States of Rural Out-Migration from Odisha	43
3.1.1	Sampling Frame of Study Area	92
4.1.1	Population Trends among STs in Odisha 1961-2011( in Millions)	102
4.1.2	Sex Ratio Trends of ST Population in Odisha (1961-2011)	103
4.1.3	Literacy Trends of ST Population in Odisha (1961-2011)	103
4.1.4	Geographical Profile of Rayagada District	105
4.2.1	Demographic Profile of Sample Households	106
4.2.2	Distribution of Respondents by Literacy Status	107
4.3.1	Distribution of Respondents by their Primary Occupation	109
4.3.2	Distribution of Respondents by their Secondary Occupation	110
4.4.1	Distribution of Households by their Housing Condition and Basic Amenities	112
4.4.2	Distribution of Households by Access to Electricity and Lighting Facilities	117
4.4.3	Distribution of Households by their usual Saving and Borrowing Practices	120
4.4.4	Distribution of Households by their Land Ownership and Size of Land Holding	122
4.4.5	Distribution of Households by their Assets	124
5.1.1	Distribution of Participation in MGNREGA by Social Category	133
5.1.2	Distribution of Households by Awareness of MGNREGA	134
5.1.3	Distribution of Households by their Participation of MGNREGA	136
5.1.4	Distribution of Respondents by their Wages in MGNREGA	139



5.1.5	Distribution of Households by their Perception about MGNREGA	142
5.2.1	Distribution of Respondents by Access to PDS	148
5.2.2	Details of Ration Delivered by PDS	150
5.2.3	Distribution of Respondents by Purchase of Ration from Private Shop	151
5.3.1	Distribution of the Respondents by Information of OTELP	154
5.3.2	Distribution of Respondents by Family Member Beneficiary in OTELP	155
5.3.3	Distribution of the Respondents by their Suggestion about OTELP	156
5.4.1	Livelihood Operation under OLM, 2015-16	161
5.4.2	Livelihood activities under OLM, 2015-16	161
5.4.3	Distribution of Respondents by Access to OLM	162
5.5.1	Logistic Regression to analyse the Determinants of Migration and Access to Social Security	165
6.1.1	Distribution of Respondents by Major Contacts for Migration	172
6.1.2	Distribution of the Female Respondents who had Migrated with their Spouse	175
6.1.3	Distribution of Respondents by their Place of Destination	176
6.1.4	Distribution of Respondents by their Cause of Migration	178
6.2.1	Distribution of Respondents by Types of Employment	183
6.2.2	Distribution of Respondents by Duration of Migration	184
6.2.3	Distribution of Migrants by their Weekly Working Days	190
6.4.1	Distribution of Migrants by basic facilities at the Place of Destination	196
6.5.1	Distribution of Migrants by their Achievement after Migration	1

## LIST OF FIGURES

Serial No.	Name of Figures	Page No.
1.1	Migration Rate among STs by Gender (NSSO, 2007-08)	28
1.2	Conceptual Framework of Present Research	51
5.1.1	Distribution of Respondents by the Mode of Payment in MGNREGA	140
6.1.1	Conceptual Framework of Social Networks at the Study Area	170
6.1.2	Distribution of Respondents by Type of Help they Received at Place of Destination	181
6.2.1	Distribution of Migrants by their Working Hours at Destination	186
6.2.2	Distribution of the Respondents by Payment of Wages at the Place of Destination	188
6.2.3	Distribution of the Respondents by the Wage Rate at the Place of Destination	190
6.2.4	Distribution of the Migrants by their Overtime Wages at the Place of Destination	190
6.3.1	Distribution of the Respondents by Mode of Remittance	191
6.4.1	Distribution of the Respondents by types of Accommodation at the Place of Destination	194
6.4.2	Distribution of the Migrants by types of Housing Conditions at the Place of Destination	195
6.4.3	Distribution of Saving Practice among the Migrants	198
6.5.1	Distribution of Migrants by their Problem During Absence of Male Member	200

## LIST OF MAPS

<b>Serial No.</b>	<b>Name of Maps</b>	<b>Page No.</b>
1.1	Distribution Male Out-Migration rate In India	xx
1.2	Distribution of Male Out-migrants from Odisha to Different States of India 2001	xx
1.3	Distribution of Female Out-migrants from Odisha to Different States of India 2001	xx
1.6	Distribution of Female Out-Migration rate in Odisha	xx
4.1	Location of Study Area	102

## ABBREVIATIONS

AAV	Antyodaya Anna Yojana
APL	Above Poverty Line
BPL	Below Poverty Line
BDO	Block Development Officer
BKBKP	Biju Kalahandi, Bolangir and Koraput Plan
CAG	Controller Auditor General
CACP	Commission of Agriculture Costs and Prices
CIF	Community Investment Fund
CMP	Common Minimum Programme
CSRE	Crash Scheme of Rural Employment
CWS	Current Weekly Daily Status
DFID	Department for International Development
DDUY	Deen Dayal Upadhya Yojana
DKDA	Dongria Kondh Development Agency
DPSP	Directive Principle of State Policy
DRDA	District Rural Development Agency
DWCRA	Development of Women and Children in Rural Area
EAS	Employment Assurance Scheme
ESI	Employees State Insurance
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organisation
FFW	Food for Work Programme
FPS	Fair Price Shops
FSCW	Food Supplies and Consumer Welfare
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GGY	Gopabandhu Gramina Yojana
GOI	Government of India
GOO	Government of Odisha
GP	Gram Panchayat
GPF	Gram Panchayat Fund
GSDP	Gross State Domestic Product
HDI	Human Development Index
HAL	Hindustan Aeronautics Limited

HHs	Households
HYV	High Yielding Variety
IAY	Indira Awas Yojana
IADB	Inter-American Development Bank
ICDS	Integrated Child Development Schemes
IFPRI	International Food Policy Research Institute
IFAD	International Fund for Agriculture Development
IHDS	Indian Human Development Survey
ILO	International Labour Organization
IMR	Infant Mortality Rate
INR	Indian Rupee
ICSEC	International Covenant on Social, Economic and Cultural
ISSA	International Social Security Association
ISMWA	Inter-state Migration Women Act
ITDA	Integrated Tribal Development Agency
KBK	Kalahandi Bolangir and Koraput
LAMPS	Large Area Multi-Purpose Society
LPG	Liberalization Privatization Globalization
LPG	Liquefied Petroleum Gas
MGNREGA	Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act
MoRD	Ministry of Rural Development
MNC	Multinational Corporation
MSP	Minimum Support Price
NAC	National Advisory Council
NCEUS	National Commission for Enterprises of Unorganised Sector
NFFWP	National Food for Work Programme
NFHS	National Family Health Survey
NFSA	National Food Security Act
NGO	Non-Governmental Organization
NITI	National Institute for Transforming India
NREP	National Rural Employment Programme
NRLM	National Rural Livelihood Mission
NSDP	Net State Domestic Product
NSSO	National Sample Survey Organization

NTFP	Non-Timber Forest Products
ODI	Over-Seas Development Institute
OTELP	Odisha Tribal Empowerment and Livelihood Programme
OLM	Odisha Livelihood Mission
OPDS	Odisha Public Distribution System
OPRM	Odisha Poverty Reduction Mission
PDS	Public Distribution System
PLO	Poor Left Out
PRIs	Panchayat Raj Institutions
PTG	Primitive Tribal Group
RLEGP	Rural Landless Employment Guarantee Programme
RRC	Rice Receiving Centers
SC	Schedule Caste
SDG	Sustainable Development Goal
SGRY	Sampoorna Gram Rozgar Yojana
SHG	Self Help Group
SSA	Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan
ST	Schedule Tribe
TPDS	Targeted Public Distribution System
TRIPTI	Targeted Rural Initiative for Poverty Termination and Infrastructure
TRYSEM	Training For of Rural Youth for Self Employment
UPA	United Progressive Alliance
UTs	Union Territories
WEGS	Wage Employment Generating Scheme
WFP	World Food Programme
WPR	Work Participation Rate
WOLP	Western Odisha Livelihood Programme
UDHR	Universal declaration of Human Rights
UN	United Nations
UNICEF	United Nations International Children's Fund
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme

# CHAPTER-I

## INTRODUCTION

### **1.1: Introduction**

Tribal population are one of the most marginalised section of people suffering from acute poverty, unemployment, food insecurity and distress migration. Social security is one of the antidotes to marginalised people provided by the state for their welfare. Developed countries have special provision of social security for the upliftment of the marginalised section of people, similarly developing countries also have provision to uplift the poor and marginalised people for their all-round development, after the structural adjustment programme has brought the free market policies and economic reforms in developing countries like India. The free market economy is essential for promoting open market and efficient economy in the country, in order to improve living conditions of the poor and marginal section of the people, there is need to be reducing poverty, unemployment and food insecurity. With all this in mind, this study attempts to discuss issues of social security and migration among the tribals.

In the era of industrialization, the pace of economic growth has increased. This has led to increased socio-economic complexity in the contemporary society. Poverty and vulnerability is persisting throughout the world and it affects the greater segment of populace without proper access to sufficient social security. Global liberalization has increased not only the social and economic opportunity for all sections of society but also the inherent risks of the liberal economy for a large segment of population. The persistence of such a large proportion of population which are excluded from social security may lead to the wastage of human resources and their economic potentials may remain underutilised. Thus, exploration of this issue becomes very significant especially in the context of deprived section of people with a low coverage of social security (Srivastva, 2013).

The word 'social security' refers to all the measures providing benefits in terms of cash or kind to secure protection of the individuals who lack income related to work or inadequate income originating from sickness, disability, maternity, unemployment, injury, old age or sudden death of earning member of the family. In addition, it also includes the lack of access of health care facilities to poor sections of people (ILO, 2014). Social security, thus, becomes a useful tool to raise the labour productivity and improve the full economic potential of a country, so that the country prospers socio-

economically. It helps poor people to get employment and receive social assistance through the government. It helps people to prevent poverty and fight inequality; which is the ideal of a welfare state. It helps to prevent people from falling into poverty trap in general and avoid the social tension, conflicts and distress and migration in particular. Social security plays a significant role in ensuring human rights for all. Along with this, it leads to the reduction of poverty and inequality among the marginalized section of people including children, women, men of working age, and older persons. It is an expansion in the direction of recovery from crisis, inclusive development and social justice. While the need for social security is widely recognized, the fundamental human right to social security remains unfulfilled for the large majority of the world population. It was estimated that in 2012 only 27 percent of the working age population and their families across the world had access to comprehensive social security systems, while 73 percent of world population could not access the proper social security (ILO, 2014). As the life of an individual is uncertain, the loss of individual life leads to reduction of productive capacity of the whole family. So it needs the social protection benefits to combat poverty and inequality from the society which are key elements to achieve the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) by United Nations. The developing and developed countries provide various types of social security to their concerned population. For instance, the government of India provides social security schemes to the poor to enhance the productivity and reduce social inequality. In the industrial societies, prevailing inequalities are more; the rich are getting richer every day. The International Labour Organisation (ILO), social protection floor recommendation No.102 provides the guidelines for setting national social protection floor and building comprehensive social system. It reflects a consensus on the extension of social security to every government and its employees. India also provides various kinds of social security schemes to its economically disadvantaged and marginal sections of the people in the form of employment, food grains, livelihood and training.

## **1.2: Theoretical Discourse and Empirical Evidences of Social Security**

The term ‘social security’ refers to the programme or scheme for reducing household poverty, unemployment, food insecurity and distress migration with regards to their basic consumption and services (Sabates-Wheeler and Waite, 2003). The idea of social security or protection was first emphasised by the World Commission in the



year 2004. The World Commission directs certain minimum level of social security on social dimension (Srivastva, 2013). According to the United Nations Children's Emergency Fund (UNICEF) defines social security is an important tool for equity and social inclusiveness in the society in order to maintain the peace and harmony in the society (UNICEF, 2012).

The concept is also emphasised in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR) followed by the United Nations (UN) Conventions. It is considered to be one of the important milestone documents in the history of human rights. It was proclaimed by the United Nations General Assembly in Paris on 10 December 1948. Articles 22 to 26 of the UDHR states the universal rights of each individual to a basic standard of life, proper working condition and to social security (UN, 1948). Whereas International Covenant on Social, Economic and Cultural Rights 1966 adopted by UN General Assembly recognizes rights of everyone to social security including social insurance. Articles 9 to 13 of the ICSEC elaborate on the rights of mother and infants, the right to a decent standard of living such as right to food, health and education (UN, 1966).

At present day, social security has become an important part of development discourses at both national and international level. The social security policy is evolving according to the demand of the society, which mainly focusing on vulnerable and marginal sections of people (Sabates-Wheeler and Waite, 2003). However, the term remains confusing mainly due to the range of existing definition and the variety of ways it is interpreted by the researcher and policy makers in the implementing social security programme. So far as social security is concerned, there is wide range of definitions currently used by different agencies such as ILO, World Bank, ODI (Overseas Development Institute) and Inter-American Development Bank (IADB). It is essential to focus on a single definition and explanation provided by a particular agency in order to understand the social security indepth.

According to World Bank, social security is a kind of public measure intended to assist individual, households and communities in managing income risk in order to reduce vulnerability and fluctuations in incomes to improve consumption and enhancing equity (Sabates-Wheeler and Waite, 2003). According to the above agencies, social security is viewed as a just traditional package for reducing poverty,

unemployment and food insecurity. However there is lack of consensus on what else social security includes. It has been noticed that some of the countries see social security narrowly as a new level for old style of social welfare provided to conventionally vulnerable people. Now some of the agencies adopt a very broad approach to social security including universal social welfare programme such as employment creation, food security, *rozgar yojana*, creation of livelihood option for the poor and marginal sections of people. In other words these universal welfare programmes create ‘safety net’ to protect rights of poor people (Sabates-Wheeler and Waite).

However, ILO’s definition of the term ‘social security’ and ‘social protection’ are synonymous. Social security is a broader term which consists of social assistance and welfare programmes provided by the developed and developing countries as a public measure. It is either contributory or non-contributory; contributory schemes are mainly concentrated in the formal sector of the economy, whereas non-contributory is social assistance and welfare programmes in terms of cash or kind (ILO, 2014). The main objective of social security is to enhance the coverage and effectiveness of protection to all vulnerable section of people. According to Guhan’s study in 1994 on ILO and World Bank framework on various elements of social security in order to measure the vulnerability of marginalised people. There are four elements of social security such as promotive, preventive, protective and transformative. Among all the elements, protective measures are more important as they guarantee relief from deprivation, poverty and unemployment (Guhan, 1994). The state government machinery narrowly targets welfare measures aiming to provide relief from poverty, unemployment and deprivation but the coverage of promotional and preventive approaches have failed while protecting (Kabeer, 2002). According to the United Nations Children’s Emergency Fund (UNICEF), social security is defined as the set of both public and private programmes aimed at reducing economic and social vulnerability in the society for the people who are suffering from multiple poverty, unemployment and deprivation (UNICEF, 2012). Gracia and Gruat’s study argues that social protection can be seen as summation of both statutory and non-statutory measures which are taken to ensure the decent work but also the extension of coverage of effective social protection measures for all by the government to the marginal and poor sections of people (Gracia and Gruat, 2003). Another study findings by ILO on

80 social assistance programmes in 30 countries in the world showed that social security scheme has a clear and positive impact on enhancing human development. It also brings the social cohesion and inclusiveness in the society (ILO, 2010).

### **1.3: Need of Such Programme in India**

India was under the colonial rule till 1947. During the colonial rule, the British introduced zamindari system, high taxation on land revenue; decline in agricultural productivity and great famines led to increasing poverty, vulnerability, unemployment, and food insecurity in India. After Independence, a planned economy for every sector was formed. The economic performance goes hand in hand to reduce the vulnerability, poverty and unemployment in the country. Despite these measures, there is existence of high level poverty, malnutrition, low level of education and lower Infant Mortality Rate (IMR). According to the estimation of poverty in the year 1973-74, income poverty levels were persistently high in India and it has steadily declined around 56 percent among rural people and 49 percent in urban people due to planned economic effort (Srivastva, 2013). According to World Bank in 2011 estimates that 35.45 crore people were considered as poor. However, many studies and expert groups estimation on poverty have pointed out that the current poverty line thresholds are too low but the level of deprivation and vulnerability in India are much higher (World Bank, 2011, NCEUS 2007; Srinivasan, 2007, MoRD, 2009). The NFHS-3 findings state that around 48 percent of children under five years of age are stunted, 43 percent of children are underweight, and around 20 percent of children are affecting wasting problem (NFHS-3, 2007). It has also been found from World Bank study, there was regional imbalance of human development across the country and also people of rural and urban areas. In 2004-05 survey found that around 40 percent people are in poverty in Chhattisgarh, Madhya Pradesh and Odisha (World Bank, 2011). The above reason as explained, affects the uneven growth of Indian economy and is closely linked with the nature of workforce of the country as well as the deprivation and vulnerability of people in general and current study area in particular. In India workforce is represented by a small formal sector of economy and huge informal sector both in the agriculture and non-agriculture sector (Srivastava, 2013).

**Table-1.1 Distribution of Labour in Crore by Sector and Type of Employment, 2004-05 and 2011-12**

	Informal/Unorganised Worker	Formal/Organised Worker	Total
2004-05			
Informal	39.35(99.6)	14.0(0.4)	39.49(100)
Formal	2.91(46.6)	3.34(53.4)	6.26(100)
Total	42.26(92.4)	3.49(7.6)	45.75(100)
2011-12			
Informal	39.9(99.6)	4.74(54.6)	43.56(91.9)
Formal	0.13(0.4)	3.71(45.4)	3.85(8.1)
Total	39.23(82.7)	8.19(17.3)	47.42(100)

Sources: NCEUS 2007 and 2011-12 NSSO, Figures in parentheses are represents percentages

Table-1.1 represents the distribution of labour employment between informal and formal sector in India, here two types of sector are taken into consideration under the usual principle status of employment and unemployment purpose. It is consisting of, formal and informal sector. It has been witnessed that there is high proportion of informal employment in the Indian labour market which accounts for more than 90 percent informal workforce working as self-employed and casual workers (Srija and Shirke, 2012). The NCEUS defines informal or unorganised workers as those working in the unorganised sector, who are not regular workers and also are deprived of the social security benefits (NCEUS, 2007). In 2004-05, the ratio of both formal to informal sectors was 13:87, while 17:85 in 2011-12. Table-1.1 also indicates that in 2004-05 there was 13 percent increase in employment in organised or formal sector, which became 17 percent in 2011-12. It means that there is dominance of informal sector where most of the people are engaged for their livelihood and employment. However, the formal sector engages a small proportion of people for employment. It is estimated, of the total employment of 45.8 crore workers in 2004-05, the organised sector accounted for 6.3 crore i.e. 14 percent while the unorganised sector accounted for 39.5 crore i.e. 86 percent workers. Thus around 92.4 percent of employment in India is estimated to be informal or in the unorganised sector. The 2011-12 estimation indicates that organised sector accounted for 3.7 crore i.e. 45 percent workforce were engaged in this sector, while unorganised sector accounted for 39.9 crore i.e. 99 percent of workforce engaged in this sector. Therefore, it can be concluded that the Indian labour market is dominated by informal sector (NCEUS, 2007 and 2010-11). The existence of informal and heterogeneous features of the workforce in India is

therefore a dominant feature of the Indian economy. With growing informalisation of employment in certain sectors, there are chances of low levels of social security and vulnerability. The reason behind the low level of social security and vulnerability is lack of institutional mechanism, improper execution of policy arrangement, and lack of awareness among workers. These are main reasons which constrain the expansion of social security in India (Srivastava, 2013)

Therefore, it can be concluded that social security is an essential part of economic growth. The performance of economy depends on the better social security to enhance the higher human development and economic growth of the country. The existence of better social security brings solidarity, social harmony and inclusiveness in the society. Though, there still prevails uncertainty and biasness towards social security across the world. It is estimated that about 20 percent of the world population is getting adequate coverage of social security which is restricted mainly to formal sectors of economy. Whereas, 50 percent of the world population is not getting any coverage of social security, and less than 10 percent social security is covered in least developed countries which is indeed a crucial concern for human capital (ILO, 2014).

#### **1.4: Social Security and Migration Process**

This section discusses about the social security and migration process from a variety of perspective including economics, political sciences and other related disciplines. In economic discipline quantitative approaches are taken into consideration such as income, savings and consumption described in terms of probability and scale in order to know social security and process of migration (Sabates-Wheeler and Waite, 2003). Ethnographic and participatory understandings of vulnerability focus more on realities of poor people and their families with effects on livelihood (Moser, 1996; Scoones, 1998).

In migration literature, vulnerability and risk are the key concepts in explaining migration at the place of origin and at place of destination. It is important concept because in the everyday life, many migrants especially those migrating for better employment and livelihood reflect a wide range of vulnerability and risks during the process of migration. It has been found from the study by Yaqub and Dercon that

economic insecurity and acute poverty is one of the factors explaining downward mobility among the households (Yaquub, 2002; Dercon 2001). Further studies of migration indicates that not only economic insecurity or acute poverty, unemployment and food insecurity drives the people to migrate from one but also other factors such as urban life, better career opportunities in urban area attracts them to migrate. During the process of migration, often migrants face different problems at different point, it may be at the place of destination in the form of exploitation, entitlement and voting rights or at the place of origin especially in migrant's family in misery or poverty condition (Kothari, 2002).

The term 'tribal' has been notified by President of India under the Article-342 of the Indian constitution. It is administrative term, which is associated with area-specific and envisaged to reflect the level of socio-economic development rather than a distinct ethnic status (Bhengra, Bijoy and Luithui, 1999) The tribal communities represent an important social category of Indian social structure. They are the unprivileged sections of people and also considered to be the original inhabitants. In Anthropologist Godelier, the term tribe has been used broadly and it refers to two realities, one is 'a type of society' and other 'a stage of evolution' in the development of humanity (Godelier, 1977).

The tribal are distinctly divided into different strata and classes. Existing literature shows that there is clear cut differentiation among the tribals in terms of resources but they are also equally affected by the process of development in terms of both planned and unplanned. Scheduled Tribes are considered to be socially and economically disadvantaged section of people; they are mainly landless with little control over resources such as land, forest and water. They constitute a large proportion of agricultural labourers, casual labourers, plantation labourers, industrial labourers etc. This has resulted in lower levels of education, poor health, unemployment, food insecurity and reduced access to healthcare services and thereby induces poverty.

The tribals are economically most vulnerable in India; majority of them live below the poverty line and greater proportion of people are engaged in cultivation and the practice of shifting cultivation. They mostly possess unproductive and infertile land holdings as a result of which their crop yield is very low. A tiny percentage of their population are engaged in secondary activities. A good portion of the land in the tribal

areas has been legally transferred to non-tribals. The tribals are greatly deprived of their rights to the land and forest. Even though the government implemented Forest Right Act (FRA) but many tribal communities are unable to get their rights due to the neglect of responsibility of higher authorities towards the tribal population.

Shifting cultivation is extensively practiced in tribal areas on hill slopes using traditional methods. The forests in the tribal areas provide a wide range of foods and are an important part of their food security system. However, the availability of forest produce declined considerably due to widespread deforestation. The food grain yields from traditional farming are low and cannot meet the food needs of the family for the whole year. There are various public schemes like the Public Distribution System (PDS), Integrated Child Development Scheme (ICDS), etc. which aim at providing food security to poor and needy in these areas, but they do not work satisfactorily. An assessment of the role of PDS in meeting the food requirements of the people reveals that though the tribals are aware of their entitlement of PDS, they do not avail the benefits of such facilities due to various factors like their geographical location and inaccessibility of fair price shops. Besides these problems, the tribal communities face various kinds of structural problems and even though they are mainly dependent on agriculture for their livelihood, agriculture is not sufficient to provide them support to meet their livelihood and food needs. This makes the tribal communities to migrate from their own habitation to urban areas in search of employment to fulfil their daily needs. Thus, the tribal communities are badly in need of employment opportunities throughout the year so that they have some jobs for their livelihood and access to food security.

Unemployment has become an acute problem and it has always brought serious economic crisis among the other disadvantaged social groups in general and tribals in particular in India. The incidence of unemployment among tribals is more as compared to other social groups, whereas the underemployment and seasonal unemployment among them is very high. Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (MGNREGA) is a statute aiming to achieve the enhancement of livelihood security of the rural households in India. It provides at least 150 days of guaranteed wage employment in every financial year to poor tribal households whose adult members volunteer to engage in unskilled manual work. The

implementation of the Act has brought about tremendous changes in the socio-economic condition of tribal India.

These employment guarantee schemes and PDS have played vital role in the tribal areas by reducing unemployment and dealing with the problem of food insecurity. These two schemes act as complementary to one another; MGNREGA has been providing employment guarantee to the tribal people, whereas PDS has assured food security to these people. Therefore these two programmes are very decisive for the upliftment of the economic condition of the tribal people. Since the time of the implementation of this programme, it has been seen that through the employment guarantee, it has been reducing the distress migration from the rural to urban areas and the scheme has been able to stop the migration. It also has helped in raising the socio-economic condition and living standard of tribal people. Another aspect of these schemes is the empowerment of the tribal people by enhancing their savings through micro entrepreneurs. These two programmes thus have brought several impacts on the socio-economic and cultural aspects of tribal people.

The lack of access to social security constitutes a major obstacle to economic and social development. The lack of social security coverage is associated with high level of poverty, inequality, economic insecurity and slow growth. These are negative sign of human development against SDG (UN, 2015). Whereas the strong positive impacts of social security is in the forefront of the development agenda. Social security is a key element of national strategies to promote human development, political stability and inclusive growth. Therefore, it is a useful tool to raise labour productivity and realize the full potential of a country (UN, 2013). Social Security, therefore, plays a significant role in the promotion of income and ensuring effective access to health care facilities and basic services. It constitutes an investment in the way that enables people to engage in productive employment which is promoting a sustainable social growth.

The present study gives more emphasis on the working age population rather than other age groups and is specially reflective of the conditions of the tribals of Rayagada district of Odisha. Social security plays a key role for both women and men of working age i.e. age group of 15-59 by stabilizing their incomes in the event of unemployment, disability, sickness and maternity and by ensuring that they have at



least a basic level of income security. While the labour market serves as the primary sources of income among the working age population, it enhances the smoothing income and better living for the people. According to ILO estimated 2.3 percent of the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) has been allocated for the social security scheme, special expenditure for women and men to ensuring income security among the working age group.

Migration is the third factor contributing to population change other than birth and death. It is considered as one of the important global issues in the early twenty first century. Historically, migration has underpinned with economic growth and nation building and has enriched the cultures. People started to migrate since earlier period, for various reasons like in search of food, to escape from natural calamities or threats or enemies, or to seek adventure. Human migration takes place owing to lack of social and economic opportunities at the place where one resides. Hence, people start moving to those centers where they can fulfil their needs and overcome the miseries. Migration from one area to another in search of an improved standard of living is a key feature of society. Migration today has become a universal phenomenon in modern times. It has contributed significantly to the process of urbanization, industrialization, population growth, economic development, cultural diffusion and social integration (Joshi, 1989). It is an essential component of economic development, social change and political organization. It has inextricable linkage with other important global issues like development, poverty and human rights and is often termed as most entrepreneurial and dynamic phenomenon of the contemporary society. Apart from that, some migrants are exploited in terms of human rights violations and abuses, the integration of migrants at destination can be very different whereas at origin countries migrants can be deprived of important skills due to movement of people (Khalid, 2007). Migration should be acknowledged as an integral part of development. And it can be noted that cities are important destinations for migrants. Further, it has its role and contribution to India's GDP, which would not be possible without migration and migrant workers (Bhagat, 2005). It has been estimated by UN that there were 150 million migrants. Now the number of migrants has grown to 214 million and figure could rise to 405 million by 2050 (IOM, 2010). Migration in India is predominantly limited to short distances, with around two-thirds of migrants changing their residence within the district of enumeration, and over one-fifth within

the state of enumeration, with the remaining moving across state boundaries. Significant proportions of women migrate over short distances, mainly due to marriage that has already been found in the empirical studies (Srivastva, 2005)

Odisha is one of the poorest states of India. Most of the people of Odisha depend on agriculture for their livelihood. The economy of Odisha is predominantly agricultural and the performance in this sector is crucial to the development of the state. The prevalence of small farmer having small sized land holding, seasonal unemployment, the non application of modern technology in agriculture in Odisha had forced the people to migrate in search of alternative source of livelihood. People of the rural area migrate to urban areas within and outside their district and also to the neighbouring state (Pradhan, 2015).

According to the 2011 census, the total population of Odisha is 41 million, out of which 22 percent are Scheduled Tribes, and 16 percent belongs to the Scheduled Caste community. It is considered as one of the poorest states in India. and has a low rank in the development index (SRRA, 2010). According to the BPL survey in 1997, it is found that about 47 percent of the people are below poverty line, the Tendulkar committee also revealed same result on BPL survey in Odisha (NITI Ayaog, 2004-05). It is being witnessed from the 2001 census that Odisha is the key state in sending migrants, about 9, 37,148 inter-state migration. According to Ajivika (2014) there was 2.5 million people migrate from Odisha to other states every year, in which 45 percent of migrants are from coastal regions, southern western and northern districts account for 55 percent (Ajivika, 2014). As per the UNDP human development reports, 0.9 million of the Odiya migrants are found in Surat, the district of Gujarat, which is considered as the power loom industry hub in India, and gradually move to other new urban cities such as Hyderabad, Chennai, Kochi, Thrunanathpuram, Vijayawada. Another report of civil society organisation found that 0.4 million people are from Kalahandi, Bolangir, and Koraput (KBK) including Rayagada, Nabarangpur, Nuapada and Malkanagiri regions of Odisha (Ajivika, 2014). These districts are home of the different tribal people, and the nature of migration here is mostly distress migration or debt induced migration but it has gradually changed due advancement of better transport and communication. The migration in the state varies from the rural to rural, rural to urban, and inter-state migration (Reddy et al.,2017). The inter-state and inter-district migrations constitute the largest portion of labour migration. NSSO survey

conducted as the part of the 55<sup>th</sup> round, found that migration in Odisha is about 10.4 percent of the total population, out of which women migrants constitute 7 percent, followed by 14 percent men, while the all India figure shows 12 percent both men and women. Further, 64<sup>th</sup> round NSSO report shows that Odisha share in migration was 18.2 percent which is a rise of 7.8 percent from the earlier NSSO round, while the national figure was 29 percent. The NSSO data clearly indicate the increasing inter-state migration trend in Odisha (Ajivika, 2014).

There is major chunk of migration from the Koshala region of Odisha usually during the non-agriculture season but frequent drought, unemployment and poverty is now forcing the people of this region to migrate throughout the year. There is also evidence of increasing migration from the coastal region of Odisha but the nature of migration differs from that of the Koshala region. The migrants from the coastal region are generally economically better-off and educated and they migrate to others states mainly in search of a better livelihood. The migrants from Koshala region are mainly poor and illiterate; they migrate to work as casual labourers in the unorganised sectors such as construction sites, brick kilns, rickshaw puller, textiles etc., in Chhattisgarh, Andhra Pradesh, Gujarat, Maharashtra and West Bengal (Narasimham 2004 in Pradhan et al., 2004).

Migration from the state of Odisha is an outcome of various factors like the repeated natural disasters that strike regularly: cyclone, floods, drought and famines that hit the region at different times in different regions. The coastal region is prone to tropical cyclone; flood, whereas the western part and the southern parts of the state are repeatedly affected by the drought and famines. Above all, these problems create a vacuum in livelihood for marginalised people. Natural disasters like flood, tropical cyclone and drought creates problems like poverty, landlessness, flood and drought creates crops failure, lower level of production in paddy cultivation. In this case, indebtedness, non availability of wage work in villages, and alternative livelihood prompts migration. Migration is the survival strategy for the people of Odisha. For the alternative source of livelihood migration becomes their first choice. The migration and the poverty are closely related to the alternative way of livelihood for the marginalised people, where specially working age population of the family play a vital role to arrange a better option for livelihood.

Migration in Odisha is mostly considered as ‘*Dadan*’. The term ‘*Dadan*’ in Odiya refers to migrant unskilled labour. It works through a proper channel known as ‘*Dadan system*’ migrant workers recruited through a system of advance by various agencies or middle men or Brokers (Ajivika, 2014). It has been in practice since British periods. People from tribal and rural Odisha were often recruited by petty labour contractors or middle men, *Thikadar* and subsequently taken to the various parts of India, such as tea garden in Assam, coffee estate in Karnataka and Kerala, construction sites and brick kiln industries (Bates and Carter, 1998; Ajivika, 2014). In order to address above mentioned problems, the study has been attempted to comprehend the social security and migration among the tribal population of Rayagada district, Odisha.

Odisha witnesses large scale inter-district migration in the western part where low level of development and arid climatic conditions pushes the people to migrate to nearest districts. The majority of the migrants belong to the Scheduled Caste (SC), Scheduled Tribes (ST), and other backward Class (OBC). They consist of the landless and poor having low level assets, or lower level of skills and education. It often traps them into the vicious circle of poverty and debt cycles. Odisha is characterized by its poverty stricken tribal areas, with the increasing movement of young women from rural to urban centres in search of work. The ‘push’ factor is responsible for such migration. Migrations of the tribal population from Jharkhand, Odisha, Madhya Pradesh, and Chhattisgarh have been taking place since last three centuries (Jha, 2005; Kumari, 2015). The studies by society for Regional Research and Analysis observed that tribal migrants from tribal regions of Jharkhand, Odisha, Madhya Pradesh, and Chhattisgarh have been taking place since last three centuries. It means during the British regime people were also migrated for various reasons mostly for employment (SRRA, 2010). According to the ILO convention No.143 which is concerning migrations in abusive conditions and the promotion of equality of opportunity and treatment of migrant workers. This convention was famous for the protection of the rights of all migrant workers and member of their families adopted in the year 1990 (IOM, 2009)

### **1.5: Historical Evolution of Social Security: An Indian Context**

The social security is the basic tool for the protection through provision of benefits in terms of cash or kind to secure protection for the individuals, lack of work related

income or insufficient income caused by sickness, disability, maternity benefits, employment, unemployment, injury, old age or sudden death of earning member of family. The term is associated with many aspects of all-round improvement of individual in socio-economic and political terms. To address such issues of the individual, many European countries had taken initiative to improvement of the individual welfare. Among all the countries in the world, Germany was the first country to introduce social security scheme in the year 1883. It basically covered particular members of society such as black smith, painter, weaver etc. Money for this fund was used for food, lodging, hospital, and funeral expenses of aged and disabled members. Whereas in USA Social Security Act came into existence in 1935, subsequently other developing and developed nation has adopted the welfare state model to promote better and healthy living for the people.

In the developing countries like India there is need of social security to tackle various issues like unemployment, poverty, distress migration, urbanisation, old age, sickness and disability. After independence, India adopted new constitutional provision for the all around development of people, part IV of the Indian constitution deals with the Directive Principles of State Policy, which directs the state to promote the welfare of individual and society. In this provision, Article-41 deals with the right to work for each and every household and to educate and provide public assistance in certain cases. State shall, within the limits of its economic capacity and development, make effective provision for securing the right to work, to education and public assistance in cases of unemployment, old age, sickness and disability. The Article-42 deals with the provision for just and humane condition of work and maternity relief.

The seventh schedule of Indian constitution defines the power sharing of central and state government. The respective power of the state and the centre are mentioned in the state list, union list, and the shared responsibilities are mentioned in the concurrent list. In the union list, centre has exclusive powers to make any law with respect to any of the matters falling under 100 lists, and these covers very few items related to social protection such as regulation of labour in mines and oilfields and inter-state migration. While state can also exclusive powers to make any laws with respect to state under the 66 items of state lists. The state has also mentioned some items which relates to social security which includes public health, sanitation and hospitals, secondly relief to disables and unemployed member. In concurrent list, both central and state

government can make laws with respect to any of the matters enumerated in the lists. This list is consisting of 52 items related to social security such as homelessness and migratory tribes, economic and social planning, social insurance, employment and unemployment. It also includes important aspects related to welfare of labour including condition of work, provident funds, employer's liability, workers compensation including condition of work provident funds, invalidity and old age pension, maternity benefits, employment and unemployment are included (Basu, 2013). The above mentioned aspects are partially covered in the organised sectors, while there is no such policy related to unorganised sectors or informal sectors bearing all welfare facilities for the people who are engaged in this sector. It can be concluding that there is sharp distinction between organised and unorganised sectors; perhaps unorganised sector contributes almost 50 percent of national income (Sirja and Shirke, 2012). Migrants are the main component of unorganised sectors where they are employed in certain enterprises like mines, brick kiln, construction, fishing, plantation, and agriculture labour. Today social security is a socio-economic demand of every group/society irrespective of its caste, creed, colour, religion and sex. It seeks to compensate for underserved wants, disabilities, inequalities and deprivation of the established socio-economic order. It offers the underprivileged the dignity, self-confidence, belief in just society and new means for moral, social, and material betterment (Skiligar, 2002).

Social security can be regarded as an offspring of socio-economic justice. Kenneth E. Boulding, an economist, describes social justice as 'social minimum'. Economic development or social evolution must ensure 'social minimum'. He believed that development and evolution are self-defeating if they violate the sense of social justice. According to David Miller has discussed three aspects of justice (a) to each according to his right, (b) to each according to his desire, and (c) to each according to his needs. The concept of social justice is the manifestation of the principle of synthesis of the given three aspects of justice. The concept of social justice in relation to social security speaks of compromise between equity and social adequacy within a system of social security. Individual equity and adequacy are bound to be competing objectives. The concept of economic justice is concomitant with the concept of social justice. They are inseparable and one cannot exist without the other. This point has also been stressed by the ILO in its Philadelphia Declaration in 1944. This declaration provided

‘poverty anywhere constitutes danger prosperity everywhere’. These words reflect the concern regarding poverty whether it is due to unemployment of men, machine or material resources or for want of protection of vulnerable sections of any society from natural occupation or social risks. So, social justice always demands that social security can no longer be delayed for economic development. Therefore, social justice expressed through social security legislation with its effective implementation makes economic and social development for the betterment of individuals.

In India, social security scheme has a very long history since independence. The essential breakthrough in social security legislation began with adoption of Indian constitution on 26<sup>th</sup> January 1950 as republic of India. There are 12 parts of Indian constitution which discusses every aspect of Individual rights, duties as well as state for better development of society. Out 12 parts of Indian constitution, part-IV deals with social security schemes which emphasis the states responsibility towards individual development and society. With the reference to social security scheme, the part IV of Indian constitution article 36 to 51 deals with Directive Principle of State Policy (DPSP). The main objective of DPSP is to provide the socio-economic justice and public assistance in case of unemployment, old age, sickness and disabled people etc. for the all-round development of Individual as well as society (Basu, 2002). In order to understand the historical context of social security schemes, it is important to know the DPSP and its function by the state. The DPSP has deals with the series of articles i.e. 36 to 51 which are briefly discuss here;

Article 36 deals with the contextualisation of define the state which has discuss in the Part III of the Indian constitution, whereas Article-37 emphasis that part-IV is not enforceable by any court but it is fundamental principal of state to provide welfare measures to the poor and marginal section of people. According to 42<sup>nd</sup> Indian constitutional amendment of act, 1976 has replacement of article numbers for which certain principles of policy to be followed by the state.

**Article 38(2)**<sup>1</sup> categorically states that the state shall strive to minimize the inequalities of income, eliminate the status, facilities and opportunities, not only in the individual but also among community.

---

<sup>1</sup> Substitute by the Constitution 42<sup>nd</sup> amendment Act, 1976, section 7 (w.e.f, 03-01-1977)

**Article 39(e)** states that state shall in particular, direct its policies towards securing that the health and strength of workers, men and women and the under age children are not abused.

**Article 39(f)** directs particular policies towards securing for children opportunities and facilities to develop in a healthy manner, and also protected against the exploitation.

**Article 41** says that state shall within its limits of economic capacity and development will make effective provision for securing right to work, education and to public assistance in case of unemployment, old age, sickness, disablement or any other case of undeserved want.

**Article 42** provides that state shall make provisions for securing just and humane conditions for work and maternity benefit.

**Article 46** says that state shall promote with special care the educational and economic interests of the weaker sections of the people in particular the scheduled caste and Scheduled tribes to protect them from social injustice and all forms of exploitation.

**Article 47** says that the state shall regard the raising of the level of nutrition and standard of living of its people and improvement of public health.

These provisions in the constitution are intended to secure social security in order to establish a new social order in which citizens are assured socio-economic justice. In fact most of these Articles in the Indian constitution blend social security with public welfare so as to benefit each and every section of the society.

The articulation of social security in the Directive Principle of State Policy has been noted by Granvile Austin who observed that the state has to safeguard the interest of ‘individual worker’ ensuring that ‘suitable legislation’ should secure them living wage, healthy conditions, limited hours of labour and protections from the economic consequences of old age, sickness and unemployment’ women and children were also to be protected in various ways and accorded various benefits.”



The federal structure of Indian constitution, distribute the power between state and central government for legislative action on social security benefits. It has provided broad guideline and policy objectives for enacting legislation in order to evolving a sound structure of social security incorporating the social justice and human values in lucid manner. In addition the constitution also envisaged a 'welfare state'. It means the state must promote programmes and schemes of social security for betterment of individual.

To implement the ideas in the Directive Principle of State Policy, the central as well as state government are empowered to enact legislation in relation to labour as embodied in the concurrent list of the seventh schedule to the Indian constitution.<sup>2</sup> The entry 23 of this list deals with social security and social insurance, employment and unemployment. Again entry 24 of this deals with welfare of labour. Consequently various social security legislations like ESI Act 1948 (Employees State Insurance), The Employees Provident Fund Act 1952, Maternity Benefit Act 1961 and Gratuity Act 1972 which are widely essential of social security system in India(Sikligar, 2002). There are various amendment made from time to time to make these measures more effective and to make them a social reality.

Some state government have also institutionalized to provide protection of social assistance to the old age, sick and disabled citizens. The need for institutionalized social security has arisen mainly as a result of industrialization, urbanization and migration. The state bears the primary responsibility for developing appropriate system for providing protection to deprived section of people. It helps to create more positive attitude to challenge migration, globalization and technological changes. For the positive changes, the state government in collaboration with central government implements a number of social security schemes for the scheduled tribe people to receive direct benefits. Because the tribals are living in distant geographical areas, and are economically vulnerable category, they do not have substantial source of income and are mainly dependent on agriculture. It is duty of the state government to provide better service to the tribal people according to the constitution. India has the second largest tribal population in the world next only to the African countries and they

---

<sup>2</sup> According to Article-246 of Indian constitution deals with Seventh schedule which discusses the legislative power between centre and state government. The seventh schedule of Indian constitution is consisting of three lists such as Union list, state list and concurrent list.

constitute 7.76 percent of the total population of the country (Census, 2011). The STs differ considerably from others on account of language, culture and beliefs and also in their myths and customs.

The tribal inhabited areas constitute a significant part of the underdeveloped areas of the country. They are mostly living in isolated villages or hamlets. Now a smaller proportion of their population has settled in permanent villages as well as towns or cities. There are about 705 tribal communities including 75 Particularly Vulnerable Tribal Groups (PVTGs)<sup>3</sup> living in India, Out of 75 PVTGs, highest number are found in the Odisha i.e. 13 followed by Andhra Pradesh around 12. They are still primitive and excluded communities who are far from the impact of modern civilization (Singh, 2001).

According to 2011 Census, the population of Schedules Tribe (ST) is 104.3 million constituting 8.6 percent of the total population of the country. There are 75 districts in the country which has more than 50 percent Scheduled Tribe (ST) concentration and in terms of villages there are 90,189 villages with more than 50 percent Scheduled Tribe (ST) concentration. While around 90 percent of STs live in rural areas, only 10 percent live in urban areas (Census, 2011; SRRA, 2010). In the 1961 census ST population was 3.01 crore constituting about 6.9 percent of total population and now this has reached to 10.43 crore i.e. 8.6 percent in 2011. The decadal population growth of the tribal's from 2001 to 2011 census has been 23.66 percent against 17.69 percent of the entire population of India. Where 91 percent of the STs are based in rural areas and the sex ratio among STs is 978 compared to national total average of 933 females per 1000 males (Census, 2011).

Social security measures can be divided into two broad categories i.e. promotional and protective. Promotional social security includes the provision of education, health, nutrition on the one hand and assets including housing and employment on the other. Protective social security comprises mainly provision of social insurance and social assistance together they are expected under various schemes in the form of sense of security and contribute towards human development.

---

<sup>3</sup> Anthropological Survey of India first identified the Particularly Vulnerable Tribal Groups (PVTGs) on the basis of their distinctive features such as Traditional ways of agriculture technology, steadily declining the population, very low level of literacy and subsistence level of economy. Among the 75 listed groups highest number of PVTGs is found in Odisha i.e.13 tribal communities followed by Andhra Pradesh 11 groups.

## **1.6: Understanding Social Security and Tribal Migration**

This section discusses about the social security and tribal migration in India in general and Odisha in particular. Since independence of India, there is social security legislation for labours in the formal sector. But informal labour social security legislation is not feasible or in active execution at ground level.

### **1.6(1): Migration**

Migration is the third factor of change in the population other than birth and death factor. It is considered as one of the significant global issues of the early 21<sup>st</sup> century. According to ILO definition, “Human migration is physical movement by human being from one area to another, some times over long distance or in large groups. The movement of population in modern times has continued in the form of both voluntary migration within one’s region, country, or beyond, involuntary migration (ILO, 1975). The United Nations (UN) convention on the rights of migrants defines, the term ‘migrant worker’ refers to a person who is to be engaged, is engaged or has been engaged in a remunerated activity in a state of which he or she is not national (UN, 1990). The United Nation’s multilingual demographic dictionary 1958 defines ‘migration as a form of spatial mobility between one geographical unit and another involving a permanent change of residence’ (UN, 1995). United Nation defines migration as a “move from one defining areas to another, usually crossing administrative boundaries made during a given migration interval and involving a change of residence” (UN, 1993).

### **1.6(2): Migration Scenario in India**

Migration for variety of reason is an age old practice but it is increasing at a faster pace over last decades. India has seen a high migration rate in recent years. According to 2011 census estimates that 314 million of the population were migrants in India. There were 67.4 million female migrants and 34.8 million male migrants. However, a majority 42.2 million of female migrants had not migrated for work and had cited marriage as the main reason of for the change in residence (Planning Commission Report, 2010). In India, for the male migrants the most important reasons for migration are work or employment. Around 12.3 million male have been found to migrate for employment. The rural to rural migration is still dominant which is

accounts for 53.3 million, and rural to urban migration was 20.5 million. Interstate migration has grown by 53.6 per cent. The total number of inter-state migration is 42.3 million where Uttar Pradesh and Bihar contribute the highest rate of out migration. The number of migrants has increased 22 percent during the 1991-2001 (Planning Commission Report, 2010).

**Table-1.2 Number of Migrants over the Decades in India**

Decades	Migrants (Millions)
1951-61	66.0
1961-71	68.2
1971-81	81.0
1981-91	80.9
1991-01	307.0
2001-11	314.0

Sources: NITI Ayaog, Former Planning Commission Report, 2010, Government of India

Table-1.2 shows the absolute number of migrants over the decades since after the India's independence. According to census of India defines a migrant is person who has changed his/her residence from one geographical area to another area with intention of permanently or semi-permanently setting at the new place (Registrar General of India). In India census has identified migrants by two ways process such as place of birth and place of last residence. Since the 1971 Census, data is being collected on the basis of place of last residence in addition to the question on birth place (Census of India). The mentioned table-1.2 indicates gradually increasing the number of migrants in every decade since after independence. After economic liberalisation in 1990s with free market economy, there is free flow of labour, goods and services, advancement of transport and communication. It also found that the there were new urban centre came up with good shape. The number has increased more than four times i.e. 307 million. Mostly people are migrated from rural-rural, rural-urban and urban-urban migration occurs during this period. It has been found that the rural to urban migration has increased extensively due to the attraction towards the urban living condition. Thus it can be considered that people are migrating because of a combination of both push and pull factors. There are many reasons of push factors as well as pull factors such as lack of employment, acute poverty, food insecurity, indebtedness, fragmentation of land holding and declining public investment in agriculture create a crisis for rural areas, while urban areas better

wage and more employment opportunities in the small and large scale industrial development in urban area attract people to migrate urban areas which offers a better prospects for job (Harris and Todaro, 1970).

**Table-1.3 Distribution of Out-Migration across the various States**

State/UTs	Out-Migrants			Out-Migration Rate			Proportion of Out-Migration to total Out-Migration		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Jammu & Kashmir	218714	442315	661029	5.17	10.9	7.97	0.52	0.59	0.57
Himachal Pradesh	602603	1006231	1608834	19.69	31.8	25.84	1.43	1.35	1.38
Punjab	659781	1696747	2356528	5.24	15.07	9.88	1.57	2.28	2.02
Chandigarh	13959	21993	35952	3.03	5.55	4.19	0.03	0.03	0.03
Uttarakhand	615291	769868	1385159	13.93	18.37	16.9	1.46	1.03	1.19
Haryana	540667	3147992	3688659	4.63	31.01	16.9	1.28	4.23	3.17
Delhi	31946	271302	303248	0.44	4.6	2.3	0.08	0.36	0.26
Rajasthan	2817593	6508280	9325875	9.44	23.04	16.06	6.69	8.75	8.01
Uttar Pradesh	9040182	14639970	23680152	10.21	17.77	13.86	21.48	19.68	20.33
Bihar	4061616	2289040	6350656	10.36	6.3	8.41	9.65	3.08	5.45
Sikkim	20979	24055	45034	7.77	9.7	8.69	0.05	0.03	0.26
Arunachal Pradesh	27606	9383	36989	4.86	1.86	3.44	0.07	0.01	0.03
Nagaland	30178	35376	65554	6.08	7.54	6.79	0.07	0.05	0.06
Manipur	49414	20705	70119	4.76	2.13	3.49	0.12	0.03	0.06
Mizoram	22087	17451	39538	4.97	4.02	4.5	0.05	0.02	0.03
Tripura	64859	55073	119932	3.73	3.21	3.47	0.15	0.07	0.1
Meghalaya	38832	21287	60119	3.29	1.88	2.6	0.09	0.03	0.05
Assam	564064	571809	1135873	4.23	4.9	4.54	1.34	0.77	0.98
West Bengal	2513129	6590906	9104035	6.22	17.31	11.6	5.97	8.86	7.82
Jharkhand	713701	357661	1071362	5.63	3.01	4.35	1.7	0.48	0.92
Odisha	1930397	1926323	3856720	10.69	10.52	10.61	4.59	2.59	3.31
Chhattisgarh	512152	1064643	1576795	4.33	9.54	6.86	1.22	1.43	1.35
Madhya Pradesh	1158061	3831204	4989265	3.65	13.32	8.25	2.75	5.15	4.28
Gujarat	1278620	4035139	5315759	4.89	17.3	10.74	3.04	5.42	4.56
Daman & Diu	3305	3909	7214	3.77	6.83	4.98	0.01	0.01	0.01
Dadra & Nagar Haveli	2040	4259	6299	1.68	5.05	3.06	0.01	0.01	0.01
Maharashtra	3522223	8953407	12475630	7.17	19.6	13.16	8.37	12.03	10.71
Andhra Pradesh	3293677	5730624	9024301	8.8	15.13	11.99	7.83	7.7	7.75
Karnataka	1653831	3010885	4664716	6.66	12.48	9.53	3.93	4.05	4.01
Goa	31708	26368	58076	4.53	3.55	4.02	0.08	0.04	0.05
Lakshadweep	5410	2789	8199	17.89	9.1	13.28	0.01	0	0.01
Kerala	3251463	4519964	7771427	22.91	28.85	26.02	7.73	6.08	6.67
Tamil Nadu	2742741	2759259	5502000	9.11	8.8	8.95	6.52	3.71	4.72
Pondicherry	33510	10095	43605	7.84	2.46	5.21	0.08	0.01	0.04
A& N Islands	18927	22854	41781	10.48	14.62	12.4	0.04	0.03	0.04
Total	42085266	74399166	116484432	8.12	15.15	11.54	100	100	100

Sources: Unit level NSSO Data, 64<sup>th</sup> Round, 2007-08, Government of India

Table-1.3 represents the migrants' out-migration across the various states including union territories of India. This data has extracted from the NSSO 64<sup>th</sup> round data during 2007-08, the proportions of distribution between male and female migrants in

India. It shows that Kerala has represents highest male out-migration rate of around 22.91 percent followed by Himachal Pradesh 19.69 percent considered to be second states in the Indian states with high rate of male out-migration. The proportion of male out-migration in the states like Madhya Pradesh, Chhattisgarh, Assam, Tripura, Meghalaya etc around less than 3 percent male out-migration, it shows the low rate of male out-migration. While in Union territories like Delhi, Chandigarh, Pondicherry, Daman and Diu shows having lower rate male out-migration. However, the proportion of out-migrants to the total out-migrants of India is very for Uttar Pradesh which accounts 21 percent followed by Maharashtra 8.4 percent, Andhra Pradesh 7.83 percent, while the proportion of out-migration to the total out-migration in Odisha is 4.60 percent but the total male out-migration rate is 10.70 percent as selected for present study. Whereas, female out-migration rate across the state shows that around 31.80 percent female out-migration from Himachal Pradesh, which is considered as highest among all states followed by Haryana 31.01 percent and Kerala 28.85 percent. In terms female out-migration at lower end shows that states such as Arunachal Pradesh around 1.86 percent followed by Meghalaya 1.88 percent. But there is also found that different number in terms of percentage share by each states and Union Territories. Again Uttar Pradesh shows the largest number of out-migration across the states, followed by Maharashtra, West Bengal, Andhra Pradesh contribute largest number of out-migration due to the larger population staying in these states, while the small states and Union territories such as Meghalaya, Manipur, Mizoram, Nagaland, Sikkim, Lakshadweep, Daman and Diu, Andaman and Nicobar having low level of share of female out-migration because it is obvious that very small number of population these sates. The studies on overview of migration in India and its impact by Srivastva and Sasikumar suggests that in developing countries like India there is shift of population and workforce together with the circular movement of populations between the developed region to under developed region as well as sharp distinction between rural and urban areas. These people mostly from under developed regions engaged in the unorganised sector of the economy in the developed region or urban area (Srivastav and Sasikumar, 2003).

**Table-1.4 Distributions of Migrants by Reason for Migration in India**

<b>Reasons</b>	<b>Male</b>	<b>Female</b>	<b>Total</b>
Employment	78.83	2.41	29.96
Business	2.31	0.06	0.87
Studies/Higher Studies	8.01	2.45	4.78
Natural Disaster	0.03	0.00	0.01
Social and Political Conflict	0.14	0.09	0.11
Displaced by development Project	0.02	0.02	0.02
Acquisition of own Houses	0.60	0.12	0.29
Health Care	0.09	0.03	0.05
Housing Problems	0.70	0.17	0.36
Marriage	1.32	84.54	54.54
Migration of Parents/ Earning Member of Family	7.37	9.12	8.49
Others	1.95	1.04	1.37
<b>Total</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>

Sources: Unit level NSSO Data, 64<sup>th</sup> Round, 2007-08, Government of India

Table-1.4 shows the distribution of out-migrants by their reason of migration at national level; this data has derived from the NSSO 64<sup>th</sup> round during 2007-08. The above mentioned reasons are responsible for the both pull and push factor of migration in India. The national level data reveals that total 54.54 percent both male and female are migrating for marriage; it is very higher among the female migrants. Thus in India marriage is considered as one of the important reason of migration. In case of male out-migrants in all India level shows that around 79 percent migrates for employment related reason which is higher proportion among the all reason, mostly male members are migrating for better livelihood and employment purpose. In all India level, the male out-migration for studies shows around 8 percent, while proportion of female out-migration is 2.45 percent for study purpose. In case of earning member of family is also one of the reason of migration, it shows the around 8.50 percent people migrating due this reason only. The rest of the reasons are very few proportion of rate migration in term of both male and female. Thus it can be concluded that most of people are migration for better employment reason only, it is one of pre-dominant reason for migration.

**Table-1.5 Distribution of Migrants by Social Category in India**

55 <sup>th</sup> Round(1999-2000)		Rural		Urban	
Social Groups	Male	Female	Male	Female	
ST	5.6	35.7	28.2	41.1	
SC	6.4	43.4	22.5	39.3	
OBC	6.5	42.3	23.7	41.7	
Others	8.1	44.3	27.6	42.6	
64 <sup>th</sup> Round(2007-08)					
ST	4.7	44.00	28.8	43.00	
SC	4.9	48.2	23.5	44.7	
OBC	5.1	46.8	23.00	43.7	
Others	6.8	50.6	29.00	47.7	

Sources: Unit level Data, NSSO 55<sup>th</sup> and 64<sup>th</sup> round, 1999-00, 2007-08, Government of India

Table-1.5 depicts the distribution of migrants by social group conducted by National Sample Survey (NSS) 55<sup>th</sup> and 64<sup>th</sup> round. According to the survey the social group is consisting of four categories i.e. Scheduled Tribe, Scheduled Caste, Other Backward Class and other (others includes general caste groups). The data shows that proportion of migrants in rural areas was the lowest among Scheduled Tribe (ST) i.e. 24 percent and it was highest among the social group named ‘others’ i.e. 28 percent. In urban areas, the proportion of migrant was lowest among OBC approximately 33 percent and it was highest among the social groups ‘others’ i.e. 38 percent. In both rural as well as urban areas male migration was far lower than the female migration rate. In rural areas, male and female migration rates were lowest among the Scheduled Tribes i.e. 5 percent for males and 44 percent for females. In urban areas the male migration rate was highest among the Scheduled Tribe i.e. 29 percent. As compared to other social group in the 55<sup>th</sup> round, ST’s migration rate is the lowest while it is the same case in the 64<sup>th</sup> round also except among the males in urban areas. While comparing both rounds of NSSO i.e. 55<sup>th</sup> and 64<sup>th</sup> round, it has been clearly seen that proportion of ST male in rural areas has increased by 1 percent from 28 to 29 percent. Female migration rate in urban areas has increased from 35 percent to 44 percent while female migration rate in urban areas has increased from 41 percent to 43 percent.

### **1.6(3): Tribal Migration in India**

The tribal migration in India is not a new phenomenon; in fact it started during colonial period. In early 19<sup>th</sup> century, rural to rural migration was found in various parts of colonial India; tribal migrants were used as labour in major industrial centres



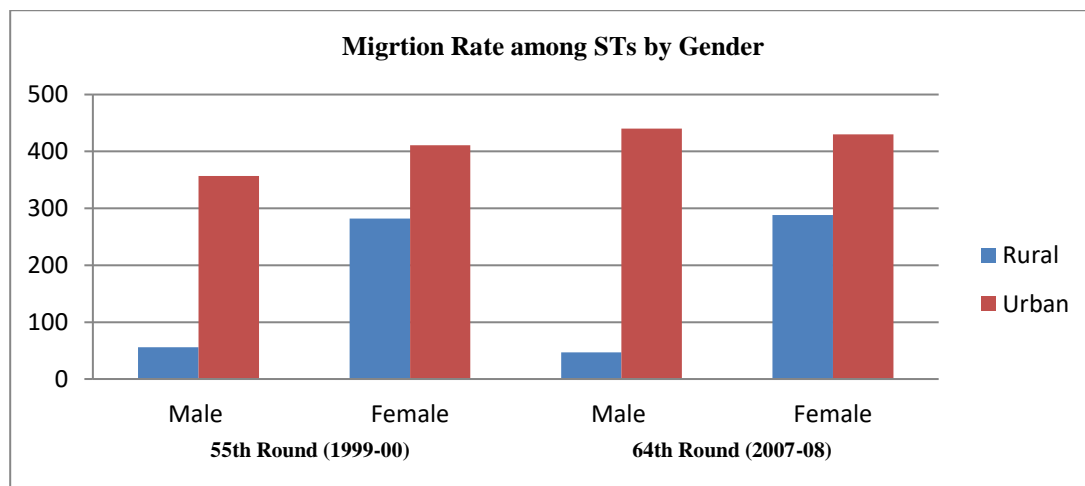
such as Calcutta and Bombay (Gyan Prakesh, et al, 1992). The rapid loss of tribal lands due to the expansion of railways, road and industrialisation led to the collapse of economies based on shifting modes of cultivation. These became important factors of tribal migration during British rule in India. The studies of Omvedt and Mohapatra found that preference was given to hiring the tribals or aboriginal coolies by the Assamese planters in various tea estates in Assam (Bates and Carter, 1992). There was widespread use of tribal migrants as agricultural labour throughout the year by the British. It also found that even after the grant of property rights and the reservation of forests in the 1860s to aboriginal people, there was continuation of rural-rural migration. The Bates study point out that during the colonial time, Narmada valley became a great exporter of wheat and the migrants were coming from the adjacent districts of Betul, Chindwara, Seoni and Mandla. These migrants were known as *Chaitharas* who constituted the major work force at harvesting time (Bates, 1988). Similarly Kerr's study finds that large numbers of tribals were employed in the construction of railways; it has been estimated that about 16,000 to 57,000 tribals were employed per day for building of the great Indian peninsula railway (Kerr, 1983). According to Nand's study on agriculture labour in Western India finds that many labourer were bound to work under the land lords throughout the year, they were known as '*Saldar*' even they denied to basic necessity of life such as food and cloth which ultimately affected on their health conditions. After working whole year, in return they were getting very less payment in advance again they need work again for land lord (Nand, 1987).

Earlier social scientists have studied indigenous migration from the political and cultural perspective in order to understand changes in market integration and how such changes affected indigenous populations in terms of their health, knowledge, preservation and hunting and land clearance practice (Godoy, 2001). Many theories concerning indigenous people relate to their rural to urban migration. Early studies showed that migration was a matter of individual choice and undertaken mainly due to desire to increase income by seeking employment opportunities in urban areas (Todaro, 1969). In the era of globalisation new economics of labour migration, population mobility is seen as a set of risk-diversification strategies (Stark and Bloom 1985). Young and Doohan argue that migration models are not applicable to the study of indigenous people's mobility because economic importance is a major predictor of

mobility. Migration models exclude circular patterns of mobility; often it is most common form of mobility among the indigenous population (Young and Doohan, 1990). The mobility patterns of indigenous populations are fundamentally a product of changing relationship between indigenous cultures and the nation states, also an inherent assumption of migration is that people only move to increase their income (Taylor and Bell, 2004).

Migration was important for indigenous people even before development policies were put into effect, but has been overlooked by migration theories. Studies of aspects of indigenous people’s mobility are important because their mobility is not only linked to survival, but also to traditional mobility practices, kinship, and culture (Hamilton, 1987). The indigenous population’s mobility reflects the setting within which people live, a specific culture situation described as a culture of mobility to maintain relationship between places, cultures and kinships (Young and Doohan, 1990). The Soliga’s tribe in Karnataka is another important example of tribal migration and gendered practices among Soliga. The Soliga’s are indigenous tribal people living in forests and famous for being ‘people of bamboo’. In earlier times, they harvested forest products and engaged in hunting and shifting cultivation (Venkatesh and Veena, 2014).

**Figure-1.1: Migration Rate among STs by Gender, 1999-00 and 2007-08**



Sources: Unit level data, NSSO 55<sup>th</sup> and 64<sup>th</sup> round, 1999-00, 2007-08, Government of India

Figure-1 depicts the rate of Scheduled Tribe migration in NSS 55<sup>th</sup> and 64<sup>th</sup> round. It shows both rural and urban migration among male and female, in 55<sup>th</sup> round rate of

rural migration is less than urban migration. While in rural areas the female migration rate is increasing due to marriage, it is the only reason for their increasing rate of rural migration among the female. In urban areas also, the female migration is higher than the male migration. According to Anada's (1996) findings, patterns and problems of migration of tribal women worker says that the migration among the tribals has been confined almost exclusively to meet the need of their own subsistence. Tribal women are physically hard worker and they contribute to economic activities. So they migrate for manual as well domestic work as compared to the non-tribal women. Jha (2005) finds that there is increasing the level of migration among the tribal young women and girls from the poverty stricken district of Odisha. The study also found that there is increasing trends of tribal migration from remote of area of Odisha to various urban city centres like Delhi, Noida, Faridabad and Gudgaon and often they faced exploitation interms of mental and physical by the agent or employer (Jha, 2005). During the colonial period tribal single women and girls migrated to the rural areas of Bihar and West Bengal mainly to work as agriculture labourer. They were also forced to work in plantation areas such as tea garden in Assam but after post reform period single women and girls began migrating to bigger cities such as Mumbai, Delhi, Kolkata, and Chennai in search of employment (Bates and Carter, 1998). Among tribal communities in Khordha and Sundargarh district of Odisha a micro level analysis of gendered migration shows that the single girls, young women migrated from Sundargarh to Khordha in search of employment (Panda et al., 2014). It also finds out the major reason for migration among the women and girls in tribal areas. Economic necessity is the main push factor for female migration. It clearly shows that the rate of female migration to Delhi and other cities is increasing for better life and independent higher income. The study also finds that young girls aged 14-20 years aspire to live in urban areas where they can earn money and experience a sense of freedom. The push factors are mainly low levels of agriculture production, ineffective government programme, dysfunctional homes, increasing alcoholism among fathers and associated abusive behaviour and limited opportunity for young girls to acquire skills or income to fulfil their aspiration (Panda et al, 2014).

When India was under the British rule the practice of shifting cultivation was made illegal and pressure was placed on indigenous people to end the traditional practice (Ramesh and Guntipilly, 1997). The post-independence forest laws did not benefit

indigenous people. The government of India passed law banning shifting cultivation in order to protect forest resources (Gadgil and Guha, 1992). Most of India's forests were declared reserve forests. It was illegal to cultivate land in such forests and they were declared reserve forest. It was illegal to cultivate land in such forests or to collect timber from them. Indigenous people were displaced from their traditional lands to settlements where they could not continue with their traditional occupations, habitat and livelihood (Walter and Paranjpye, 1997). The compensation and rehabilitation provided to indigenous people did not benefit them to improve their economic and social status, rather their marginalization increased.

Most of the indigenous communities in India have ceased their nomadic ways of life in the forests and mountains and have settled in permanent settlements. It is difficult for indigenous people to acquire full-time wage work close to their settlements. Instead they have to travel long distance which affects both men's and women's mobility. Increased infrastructure and market facilities provide employment opportunities for tribal people and consequently traditional forms of land use and livelihood have changed (Deshingkar and Farrington 2009). In many research studies, the tribal population in India is focused on migration and seasonal migration as large number of tribal people migrated to more prosperous rural and urban areas for employment opportunities (Deshingkar and Start, 2003). The better infrastructure and communication facilities have led to increased migration to urban centres and social cultivation structure has changed.

The mobility among the tribals in India is increasing and it is also visible with the changing livelihood pattern in the communities among the tribals in original habitats. Outward migration of tribal population from economically backward states like Chhattisgarh, Jharkhand, Odisha, and Madhya Pradesh has been taking place since the last three centuries. During the 18<sup>th</sup> and 19<sup>th</sup> century, the British forced the tribal labours to move into the tea plantation areas such as tea gardens in Assam. It has been witnessed that between 1950 and 1980, Indian tribals migrated to the agriculturally prosperous rural areas of Bihar and West Bengal primarily for working as agricultural labourers. However, from 1980 onwards they started migrating to bigger cities in search of employment (Bates and Carter 1998; Jha 2005). In many urban areas the tribal labour force is involved into various fields such as the mining, industries and construction sites. They not only work as manual labour or semi-skilled labours but

also as labourers in agriculturally prosperous rural areas, where they tend to settle permanently in clustered settlements on land given to them by their employers. The global increase in demand for domestic labour is a major dimension of feminization of migration (Agrawal, 2006). In India, employers prefer to employ tribal women for certain types of work. For example, in metropolitan cities such as Delhi, there is a demand for young tribal girls to work as domestic workers for urban families. More than 60 percent of tribal women in the cities were employed as domestic help, 34 percent worked as wage labours and the remaining 6 percent had private job (Society for Regional Research and Analysis, 2010). Tribal migration in India needs to be understood within the large framework of development practices and economic policies of the country and structures of inequality, exclusion social and cultural practices that characterize the broader context of the tribal communities (Panda et al., 2014).

The current model of development in India is perceived as the state allying with private corporations to dispossess local communities of their livelihoods. This situation is a paradox that counter poses growth against development (Bhaduri, 2007). Changing economic structures and policies within the format of neo-liberalist policies has been leading to more informalisation and casualisation form of market to the marginal section of people.

Despite laws to protect the tribals in India they are socially and economically disadvantaged. Their exclusion is manifested in several aspects like the lack of access of agriculture land, land titles, exploitation in the informal sector, indebtedness and land alienation. The socio-economic and political situation of tribal communities can be best conceptualized by examining the causes of poverty and deprivation (Panda et al., 2014). According to Amartya Sen, to be excluded from common facilities or benefits that others have can certainly be a significant handicap that impoverishes the lives that an individual enjoy. He outlines diverse ways in which social exclusion can cause deprivation and poverty, through inequality and relational poverty, labour market exclusions, credit market exclusion, social exclusion from health care and food market (Sen, 2004). Sen's approach towards understanding exclusion resonates with tribal situation in India as general and Odisha in particular as tribals are most marginalized and vulnerable groups compared with other sections of communities (Sen, 2004).

Generally, tribal society is largely egalitarian and both tribal women and men have equal share and contribution in the household and economic activities. It has often been found that the socio-economic profile of tribals is low as compared to other sections of people. Tribals are engaged in various occupations like hunting and gathering of forest product, shifting cultivation, lack of arable land leads to the poor agriculture income by the tribals. They suffer from taboos and superstitions which remain deprived of the benefits from the existing development and welfare programmes. Most of the natural resources are located in tribal areas. Tribals are being alienated from their land and forest due to the ongoing deforestation, hydro-electric power generation, industrial growth and mining activities. The natural resources are being exploited in a way that leads to a process of gradual displacement and denying the basic right of livelihood to the STs. The massive investment in the construction of dams, power plants and industries and mining create wealth to the nation and employment opportunity to various people but all this is hardly of any benefit to the tribals rather it leads to their social and culture deprivation, land alienation, destruction of environment and displacements which is often without any rehabilitation (SRAA, 2010). The neo-liberal policies, in the context of development project, have brought state into dubious mode, the state Odisha is not the exception of it. The development project always leads to displacement of human settlement. There displacement is a common phenomenon which has affected excess of common people across the world (Jaysawal and Saha, 2016). There are various mega development projects carried by different multinational companies in Odisha such Hirakud Dam Projects, Jindal Project in Kalinga Nagar, POSCO in Jagatsingpur, Vedanta and UAIL project in Rayagada district. Displacement caused by development project has had negative social consequences on land based economy and low employment flexibility together with strongly rooted social stratification (Jaysawal and Saha, 2016; Termenski, 2013). Displacement from the original habitations often means not only the physical relocation and the loss of livelihood derived from the subsistence resources offered by the local environment but also suffering from the traumatic psychological and socio-cultural consequences (Jaysawal and Saha, 2016; Swain, 2014). It is estimated that some 3 to 5 million people have been displaced since 1950 in Odisha because of various development projects, of which more than 50 per cent are tribals (Jaysawal and Saha, 2016; Haan and Dubey, 2005). The tribal livelihood has affected due the mega development projects and they were forced to migrate to

different place in search livelihood and employment. Above all, the current study area has also faced the same problems due to presence of Vedanta and UAIL. After long protest by the indigenous people in Niyamgiri area the company unable to cancel his mining from tribal area. The Utkal Alumina Industries Ltd. (UAIL) is also function in this area too, it plans to mine bauxite and refine to alumina. It is expected that high quality bauxite reserve lasting for 50 years and 8 million tons of ore will be mined out annually. The most of local indigenous people are displaced due land encroachment by the company and people have lost their daily livelihood and employment.

#### **1.6(4): Tribal Migration in Odisha**

Odisha has the third largest concentration of tribal population in the country, home of 62 tribal communities and 13 Particular Vulnerable Tribal Groups.<sup>4</sup> About 23 percent of total population of Odisha is tribal. Tribal population in Odisha is 9.59 million which comprises of 23 per cent of the total population of the state and about 9.7 per cent of the tribal population of the country (Census, 2011). Among the various tribals in Odisha, Khond is the majority population contributing about 17.1 percent followed by Santal, Gond, Kolha, Sarora, Sabar Munda, Oraon, Bhattada and Bhatta. Scheduled Tribe households are about 1.8 million and 94.5 percent of them are rural based (MoTA, 2015). About 44.7 per cent of the state's geographical area has been declared as scheduled area which covers 12 districts (Odisha Economic Survey, 2017). The tribal communities of Odisha are concentrated mostly in the Southern and Northern part of the state such as Koraput, Rayagada, Nuapada Kalahandi, Bolangir, Gajapati are the southern district of Odisha, Sundargarh, and Balasore Kendujhar Mayurbhanja are the northern districts. In Odisha tribals are at various stages of socio-economic development, they are staying in relatively isolated and inhabited remote hill regions with their core culture intact and have little contact with the mainstream population. The majority of tribal households are largely impoverished, displaced, unemployed and distress migration with little access of agriculture land (Panda et al 2014). Traditionally all the tribal groups are engaged in the burning or *podu* cultivation<sup>5</sup>, their

---

<sup>4</sup> The Anthropological survey of India defines particular vulnerable tribal groups have distinct feature such as pre-agricultural level of technology, secondly gradually declining population, low level of literacy and economically backward. They considered to be most vulnerable among the tribal population of the country.

<sup>5</sup> It is form of cultivation mainly practiced by hill tribals across the country and also an essential form of self-subsistence of Tribals.

prime occupation, and gathering in the forest for different kind of agriculture production (Ota and Mohanty, 2010).

The literacy rate among the STs in Odisha is 52.2 percent against the national level literacy rate among the ST is 58.96 percent, where the male and female literacy rates are 63.7 percent and 41.2 percent respectively (Census, 2011). The Census of 2011 defines the work participation rate as the percentage of total workers such as main and marginal worker. About 55.6 percent are main workers and remaining 44.4 percent are marginal workers. Cultivators account for 33.4 per cent of total worker, whereas agriculture labours constitute 46.8 per cent and workers engaged in household industries constitute about 4.8 per cent of the total workers. Most of the cultivators among the STs are small and marginal farmers (Census, 2011). It has experienced impact of the neoliberal policies in a variety of ways (Government of India, 2011). The government of Odisha has opened doors to the private sector to access the resources. It is rich in natural resources like minerals, forest, land and water. Generally tribals adopt a combination of livelihoods for their survival and sustenance engaging in cultivation and wage labour close to their habitats, they work in distant place at varying distance from their homes. It is estimated that about 75 percent of the tribal population in Odisha are living below poverty line in rural areas i.e. below Rs. 28.35 per day for urban areas and Rs. 22.42 for rural areas (Planning Commission, 2012). The situation of Kalahandi, Bolangir, and Koraput (KBK) region is even worse with approximately 87 percent of the tribals living in below poverty lines.

Table-1.6 represents the out-migrants from Odisha to various states and Union territories of India. In case of male out-migration, Gujarat constitute the highest percentage of out-migration from Odisha which accounts 20.31 percent followed by West Bengal 17.8 percent Maharashtra 13.46, Chhattisgarh 11.6 percent and Andhra Pradesh 8.63 percent. The reason might be higher propensity of increasing out-migration in Gujarat is due the rail and transport communication better from Odisha to Gujarat. According to the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) human development reports, 0.9 million of the Odiya migrants are found in Surat, one the district of Gujarat, which is considered as the power loom industry hub of India, where people are getting easy jobs in the power loom industries. It also considered being mini Odisha because the largest concentration of Odiya people in the Surat district of Gujarat (Ajivika Report, 2014).



**Table-1.6 Number of Out-Migrants from Odisha to Various States**

State/UTs	Out-Migrants			Proportion of Out-Migration to Total Out-Migration		
	Person	Male	Female	Persons	Male	Female
Jammu & Kashmir	4833	3571	1262	0.5	0.73	0.26
Himachal Pradesh	3943	3165	778	0.41	0.65	0.16
Punjab	10802	6374	4428	1.12	1.31	0.93
Chandigarh	1657	928	729	0.17	0.19	0.15
Uttarakhand	4979	2393	2586	0.52	0.49	0.54
Haryana	11435	7103	4332	1.19	1.46	0.91
Delhi	40636	25181	15455	4.21	5.17	3.24
Rajasthan	9843	5618	4225	1.02	1.15	0.89
Uttar Pradesh	21113	8688	12425	2.19	1.78	2.61
Bihar	42215	5533	36682	4.38	1.14	7.69
Sikkim	378	272	106	0.04	0.06	0.02
Arunachal Pradesh	3493	2433	1060	0.36	0.5	0.22
Nagaland	1630	1012	618	0.17	0.21	0.13
Manipur	129	81	48	0.01	0.02	0.01
Mizoram	136	98	38	0.01	0.02	0.01
Tripura	595	327	258	0.06	0.07	0.05
Meghalaya	544	327	217	0.06	0.07	0.05
Assam	8106	4708	3398	0.84	0.97	0.71
West Bengal	16094 2	86783	74159	0.84	16.69	15.6
Jharkhand	82615	22906	59709	8.57	4.7	12.52
Chhattisgarh	17661 5	56627	119988	18.32	11.62	25.16
Madhya Pradesh	17756	9221	8535	1.84	1.89	1.79
Gujarat	12223 1	98938	23293	12.68	20.31	4.88
Daman & Diu	2227	1975	252	0.23	0.41	0.05
Dadra & Nagar Haveli	2217	1935	282	0.23	0.41	0.06
Maharashtra	97387	65593	31794	10.1	13.46	6.67
Andhra Pradesh	10375 6	42033	61723	10.76	8.63	12.94
Karnataka	16840	12812	4028	1.75	2.63	0.84
Goa	2542	1890	652	0.26	0.39	0.14
Kerala	3327	2328	999	0.35	0.48	0.21
Tamil Nadu	6532	4571	1961	0.68	0.94	0.41
Pondicherry	1083	731	352	0.11	0.15	0.07
Andaman & Nicobar Island	1636	1053	583	0.17	0.22	0.12
Total	96418 3	48722 5	476958	100	100	100

Sources: Census of India, 2001

There is also some Industrial towns in the Gujarat like Bhaba Nagar, Jamnagar, Ahmadabad, Rajkot are prominent industrial hub of Gujarat and gradually migrating to the other part of Gujarat. In case male out-migration, West Bengal accounts 16.70 percent male migrants from Odisha which is second highest across the state and Union territories. People are migrating to West Bengal because the largest number Jute industries as well as existence of small and medium scale industries Kolkata is main attraction to migrate. It is also sharing boundaries with Odisha and easy communication facilities. While in case of Maharashtra, one of the developed states of India and receives the third highest proportion of male out-migration from Odisha i.e. 13.46 percent. Whereas 11.6 percent of male out-migration to Chhattisgarh and Andhra Pradesh 8.6 percent. They migrate to brick kilns, construction sites and iron smelting companies in Vishakhapatnam, Vijayawada districts of Andhra Pradesh, while people migrate to Raipur the capital city of Chhattisgarh for Rickshaw pulling, working in ration shop and manual labor (Pruseth, 2008). During the post-independence i.e. 1950-80s period indigenous people migrated to agriculturally prosperous rural areas Bihar and West Bengal primarily to work as agricultural labourers. However after 1980s the era of economic reform tribals started migrating to bigger cities such Delhi, Mumbai, Kolkata etc. in search of employment and livelihood (Bates and Carter 1998; Jha, 2005).

Table-1.6 also indicates the flow of female out-migration from Odisha to various states of India and Union territories. The largest of female out-migration from Odisha to Chhattisgarh accounts 25 percent followed by West Bengal 15.6 percent, Andhra Pradesh 13 percent and Jharkhand accounts 12.52 percent. These states are sharing boundaries of Odisha and also considered as neighbouring states. The main reason for the highest proportion of out-migration is might be marriage as factor of migration. Besides these, it also indicates considerable percentage of female out-migration from Odisha to the states and Union territories like Maharashtra accounts 6.67 percent, Gujarat 4.48 percent, and Delhi 3.24 percent. The Kumari's study on tribal women migrant as domestic worker in Mumbai point out, most of tribals women from tribal dominated states like Jharkhand, Odisha, and Chhattisgarh witnessing the large scale migration to the urban cities like Mumbai, Delhi and Kolkata as domestic worker and they are coming through the various means such as recruitment agency, religious institution, friend and relatives. But they are easily engaged in the unorganised sectors

for their employment (Kumari, 2105, p. 84). According to Society for Regional Research and Analysis report (2010) indicates more than 60 percent of tribal women in the urban cities were employed as domestic helper, and 34 percent worked as wage labour and the remaining 6 percent had private jobs.

**Table-1.7 Region-wise Out-Migration Rate by Gender in Odisha**

Region	Coastal		Southern		Northern	
	Out-Migration	Rate	Out-Migration	Rate	Out-Migration	Rate
<b>Rural</b>						
Male	952633	17.25	448651	8.25	341550	7.53
Female	728669	12.48	542816	9.85	426249	9.43
Total	1681302	14.80	991467	9.05	767799	8.48
<b>Urban</b>						
Male	96060	7.96	43513	7.23	47991	6.37
Female	60013	5.18	92170	16.77	76406	10.52
Total	156073	6.60	135683	11.78	124397	8.41
<b>Rural &amp; Urban</b>						
Male	1048693	15.58	492164	8.14	389541	7.31
Female	788682	11.27	634986	10.48	502655	9.58
Total	1837375	13.39	1127150	9.31	892196	8.47

Sources: Unit level Data NSSO, 64<sup>th</sup> Round Migration, 2007-08, Government of India

Table-1.7 depicts the distribution of migration across the region by rural and urban area. According to NSSO 64<sup>th</sup> round data, Odisha region has been divided into three parts such as coastal, southern and northern. Among the region-wise the rate of out-migration is greater in coastal region around 13.40 percent, followed by the southern region 9.31 percent and the northern region around 8.47 percent. In case of rural out-migration again coastal region shows the higher proportion of out-migration rather than southern and northern region.

The highest percentage, around 47.60, of migration happens from coastal regions due to the employment or education purpose, it is also found that the frequent occurrence of natural disaster such as tropical cyclone, flood and drought are pushing them for migration. Whereas in urban area southern region has the higher out-migration rate around 11.80 percent followed by 6.60 in coastal and northern region 8.41 percent. The reason behind the increasing the urban out-migration in southern region is largest proportion of tribal population living in this area, the district under this region include Ganjam, Gajapati, Rayagada, Koraput, Kalahandi, Nabarangapur, and Malkangiri.

These districts are the sharing boundary between Andhra Pradesh and Chhattisgarh, where urban areas in southern region have close proximity with new urban towns Andhra Pradesh and Chhattisgarh such as Vishakhapatnam, Vijayawada, Hyderabad, Raipur and Bilaspur.

**Table-1.8 Out-Migration Rate by Social Categories in Odisha**

Social Category	Male	Female	Total
ST	5.24	8.26	6.75
SC	9.21	9.52	9.36
OBC	13.01	11.46	12.22
Others	14.07	12.23	13.15
Total	10.69	10.52	10.61

Sources: Unit level Data, NSSO 64<sup>th</sup> Round Migration, 2007-08, Government of India

Table-1.9 indicates the out-migration rate in Odisha by their social category. According to the NSSO social category is divided into four categories such as ST, SC, OBC, and others including general caste and upper caste. It shows the (OBC) Other Backward Classes and other castes have the greater propensity to out-migration in comparison to the Scheduled Tribes and Scheduled Castes in Odisha. The STs are least likely to migrate, because they are mostly socio-economically vulnerable people and also isolated from the main stream society they could not afford to migrate or better social network. The reason for the higher rate of migration among the OBCs and Other caste might be that their social and economic condition usually better than the lower caste, so they can afford to migrate anywhere to find better opportunities. In case of male and female out-migration among the social group in SCs and STs the female migration is higher than the males. The reason for increasing the female migration is mostly tribal young women and girls migrating to metro cities like Delhi, Mumbai, and Kolkata as domestic labour by various placement agencies (Jha, 2005 and Kumari, 2015). In case of OBCs and Other castes out-migration rate is greater among the males in comparison to the females. Thus migration phenomenon is very complex subject to understand in developing countries like India, which has multiple dimensions and varies from one social category to another (Korra in Rajan, 2011). The empirical studies show that the lower castes specially SCs and STs have greater intensity to migrate than the higher caste category (Khan, 1986; Mahapatra, 1998; Ranjan and Mishra). It might be true that the lower caste groups such as SCs and STs are more vulnerable section of people having multiple dimension of poverty, food

insecurity and social exclusion (Sen, 2004), so there is greater chance of migration among the SCs and STs for better livelihood and employment.

**Table-1.9 Gender-wise Out-migration Rate by Different Religious Group in Odisha**

Religion	Male	Female	Total
Hindu	10.6	10.29	10.44
Islam	14.68	14.75	14.71
Christians	11.64	18.48	15.10
Others	0.00	18.64	9.89
Total	10.53	10.53	10.61

Sources: Unit level Data, NSSO 64<sup>th</sup> Round Migration, 2007-08, Government of India

Table-1.10 represents the distribution of gender-wise out-migration rate in Odisha by their religion. According NSSO 64<sup>th</sup> round survey, major religion of Odisha is divided into four categories such as Hindu, Islam, Christians and Others including Buddhist, Jainism and Parsi. Table-1.10 indicates the total out-migration is higher among the Christians around 15.10 percent, including both male and female, where the male Christian constitute around 11.64 and female Christians is around 18.48. Across the religious group, Christian religion shows the higher rate of out-migration. In case Christian religion, female out-migration rate is higher in comparison to other religious group. The reason behind the higher out-migration among female Christian is education, employment and missionary activities. In case of Islam out-migration rate is 14.71 percent including both male and female, where male out-migration is 14.68 percent followed by female 14.75 percent. It shows that out-migration rate is similar in case of male and female in Islam religion. In case of Hindu religion total out-migration both male and female is around 10.44 percent, where male out-migration is 10.06 percent and female 10.29 percent. Although, it is true that majority of population follow the Hinduism but the proportion to out-migration is very low across the religious group. Whereas, the proportion of Christianity follower is very small in Odisha but the proportion of out-migration is very higher among all religious group. In Odisha, majority Christians are Schedule tribe people which constitute 22.85 percent of total population (Census, 2011). It means the Schedule tribe people are migrating for employment and other purpose. In case of other religious groups which includes Buddhism, Jainism and Parsi contribute only 9.8 percent with regards to all religious groups. Thus the across all religion in Odisha, no doubt the majority of

population are belongs to Hindu around 93.6 percent followed by Christian 2.77 percent and Muslim 2.17 percent (Census, 2011).

**Table-1.10 Distribution of Educational Status of Out-Migrants in Odisha**

Literacy/Educational Status	Percentage
Not literate	38.36
Below Primary	19.10
Primary	14.05
Upper Primary/Middle	17.77
Secondary	5.95
Higher Secondary and above	2.99
Total	100

Sources: Unit level Data NSSO, 64<sup>th</sup> Round Migration, 2007-08, Government of India

Table-1.11 represents the educational status of out-migrants in Odisha. The educational status of migrants classified into the five categories such as not literate, below primary, upper primary or middle, secondary and higher secondary or above. Table-1.11 shows that greater proportion of migrants is coming under the illiterate category i.e. 38.3 percent and migrants having some kind of primary and lower primary education has increase while higher level of education has steadily declines in the case of higher level of education of migrants around 3 percent. The higher secondary and above education level is employed in the service sector such as hospitality, tourism and call centre. Now it has witnessed that there is new trend migration among the higher secondary or above education level recruited under the various skill development programmes initiate by the government of India for promoting employment through such programme. The migrants who are coming under illiterate categories mostly work as manual labourer, construction labour because they have low level of education or little education. These migrants may or may not facilitate for well paid jobs (Mishra et al., 2008). Therefore, it is interesting fact that illiterate or primary levels of education migrants are mostly the vulnerable section of people specially STs, and SCs. In order to survive they continues to migrate for employment and livelihood to major urban city centres. The low level of education or no education is a major challenge for migrants who are coming from the rural areas to urban for better employment and livelihood (Kumari, 2015).

**Table-1.11 Distributions of Out-Migrants by Reason for Migration in Odisha**

<b>Reasons</b>	<b>Male</b>	<b>Female</b>	<b>Total</b>
Employment	85.09	2.93	44.00
Business	1.51	0.13	0.82
Studies	5.53	4.31	4.92
Natural Disaster	--	--	--
Social and Political Conflict	--	--	--
Displaced by development Project	--	--	--
Acquisition of own Houses	0.03	0.04	0.04
Health Care	--	0.12	0.3
Housing Problems	0.42	0.18	0.06
Marriage	0.63	78.27	39.45
Migration of Parents/ Earning Member of Family	5.63	12.44	9.04
Others	1.17	1.58	1.37
Total	100	100	100

Sources: Unit level Data, NSSO 64<sup>th</sup> Round Migration, 2007-08, Government of India

Table-1.11 shows the distribution of out-migrants by their reason of migration at state level i.e. Odisha, this data has derived from the NSSO 64<sup>th</sup> round during 2007-08. The above mentioned reasons are responsible for the both pull and push factor of migration in Odisha. The state level data reveals that total 44 percent both male and female are migrated for employment as the main reason of migration and considered to be higher across the gender. While only male out-migration accounts 85 percent for employment related reason which is higher proportion among all reason. Mostly male members are migrating for better livelihood and employment purpose. In case of female only 3 percent migrating for employment related reason. The reason behind the higher proportion of male out-migration for employment reason is considered as the patriarchal or male headed society, they are suppose to be the solo bread owner of the family and subsequently they are migrating for better employment and income to feed their family, whereas female members suppose to take care of family and involve other domestic works in the household. It might be the one of the reason lower proportion female out-migration for employment. Now the trend has changed due to the dynamic of urbanisation, both male and female are migrating for better employment and income. The studies by Kumari on tribal migrant women as domestic workers in Mumbai pointed out that there are women and young girls migrate to urban cities like Mumbai, Delhi and Kolkata through the different means such as placement agencies, religious institution and with the help friends and relatives (Kumari, 2015).

Whereas for study reason both male and female out-migration account 5 percent, while male percent is 5.53 percent and 4.3 percent among female. Marriage is the most important and most dominate reason for female out-migration, the percentage of female out-migrants due to marriage is around 78 percent in Odisha, while all India percentage is 85. In case of earning member of family is also one of the reason of migration, it shows the around 9 percent people migrating including both male and female proportion. The rest of the reason of migrations is very few proportion of rate migration in term of both male and female. Thus it can be concluded that most of people are migration for better employment reason only, it is one of pre-dominate reason for out-migration in Odisha as well India.

**Table-1.12 Rate of Rural Seasonal Migration in Odisha by Social Category**

Social Category	Percentage
ST	40.83
SC	23.58
OBC	23.49
Others	12.11

Sources: Unit level Data, NSSO 64<sup>th</sup> Round Migration, 2007-08, Government of India

Table-1.12 shows the rural seasonal migration by the social group in Odisha. Across the entire social category, about 41 percent of STs are rural seasonal migrants which is the highest among the entire social groups. The main reason for the STs seasonal migration is that the resources are limited among this marginalised group and the frequent drought situation is also another reason of seasonal migration. It is estimated that 1.5 million tribal in Odisha have been displaced due to major irrigation, mining, industrial and conservation projects (Kumar, 2006). As far as displacement and mining is concerned, the area under study is worst affected, there is large scale mining such as Vedanta, Utkal Alumina and JK paper and also tribal land acquisition by the multinational companies. Besides displacement, land acquisition and regular droughts occur due to the uncertain monsoon and frequent tropical cyclones are typical example to force the tribals to migrate (Panda et al, 2014). The empirical literature has found that, during the 18<sup>th</sup> and 19<sup>th</sup> century the British forced the tribal labour into the tea plantation areas such as tea garden in Assam. In the post-independence period 1950-80s, Indian tribals migrated to the agriculturally prosperous rural areas Bihar and West Bengal primarily working as agricultural labourers. However, after economic reforms



in 1980s onwards they started migrating to bigger cities in search of better employment and livelihood (Bates and Carter 1998; Jha 2005). Empirical studies also found that seasonal migration among the tribal is more due to the lack of regular employment after harvesting, even in the studies by Agrawal, the global increase in demand for domestic labour is a major dimension of feminization of migration (Agrawal, 2006). In India, employers prefer to employ tribal women for certain types of work for example in metropolitan cities such as Delhi, there is a demand for young tribal girls to work as domestic workers for urban families. More than 60 percent of tribal women in the cities were employed as domestic help, 34 percent worked as wage labours and the remaining 6 percent had private job (Society for Regional Research and Analysis, 2010). In the SCs category rural seasonal migration is about 23.58 percent, and 23.40 percent from the OBC category. So it is an alarming situation for the scheduled tribe people and a question of livelihood.

**Table-1.13 Top Shares of Destination States of Rural Out-migration from Odisha**

States	Percentage
Chhattisgarh	30.06
Andhra Pradesh	23.42
Uttar Pradesh	17.42
West Bengal	10.97
Kerala	5.05
Punjab	3.66
Maharashtra	2.66
Jharkhand	1.55
Rajasthan	1.3
Goa	1.25
Karnataka	1.22
Tamil Nadu	1.19
Pondicherry	1.11
Total	100

Sources: Unit level Data, NSSO 64<sup>th</sup> Round Migration, 2007-08, Government of India

Table-1.13 represents the share of destination state of rural out-migration from Odisha. Here Chhattisgarh share the highest out-migration from Odisha which is about 30.06 percent due to better transport and communication with the state and also sharing of the boundary with Odisha. So it is very easy for the people of Odisha to move in search of employment and livelihood. Chhattisgarh is the hub of iron and steel industries and other small and medium scale industries. According to the 2011

census of India, Raipur is one of the newly growing urban centres. The empirical studies found that most of the casual labour from Odisha is coming to Chhattisgarh as rickshaw puller and earth digger. The second highest out-migration is with Andhra Pradesh which is about 21.42 percent. In Andhra Pradesh, twin city like Hyderabad and Secunderabad has various large and small scale industries where lot of people are engaged in these sectors for employment. The reason behind choosing Andhra Pradesh is better transport and communication facilities, proximity with southern region of Odisha where the state shares boundary with the Andhra Pradesh. The culture and language is also similar in southern part of Odisha with Andhra Pradesh. So it is comfortable for them to communicate with Telugu speaking people. Uttar Pradesh is also one of the important destinations for the people of Odisha and occupies third position in terms of share of migrants. As per the census survey, Uttar Pradesh has new emerging cities or urban centre such as Noida, Ghaziabad, Kanpur, Agra and Lucknow and there are prominent industrial hubs for the skilled and unskilled labours. It is in the north part of India and cheap transport and communication facilities help people to migrate easily. There is frequency of rail transport between Uttar Pradesh and Odisha, which makes Uttar Pradesh as one of the preferred place of destination for migration. West Bengal is one of neighbouring states of Odisha. It has been found that, after harvesting most people do not get any employment in their local areas. So they intend to migrate to these short distance areas. The proximity between these states is very short and better transport facilities enable out-migration. Other states like Kerala, Punjab and Maharashtra also show significant number of out migration shares with them. The employment opportunities in these states are ample.

The increasing out migration from rural areas is one of the major problems in India. There is a need to reduce the rural out-migration. It has been opined by various scholars like Jean Dreze, Khera and Sen that employment as well as livelihood schemes should be implemented at grass roots level which can result in reduction of rural out-migration. The poor and land less people would be able to get employment opportunity and necessary livelihood in their own areas. Hence they might not opt to migrate out for better employment opportunity in urban areas. There are some employment schemes and livelihood schemes which are designed to reduce migration

as well poverty in the grass root levels. The following schemes are discussed briefly here for understanding the study more elaborately.

### **Various Schemes and Social Security as Key Development Agenda in Post 2015 Period**

The current development agenda is the progress towards the achievement of Sustainable Development Goals (SDG) to recover from unemployment, acute poverty, food insecurity and slow growth rate. It is core element of labour rights, for those who are working in the formal and informal sectors of economy. It can protect the rights of labours through right based legislation. The effective right based legislation on social security is important to provide income and livelihood security. It also reduces poverty and inequality in the society which can help strengthen social harmony and establishing peace (ILO, 2014). Social security is also economic necessity to increase household consumption and income. Adequate social security enhances economy productivity and human development of a country in proper manner (ILO, 2014).

For the present research, four government schemes have been selected for study to examine the various aspects of employment, livelihood and food security in tribal households in the chosen study in Rayagada district of Odisha. In these four schemes two are provided by central government and other two are provided by state government. These schemes have different aspects of social security or protection to the marginal or poor people in order to reduce the poverty, unemployment, food insecurity and migration in the study area. The social security schemes are special designed to address the ground level issues like for employment to rural people MGNREGA schemes has introduced, for food security in rural areas Targeted Public Distribution, livelihood promotion OTELP schemes were started at tribal areas and sustainable livelihood in the form micro credit.

#### **1.7: Social Security Schemes**

In this section briefly discuss about the various social security schemes provided by both central and state government, which are designed to address the enhancement better livelihood, employment and food security to the study area.

### **1.7(1): Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Scheme (MGNREGS)**

Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (MGNREGA) is a statute aiming to achieve the enhancement of livelihood security of the rural households in India; it was started as the National Rural Employment Guarantee Scheme (NREGS) during the period of United Progressive Alliance (UPA) government in the year 2005 as pilot project. It was first implemented in Rajasthan on experimental basis and later it has been extended to the rest of India. In the initial period it was started in 200 backward districts of India. The NREGS scheme subsumes both Swomprna Garmin Rozgar Yojana (SGRY) and Food for Work (FFW). On 2nd October 2009 the Government of India renamed the scheme, and furnished it with a legal substratum by enacting the Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act. It provides for, at least one hundred days of guaranteed wage employment in every financial year to rural households, whose adult members volunteer to engage in unskilled manual work.

#### **Goals of MGNREGS**

It provides strong social net for the vulnerable groups by providing guarantee of employment, and its major objective is to enhance the livelihood security of people in rural area by guaranteeing 100 days of wage employment in a financial year to a rural household whose members volunteer to do manual work. In 2014 the government has implemented 150 days for the tribal areas. Under the forest right act 2006, they will be eligible for additional 50 days of wage employment in the tribal areas which is Maoist activity affected. Apart from the main goals there are also the specific goals of the programme given below-

- ❖ Creation of durable assets at village level and strengthen the livelihood resources base of the rural poor.
- ❖ Empowerment of rural women by providing opportunity to earn independent income.
- ❖ To act as a growth engine for sustainable development of an agricultural economy.
- ❖ Promotion of inclusive growth.

- ❖ To initiate new ways of doing business, as a model of Governance reform anchored on the principles of transparency and grass root democracy.

The above peculiar objectives of schemes can successfully address the employment and livelihood issues of the people at village level. This is unique programme for generating the employment opportunity in the local areas.

### **1.7(2): Public Distribution System (PDS)**

The Public Distribution System (PDS) is one of the most important medium through which government aims at tackling food insecurity at micro level i.e. household level. PDS makes available fixed quotas of food grains through the ration shops at subsidised price. PDS in India is perhaps the largest food grain distribution network programme in the world. Over the time period PDS is slowly and gradually expanding throughout the country. The PDS was started in the early 1950s after independence in order to protect the poor against food grain scarcity and also to maintain stability of food prices in the whole country. The main objective of this scheme is to provide food and non-food grains and other essential commodities at subsidized or reasonable price to the poor people in the society. It provides six essential commodities like rice, wheat, sugar, edible oils, kerosene and soft coke. In Rayagada, the Targeted Public Distribution System (TPDS) was implemented in the year 1997 after declaration of separate district by the Government of Odisha as its function till now. As per the instruction of Government, all the Below Poverty Line (BPL) families of urban as well as rural area were getting 25 KGs. of rice per month at the rate of Rupees.1.

The Odisha state civil supplies corporation with the support of civil supplies staff is implementing the PDS schemes in the districts. The monitoring agency at the district level is Civil Supply Officer (CSO) whereas, Block Development Officer (BDO) is the nodal officer of each Gram Panchayat to distribute the food grains to each Gram panchayat.

### **Functions of PDS**

The consumers have widely been conveyed to receive their stock on 5, 6 and 7<sup>th</sup> of every month. Soon after the dispatch of the stock for the Rice Receiving Centre (RRC) to any retails center, a message is being sent to all concerned such as BDO or PRI member to every retail center. There is also cross check at the arrived and to

suspension of the distribution. There is a nodal officer for strict monitoring or regular checking of ration card to eliminate the bogus entry. The Panchayat Extension Officer (PEO) of GP can very well detect the irregularity as they get to know who the actual card holder is.

As per the OPDS control order 2008 and OPDS control amendment to upgrade, smooth function and corruption free of PDS, the Justice Wadhawa commission visited Odisha to know the ground realities and issues related to PDS. The computerization of PDS system, biometric based ration card, has targeted to prevent bogus entry and black market which was another remarkable step by the government of India to bring reforms in PDS system. About 84 per cent of poor households have been enrolled in this scheme. The government, food supplies and consumer welfare department, provides 78,000 M.T rice to the district civil supply consumer forums. In the study area, there are 66,314 card holders including BPL, APL, Annapurna and Antodaya Anna Yojana. The fair price shops are operational in three blocks namely Bissamcuttack, Kalyansinghpur and Kashipur. The total numbers of fair price shops are 122 in study area which indicates an average performance of PDS in the district. The Kerosene oil is also distributed in this scheme, 22 sub-wholesalers have been appointed by the collector and they are lifting Superior Kerosene Oil (SKO) from the wholesales to supply the stock to the retailers. In each month a stock of 804 Kilo litre is allotted to the Rayagada district. As per the Government instruction 4 litre of kerosene oil is being supplied to the consumer of rural and urban households per card at the rate of subsidised price.

### **1.7(3): Odisha Tribal Empowerment and Livelihood Programme (OTELP)**

The relevance of poverty alleviation and livelihood promotion programme has been significant in Indian society for uplifting the marginalized section of people. The OTELP programme was started in the year 2004, on 2nd October, supported by International Fund for Agriculture Development (IFAD), Department for International Development (DFID) and World Food Programme (WFP), Government of India and Odisha. It intends to provide livelihood through promoting a more efficient use of resource among tribals. Initially it was started in 30 community development blocks of 7 districts namely Koraput, Kandhamal, Kalahandi, Gajapati, Rayagada, Nabrangpur, and Malkangiri in three phases. In the first phase, 10 blocks of 4 districts

was chosen for the implementation i.e. Koraput, Kandhamal, Kalahandi and Gajapati, Later in 2009 OTELP was started in Rayagada district. Now, it has covered 176 villages in five blocks where researcher is going to conduct the study namely Kashipur, Bishamakatak and Kalyansinghpur. In Bishamakatak block there are 42 villages coming under the OTELP and in Kashipur only 14 villages are covered. The total number of ST household is 5649 where the male population is 12,066 and female population 12,116 respectively. The programme was initiated in three phases over the year, inception up to one year, and pilot basis of study 1 to 3 year.

### **Goals of OTELP**

It aims at improving tribal livelihood security for poor household by promoting efficient, self-managed and sustainable exploration with conservation of natural resources for the development of non-farm enterprises.

#### **1.7(4): Odisha Livelihood Mission (OLM)**

After merge of SGRY programme Odisha government has decided to start a new scheme with different name, so in the year 2006 government of Odisha formed a society named Odisha Poverty Reduction Mission (OPRM) to implement various poverty reduction programmes in the state, which was reconstituted and renamed as Odisha livelihood Mission, an autonomous body. This programme was started in the year 2011 under the stewardship of ministry of rural development with World Bank as an aided partner. It has targeted 7 crore poor households in 600 district all over India through self-managed self-help group (SHG). The main objective of this programme is creating efficient institutional platform of rural poor enabling them to increase household income through sustainable livelihood enhancement and improved access to financial services. In 2011, government of Odisha launched the livelihood programme in Rayagada district. Now it functions in 11 blocks of Rayagada district.

### **1.8: Objectives**

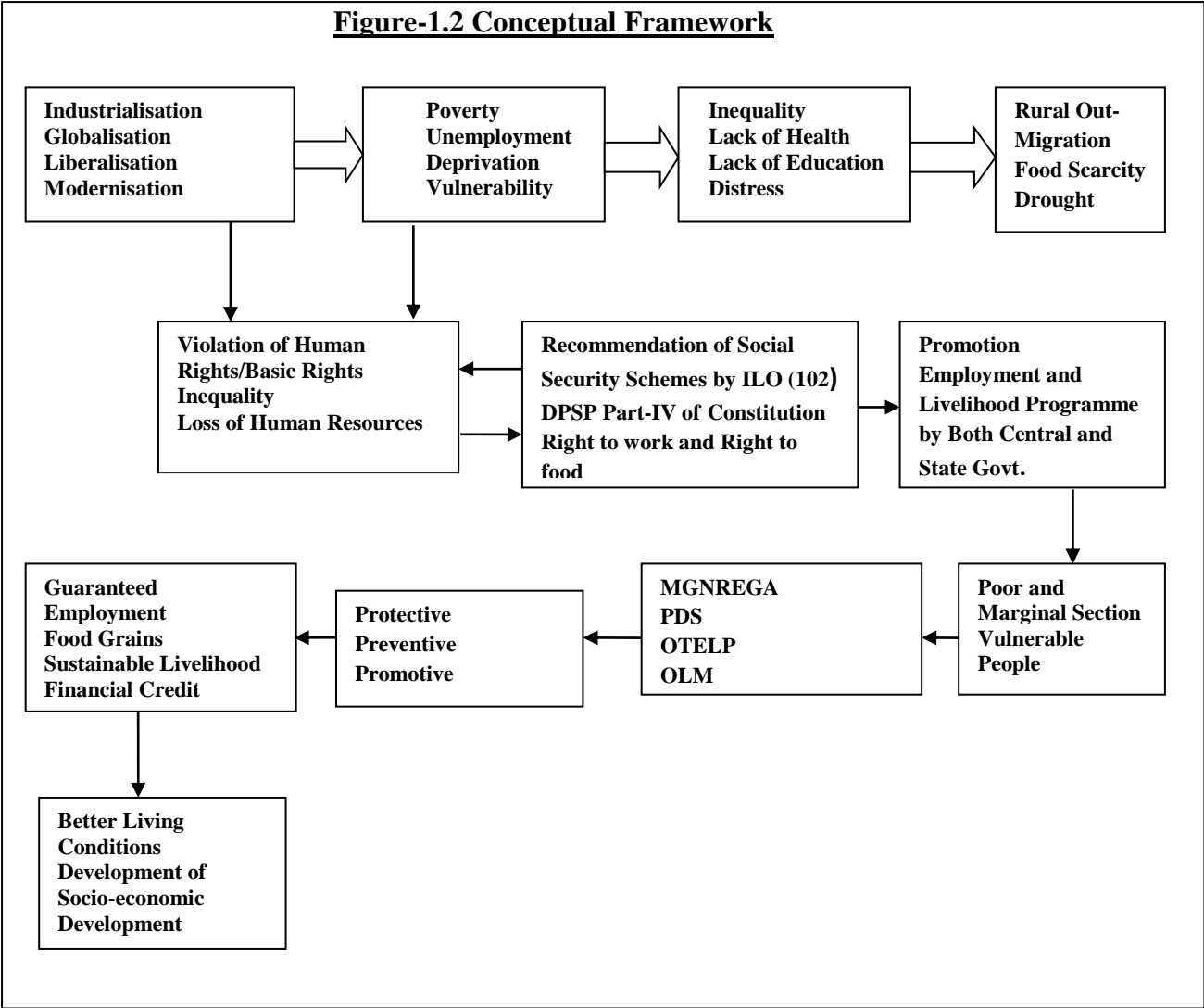
The main objective of the present study is to assess the access to the social security and migration among tribals of Rayagada district. For this, the study examined the access to MGNREGA, PDS, OTELP and OLM schemes by the tribals in Rayagada district of Odisha. The specific objectives of the study are as follows:

- ❖ To study the socio-economic conditions of tribals in selected villages in Rayagada district, Odisha.
- ❖ To examine the access to social security by different group of population with special reference in the study area and to establish the linkage between access to social security and migration
- ❖ To analyse the social network and process of migration among STs in Rayagada, Odisha
- ❖ To analyse whether migration has helped in improving the standard of living of the tribal households

### **1.9: Research Questions**

- ❖ What are the various social security schemes that tribals are availing at the place of their origin? Does it mitigate with the situation of poverty?
- ❖ Is the access to social security schemes restricting the tribal people from out migration or not?
- ❖ What are the major factors of tribal migration whether pull or push factor?





Sources: Based on authors Review of Literature

**1.10: Conclusion**

In this chapter, attempts have been made to discuss the various aspects of social security schemes and migration in general and tribal population in particular. The chapter begins with a discussion about the vulnerability of marginal section of people specially the tribals in the contemporary society due to the advancement of modernization and industrialisation. Undoubtedly, this has led to the increasing pace of economic growth and development of country. But only increasing pace of economic growth of country has created socio-economic complexity in the contemporary society, which divides the society into rich and poor and creates the inequality in the society. The persistence inequality in the society has bought imbalance which affects the economic growth and human development of country. In

order to reduce the vulnerability and persisting inequality in society, social security scheme has been introduced. The social security scheme is a basic public measure providing benefits in terms of cash or kind to secure protection of individual who are vulnerable or poor. Thus, to comprehend the social security, initially chapter explains all the important convention of ILO and its historical relevance of individual and gradually discusses the historical understanding social security in Indian context. In order to understand the social security in India, it has explained the basic features with Indian constitution with relevance to state and individual. In another section it has discussed about migration in India and particular to migration among the tribals in Odisha. It has detailed analysis of 55<sup>th</sup> and 64<sup>th</sup> around of NSSO migration data across the various social category and gender wise migration. In addition it also analyses the district level migration with help the census of 2011 data on migration. This chapter also briefly discusses about the selective social security schemes for the study which has been provided by the central and state government for the marginal section of people to address the better employment opportunities, food security and livelihood. Last of all, it also discusses the objectives of study along with research questions.

## CHAPTER-II

### REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The chapter attempts to review the various existing literature to build strong argument related to the present study. A literature review is a body of text that aims to review the significant contribution in the current knowledge, including substantive findings along with theoretical and methodological contributions to a particular topic. In this chapter, we have discussed the studies conducted by various scholars related to the rural-urban migration, and social networks and living condition during process of migration. Social security is the main problem faced by the migrants at place of origin and destination in process of migration. Especially, the migrants are facing some of the crucial problems, such as in availing social security schemes provided by the government, social network of migration, remittance of migrants, etc. These are discussed under following headings

#### **2.1: Concept and Theoretical Orientation of Migration**

Migration is a universal phenomenon in 21<sup>st</sup> century, and is the third factor of population change other than fertility and mortality. It is considered to be a very complex process. It is not only the destitute participating in the process of migration but also the rich or economically well-off to further enhance their standard of living. The Process of migration may be seen as livelihood strategy, but it also plays an important role in enhancing the standard of living. A large number of empirical studies show that migration as survival strategy is for the poor (Bisht and Tiwari, 1997; Kumar et al., Srivastava 1998; de Haan, 1999; Skeldon, 2002; Sirvasvasta and Sasikumar, 2003; Mosse et al; Mamgain, 2003; Sundari, 2005; Deshingkar, 2006; Bailey in Ranjan, 2011). In recent studies on migration, in developing countries there is much emphasis on migration as an option as the last resort for pauperised peasants (de Haan, 2011). It also states that labor migration between and within urban and rural areas has to be seen as a central element in the livelihood of many poor and rich households in developing countries. Migration plays a positive role in improving livelihood and reducing poverty (de Haan, 1999; Skeldon, 2002)

There is another study by Mamgain (2003), it reveals that ‘out migration’ among rural households in the mountain regions of Uttaranchal is a survival strategy for the poor.

Migration is a vital component of deprived people's struggle for survival. It entails both costs and benefits for migrants and their families (Srivastava and Sasikumar, 2003). Deshinger (2006) found that 'internal migration' in Asia played an important role in the reduction of poverty, as, migration is seen as an economic survival strategy for the poor. According to Bailey (2011 in Ranjan, 2011, migration is seen as an economic survival strategy for poor household in Karnataka. The Greenwood study (1971) on regression analysis of migration in urban areas pointed out that migration occurs on both the sides of scale, both poor and rich migrate from rural areas (Cited in Khan, 1986)

There is an always contradictory image of migrants. Firstly, it is clear that they are perceived as rational economic agents, armed with the ability to judge difference in opportunities, and reward at home and in the place of destination. Secondly, migrants are seen as victims of economic deprivation, political or social discrimination, and environmental degradation (de Haan, 2000). He has also stated that migration is understood to be largely a psychological reaction to distress provoked by economic, social, and political conditions in the origin place rather than being generated by opportunity and better life chances.

Karan (2003) studies on migrants in Bihar shows the class and caste analysis of migrant workers. The migration within the lower caste and class are being considered as coping-up mechanism, while worker from upper caste and class are migrating for further economic benefits. The study of Panda et al. (2014) shows that outmigration of tribal populations from economically backward states, such as Chhattisgarh, Jharkhand, Odisha and Madhya Pradesh has been taking place in the last three centuries, i.e. from 18<sup>th</sup> and 19<sup>th</sup> centuries. British colonial government forced tribal laborers to work in plantations areas, like tea estates in Assam and Bengal. Evidence has been found from studies that between 1950 to 1980 Indian tribal migrated to the agriculturally prosperous rural areas of Bihar and West Bengal, primarily to work as agricultural laborer. However, from 1980 onwards, they started migrating to bigger cities in search of employment (Bates and Carter, 1998). The empirical study by Kundu and Sarangi (2007) based on the NSS report, discloses that migration has been an instrument in improving the economic condition of migrants and also escaping them away from poverty. They also have compared migrant and non-migrant

populations to argue the probability of being poor among migrants both urban-urban and rural-urban migration. According to Anand (1996), study found that the migration among the tribal has been confined almost exclusively to meet the need of their own subsistence. Another study by Jha (2005) on tribal women migration in Orissa, found that the migration trend is increasing especially among the young women, especially moving towards urban center for employment; such increasing trends found among tribals are considered as push factors. It is also found out that tribal women are more likely to migrate as compared to women in non-tribal community. Jha (ibid) emphasizes that in tribal areas single women and girls in recent years have started migrating on a large scale in search of better livelihood.

Akter and Deshingkar (2009) reiterated that migration can be highly differentiated, at one extreme are the poorest, such as tribals from Southern Madhya Pradesh, Western Orissa and Musahar from Bihar, for whom migration is no more than a coping strategy, providing at best subsistence and the money for repaying debts. At another extreme, for better educated and better connected migrants, it provides additional income which can be used to fund agriculture, education, housing and social functions which lead economic and social gains. They also show that that circular migration is main form of mobility for work, and that such migration is higher among the poor, especially SCs and STs, and higher among women and children.

The village level studies conducted by ICRISAT over the last three decades in two villages of Mahbubnagar district in Andhra Pradesh show that both seasonal and permanent migration have increased during the reference period (Deb et al., 2002). According to Panda (2005), in western Orissa rural livelihood project in Nuapada and Bolangir shows a domination of STs and SCs in migration stream from these poor districts.

This section discusses about various theories of migration from late 18<sup>th</sup> centuries. It discusses different scholars from Anthropologist, economists and sociologists, who have propounded theories on migration. Migration theories are classified into various phases from classical to neo-classical theorists, and new economic theories of labor migration. Here I have discussed the earliest scholars, who are known as classical theorist who poured their thoughts on migration.

## **2.2: Classical Theory on Migration**

The first and foremost classical scholar on migration is Ravenstein, who propounded *the law of migration* in year 1885-1888, and is an undisputed founding father of the modern thinker about the migration. In his theory, 'the law of migration' consists of seven laws, such as migration and distance, migration by stage, stream and counter stream of migration, Urban-rural differences in propensity to migrate, pre-dominance of females among the short distance migrant, technology and migration, and dominance of the economic motives.

Stouffer's (1940) model of intervening opportunities assume that there is no necessary relationship between mobility and distance, and propose that the number of persons going to a given distance is directly proportional to the number of opportunities at that distance, and is inversely proportional to the number of intervening opportunities.

Another scholar Everett Lee (1966) developed a theory on migration in his book called the '*A Theory of migration*'. According to him, migration factors that determine the decision to migrate and the process of migration. The following are the factors of migration divided into four categories such as;

- Factors associated with the area of Origin
- Factors associated with the area of Destination
- Intervening obstacles
- Personal Factors

## **2.3: Neo-Classical Theory of Migration**

In the course of third quarter of the 20<sup>th</sup> century, various things which directly or indirectly effect migration have rapidly grown/developed, such as rapid and sustained economic growth, increasing internationalisation of economic activity, decolonisation and emerging process of economic development in third world countries. It is all about the intensification of migration both internal and international. The era cut-down into the mid of 1950-70s, the scholars have put forwarded their thought on development of migration. Among the various scholars, Hicks (1932), Lewis (1954) and Harris and Todaro (1970) are very important to understand from the perspective of the theory of migration.

Hicks (1932) in his book '*The Theory of wage*' have explained the economic approaches of migration. According to him, difference in net economic advantages, and chiefly difference in wages are the main causes of migration.

Lewis (1954) in his article '*Unlimited Supplies of Labor*' has explained the process of migration from rural to urban areas in an underdeveloped economy. According to him, every underdeveloped economy is a dual economy, having two sectors such as; a modern sector, and an indigenous sector. Out of these two, the latter is the predominant sector. The capitalist sector is defined as that part of the economy which uses reproducible capital, pays capitalists for the use thereof and employs wage labor for profit making purpose. The distinguishing feature of the capitalist sector is that it hires labor and sells outputs to earn profit. The subsistence sector is that part of the economy which does not use reproducible capital. Number of labor is in abundant, and disguised unemployment is result. The marginal productivity for labor in the agricultural sector may be zero or even negative. In order to solve the problem of disguised unemployment, capitalist or industry sector can be expanded by transferring labor from the subsistence or rural sector to the capitalist or industrial sector. In subsistence or rural sector, it is considered that labor force is abundant, and Lewis assumes that the supply of labor is perfectly elastic at the subsistence wage. When people migrate from the subsistence sector to the modern sector or industrial sector, the wages should be higher in the capitalist sector than in the subsistence sector by a small but fixed amount.

Harris and Todaro (1970) in an article '*Migration, Unemployment and Development: A Two-sector Analysis*' explains that, the model is based on two sectors such as rural or agricultural and urban or manufacturing. The main idea of the Harris-Todaro model is that, labor migration in underdeveloped countries is due to the rural-urban wage difference, in average expected wages rather than actual wage. According to them, migrants consider various opportunities of employment available to them in rural and urban sectors, and choose the one that maximizes their expected wages from migration. The minimum urban wage is substantially higher than the rural wage. The flow of migration from rural to urban area will be created create more employment opportunities in the urban sectors at the minimum wage, the expected wage will rise and rural-urban migration will increase. Expected wages are measured by the

difference in real urban income and rural agriculture income, and the probability of migrants getting an urban job. Thus, this model finds out the wage or income gap between the urban and the rural sectors.

Zelinsky (1971) in his hypothesis of *mobility transition* suggests that there are definite patterned regularities in the growth of personal mobility through space-time during recent history, and these regularities comprise an essential component of the modernisation process.

Another study by two economists, named John Fei and Gustav Ranis presented their dual economy model. This model is known as Fei-Ranis model of migration (1976), in his article '*A Theory of Economic Development*', he shows the process of rural-urban migration in underdeveloped countries. The model deals with an underdeveloped economy having surplus labor but scarcity of capital. It is considered that one of basic features of underdeveloped economy is predominance of agricultural sectors, majority of the population depend on it for their livelihood. According to Fei & Ranis (ibid), there is also the existence of dual economy consisting of stagnant agricultural and an active industrial sector. The process of development involves transfer of surplus labor from agricultural to industrial sector to increase its productivity from zero to a wage level, equal to the institutional wage in agriculture.

Standing Guy (1981) in his book '*Migration and Modes of Exploitation: Social Origin of Immobility and Mobility*', states that the size and level of migration are determined by the relation of production of society, nature of wealth, land ownership system, and factors controlling the growth of forces of production in a society. According to him, migration occurred during the transition period between the end of the feudalistic production and beginning of the capitalistic production. He further cleared that in ancient times migration took place in a particular group, however, migration in the modern capitalist system is largely of personal type.

## **2.4: World System Theory**

Historical-structural approaches to migration introduce very different concepts in the understanding of the process of migration. The neo-classical theory of rural-urban migration to human capital theory hypothesized by Sjaastad (1962), formalised the idea by assuming that whether an individual elects to move is influenced by the



present value of the different income structure, between alternative locations minus the initial and financial or subsequent cost of travelling. His theory enables to explain the selectivity of migration instead of not focusing only on the costs. He considered that individuals are different in terms of peoples' skills, knowledge, education, sex, age and so on; and there will be differences in the extent to which people are expected to gain from migration.

Apart from the theoretical literature, there have been extensive empirical studies on the migration in the developing countries, including Brigg (1973), yep (1975 and 1977), Skeldon (1986), and Byerlee (1974). In the Latin America, the largest number of people from the cities has left the countryside, permanently. They continue to move in different cities and may return to their home places only to see friends and relatives; few of them can back to the rural area to settle. The situation is unlike in Africa and parts of Asia where the rural-urban migration is seen as temporary (Nelson, 1976). In Brazil, the migration from rural to urban was estimated to be 20 million from 1950s to 1970s; the migration has been contributed by urbanization and decentralization of cities. In India, it is estimated that 20.5 million people, which are about 30 percent of the national growth, moved from the rural to urban areas in 1990s (Census of India, 2001). The concerns of migration from rural to urban have a long history in Italy; during the 1950s and 1960s rural to urban migration was from south to north part of the country. However, the internal migration slowed down in 1970, but the flow started again in 1990s with the same trend, i.e. from South to North (Oreste et al, 2009)

Todaro (1984) states that the high rate of natural increase among the urban dwellers is attributed in part to the age structure of the urban population, and this profile to some extent has increased the flow of young in urban cities. Todaro says that the contribution of rural-urban migration to urban population growth is understood by simply counting the number of arrival. The high population growth rate in Ghana is stated to encourage migration due to the increase of domestic supply of the labor which puts pressure on the available land for cultivation (Abdulai, 1999). Increase in the young age migration can also be seen as strategy of some families to send the young adults to the city and investing in a potentially remitting child (Lucas and Stark, 1988).

Rural to urban migration normally occur at the individual and household levels in which the concern of selecting whether to stay or move out is accompanied with many reasons. For example, migration is higher among younger adults who are likely to receive a positive ambitious return due to their long remaining life expectancy and/or because social norms require young adults to migrate in search of better life (Mbonile et al 19996). In the study of the Volta basin Tsegai (2007), it is found that income differential were important determinants of migration. Liviga and Mekacha (1998) conducted the study on youth migration and poverty alleviation for petty traders in the place of origin.

The New Economic and Labour Migration theory (NELM) explained the link between migration and individual risk. The cost of migration includes the sharing of associated risks and opportunities among the household members, thus creating a co-insurance system between migrant and non-migrant household member. The co-insurance system involves the family support to the migrant in the case of need (risk) in the destination area, and migrant's support to the family via remittances to facilitate risk coping at the place of origin, as well the through migration process the migrants are get the opportunity to share the vulnerability experience with each other at place of destination. The New economics of labour migration theory emphasis on the migration strategy is undertaken not only maximize income but also to maximize risks (Massy et al. 1993; Arango 2000; de Haas 2007, 2010) and thus one of the important concepts of this theory is risk diversification. In their article 'on migration and risk less developed countries, Stark and Levhari (1982) consider risk to be an explanatory variable of rural to urban migration. Family manages to take control the risk via diversification of the family's income through migration (Stark and Levhari, 1982). Again they also emphasis on when alternative for income diversification in rural area are insufficient or not exist, then migration of family member is the clear strategy to follow (Stark and Levhari, 1982).

Another important concept of New Economics Theory of migration is relative deprivation, according to which the decision of households send migrants to other states or foreign labour markets is influenced by their initial perceived relative deprivation within their social groups (Stark and Taylor, 1989) using empirical data from rural Mexican households with evidence that relative deprivation plays a crucial

role in explaining migration from Mexico to United States (Stark and Taylor, 1989, 1991). The absolute income of initially migrants and absolute income gains from migration, the propensity of households to participate in international migration was directly related to the households initially relative deprivation (Stark and Taylor, 1991).

The new economics of migration theory also highlights the role of families and households underlines importance of remittance. Migrant's remittance is an integral component in the process of migration and it pays more attention to information and complex interdependence between migrants and the context in which they operate (Arango, 2000). A number of empirical studies from diverse regions support new economics of labour migration and hypotheses that migration and remittance have positive indirect effects on income in migrant sending households, easing capital and risk constraints on local production (Taylor, 1999). Taylor also observes that migrants remittances and savings both directly and indirectly contribute to the income of those households receiving remittance and that the contribution may be account as major part. In addition to risk and wage differentials models, it also links migration to social capital; the existence of functioning social networks among migrants, non-migrants and return migrants, and migration institutions (Massey, 1990).

Studies on Migration also depart from the New Economic Labour Migration (NELM) approach to identify the factors behind migration and the well-being of migrants. According to Agesa and Kim (2001) used data from Kenya to identify the determinants of migration decision the result shows that the migration is relatively more likely among workers facing a positive urban to rural earning difference, it also suggests that skilled workers self-select to migrate to urban areas. According to Ezara (2001) studies, in Ethiopia, individuals belonging to economically poor household in ecologically vulnerable communities have higher propensity to out-migration than those from less vulnerable regions.

## **2.5: Factor and Pattern of Rural Urban Migration and its Relation with Livelihood**

The continuation of higher level of poverty, unemployment, food insecurity in rural areas creates complexity in the contemporary societies, particularly in tribal areas. The

above mentioned reason pays attention of the research scholars as well as development agencies for alternative livelihood for the poor and marginalised people in form of social protection. The term livelihood was first developed by Chambers and Gordon Conway in the year 1991 in their work ‘sustainable rural livelihoods-practical concepts for the 21<sup>st</sup> Century’. The concept of sustainable livelihood was further developed by DFID and other development agencies. Here one of the livelihood strategies that can contribute to the reduction of vulnerability and poverty is migration. The relevance of migration strategy becomes higher specially when the opportunities for livelihood diversification are very limited, which is more often characteristic of rural rather than urban areas. Thus phenomena of livelihood can help to explain why majority of migrants are originally from rural areas (Sagynbekova, 2016).

In the era of globalisation, there is always growing tendency of diversify livelihoods among the rural households, which is often associated with increased mobility and better access to internal and external labour markets (Steimann, 2011). It is not only the financial capital in the form of earnings, savings and remittances obtained by a migrant during migration but also the skills and knowledge gained that may contribute to the improvement of his/her households well-being (Sagynbekova, 2016). According to Frank Ellis (2003) migration seen as to positive contribution to the achievement of secure livelihoods and to the expansion of the scope for poor people to construct their own pathways out of poverty. It has also found that migration strategy does not always have a positive impact on livelihood but this depends on the migrants experience influenced by variety of factors found mainly at their destination. According to De Haas (2010) study found that the migration has been increasingly considered as one of the important elements of the strategies of household who employ to diversify, secure and potentially to improve their livelihood (De Haas, 2010). However, applying the sustainable livelihoods approach in Nepalese labour migration in Delhi by Thieme study found that livelihood approach is used to reflect the diversity and complexity of ways in which people make a living. It reveals that most rural households rely on multiple income sources and adopt a range of livelihood strategies such as a labour migration (Thieme, 2006).

The process of migration may be seen as livelihood strategy, and it plays an important role in increasing the standard of living. The large number of studies found that, migration as the option of survival for the poor households (Bisht and Tiwari 1997; Kumar et.al, Srivastava 1998; de Haan, 1999). In the contemporary studies on migration in developing countries, there is much emphasis on migration as an option of last resort for the pauperized peasant (de Haan, 1999). According to him, labour migration between and within urban areas and rural areas has seen as central element in livelihood of many households including both rich and poor in developing countries. Internal migration is seen as an economic survival strategy for the poor (Deshingkar 2006). Migration is a vital component of poor peoples' struggles for survival. It contains both costs and benefits for migrants and their families (Srivastava and Sashikumar, 2003). Another scholar is in view that migration is seen as economic survival strategy for poor households in Karnataka (Bailey, 2011).

It is observed in various studies that for the poor households in rural areas wage work is key means of livelihood. Jobs are availed in urban centres almost arranged informally without any consent and reflect the temporary peaks of demand for laborers in agriculture, brick making, road construction (Ben Rogaley, Rafique, 2006).

In the existing contradictory images of migrants, they are perceived as rational economic agents. The ability to judge difference in opportunity and rewards at origin and the place of destination, migrants are seen as victims of economic deprivation, political and social discrimination. He also says that migration is perceived largely as psychological reaction to distress, provoked by economic, social, and political condition in sending the state rather than being generated by opportunity and better life chances (de Haan, 2003). The increasing numbers of people are diversifying their income sources through migration, mostly; they involve family migration, and these results in peoples' livelihoods taking on multi-local dimensional (Thieme, 2008)

The decomposition of households, increased diversification of sources of income and the emergency of multi-local livelihood and social network, particularly, through the migration has been identified as major consequence of globalization for local development and livelihood (De Haan and Zoomers, 2003). A micro level study conducted in Bihar found that, the class and caste of migrant workers of rural Bihar show that workers from lower class and caste consider migration as coping up

mechanism, contrary to the workers from the upper caste and class, who migrate for further economic benefits (Karan 2003). Whereas other scholars disclose that migration has been an instrument for improving the economic condition and escaping poverty for them (Kundu and Sarangi, 2007)

While arguing about the tribal migrants, Deshingkar and Akter (2009) summarize that migration is highly differential, at extreme, poorest such as tribals from Madhya Pradesh, Western Odisha, and Mushaar from Bihar- for them migration is not more than coping strategy, providing them best subsistence. Nevertheless, for many of them, it is a source of repaying debts, getting better education and better connected migrants, it provides additional income which can be used to found agriculture, education, housing and social function which ultimately lead to economic and social gains.

The migrants from the western Odisha are very poor and illiterate. They work as casual labour (as migrant) in informal sectors, such as brick kilns, construction sites, digging earth, rickshaw pulling, cement factory and stone crusher in Vishakhapatnam in Andhrapradesh, Raipur in Chhattisgarh, Hyderabad, Surat in Gujarat and Chennai in TamilNadu (Deshingkar, 2009).

Another scholar argued that a large portion of internal migration in India, particularly from Rajasthan and Odisha is 'distress-led'. It is mainly driven by the factors like collapse in rural employment, the economic difficulties facing agriculture and inadequate employment opportunity in rural areas. In comparison, urban center has the more employment opportunity (Bhagat, 2009). The tribal are important section of social strata in the Indian social system. Mostly, they are poor, illiterate; indebtedness livelihood for them is an option to survive. It is evident from the large number of cases against tribal girls from Odisha, they duped by the relatives or agents to brothels in metropolitan cities such as Delhi, Mumbai, Chennai and Kolkata. Subsequently, marriage becomes difficult for them in their own community, as people suspect that young women could be HIV positive. Migrants girls may be socially boycotted and these families ostracized. Those tribal women and girls suffer worse while migrating (Jha, 2005).

The earlier studies on rural-urban Migration discuss the problem of Socio-Demographic Regulations and the emerging trends of migration, the urban rural distribution of migration and its social and demographic aspects. Papola's study has mentioned about the role of socio-demographic regulation in the process of migration. The reasons of rural-urban migration are income, economic opportunities, and absolute poverty in rural areas. In addition, the migrant people also face the social cost, such as dislocation from family and community life in the rural area, and cognition and stresses on services in urban areas. The research shows that trends of migration have changed now-a-days, mainly due to the rise of diversified occupation in rural areas, semi-urban facilities and other which improve the status of rural poor and reduce migration. A balanced urbanization needed for growth of larger cities and redirect the flow of migration to smaller cities (Papola, 1998).

Another study by Bhattacharya (1998) shows that due to the lack of opportunity in primary or agricultural sector, the move is rising towards informal sector. The state suggests that informal sectors come out of dynamic labour force, and sustaining in continuous manner. In addition, it acts as a productive sector for rural migrants (Bhattacharya, 1998). Kundu and Gupta's study pointed out, the pattern of migration based on the census data showed the population mobility over the decades since independence, it also focused on the dynamic of migration and urbanization in the changing context of economic development. The finding of the study shows that migration has been fluctuating from colonial period to present era of economic development. The initiation of the poverty eradication programme and availability of transport facilities have reduced the rate of out migration, from backward area to cities (Kundu and Gupta, 1996).

Keshri and Bhagat's, study tried to show the relationship between temporary migration and its determining factors, particularly economic status, land holding, and educational level. They have taken data from the 64<sup>th</sup> round of NSSO, two blocks were selected for the particulars; the survey was conducted in all the states and union territories. For the simplification of the study, they used stratified multistage sampling design (Keshri and Bhagat, 2013). The relation of migration with socio-economic condition in urban area. The analysis is based on the secondary data, like sample survey data which gives the picture about the nature and factors of migration,

explaining the fact that economic is not the only determinant for migration. The result of this paper suggests that migration is both from rich and poor background; migration works as basic form to reduce economic hardship of poor people. The migrants of rural area are poor as compare to urban area migrants. The education is also one of the important determinants of poverty of the people (Kundu and Sarangi, 2007).

The important determinant of the rural to rural migration in India show that the female marriage play significant role in the rural to rural migration. As, in India, caste has been playing important role in the society, it has also divided the labour market. So, the lower caste people doing unpleasant job in their village migrated to other places where they are getting better standard of living, and satisfactory jobs. It is also one of the major causes of the rural migration (Bhattacharya, 2002).

Another study has analyzed the issue related to female migrant labour of Tamil Nadu, and highlights the trends, pattern and nature of the female migration, also the push and pull factor of migration and the role of the migration as a livelihood strategy. It has also evidence that the migration helps migrant's household to evade hunger, starvation and death; though, it has failed to improve the economic well-being of the family. Similarly, the study also outlined how women migrants are playing important role in poverty eradication, as migration has been counted as an alternative source for the self employment and regular salaried job for women (Sundari, 2005).

It has focused on the linkage between migration and livelihoods, and the actors which connect the two. Livelihood can be improved by intensification, agriculture, diversification and migration. There are different types of migration, e.g., voluntary to force, settlement to resettlement, and instigation to reintegration. In addition, they also mention that migration is also segmental and structural way, rather uniform in which the members of nuclear family have good chance to move than joint family. Females of joint family are not allowed to go outside, here the family plays positive role that who will migrate and where to migrate (McDowell and de Haan, 1996).

The two factors of migration as Push factor and Pull factor which influence workers of interstate migration on the basis of perception of workers. In this study, they had taken sample of 200 workers from 25 brick-kilns, located in three districts of Punjab. The



study found that, the important factors of migration were economic, political, demographic, and socio-cultural. Among these factors, authors given importance to economic factor which plays vital role in peoples' migration, because it influences both Pull factors and Puss factors (Kumar and Sidhu, 2005).

There is instability in rural-urban migration. They have given three important variables which act as dominance in rural-urban migration, like capital, population and productivity relating to the technological change. According to them, initial level of migration flow faces some fluctuations than the later level of its progress towards development. They also suggest that reverse migration and instability are not only happening in developing countries but also in developed countries. In addition to it, they have also mentioned the policy issue concerning reverse migration, it may be intrinsic to successful technological advance. They used Todaro model of migration relating to trade (Day et al., 1987).

There is significant inter-state migration in Odisha, studies found that relating to demographic component to determining the size growth and structure of a particular region. He analysed about two types of migration, and the cause behind it while referring to 2001 census picture of Odisha. According to him, there are two types of migration take place, such as migration by place of birth, and migration by place of residence. In the Odisha, the main reason behind migration is work related employment, business, education and marriage etc, among all reasons work related employment is one of the main reason of migration mostly found in male migrants. The migrants prefer to go outside state in search of employment and better livelihood, due to inter-state migration it has impact on the size of particular region on the basis of movement of people (Acharya, 2001).

There are two levels on which migration patterns in India, i.e. inter-state migration, which includes the intra-district and inter-district moves, and total migration. According to the author, long distance movement is not reasonable variable for migration counting. The two major variables for migration are outlined in this paper, such as place of birth, and place of last residence (Skeldon, 1986).

A comprehensive study on migration in India from the trade union perspective has given following lights on the issue. The researcher has given a clear picture of pathetic

condition of migration, including exploitation in work place, gender discrimination, wage discrimination, defect of legal base and lack of qualitative lives. In this juncture, trade will play pivotal role along with some non-governmental organization having man power. Migration will be much larger phenomenon encompassing half of the work force in the informal sector. The government is encouraging external migration for remittance, on internal migration for cheap labour to meet the profit of finance capital. In this situation, trade union with other organizations structure organizing skills, can take on the employer, policy maker and government for a better deal to the migrant worker and contribute social harmony and sustainable growth (Rao, 2008).

## **2.6: Social Network of the Migrants**

The migration literature on economics theories of migration cannot explain the migration process and sociological approach along with a system approach to migration help to fill the gap. In order to understand the process of migration process in rural areas, it is important to know the importance of social network in rural area and how it is function in rural area. In contrast to an economic approach, there is need to study the sociological approach in the form of network theory to views the social networking migration among the rural people. In the process of migration social network is an inherently social process that organised through networks forged from everyday interpersonal connections that characterise all human groups (Massey et al., 1987).

According to Massey and his colleagues defines migrant networks as 'set of interpersonal ties that connect migrants, former migrants and non-migrants in the place of origin and destination areas through the ties of kinship, friendship and shared ethnicity origin (Massey et al., 1993). A key insight provided by the network theory is that migrant networks enhance the likelihood of migration because the costs and risks involved are reduced. Through networks potential migrants can gain access to information, job related matters, accommodations, higher wages and a variety of assistance including financial help at the place of destination (Taylor 1986; Massey et al., 1987,1993, 1998 and Massey 1990). According to Massey Migrant networks provide migrants with a valuable adaptive resource in a strange environment (Massey et al., 1987). The migrants networks also reduce the costs of migration while migration, and increasing the likelihood of employment at the place of destination as

well as reduce the likelihood of place of origin (Jennissen, 2007). The migrants who are at their first time of migrate to the new place of destination, the migration is costly but costs for relatives, friends and other social ties seem to be lowered (Massey et al., 1993). The Arango study further clarify social networks can have a demonstration effect on migration, prompting the non-migrants to seek employment at place of destination as they see the actions and successes of members in their network (Arango, 2000). Again Massey and his colleagues argues that social network as form of 'social capital' and emphasis on family and friendship connections build up among migrants in due course of time. Thus it is providing new aspirants with a kind of 'social capital' so that they can begin their career as a migrant (Massey et al., 1987).

Networks also plays very crucial role in the geography of migration which is emphasis by Massey and his colleagues. According to them more migrants move to a particular place because the presence of network that lead migrants and where the social structure among the migrant afford them to better opportunities for success. As more number of migrant arrives the range of social connections is further extended among migrant and making subsequent migration to the destination place even more likely. According to Velazquez study on Estud front emphasis that network determine place of destination and more likely to receive migrants from a specific place of origin and old migrants decide the type of job to the new migrants will take (Velazquez, 2000).

The network theory also explains why migration is continues process discusses by Massey et al., that once the network established at the place of origin then the migration become self- perpetuating because each act of migration itself creates the social structure among the migrants to sustain (Massey et al., 1993). The development of social network may explain the continuation of migration independently from the causes that led to the initial movement, it is true that social networks may consider the foremost predictor of future migration (Arango, 2000). During the process of migration, networks play an important role, even in the era of globalisation the importance of network has also increased much to create the connections among the migrants and development of migration process (Haug, 2008).

## 2.7: Theory of Social Networks and Migration

The scholars such as Massey et al. (2005; 1987; Boyd 1989; Choldine; 1973) have developed a theory as a new approach to the sociology of migration based on social networks. This is so because the notion of social networks draws on the embeddedness approach in economic sociology (Granovetter, 1973), and social networks provide channel for the migration process. The social networks of kinship and friendship are important in facilitating and sustaining migration (Boyd, 1989), it gives a summary on how social networks form on the basis of migration.

*“Networks connect migrants across time and space. Once begun, migration flows often become self-sustaining, reflecting the establishment of networks of information assistance and obligations which develop between migrants in the host society and friends and relatives in the sending area. These networks link populations in origin and receiving countries and ensure that movements are necessarily limited in time, unidirectional or permanent”* (Boyd, 1989)

The above summary explains migration as a process that can be created and that can depend on social networks. The social networks that exist at the place of destination connect migrants with non-migrants at the place of origin, thereby increasing the probability of non-migrants wanting to migrate. According to Massey defines the networks of migrants, the role of migrant networks link potential migrants at the community of origin and migrants at the place of destination. They define migrant networks as “sets of interpersonal ties that connect migrants, former migrants, and non-migrants in origin and destination areas through ties of kinship, friendship and shared community of origin” (Massey et al., 1993). Having a family member or friend, who has migrated, is of benefit to those who want to migrate. The interaction between migrants and non-migrants make migration easier by lowering the costs and risks incurred during migration.

The social context within which the potential migrants make a decision to migrate, shows that the social networks provided by family and friends are important, especially it is evident when considering the influence on migration motives of the individual’s role in the family. Ritchy is one of the scholars of social networking theory of migration, he has hypothesized five types of social networks which exist

among the migrants and also can influence migrants on their decision while migration process. The following are the hypothesis;

1. The affinity hypothesis states that the existence of relatives, family and friends in the place of origin reduces the tendency to migrate. Non-economic factors, such as close links to the community, strong local kinship ties, high investments in a community as well as assimilation difficult in a new community all reinforce the tendency not to migrate (Ritchy, 1976; Uhlenberg, 1973)
2. Information hypothesis states that the relatives and friends staying in different places provide information about the destination to those at home, and this could consist of information on job opportunities, which in turn, then makes the destination attractive to non-migrants (Choldin, 1973; Coombs, 1978).
3. The facilitating hypothesis shows that migrants in the country of destination, relatives and friends facilitate migration by providing support to the new migrants, such as giving material support, accommodation or by helping to find a job in the place of destination (Choldin, 1973; Ritchey, 1976).
4. The conflict hypothesis indicates that intra-familial conflicts within community also cause migration (Hugo, 1981)
5. Encouraging hypothesis shows that family may encourage members to migrate for work. It has been seen as a strategy to secure the household income (Hugo, 1981; Stark, 1991)

Through these hypotheses, it is found that social networks have been found to influence decision of migration in one way or another (Gurak and Caces, 1992). Firstly, by determining who migrates and who doesn't, they also influence migration channelling that is the selection of the destination by migrants (Gurak and Caces, 1992). Migrants tend to migrate to places where they already have established social networks. These hypotheses show the influence of family members or friends on migration decision making; another scholar named James Fawcett (1989) adds to the hypotheses mentioned by Ritchey, he too regards information from relatives and friend as having influence during the migration process. According to James Fawcett classified the linkages in a migration system into four categories such as family and personal networks, migrant agency activities, mass culture connections, and state to state relations (Fawcett, 1989). The following links are explained in better way;

1. Family relationships have an enduring impact on migration. Policies, rules and even norms may change but obligations among family members are of abiding nature.
2. The credibility of the source has much to do with the effectiveness of communication, family members are trusted sources for information about migration, more so than migrants recruitment agencies.
3. Information is better absorbed and retained when the vocabulary and dialects are close to everyday language. Such compatibility is more likely in the case when the information about places is provided by relatives as opposed to mass media sources.
4. Family members become role models through their achievements in foreign countries for the potential migrants. Such models have more behavioral immediacy than information about labor market disparities (Fawcett,1989).

These hypotheses show the power of the social networks in influencing decision-making regarding migration. Information, especially from relatives and friends is valued for potential migrants. The social network theory shows the functioning of networks during the migration process. Here is another theory, which explains how social networks perpetuate migration, i.e. cumulative causation theory.

### **2.8: Cumulative Causation Theory**

This theory of migration shows how the migration can be perpetuated. According to Massey et al., (2005), “causation is cumulative, when each act of migration alters the social context within which subsequent migration decision is made, typically in ways that make additional movement more likely”. This does not only apply to those who have already migrated, but also affects the creation of future migration flow of individuals. Massey et al. (2005) identify some mechanisms which affect migration in this cumulative way. They among others are, the expansion of networks, distribution of networks, distribution of income, distribution of land, organisation of agriculture, the regional distribution of human capital, social labeling, and structure of production. The first is expansion of networks; Massey et al. (2005) emphasis that once social networks established among migrants, they tend to be perpetuated because the networks have formed it may reduce lowers the costs and risk incurred during the

migration process. Therefore, the new migrant could be able to help other potential migrants, thus providing more information and expanding the network.

The social network and cumulative causation theories address the continuation of migration flow (Massey et al., 2005). It shows the importance of interpersonal ties between migrants in the receiving areas, and relatives in the sending areas. The theory asserts that migration flow will continue because the costs and risks incurred during migration by potential migrants are reduced, if they have social relations with either relatives or friends at destination areas. The good relationships between potential migrants at place of origin, and relative or friends at the place of destination lead to the increased intentions of the former to migrate as well. Causation is cumulative, since the act of migrating alters the social context within which subsequent migration decision are taken. Because of the expansion of networks, a kind of culture of migration is developed. Migration is taken as a way of achieving improved economic and social status, which cannot be achieved using local resources only (Massey et al., 2005)

A migration network can be defined by a composite of interpersonal relations in which migrants interact with their family or friends. Social networks provide a foundation for the dissemination of information as well as for assistance (S. Haug, 2008). Interactions within social networks make migration easier by reducing the costs and risks of moving. Informal networks help migrants to finance their travel, to find a job or accommodation; sometimes, it enable migrants to cross the borders legally or illegally (Bocker, 1994 and IOM, 2003).

Migratory networks can play an important role in initial migration and in the early process of settling in a new environment, but migrants do not necessarily spend their lives enmeshed in these relationships. Wierzbicki (2004) has argued that migration theorists often take granted that migrants arrive and simply slot into the networks that provide them with job, housing, and emotional support. In addition, as Boyd (1989) indicated, it is important to consider the dynamic nature of networks. The networks that migrants encounter when they first arrive are unlikely to remain static, especially migrants experience social and geographical mobility within the host society.

Social network is based on the patrilineal and extended linkages for security of job in urban areas. Its emphasis on extended families or relationships is essential for

bringing urban employment opportunity into the social segments (Kuhn, 2003). The advent of transport and communication in the modern era is significantly shaping the life of migrants from rural to urban area. These are the positive aspects of social networking. The Information flow may strengthen the existing types of personal network, such as ethnic network. People, who were previously outside of these networks, also avail the benefits of job opportunity through this network. The mobile technology at the household level has increased individual's chance of leaving his or her village and finding a job (Muto, 2012).

The study has analyzed the importance of 'social capital' in migration networks. The term social capital first mentioned by the sociologist Bourdieu on his concept cultural capita, again Massey first used in the social networking theory which is a potential reason for migration. It also discusses the social capital in details including the meaning, sub-category, and limitation. According to the study, social capital stands for ability to secure benefit by virtue of membership in social network or other social structure (Thieme, 2006). The major finding of the study reveals the bonding and basing work of social capital in the case of migrant worker. The bonding helps in emotional attachment with the migrants and bridging connection between migrant and non-migrant. In addition, the study has also point out the limitation of social capital and social networking, for example the outsider could not get any kind of cultural and like exclusion of outsider, over emphasis on individual's loss of freedom, and downward labelling norm, these are major outcomes of the study.

The study by Maharatna (2003) social network of migrated Chitruhutu Santalas and its impact on mass migration. They have better information about outsiders than non-migrants. The present study shows the role of seasonal migration on the fertility transaction of Santalas, living within Chitrihutu area. The Author has also given a comparative analysis of the family planning adoption practicing between migrated Santalas and remained non-migrated lower caste localities. As, he found that there is more consciousness about livelihood among the migrated tribal. The finding of the study shows that those Santalas from Chitrihutu migrate seasonally; they have greater control on fertility than non-migrant of Thupsara. It also shows that the seasonal migration is hastening productiveness of the migrants (Maharatna, 2003).



Scholar like De Haas, Massey and Taylor conducted comprehensive studies on the migration and risk sharing networks. According to the author, migration may have two competing effects on informal risk sharing networks. On the one hand, migration provides access to uncorrelated income process which may be able to insure the household and network against aggregate shock. On the other hand, migration destroys social networks because the outside option of economic independence becomes more attractive, and a household receiving migration income may choose not to participate in a risk sharing network. In addition, the study has also focused on the nature of migration, like endogenous, permanent and temporary (Morten, 2011). There has been a significance of social network in migration. Social networks affect many aspects of the migration process. Migration network as interpersonal ties links among-kin, friends, and community member in their place of origin and destination. They also observed about the process adopted by the migrants, why these processes are important are the highlights of the study by Poros (2011).

Banerjee's study on social networks in the migration process with empirical evidence on chain migration in India finds that, social network plays very important role in the migration process with reference to chain migration. He outlined the causes and consequences of chain migration in urban settings, on the basis of causes and consequences he further divided the chain migration into two categories; one is delayed family migration, and other one is serial migration which is followed by non-family relatives from villages. In case of delayed family migration occurs when family members move from the place of origin to place of destination in lagged stages. In the place of origin, initially one or two member of family migrated first then other family member follows the initial migrants to establish himself at the place of destination. Whereas, serial migration involves interactions between individual who are not the family members and mostly the people created destination based connection after migration. It also found that mostly migrants receive assistance from relatives more frequently than from friends, kinship ties (Banerjee, 1983)

The empirical studies from developing countries draw the importance of social networks and migration process. The Megumi Muto (2012) studies from Uganda assess the impact of mobile phones in internal rural-to-urban migration in Uganda. He also emphasis on the personal network can help rural worker find job in urban areas

too. The piece of information flows from place of destination to origin due to the expansion of the use of mobile technology. The new piece of information flow may strengthen the existing types of personal network among the migrants and strongest tie among the ethnic network. It also provides opportunities to those people who were previously outside of these networks. The author has found that mobile phone technology at the household level increases an individual's chance of getting an employment through the information provided by the older migrants (Megumi Muto, 2012)

Kuhn's (2003) study in Bangladesh found that most of rural-migration occurs through connection of social network which is based on the patrilineal relationship and extended linkages. Such patrilineal relation and extended linkages among the migrants provides further security of job in urban areas. He further discusses the role of lineage, ascribed birth and resources which helps people for inclusion of social network. Thus the clan and locality plays dynamic role in the inclusion of migrants or get job in the urban areas. He also emphasized on the extended family or relationships which are essential for bringing urban employment opportunity into the social segments. Therefore, the successful migration process depends on the kinship tie and patrilineal relationship in the form of social network (Kuhn, 2003)

## **2.9: Duration of Work and Living Condition of Rural-urban Migration and its Consequences**

Gupta and his colleagues discuss the roles of rural migrants in the segment of labour force in Delhi. The rural labour migrants prefer to stay in the slum areas, where the cost of living is very less. It has also found that the segmentation of labour has been done on the basis of their specialization of activities, caste, skill and education in urban labour market. They also analyse the living condition of migrants, their duration of stay and occupation. The study found that majority of people involved in trade activities. They were unable to raise their living standards. In case of migrants the job opportunity is not ample for the urban areas due to categorization of labour force. Mostly migrant labour are illiterate and little education and basically engaged as casual labour, Rickshaw puller and doing some odd job in urban centre like Delhi. The job in the unorganized sector does not ensure the guarantee job security as well the low wage rate. The low level of income always force them to stay at slums, because in

urban centres the living condition very high for which migrants could not effort it. They also found that migrants who are reside for long duration in the urban centre can able get better information then others (Gupta and Mitra, 2002).

Korra (2011) in his study labour migration in Andhra Pradesh, he has discusses the wage rate, types of migration, living and working condition, and the expenditure pattern of migrants. The study analyzes all the three forms of migration, such as individual migration, family migration, and group migration and also highlighting their social and economic aspects of migrants. He has outlining the gender factor in migration in study area, the author states that the majority of male migrants moves to the nearest town, and are known as urban migrants, whereas female migrants prefer to go to the local areas, and are called as rural migrants. In the urban as well as rural migration, both family and group migration found. The nature of their migration is seasonal and cyclical. The main reason of migration is lack of job opportunities in agricultural sector and wage employment in the village force them to migrate to urban. The study also reflexes that nature and characteristics of migration, forms and type of migration, cause of the migration, wage rate, working condition and expenditure pattern of migrants (Korra, 2011).

The emergence and impact of modern lifestyle has important aspect on migration in present society for a better way of life. The study being a path breaking tries to study the lifestyle of Migrants. In addition, it explains the enhancement of lifestyle in migration in various guises, and investigating the historical, sociological, and individualized condition that inspire migration (Benson and O'Reilly, 2009).

The study has explained the motivational factors of migration and its outcomes. The main motive of migration is gaining more money in short period, separation from family is important outcome of migration. The educational background of migrants is up to graduation. Most of the youths have studied up to 10<sup>th</sup> standard, there are very few graduates. Because of the lack of working opportunity in villages, they want to head towards gulf countries for better livelihood. In addition, author has also discussed the process of migration. The process starts with mobilizing money for giving commission to the contact person and agent for visa, who are either in Bombay or Tamil Nadu. Some are able to get visa in time, whereas some got it late or cheated. The result shows that migrant youths are able to raise their material well-being, and

social prestige in villages than non-migrants. They faced some problems in gulf countries, like language, hot environment, health, etc., which are not easily sustained by migrants, many of them return home (Thekamalai, 1992).

The inclusive development and migration have been a trigger for change in rural Bihar. The study examines patterns of change over the last decade, and considers whether prospect for faster or more equitable development have been improved. It also examines whether the model of development based on migration and consumption, out of income transfer and remittances is sustainable. The researcher focused on five major patterns of migration and its impact in rural Bihar. Patterns of migration, like village environment, change in agrarian relations, migration and the labour market, impact of male migration on gender relation, and the role of the state and the institutions of governance. The impact of migration on the consumption pattern, local agricultural shortage, changing gender relation through this the work load has increased on women (Rodgers, 2011).

### **2.10: Gap in Literature**

The above literature reveals that there are several unexplained areas of research which needs to be address specially the tribal migration. First of all a large number of existing theories on migration have been based on studies on international migration rather than internal migration. Although, both involve the movement of people from one geographical location to another, in international migration it has witnessed the various issues such as illegal immigrants, visa and refugees and their entitlement which is not a subject of concern for internal migration. In case of internal migration there is movement of large size unskilled labourer from rural area migrate to urban city centres. Generally, migration from rural to urban areas happens on the basis of 'pull and push' factors. In case of rural migration mostly the push factor is responsible which may be summed up as due to poverty, unemployment and food insecurity in their locality, which forces them to migrate in search of better employment and livelihood options. Undoubtedly it is assumed that there is a positive outcome due to migration. Therefore, there is a need to focus more research on internal migration in micro aspects alongside that of international migration. Besides, the current models of migration are context specific i.e. developed countries like USA, UK and Germany

etc, which are unable to explain the peculiarities of migration which occurs general in India and particularly because of the tribals.

Secondly a significant proportion of research on migration in India focus on rural-urban migration, with little attention paid on tribal migration. The tribals are one of important social category in India. There is need to do research on tribal migration and the existing social network generated during the migration process. The existing theories on social networking and migration are old phenomenon and mostly it discusses international perspective which does not have any relevance in context of developing countries like India. In case of tribal social networking and migration is little different from other aspects. Besides, there are specific regional characteristics in the form of social network which either inducing migration or attract migration and therefore it may not be appropriate that results from particular regions be generalized to the rest of the country. So, therefore, it is necessary to study region specific issues. Thirdly, it is found that the very less proportion of empirical studies done on tribal migration. Therefore, there is need to study the nature and causes of tribal migration. In developing countries like India providing the social security measures in order to reduce poverty, unemployment, food insecurity and migration, but there is little research on this issues, which calls for more focus on this area. Finally some of the studies address the basic issues migration and living conditions. With special reference to the migrants in general and rights of tribal migrants, accessibility government schemes etc. needed to be addressed.



## CHAPTER-III

### DATABASE AND METHODOLOGY

This chapter fulfils the dual role of explaining the statement of the problem and surfacing the research design adopted for the same. For any social science research in general or for that matter any research which deals with the human behaviour or qualitative nature, the necessity of robust and reliable data is indispensable. Though the quality and purity of data is important, it is more important to select a proven scientific method or design to collect the data; it is the systematic and scientific ways which will automatically bring us the reliable and quality data. Next comes the analysis of data under certain decided methodology or research design. The research design is a blueprint of the entire research (from the data collection to data presentation and discussion) which makes sure the perfect execution of the research. This chapter is devoted in describing the above-mentioned words in detailed manner. We have described our methodological consideration bearing its importance on spelling out the proper channel and expected objectives of the research. Determination of universe and fixation of sample size form an integral part of our methodology. It not only helps in providing proper insights into the research problems, but is also helps in outlining a proper order to the entire study. Finally, there is discussion on research design and tools of data collection which ultimately have a vital role in any successful research. The methodology adopted involves the formulation and application of research design that eventually helps in analysing data.

#### **3.1: Statement of the Problem**

Historically, developing countries, including India, have been plagued by skewed distribution of nation's resources leading to acute poverty, illiteracy, low level of consumption and investment, resulting into lagged growth and food scarcity. It has created a problem of unequal opulence, resources, health, education, food, etc., everywhere. In addition or moreover, it is a matter of deep concern for the present time that development could not percolate to the tribal and poverty stricken areas despite the government's planned efforts. Various reasons could be pointed out for this disproportionate socio-economic situation that exists in many geological region of India. One of such region is Odisha. The high incidence of acute poverty, food scarcity, low level of agriculture production and distress migration due to the seasonal

unemployment of the tribal people, living in Rayagada district of Odisha, make this predominantly tribal and rural area a perfect sample for finding out the underlying reasons for this uneven distribution of prosperity. The described condition of the region is supported by the government documented Survey; the district has distinct evidence of impoverishment, malnutrition, baby selling, etc., which surface enough proofs to consider the particular area as impoverished region.

Odisha remains one of the poorest states of the country where about 32 percent (NITI Aayog, former Planning Commission, Government of India, 2011-12) of the whole population live below the poverty line. Rural and urban poverty combined, the state remains the poorest state of the country with poverty head count ratio as high as 47.3 percent against other states of the country (NITI Aayog, former Planning Commission, Government of India, 2017-18). Poverty ratio among the marginalized section of the society is very high as compared to the other elevated section of the society. Among the marginalised sections which according to government categorization, the scheduled tribe population are poorest. The ST and SC communities together are the major inhabitants, contributing to almost 40 percent of the total population of the state, where STs constitute 22.85 percent and SCs 17.13 percent (Odisha Economic Survey, 2017-18). In case of rural areas in Odisha, the ratio of poverty among the ST is high, about 75.6 percent of ST population in the state are living below the poverty line in rural areas in southern Odisha<sup>6</sup>. The southern Odisha is home of many indigenous tribals such as Kondh, Saura, and Sabara tribals in this region. These districts called as the high poverty districts in Odisha (Odisha Economic Survey, 2017-18). More than 60 percent of ST population live in rural areas and their livelihoods primarily depend on agriculture and allied activities (Census, 2011).

Adding to the plight of these communities, Gupta's (2011) study on modernity found out that the mechanisation of agriculture and allied activities further paralyze the employment, and in turn, the bread earning opportunities of these people (Gupta, 2011). These modern tools in agriculture and related activities not only reduce the employment opportunities but has also led the agricultural productivity zero or in

---

<sup>6</sup> Southern Odisha consisting of the following districts such as Ganjam, Gajapati, Rayagada, Kalahandi, Koraput, Malakanagiri, Nabarangapur and Kandhamal, where it is considered the home land of tribals



negative. Allied to the above-mentioned factors- failure of crops due to uncertain monsoon, the high rate of indebtedness, etc. result in rural to urban migration.

In the era of globalization, urban areas require skilled worker or labourer rather than those who are unskilled or manual. The migrant population from rural to urban areas find it very difficult to adjust with their livelihood in such circumstances. The unprecedented inequality among the rural and urban people creates a gap between rich and poor household. The lack of job opportunities, selective farming in rural area and working in subsistence sector are force the rural people to migrate to urban city centres in search of alternative livelihood.

Contrary to the prevailing situation in Odisha and many other parts of country or world, every welfare state has the duty to provide the basic facilities to its citizens in terms of social and economic protection. Social security is a basic protection granted in the form of human right, wherein state or society provides its members a series of public measures which act as insulators against economic and physical distress (Srivastva, 2013). The concept of social security is quite old which aims at achieving better sense of living for individuals and families. It is found from varied sources that social security covers only a small segment of wage workers, which includes non-agriculture workers are only a section (ILO, 2014). The issue of migrant labourers and social security is a serious concern, when we talk about the social security of the marginalized class. The literature covering social security and migration do not take into the account of micro realities where we see the extent of government biasness and negligence towards migrants (ILO, 2014). At present, migration is a universal problem; in addition to it, demographic changes due to advancement in medical facilities, public education, state policies, etc. have resulted significant reshaping of the traditional social and economic structure of the society. In the era of globalization, the sources of livelihood of rural people are no longer confined to only agriculture, and related-unrelated traditional occupation; better transportation, and infrastructure (roads, railway tracks, bridges, etc.) let people move to cities for better and alternative ways of making their end needs. This obviously results from the lack of employment opportunities, acute poverty and food scarcity in their localities. Though state has implemented certain programmes and policies for tackling the migration issue and promoting the livelihood opportunities in the rural or tribal region, yet the migration of people continues (ILO, 2014)

Odisha is suffering from the above-described problems, wherein, basically the lower strata of society, i.e. Scheduled Tribe are worse affected. Scheduled Tribes in Odisha hold significant figure in the world map, where the state represents home of 62 tribals and primitive communities. They comprises of 23 percent of total population of Odisha (Census, 2011). It is found that, among the social sections, STs are facing structural alienation within the Indian society. The tribals are excluded from various aspects such as lack of access to agricultural land and land titles, exploitation in informal sectors where most of tribals are employed, false implication and arrest of being an extremist (Panda et.al, 2014). Tribal exclusion has been further increasing by failure of land reform policies, indebtedness and land alienation. The social exclusion can cause of deprivation and poverty (Sen, 2004) While the agriculture pattern is seasonal, all the adult members do not even find seasonal work, even if they get work wages they are earned can be sufficient for their sustenance of life. It is found that the Scheduled Tribe constitutes a large proportion of agricultural labour, casual labour, plantation labour and industrial labour (Bates and Carter, 1998). In poverty stricken district of Odisha such as Rayagada, Kalahandi, Koraput, Sundargarh and Nuapada are sending the tribal young women and girl migrants towards the new urban city centre for better employment and livelihood, which is considered to be the shift of migration trends. The push factor is responsible for such migration (Jha, 2005). After 1992 neoliberal policies have affected the tribal land alienation and their environments in the name of development. The industries based on mining and natural resources extraction process invariably is leading to the twin problems of environmental degradation and deprivation of livelihood rights (Ambagudia, 2010).

They are considered as socially and economically backward community or section, having possession of very small size of land or barren land or no land; even if there is a small size of land, there is no assurance on its productivity or employment to all the adult members of the house. Notwithstanding, the agricultural employment is seasonal, so even if some members of the family may find job seasonally, they remain jobless for most part of the year. This led the members of family work as part time labourer with low wages, which may or may not be sufficient for their daily needs. It is found that the Scheduled Tribes constitute a large proportion of agricultural labour, casual labour, plantation labour and industrial labour. Bearing in mind the above-mentioned issues, the major aspects of social security, which is of providing better

protection to the poor and deprived section of society, would be holistically analysed in this thesis. Similarly, though some scholars like Massy, Castles, Taylor, Stark, Thieme and Todara have focused their attention on international migration perspectives i.e. remittances, rights, entitlement, and refuges. In case of India migration is very dynamic in the contemporary times. Mostly people are migrating for various reasons specially in the case rural migrants, to different urban city centres for better livelihood and income due to dynamics of better communication and transportation. The living condition of rural migrants at the place of destination is very precarious due to affordability cost of basic housing amenities at urban centres. Kumari's study on tribal migrant as domestic worker in Mumbai analysed the status of tribal domestic migrants before and after migration. Mostly the women migrants are engaged in the unorganised sector as domestic worker and they could not get proper wage and also the basic social security (Kumari, 2015). There is still need to be explored (more promptly in Indian Perspective). The major issues identified includes; As social security schemes are designed to meet the specific well-being of the poor and deprived sections of the society; are the state governments implementing the so-called measures with noble spirit? In reality, these schemes in terms of its reachability to the needy in proper way are still a matter of concern to the social scientists, policy makers and to the researchers.

With regards to the marginalised sections of society, i.e. scheduled tribe, an attempt has been made to examine their socio-economic condition while availing of various schemes, and examining the end result of the schemes. Considering the applicability of such an attempt, and the related issues of the failure and success of various schemes, the present research is an attempt to study the access of social security schemes to the marginalized section, and the reasons of migration among the tribal. Following questions have been framed on the basis of research problems.

- ❖ Has social security measures improved the living conditions of tribal migrants back at their home (native region)?
- ❖ Is social security measure successful in reducing the distressed migration at origin?
- ❖ Do social security schemes help the people to overcome their existing socio-economic condition?

- ❖ Are social security schemes being implemented as per the state guidelines in the relevant area?

### **3.2: Data Sources**

Sources of data are an important component of social science research and also an integral part in any social research. To know the reliability of data, it is important to know the source of data. Primarily, there can be two sources of data- primary, and secondary. In the present study both secondary and primary data were analyzed to achieve objectives of research.

#### **3.2(1): Secondary Data**

It is secondary data that helps to evaluate the success or failure of any existing government schemes. It has helped us to understand the problem with the existing social security schemes as well as migration. The information or data about migration and employment has been collected from various government reports such as National Sample Survey Organization (NSSO), 55<sup>th</sup> round data which were collected during 1999-2000, and 64<sup>th</sup> round data which were collected during 2007-08. These data are used to analyse the nature, trends of migration, reason for migration, period of migration and pattern of out-migration. The census of India 2001, special D-series data were used to determine migration rate for the duration 0-9 years, at the district level for Odisha, and was presented in the census of India 2011. NITI Aayog (former Planning Commission of India) poverty report on Odisha was used to know the extent and nature of poverty rate. Odisha Economic Survey has been used to know the performance of various welfare schemes, SC/ST Training Research Institute Reports on the various special schemes for Tribals and Scheduled castes have been analyzed, International Labour Organization (ILO) Reports have been used to understand the issues of labour, various convention and declaration by ILO which essential to know meaning and definition of social security declaration, social protection and its importance to individual. International Social Security Association (ISSA), this report has used to know the meaning and definition of social security and its coverage in the present era. UN reports also used understand the meaning of migration and definition, other than these above documents related to social security, the present study also

used the micro level documents avails in the government and Non-government Organisation (NGO). Ministry of Rural Development reports were used to know the extent and feasibility of MGNREGA in rural areas, and various planned and non-planned works in study area. It also gives information on the various social security schemes in study area. Odisha Civil Supply Cooperation is one of nodal agency of distribution of PDS ration in rural areas in Odisha. This report gives the insights of both BPL and APL household and quantity of ration to rural household. Another important aspects of present study is to understand the tribal livelihood through the Tribal Empowerment and Livelihood Programme (OTELP). There are various documents of Ministry of Tribal affairs and SC/ST training institute Bhubaneswar has been used to justify the objective of study. These reports or documents have been analyzed for sake of understanding the comparative situation of marginalized section before the announcement of certain welfare schemes and after effect of it.

### **3.2(2): Primary Data**

Primary data is the first hand data which is collected by the researchers or investigator for understanding the various research problems they have already identified. For the present thesis, primary data is very crucial. The data is collected adopting various research tools, e.g. Survey, questionnaires, in-depth personal interviews, observation method, etc.

### **3.3: Locale of the Study area and Selection of District**

The present study is confined in the state of Odisha. Odisha is an Eastern-Coastal Indian state which was used to be the part of Bihar and West Bengal, till it was carved out from it on 1st of April 1936. The state consists of 30 districts; Rayagada is one of the districts of Odisha. The present study is focussed on Rayagada district, a southern most part of Odisha, the connecting boundaries between Andhra Pradesh, Kalahandi and Koraput districts. This district is the land of second-most numbered populace in Odisha after Mayurbhanj, which has about 55.6 percent (Census, 2011) of total tribal population. This is predominantly a tribal populated district mainly consisting of Kondhs, Souras, Sabar and Dongria Kondh, where Kondhs are the major population followed by the Souras (District statistical Handbook, 2011). The majority of the tribal population is still dependent on agriculture and collection of non-timber forest products from forests (District statistical Handbook, 2011). The government has

declared the entire district under schedule-V area<sup>7</sup>, traditionally tribals in Rayagada have engaged in shifting cultivation or *Podu* cultivation. At present it has been included in the “Red Corridor Zone” because of Naxalite insurgency. Further the selective block such as Bissamcuttack, Kashipur, and Kalyansinghpur had attracted several researcher, foreigner, academicians for tribal issues and rural development studies such as tribal rights, dispossession and forest rights has extensive written by Ambagudia, issues of displacement due to the number of major irrigation projects, mining industrial corridors and conservation projects which causes the livelihood of tribals and local people (Kumar, 2006). The new trends of tribal migration among the young tribal women and girls often harassed by the middle men or employer in terms of physically and mentally. It has been found that in the name of better employment or job tribal migrants’ exploited during process of migration to the biggest cities in India (Jha, 2005). Daniel’s study on western Odisha migration suggest that lack of alternative employment and livelihood in local areas one of the reason of migration (Daniel, 2011).

The present study has confined itself to the access to social security and migration among the scheduled tribe population. This district has experienced severe displacement issues due to bauxite mining projects and paper industries in the districts. It is estimated that around 1.5 million tribals in Odisha have been displaced due to the large scale irrigation, mining industries and paper industries (Kumar, 2006). Among the mining industries (UAIL) ‘Utkal Aluminium Industries Limited’ is one of the largest bauxite mining projects in Kasipur block of Rayagada district. The company has started mining operation in the early 90s. The local indigenous people lost their land and livelihood during full-fledge operation of mining project. The company had made false promises of employment basic amenities and infrastructure to local people. However, the company could not kept promise as per the demand of local people. The project was resisted since its establishment by local indigenous people residing area, which led to violence between company and local indigenous people known as Kasipur anti-bauxite mining movement in the year 2000. During the protest, police firing on adivasis in Maikanch village of Kashipur block and three

---

<sup>7</sup> According to Art-244 (1) of Indian constitution defines the schedule-V areas, which deals with special administration provision for the ‘aboriginals’ who are living in socially and economically backward areas. At present there are 10 states of India have coming under scheduled-V areas, where Odisha is one of them. The tribal districts of Odisha are included under scheduled-V areas.

innocents were killed and more than 30 men and women injured by police lathi charge (Indian Express, 2000, P.2). Still people were displaced from the study areas and could not get their due. Another mining project started in the early 2000s known as 'Vedanta Aluminium Company' in border areas of Rayagada and Kalahandi districts. There are more than 10 villages from both Rayagada and Kalahandi displaced due to the encroachment of land and livelihood by the company. There was a nexus between indigenous people and the company for encroachment of 'Niyamgiri Hill'. This hill is considered to be the original habitation of Dongria Kondha, one of the primitive communities, whose daily bread and butter comes from the hill. After the local people protested with help of different international agencies it forced the government to interfere and make the company withdraw the agreement to mining from the Niyamgiri hill (Business Today, 2013).

The meteorological condition of the district is generally hot with high humidity during May and June, in November and December, it is generally cloudy. The monsoon generally breaks during the month of June. The average rainfall in the district is 1505.3 mm. As discussed earlier, agriculture is the main occupation of the people. During the year 2011-12 the net area which was used for crops in the district was 157 thousand hectares, against 5624 thousand hectares of the state. In the year 2011-12 the production of paddy was 1980161 quintals, besides wheat, maize, ragi, mung, cotton, and groundnut are major crops grown in the area. Irrigation remains a crucial factor during Kharif and Rabi seasons. The state implemented some major irrigation projects, like the Badanalla irrigation project, which is working successfully in the districts and has helped in the improvement of agriculture production, and the allied activities (District Statistical Handbook, 2011).

The education system has also played a dynamic role in the improvement of socio-economic conditions of the people. There were 1207 primary schools, 422 middle schools and 13 general colleges in the district. Besides, there is a polytechnic school, and 3 engineering colleges in the district to impart technical education (2013-14). The most important factor which has played a crucial role in the development of any society is the availability of better health care facilities. It is not only an indicator of a better quality of life, but also a progressive society. In the district, medical facilities are provided by different agencies, like Government, Private and voluntary organizations. There are 66 allopathic medical institutions with 287 beds facilities. There are 14

homoeopathic dispensaries, and 20 Ayurvedic dispensaries in the district (District statistical Handbook, 2011).

The role of the mining industries cannot be denied in the development of the region or at least providing the sustenance to the populace with employment opportunities. There are at present 159 small scale industries, established with total capital investment of about Rs.950.89 lakhs, employing 713 people from Rayagada district. Though there are certain number of populace employed, these mining industries and/or activities ranging from small to large scale don't guarantee the employment of local people. These small or medium industries are not in good conditions (financially, at least- running at risk), and consequently, even though they provide some employment opportunity do not guarantee the same throughout the year; it is pretty much like agricultural employment, seasonal. The large mining industries such as Vedanta Aluminium Company, Utkal Aluminium, etc., are one of the largest bauxite mining industries in India, but they don't provide the employment to the local people (District statistical Handbook, 2011).

The transport and communication is one of the important instruments for the sustenance and development of trade and commerce in the district. The district is well connected with other districts of the state, it provides with smooth and easy transportation of goods and services. The physical infrastructures such as railways and roads connect the district with neighbouring districts, and also outside states. The places, like Vishakhapatnam in Andhra Pradesh, Chennai in Tamil Nadu, Kerala, Mumbai and Raipur in Chhattisgarh are well connected with the district under study with strong rail network.

If we see the brighter side of the well-developed communications among places, it is this well-developed transportation which speed-up the process of migration (more and more people were exposed to the different parts of the states and the country, and in turn, hoping to find better career opportunities). Low railway fare also added in migration, people go outside in the search of livelihood (Govt. of Odisha, 2015).

### **3.4: Selection of Village**

The present study was conducted in the Southern Odisha, Rayagada district which is one of the most backward districts of the state. The district itself is home land of many



tribal, who always surrounded with basic problems, like food scarcity, high infant mortality rate, distress migration, land acquisition by the MNCs (Multi-national Company), forest right violation and high incidence of poverty. This district is known for its backwardness, Maoist violence, underdevelopment and persistence of inequality among the people (Times of India, 2005). The four revenue villages from each block of Rayagada district have been selected for the present study. According to the census of India (2011) largest number of tribal population are confined in three blocks such as Kashipur around, Bishamakatak and Kalyansinghpur. The total tribal population of each block were 63 percent in Bissamcuttack, 65.12 percent in Kalyansinghpur and 58.75 percent in Kashipur. All the villages were well connected with transport facilities by both roads and railways, had at least one school and primary health centre in each block, Community Health Centre (CHC) also available there. Among the all three Blocks, Kalyansinghpur block is one of the most backward block, with migration, farmers' suicide, and lack of basic amenities, showing the lower indicator of development (Odisha First Post, 2014).

### **3.5: Selection of Sample Households**

The study is primarily based on the primary data collected from the field. The sample of households has been chosen through the purposive sampling. The first and foremost sampling is selection of district, i.e. Rayagada district, followed by the selection of three blocks on the basis of situation of migrants and the performances of social security schemes, the revenue villages have been chosen. After the selection of block with the help of secondary data from government agency and Non-government Organisation (NGO) reports, the revenue village has been chosen for collection of data. The large size revenue villages have been selected for the study. Final step for sample selection was the selection of households. The selected households are those who have access to the selected important social security schemes provided by government of India, and state. The respondents were usually the head of the household. However, in situations when the head of the household was unavailable, responsible adult member of the household was interviewed. In the absence of migrants of household, the researcher had taken the help of previous migrants' experiences in order to collect the information related to migration process and social networking.

**Table-3.1.1: Sampling Frame of Study Area**

<b>Block</b>	<b>Village</b>	<b>Households</b>
B1- Bissamcuttack (N=120)	B1V1=Dakuluguda(40)	Migrants
	B1V2=Jhimiri Guda(40) B1V3=HadaSikula(40)	Non-migrants
Block-2 Kalyansinghpur N=120	B2V1=Bhataparsi(40)	Migrants
	B2V2=K.Patraguda(40) B2V3=Chanchdaguda(40)	Non-Migrants
Block-3 Kashipur N=120	B3V1= Kutamal(40)	Migrants
	B3V2=Baiganaguda(40) B3V3=Rojanaguda(40)	Non-Migrants

Note: B=Block, V=Village, Value of the Parenthesis Represents the Number of Sample Households

### **3.5 Tools of Data Collection**

Social science research offers a number of methods for the data collection and elicitation. The present study has effectively employed-the survey method, in-depth interview, and observation method to extract required information from the households. The first primary data for this study was collected in the month of January to March, 2016. From the pre conceived notion researcher has ideally started the data collection process during month of January to March because the there is greater chance to meet the migrants as well who just returns to home for festival and social ceremony. The festivals and social ceremony are important integral part of tribal culture. In study area festivals such '*Chaiti Parva*', *Mandia Rani*, and *Kolotha Parava* are mostly celebrated by the tribal people during month of January to March. So, mostly tribal migrants returning to home to celebrate the festival with their family member. It supposed to be perfect time and data collection was carried out in the above mentioned month. For better interaction and information households were contacted in the morning around 7 o' clock and in the afternoon around 5 o' clock for collection of data. By this time there is greater chance to meet with the head of the household. It was proper time to interact with the households to collect information about migration and about selected important social security schemes.

#### **3.5(1): Survey Method**

Survey method is one precursors for collection of primary data, it consists of the structured questions related to various social security schemes, migration, living condition of tribal, social networking, etc. This is an appropriate methodology to find out the performance of a particular social security scheme with regard to its

(un)successful implication and effect. All the households in the pre-identified villages have been surveyed.

### **3.5(2): Interview Schedule**

Keeping objectives of the research intact, the interview was planned, the questionnaire were kept simple and containing both the open and close ended questions. The questions were also prepared keeping in mind that most of the respondents are either illiterate or uneducated; they cannot write and read. The questionnaire both written and oral were bi-lingual as it comprised of both Odiya and English (*Annexure-I*). The set of questions have structured on the basis of pilot study and as well as the objectives of the present research. The nature of enquiry was largely concentrated on personal and social domain of the respondents, e.g. socio-economic, demographic background, their possession of land, size of land holding, assets and liabilities, along with migrants and non-migrants living and working condition, the role of social network in the process of migration, monthly expenditure on food and non-food items, name of place where they are largely migrating, kind of services obtained from the government along with selected social security schemes availed by the tribal people.

### **3.5(3): In-depth Interview**

Another important method of data collection recognized in the literature is in-depth interview method. In the present study, through in-depth interview the researcher collected specific information through discussion on particular issues with key persons, e.g. the government employees, non-governmental employees at district and block offices. The set of question have been structured on the basis of the pilot observation and objectives of the study, which also incorporated the role of government and non-government agencies in taking proactive role in ensuring the reach of social security schemes to the populace. It has been observed that these (non)/government mechanisms played very important role in at least creating awareness about the social security schemes at grass root level.

### **3.5(4): Observation Method**

Besides personal interview and in-depth interview, the observation method has employed in the present research for the observation of mundane lives of tribal

population; their ways of doing things, their tradition and culture, their clothing and food, etc. Observation method becomes very handy in the nature of research as ours. It gives insight of their daily plight and happiness, ritual and their daily chores, their complaining about the government policies, etc. Additionally, the application of observation method during the collection of primary data may reduce the subjective biasness in the study.

### **3.6: Pilot Study**

A good research strategy requires careful planning; and pilot study is the first step of this careful planning. A pilot study is a small scale preliminary study conducted before the actual planning of the research in order to gain the understanding of the nature of the problem and subsequently for the improvement of the design of the research tools. It can help the researcher to sort-out the deficiency in the design proposed for research, and further improve on that before the actual field work or data collection. The pilot study started on 30<sup>th</sup> of April and it went for 12 days, ended on 12<sup>th</sup> of April 2015; through this the survey areas were identified along with the communities and specific people who would be interviewed. A small interview schedule was also designed to know the performance of social security schemes launched by central government and Odisha government, i.e. MGNREGA, PDS OTELP and OLM. In addition, during the pilot survey itself that some secondary level data was collected from the various offices that execute MGNREGA, PDS, OTELP and OLM. The respondents were basically the project director of OTELP, project director of MGNREGA, OLM official Staffs. Apart the interview of these officials, there was another round of survey at village level with 30 households to test the questions to be asked to the households. After conducting the pilot survey, the interview schedule was finalised for the main field survey.

### **3.7: Data Analysis**

The primary data have been analyzed on the basis of code, classification, and tabulation. Statistical analysis of data has also been used. Arc GIS has been used to show the mapping of out-migration and in-migration rate. The binary logistic regressions are used to show the access of social security schemes and migration. In the binary logistic regression the dependent variables are dichotomous indicating

whether the household reporting migrants and non-migrants (1= Migrants and 0=Non-migrants).

### **3.8: Descriptive Statistics**

The present study has used the descriptive statistics to explore quantitative summary with the collection of information. The analysis has been represented in the simple distribution, percentage, average and frequency on a tabular as well as in graphical form.

### **3.9: Statistical Techniques**

In social science research there have been used the various statistical techniques to testify the empirical data to get the objectives. The present research have also been employed the statistical techniques to test the objectives of study, such as univariate, bivariate, correlations and multivariate analysis. The univariate analysis has been used to know the percentage of distribution of migrant household and non-migrant household.

#### **3.9(1): Migration Rate**

According to Bhende and Kanitkar, migration rate is number of migrants related to the population that they have migrated during a given interval (Bhende and Kanitkar, 2015).

$$m = M/P * k$$

Here m= migration rate

M = Number of migrants

P= Population ready to migrate during the reference period

k=1000

### **3.9(2): Net-migration Rate**

The difference between how many people come from other regions to live in the regions

$$nmr = ((I_i - O_i)/P_i) * k$$

Where, nmr= Net migration Rate

I<sub>i</sub>= Number of in-migration

O<sub>i</sub>= Number of out-migration

P<sub>i</sub>=Total Population of Area k=

k=1000

### **3.9(3): Out-migration Rate**

The number of population leaves one region in order to settle in another place.

$$omr = ((O_i - I_i)/P) * k$$

Where, O<sub>i</sub>= Out-migration

I<sub>i</sub>=In-migration

P= Total Population of area

k=1000

### **3.9(4): Percentage**

For the comparison among migrants and non-migrants, simple percentage has been used to calculate the percentage in the present study.

*Percentage (%)*

$$= \text{No. of Respondents belonging to a particular category} \\ / \text{Total no. of respondents} * 100$$

### **3.10: Assets Index/Wealth Index**

To know economic development status of migrant and non-migrant households, assets index or wealth index estimation is used in this present study. This index has been widely used by scholars for estimation of economic development of various countries in relation to know inequalities household income as well as the household assets (Rustain et al., 2000). Mostly, people always not only keep cash in hand but also invest their money on durable or luxury items; which has both intrinsic and extrinsic value. Therefore, it is an indicator to estimate the level of wealth that is dependent on income and expenditure measures of household (Rustain, 1999). It has used wealth index to estimate the household level assets. Since the study has carried out in the

tribal areas. The assets of the tribal may vary from one household to another according to availability and possession of assets. To understand the wealth accumulation or income level among the household using the factor analytic technique in the present study. Factor analysis is a method which simplifies the complex and diverse relationships that exist among a set of observed variables i.e. tribal household assets by uncovering factors that link together the seemingly unrelated variables and consequently provides insight into the underlying structure of the data (Dillon and Goldstein, 1984; Raushan, 2015). Here the factor analysis employed using principal component methods to get the Eigen (E-value) values greater than unity. Measurement of household assets is a three step process, firstly using the set of variables such as household assets including motor bike, electrical appliances, livestock, orchard tree and agriculture equipments for the particular component, total component score is generated. In the second step, using total component scores, household assets value scores are generated. Third step using total assets scores, then household assets index value is generated. In every step during aggregation of scores, Eigen value is used as weight to measure the variance in the variables. Each household is then assigned a score for each asset and the scores were summed for each household at last. Individual are ranked according to the score of households in which they living. Then sample household were divided into ten quintiles i.e. five groups such as poorest, poorer, middle, rich and richest with an equal number of individual in each (NFHS-3, 2007; Raushan, 2015). Here is the formula;-

$$\text{Household Assets} = \text{Total Households Assets} / \sum 5 \text{ selected rank} * ai$$

### 3.11: Logit Model

The logistic regression model, we assume P the probability of occurrence of events is related to the Independent variables. The equation used in this analysis is;

$$\text{Log} \left( \frac{P}{1-P} \right) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_3 + \beta_4 X_4 + \dots \dots \beta_k X_k$$

Where,  $\beta_0$ = Constant

$X_1, X_2, \dots$  Independent variable

$\beta_1, \beta_2, \dots$  are the coefficients of  $X_1, X_2, \dots$

$p$ = the probability of household migrants and non-migrants/ the probability of accessing social security schemes.

Logistic regression forms best functions in using the maximum likelihood method which maximum likelihood method which maximizes the probability of classifying the observed data into the appropriate category given the regression coefficients. The Logit (log odds) are the b coefficient (the slope values) of regression equation. The slope can be interpreted as the change in average value in the odds of membership in the target group for a one unit increase in the predictor. It is calculated by using the regression coefficient of the predictor as the exponent or exp.

### **3.12: Limitations of Study**

The present research is a micro level study, which doesn't cover every aspect of social security schemes and migration, as the objectives were framed considering the time and resources constrains applicable to the nature of the work, such as Ph.D. The findings of the study cannot be generalized due to its mono district approach, i.e. the research is solely concentrated on Rayagada district, Odisha. Besides, the sample size is only 360 and it does not cover all blocks of the district. Therefore, the findings and suggestions would be applicable to only those areas which are similar to Rayagada in flora and fauna, and population size. In the process of data collection, district administration did not allow me to go to the interior of villages due to the so-called Maoist activities and resulting possible danger, this could be enlisted as one of the drawbacks of the study. The non-administrative problem encountered by the researcher during the collection of primary data was the barrier of local language. In addition, some of the respondents were illiterate, they could not give the appropriate information about the important social security schemes (they might not have understood it, or not known about it). Nonetheless, they are very simple, and cooperative with the researcher, patiently listening to the queries and providing with valuable information. Despite adverse situation of the field, the researcher has collected the valuable information regarding the implication of various social security schemes and migration.

### **3.13: Chapterization**

The study is divided into seven chapters. First chapter is the introduction, which discusses the theoretical discourse on the social protection schemes with the present context and importance of the same in the era of globalisation. It also talks about the conceptualised understanding of the social security and historical evolution process of social security by the International Labour Organization (ILO) through its various



conventions. It has included the dimension or literature discussing the need to include the migrant people in the social security schemes and various secondary level data on migration in India NSSO 64<sup>th</sup> round were analysed to substantiate the present study. The chapter also discusses the research objectives of the present study along with the research questions. Second chapter has discussion on the various existing literature related to the migration and social security schemes. It has been divided into the four sections, and every section tries to explain about the existing migration theories given by various economists and sociologists. The second section is related to the specific issues like rural and urban migration, in addition to the social network, working and living condition of the migrants, etc. Third chapter is the discussion about the database and research methodology of the present research. This section starts with statement of problem and research design adopted for this study. Sampling selection, data sources, tools, technique, and limitation of study have been explained in this chapter.

Fourth chapter throws light on the geographical location where a brief account of historical background about the state and district is profiled. The chapter also talks about the selected villages in the area for our current study. In addition, it also provides a detail account of demographic profile of people and their socio-economic conditions.

Fifth chapter provides detail analysis of various social security schemes availed by the sample respondents at origin. This study deals with MGNREGA as a form of livelihood to the local people; it talks about the level of awareness among people about their 'right to work', so far as mgnrega programme is concerned. It also discusses about the coverage of PDS programme at micro level, and its functions which is to provide people food security. In addition, OTELP and OLM have been discussed in a detail, particularly to know their functions and performances at grass root level.

In the Sixth chapter we have discussed the social networking of migrants from origin to destination. Social networking process is one of the primary reason for rural to urban migration. The chapter also discusses about the working and living condition of migrants at working place.

Final or Seventh chapter is the summary of the entire research along with conclusion, findings and recommendation. In addition, it also includes some other important listings such as bibliography, annexure and maps.

## CHAPTER-IV

### PROFILE OF STUDY AREA

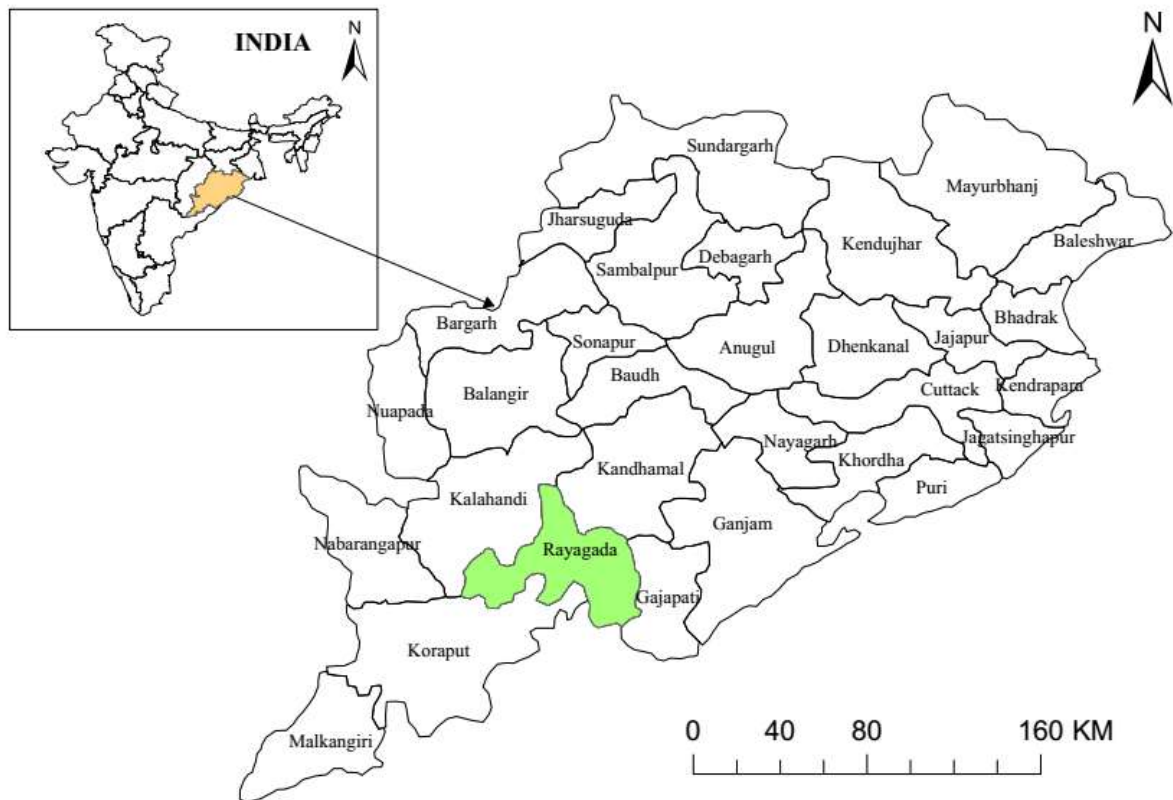
In this chapter an attempt has been made to provide a profile of the study area on the basis of both primary and secondary data. The primary data has been collected during the field study in order to arrive at a clear and precise understanding of research objectives. In this section the profile of study area and demographic characteristics of sample respondents has been discussed at length. The profile of study area has been mapped using the indicators of development i.e. education, health, employment and infrastructure. It goes beyond doubt that the lack of basic facilities and infrastructure leads to under development which is expressed in the form poverty, unemployment, distress migration and indebtedness among population.

This section also depicts the brief profile of respondents. It deals with variables like age, sex, marital status, education and, income which are the indicators of human development. The detail information of sample respondents is discussed in the following sections.

#### 4.1: Demographic Profile of Study Area

The present study is confined in Odisha. Odisha is an Eastern-coastal Indian state which was a part of Bengal province till it was carved out in 1936. The state consists of 30 Districts, 58 Sub-divisions, 171 Tehsils and 314 Blocks (Census, 2011). It extends from 17<sup>0</sup> 49 N to 22<sup>0</sup> 34 N latitude and from 81<sup>0</sup> 27 E to 87<sup>0</sup> 29 E longitudes on the Eastern coast of India. The state is bound by the Bay of Bengal on the East, Jharkhand and West Bengal on the North, Chhattisgarh on the West, and Andhra Pradesh on the South (District Statistical Handbook, 2011). According to the census 2011, the total population of Odisha is about 41 million, making it the 11<sup>th</sup> most populated state in India. The state contributes about 3.4 percent of the country's population. The state spread over an area of about 155,707 Square Km making it 9<sup>th</sup> largest state in the country. The total decadal population growth was 14.05 percent which is below the national average and over all sex ratio is 978 out of 1000 male (Census, 2011). In Odisha 9.5 million are the population of Odisha is where the male population is 4.7 million and female 4.8 million respectively. This constitutes 22.1 percent of the total population in the state and where 9.7 percent of the total tribal population of the country (Census, 2011).

**Map-4.1 Location Map of Study Area**



**Table-4.1.1 Population Trends among STs in Odisha 1961-2011(in Millions)**

Year	Total ST Population(India)	Proportion of STs in India	Total ST Population(Odisha)	Proportion of STs in Odisha
1961	30.1	6.9	4.22	24.07
1971	38.0	6.9	5.07	23.11
1981	51.6	7.8	5.91	22.43
1991	67.8	8.1	7.03	22.21
2001	84.3	8.2	8.14	22.01
2011	104.3	8.6	9.59	22.85

Sources: Census of India, 1961-2001, District Statistical Handbook, 2011

Table-4.1.1 depicts the trends of population growth in Odisha in general and tribal population in particular. It shows the increasing and decreasing population over a decade, as per 1991 census the total Scheduled Tribe population in Odisha was 7 million, which constituted 22.21 percent in Odisha and 8.2 percent of the total tribal population in India. Therefore it is clear that Odisha ranks third among all states in terms of scheduled tribe population. In 2001 census total tribal population constitutes

the 8.1 million and the percentage was 22.01 which have increased to nearly 23 percent with 9.6 million STs in the state.

**Table-4.1.2 Sex Ratio Trends among ST Population in Odisha (1961-2011)**

Year	Odisha	India
1961	1016	1001
1971	1007	988
1981	1012	981
1991	1012	971
2001	1003	972
2011	1029	979

Sources: Census of India, 1961-201, District Statistical Handbook, 2011

Table-4.1.2 represents the sex ratio of STs in Odisha from year 1961 to 2011, which shows the gradually increasing of sex ratio since the year 1961. It is one of the most important demographic indicators for studying the population trend. The number of females per 1000 males is defined as sex ratio. The trend of the sex ratio is remarkable among the ST Communities as compared to overall sex ratio of other communities of Odisha. It reveals an increase in every decade and is higher than the national average. Although in some of the states level of sex ratio is alarming situations but in case of Odisha STs are at advantage about 1029 female per 1000 male. Increase in the sex ratio is considered to be the better indicator of human development.

**Table-4.1.3 Literacy Trends among ST Population in Odisha (1961-2011)**

Year	Male	Female	Gender Gap in Literacy	Total
1961	13.0	1.77	11.27	7.36
1971	16.4	2.28	13.8	9.45
1981	23.3	4.76	18.51	14.0
1991	34.4	10.21	24.23	22.3
2001	51.48	23.37	28.11	37.37
2011	63.7	41.2	22.50	52.24

Sources: Census of India, 1961-2011, District Statistical Handbook, 2011

Table-4.1.3 depicts the STs literacy rate from 1961-2011. Education is an important indicator of human development as well as socio-economic development of a region. It widens the horizon of knowledge and raises a person's capabilities for better livelihood options. It contributes to overall economic growth of the region through greater use of skilled manpower. It shows that in every decade the literacy rate among the both SCs and STs has been increasing reasonably. In case of male literacy, there has been a significant increase due to the government initiatives on universalization of education. The SCs literacy is also increasing but it is not that significant as national

level. There is still low level of female literacy among the marginalised communities. ST female literacy has increased from a very low level of 4.76 percent in 1981 to 41.20 percent in 2011, but still significantly lower than SC and general female literacy. Though ST male literacy increased from 23.3 percent in 1981 to 63.7 percent in 2011, there is still huge gap between them and the general male literacy. In comparison, SC communities have done better but SC male literacy has almost bridged the gap with the general male literacy and SC female are also catching up fast. In Odisha literacy rate has improved by 10 percent in this decade. Odisha Government has taken significant measures to improve quality of education in the state. Better education facilities are offered to the people especially in the remote cities and towns of Odisha. Among the 30 districts of Odisha, Rayagada is the one them. Rayagada is one of the southernmost district in Odisha. The district came into existence on the 2<sup>nd</sup> October 1992. It lies between 82° 2 East longitude 19° 0 to 19° 58 North latitude. The climate condition of the district is generally hot with high humidity during May and June and cold during November and December. Monsoon generally breaks during the month of June. The average rainfall of the district is 1505.3 mm and agriculture is the main occupation of the people. There are different social groups living in this district. The concentration of tribal population is more than any other social groups in the district. According to 2011 census about 55.76 per cent of tribal population is living in Rayagada district, which has third highest tribal population in Odisha. Rayagada is one of the most backward districts in Odisha as well as India which is coming under the KBK (Kalahandi, Bolangiri and Koraput) region. It is situated in the southern part of Odisha.

Table-4.1.4 shows the district profile in terms of geographical and demographical, there are various demographic indicators such as male, female population sex ratio, and density of population. The demographic features seem to be very interesting in terms of male and females. Among them sex ratio is one of them, it is very at national levels. Whereas the literacy level is low overall compares to other developed district of Odisha. Rayagada district is as well as the geographical indicator

**Table-4.1.4 Profile of Rayagada District**

S. No	Indicators	Figures
1	<b>Area</b>	7,073 Sq. Kms (4.54%)
	Forest Areas	2812.33 (1.98%)
	Reserve Forest	771.62 (.36%)
2	<b>Block</b>	11
	No. of Sub-Divisions	02
	Villages	2667
	Principal Crops	Paddy
	Industries	UAIL, IMFA, J.K. Paper Mill
3	<b>Population</b>	967,911
	Male	471,960 (51%)
	Female	495,951(49%)
	Sex ratio (Female/1000)	1051
	Density	137 Sq. Kms
4	<b>Literacy</b>	407,735 (49.76%)
	Male	241,959(61.64%)
	Female	165,776(39.19%)
5	Rural Population	820945(84.82)
	Urban Population	146966(15.18%)
6	<b>ST(Scheduled Tribe)</b>	541905 (55.76%)
	Male	259,040 (58.11%)
	Female	282,865 (61.89%)
	Sex Ratio (Female/1000)	1284

Source: (Census of India 2011, District Statistical Handbook, 2011)

The selection procedure is firstly based on the concentration of tribal population, lower socio-economic status and finally focusing upon the issue of migration and bonded labour. Rayagada became infamous for the recurrent issues of hunger, starvation death, malnutrition and distress migration. Although the district is rich in natural resources and industries but the backwardness of this region is a severe issue. About 85 percent of population is living in the rural areas of the district where acute poverty, unemployment, displacement and distress migration are more prominent (District Statistical Handbook, 2011).

#### **4.2: Demographic Profile of Sample Households**

The demographic characteristics of both migrant and non-migrants of the study area are discussed in this section. The indicators of demographic characteristic considered are age, sex, marital status, average size of the households and literacy status. The positivity reflected in the demographic characteristic is often indicative of better human development.

**Table-4.2.1 Demographic Profile of the Sample Households**

Sex	Migrants	Non-migrants	Total
Male	93.62	92.8	93.33
Female	6.38	7.2	6.67
Total	100	100	100
<b>Marital Status</b>			
Never Married	2.12	1.6	1.95
Currently Married	87.66	87.2	87.5
Separated	4.26	4.8	4.44
Widow	5.96	6.4	6.11
Total	100	100	100
<b>Distribution of the Respondents by Age</b>			
15-19	8.94	6.4	8.06
20-24	35.74	16.8	29.17
25-44	48.51	58.4	51.94
45-64	6.81	18.4	10.83
Total	100	100	100

Sources: Field Data, January- March, 2016

Table-4.2.1 reveals the distribution of respondents by their sex among the migrant and non-migrant population in the study area. It has been found that 93.62 percent of the migrants are male and the rest 6.38 percent are female. On the other hand, 92.80 percent of the non-migrants, are male whereas 7.20 percent of the non-migrants are female. So, based on the above study it can be concluded that the percentage of male migrants is more than the percentage of female migrant. It clearly shows that the sex ratio here is favourable towards male migrants rather than female migrants. In fact, NSSO 64<sup>th</sup> round data reveals that there is higher proportion of male out-migration in rural area for the employment related reasons i.e. 79 percent, while lower proportion of female are out-migrated for employment related reason i.e. around 2.4 percent. Thus, it can be concluded that in study area mostly male persons migrated for search of employment and livelihood.

Another aspect of demographic characteristic is the marital status of the respondents in the study area. Here marital status has been categorised into four i.e. never married, currently married, separated and widow. This table indicates 2.12 percent migrants are never married and 1.60 percent non-migrants are never married. Like that, out of the total sample respondents, 87.66 percent of respondents are currently married whereas 87.50 percent of non-migrant respondent are currently married and around 7 percent of migrant respondents are widow and 6.40 non-migrants are widow. It also shows



that among the migrants, 4.26 per cent are separated which is around 4.80 per cent amongst the non-migrants. Therefore, here the total percent of unmarried respondents are 1.67, married are 87.74 and widows are 10.58 out of the total sample. So here, it has been easily concluded that the number of married respondents are larger than never married and separated as well as widow.

Age structure is also one of the important aspects of demographic features and the table indicates that around 48.5 percent of migrants belong to the age group of 25-44, followed by 37.7 percent in age group of 25-24. Generally, these age groups are coming under the working age for which people aspire to go out for various reasons. So it clearly indicates that most of youths are migrating from the study area at this specific age group. Similarly, on the other hand highest percent of non-migrants i.e. 58.4 per cent belong to the age group of 25-44 years and 18.4 percent of non-migrants are in the age groups of 45-64. Basically in the age group 25-44 are mostly engaged in own cultivation and during the lean season they get some employment to enhance livelihood through government schemes such as MGNREGA, OTELP and OLM act as life guard for poor people in the study region.

**Table-4.2.2 Distribution of Respondents by Literacy Status**

Literacy Status	Migrants	Non-migrants	Total
Illiterate	29.36	29.6	29.34
Literate	70.64	70.4	70.66
Total	100	100	100
Education Level			
Primary	40.36	57.95	46.46
High school	28.31	15.91	24.01
Literate but no formal Schooling	31.33	26.14	29.53
Total	100	100	100

Sources: Field Data, January- March, 2016

Table-4.2.2 represents the literacy status of the respondents, which clearly indicates that the percentages of total illiterate and literate migrants are 29.36 and 70.64 respectively. Similarly the percentage of illiterate and literate among the non-migrants are 29.6 and 70.4 respectively. Therefore, finally it is observed that out of the total sample respondent 29.17 percent respondents are illiterate, which is less than the percentage of literate respondents that is around 70.56 percent. The empirical study claims that migration is highest among the illiterate people; they are engaged in the low paid job and especially in the construction site as manual labour. The persons

having some kind of primary schooling or little education are also seeking low-end jobs and getting meagre wage (Mishra et.al, 2008)

Table-4.2.2 also represents the distribution of education level of the respondents. There is evidence that education is considered one the factor of migration. Education is one of the important components not only for the development of one's personality and income but also for the sustained growth of a nation. It is one of the crucial parameter for the socio-economic development of the people. This is because most of the migrant workers belong to poor families, and at a very young age the burden of family pressure force them to drop out from school and look for other opportunities. Around 46.6 percent of total sample respondents are having primary education out of which 40.36 percent are migrants and 57.97 percent are non-migrants. It also found that, around 28.3 percent of migrants are attaining the high school. It is evident from the study area that promotion of government schemes such as skill development training programme through OLM for rural youths and skilled training programme for the old migrants is important initiative which helps them to migrate to the urban cities. The young mass after getting vocational training on tailoring, plumber, food processing, paint and electronic repair. They were sending to metro cities like Chennai, Hyderabad and Bangalore for employment. 29.53 percent respondents are literate but without any formal schooling, out of which 31.33 percent are migrants and 26.14 percent are non-migrants.

### **4.3: Socio-Economic Background of the Households**

It is necessary to know the information regarding socio-economic conditions of the respondents as it impacts the pattern of livelihood and the living conditions. In the socio-cultural milieu of the society, the migrant labourer comprises the lower strata. In fact, the migrants are either small land holders or landless, which is a crucial aspect of socio-economic inequality and necessary to address for upliftment of the people for rural development. Along with the land holding, caste position, age, sex, education, occupation, and income are most significant indicators to know the socio-economic status of the respondents.

**Table-4.3.1 Distribution of Respondents by their Primary Occupation**

Primary Occupation	Migrants	Non-migrants	Total
Cultivation	77.45	91.2	82.22
Non-Agriculture	17.02	7.2	13.00
Livestock Rearing	5.53	1.6	4.78
Total	100	100	100

Sources: Field Data, January-March, 2016

Table-4.3.1 indicates the occupation of the respondents. Here the occupation is consisting of two categories such as primary and secondary. The occupation of person is directly or indirectly related to the strengthening economic condition people as well as the society. Therefore occupation plays crucial role for shaping better life conditions of people. Table- 4.3.1 shows primary occupation of the sample respondent categories into cultivation, non-agriculture work which includes wage labourer; trade in seasonal forest products, collection of firewood, forest non-timber products and livestock rearing. The first and foremost primary occupation is cultivation. The primary occupation is indicative of the household's single source of income in a financial year. The NSSO defines "all activities relating to production crops and related allied activities are known as cultivation" (NSSO, 2015). In study areas it is found that of both migrant and non-migrant around 82.22 percent households are engaged in cultivation as their primary occupation. Among the migrants households around 78 percent and among non-migrant 91 percent are cultivator, as the national level data reveals that highest around 43 percentage of households were engaged in cultivation (NSSO, 2015). In Odisha, about 70 percent of population in rural areas directly or indirectly still depend on agriculture as their main occupation to support their livelihood (Odisha Human Development, 2004). Therefore, cultivation is considered to be the main stay of state's economy and basic means of livelihood for rural people. 17.02 migrants and 7.2 are non-migrants are engaged in non-agricultural activities. It means people are engaged in the collection of firewood and non-timber forest products such as honey, tendu leaf, saal leaf, rosin, lac etc. and also selling of seasonal forest products such as turmeric, ginger, tamarind, mango, jackfruits, wild yams and tubers. 5.5 percent of the migrants and 1.6 percent of non-migrants are engaged in the livestock rearing as their primary occupation. The livestock includes animals which are used for food, fibre and labour such as cow, buffalo, ox, goat, hen and sheep etc. are the major livestock which people are rearing in the study area. The data at all India level reveals that lowest i.e. around 2 percent of households belonged

to the livestock farming as primary occupation (NSSO, 2015). It has been found that, the majority of people in study area engaged in the cultivation as their primary occupation, as the national level data reveals that highest around 43 percentage of households belonged to the cultivation and in rural India more than 48 percent of the households have derived their major source of income from cultivation (NSSO, 2015). But irregularity of monsoon brings drought situation which ultimate hamper in the poor yield of agriculture production. The current study area reveals that existing social security schemes such as OTELP and OLM are functioning, to enhance better sustainable livelihood to the poor and marginal people. Through such schemes people are getting monetary assistance as well as agriculture inputs, livestock form experts to improve their primary occupation.

**Table-4.3.2 Distribution of Respondents by their Secondary Occupation**

Secondary Occupation	Migrants	Non-migrants	Total
Casual labour	71.06	78.4	73.82
Agriculture	11.06	8.8	10.28
Petty Business	1.28	1.6	1.39
Household work	15.7	9.6	14.51
Total	100	100	100

Sources: Field Data, January-March, 2016

In the interview scheduled occupation was divided into two categories i.e. primary and secondary. The table-4.3.2 represents the secondary occupation of the respondents in the current study. It is consisting of casual labour, agriculture activities, petty business, and household work. Generally in rural areas, it has found that simultaneously people were performing secondary occupation also. As in the earlier table-4.3.2 indicates the primary occupation of study areas, it has been found that most of the people are engaged in cultivation as their primary occupation. Most of the people are engaged as unskilled casual labourer which around 71 percent of migrants and 78.4 percent non-migrants in the current study area, it is secondary occupation of the people after engaged in primary occupation. They are also engaged in the agriculture activities like levelling field, preparing field for agriculture, vegetable cultivation etc. throughout year which accounts the 11.6 percent among the migrants and 8.8 percent non-migrants. Another aspect of secondary occupation is petty business, which includes selling the seasonal non-timber forest products such as bamboo, honey, lac, saal leaf, Mahua flower, Karanja and tendu leaves. It accounts

1.28 percent among the migrants and 1.6 percent non-migrants. Household work is also one of the important secondary occupations in current study area. The people are engaged in the household work such making mat, broom, products, collecting fire wood etc. In study area, it has been found that the promotion of government schemes such OLM and OTELP are considered to be important livelihood option for the people, under this scheme people are getting benefits to develop the petty business, marketing of seasonal forest products and making broom.

#### **4.4: Basic Amenities and Housing Condition of the Sample Households**

Basic amenities are essential foundation for a decent living and it enhances economic growth and quality of life. The basic amenities is consisting of safe drinking water, sanitation, housing, type of fuel used for the cooking and electrification. There are non-negotiable conditions for living but for last 72 years of planned development intervention, the Government has neglected this aspect without any substantial achievement even today. Unless these basic issues of the poor and the marginalised sections are not solved, it is difficult to ensure inclusive growth. It is linked to qualitatively improve living and the modern state has to ensure this out of public finance through dedicated institutional arrangement. But this process has not produced the desired result, especially for the deprived majority of the poor and marginalised in states like Odisha. The negligence in public investment for developing basic amenities for last 72 years has widened rural and urban gap as a result of which mostly the rural poor are migrating to urban areas for a better living (First Post, Odisha, 2014). Studies found that lack of basic amenities has wider impact over working condition people and the trend shows that the work culture in rural areas has been deteriorating with increasing health problems along with lack of improvement in education and skill. The social life and living condition in rural areas and its changing process are linked to availability of basic amenities. In order to understand socio-economic development of people, it is important to study the basic amenities and housing condition of people.

**Table-4.4.1 Distribution of Households by their Housing Condition and Basic****Amenities**

Ownership of House	Migrants	Non-migrants	Total
Owned	98.29	98.4	98.26
Rented	1.71	1.6	2.64
Any other	--	--	--
Total	100	100	100
<b>Type of House</b>			
Kacha	18.3	22.44	19.72
Pacca	52.76	55.23	53.61
Semi-pacca	28.94	22.43	26.67
Total	100	100	100
<b>Latrine Facilities</b>			
Yes	29.79	32.00	30.65
No	70.21	68.01	69.44
Total	100	100	100
<b>Safe Drinking Water</b>			
Yes	71.48	87.2	76.94
No	28.51	12.8	23.05
Total	100	100	100
<b>Source of Safe Drink Water</b>			
Piped water into Near Dwelling Room/ Yard	15.11	25.4	18.8
Public Tape/Tube well	40.80	44.4	42.76
Covered Well	16.3	18.00	16.22
Uncovered Well	28.11	12.8	22.22
Total	100	100.6	100
<b>Bathing Facilities</b>			
Yes	9.3	7.2	8.62
No	91.04	92.8	91.38
Total	100	100	100

Sources: Field Data, January- March, 2016

Table-4.4.1 depicts the housing condition and basic amenities of sample household in the study area. The basic human needs approach is integral component to develop the basic needs of people through providing basic material to the common people (Goldstein, 1985; Hicks and Streen, 1979; Zienkowski, 1971). The development of an economy ideally depends on the quantum of better basic human needs, which enhance the development of human development of country as well the country's economy growth (Mishra and Shukla, 2015). Table-4.4.1 indicates the housing characteristics, which includes the ownership of house, type of houses, basic sanitation facilities, drinking water and sources of drinking water facilities. Initially table shows the ownership status of house, according to census ownership means self occupying owned by the household and not making any payments in the form of rent to anyone.

If the household paid rent in the form of cash or kind for accommodation then it is considered as rented. According to the National Family Health Survey (NFHS-4) reveals the ownership of house in rural area is around 83.7 percent, while rural area accounts 87 percent (NFHS, 2017). In the study area, the ownership status of household consisting of owned and rented any others constitute about 98.26 percent of household which includes both migrant and non-migrant. 2.64 percent of household are not the owner of the house, it means they don't have any legal papers related to claiming his/her ownership of house and staying in rented room. But some time they are paying rent in the form of cash to the owners of the house.

Another characteristic is type of housing, which means the physical structure of house. In study area, it has been found that there are three type houses such as Pacca, Kachha and Semi-pacca. According to NFHS-4 in Odisha indicates that total 44.5 percent of houses were the pucca houses both in rural and urban areas, while in rural areas around 40 percent of the houses were pucca (NFHS-4, 2017). In study areas it has been found that 53.61 percent of sample household having pucca house. It means the dwellings that are designed to be solid and permanent consisting of material such as stone, bricks cement and concrete house. These pucca houses were provided by the central government and state government schemes sponsored i.e. Indira Awas Yojana now renamed as Pradhanmantri Awas Yojana, whereas, state government sponsored Biju Pacca Ghar Yojana and 'MoKudia' Yojana. It represents the highest percent of the sample size i.e. 53.61 percent including 52.77 percent migrant and 55.20 percent non-migrant household. The pucca houses had more than two rooms. About 19.72 percent are living in Kachha houses which constitute both migrant and non-migrant household. NFHS-4 indicates that in Odisha 20.5 percent of people are living in the Kachha houses, and in rural areas is 23.5 percent (NFHS-4, 2017). This means that Kachha houses are made up of mud, straw and bamboo, around 18.3 percent of migrant household live in Kachha houses and which is 22.4 percent for the non-migrants. The reason behind the less percentage of Kachha house is due to migration, they spent money to build the pucca houses through remittance. The semi-pacca houses were made up of bricks wall with straw and wooden roofs. The total semi-pacca housing facility is around 26.67 percent, while 28.94 percent of the migrant and 22.40 percent of non-migrants live in such houses in the study area.

Access to latrine facilities is one of the essential elements of basic household characteristic. It is considered to be the one of integral part of public health and

hygiene. It is one of the important factors of social development and positive sign of improving the life expectancy and morbidity. The lack of proper sanitation creates the various water borne diseases like diarrhea, cholera, dysentery and malaria. According to the census data at the national level only 47 percent households have access to any toilet facilities (Census, 2011). A recent study of United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) indicates that 638 million people i.e. 54 percent of defecate in the open in India, which is 7 percent each in Brazil and Bangladesh (Kalkoti, 2013). In rural areas, it is largely due to the lack of any toilet facility that people defecate in the open space. The biggest challenge is open defecation, which is the mother of all infection and morbidity. It is a matter of national concern as India has the most number of people practicing open defecation in the world, around 600 million. Open defecation is a major cause of fatal diarrhoea. According World Health Organization report (WHO), everyday about 2000 children aged less than five succumb to diarrhoea and every 40 seconds a life is lost. In 2013, the United Nations brought the world attention towards 'Open Defecation Free' for the first time and World Toilet Day was celebrated. The UN has vowed to eliminate open defecation from the globe by 2025. India is the largest contributors of open defecation in the world because people are unaware, there is prevalence of acute poverty, and unemployment. The NFHS-4 data reveals that about 65 percent of total households in Odisha do not have toilet facility which means household members practice open defecation, where rural area accounts 72 percent household used open space for defecation (NFHS-4, 2017). It is much common practice among in rural areas, now the government of India promoting for open free defecation under the ministry of water and sanitation. In study area is also not exception of this practice; the data reveals around 69.44 percent of the household does not have latrine facilities which includes both migrant and non-migrant, while 70.21 percent migrant and 68.00 percent non-migrant households. Whereas, the household having latrine facilities is very less percentage i.e. around 29 percent among the migrant and 32 percent in non-migrant. The existing latrine facilities in study area are due to government interference under the scheme of SBM (Swacha Bharat Mission) which provides the toilet facilities to each individual household at the cost of Rs. 12000 (MoRD, 2016).

The safe drinking water is crucial element of human development and public health. Access to safe drinking water is not only an important measures of the socio-



economic status of the household but also fundamental to the health of the people. According to the UN General Assembly in 2010 recognized access to safe and clean drinking water and sanitation as a human right. The census data reveals that about 85.5 percent of household in India have access to safe drinking water from sources like tap or tube well, while 82.7 percent of rural household access the safe drinking water (Census, 2011). In the current study area, it has been found that of the total sample households' access to safe drinking water is around 76.9 percent including both migrant and non-migrant, while migrant household is 71.4 percent and 87.2 percent non-migrant. It means the rural households access to improved sources drinking water due to government intervention to provide tube well, tap water facilities in the locality. The household do not access to safe drinking water in the study area is 23 percent which includes both migrant and non-migrant household. Still in study area the people are depends on unimproved water such as river and stream. Better accessibility implies better means of safe drinking water depends on sources of drinking water. According to census data, overall 87 percent of household in India were using tap water, tube well, hand pump, and covered well as source of drinking water (Census, 2011). Table-4.4.1 also shows the sources of safe drinking water. In the current study area, sources of drinking water is classified into four categories such as piped tap water near to the dwelling house or backyard, tube well, public tape or tube well, covered public well and uncovered public well. It has been found that household having piped tap water near to the dwelling house or backyard is around 18.6 percent including both migrant and non-migrant household, where migrant is 15.3 percent and 25.4 percent non-migrant household. According to one of the respondent said that, it is possible due to government schemes such as *Biju Grameen Jaal Yojana* and *Rajiv Gandhi* schemes provide clean water to the rural household. The Gram Panchayat (GP) is the nodal agency to implement such schemes in rural areas and collects nominal fees at Rs.30 per month from the individual household who has connected with said programme. Another improved source of drinking water is public tube well or tap water. It is very common source of drinking water in study area; mostly people are dependent on the public tube-well or tap for drinking purpose. Around 42 percent including both migrant and non-migrant, used public tube well or tap as main source of drinking water. It can be possible due to the help of the government. In rural areas still people are using well for drinking water as well as daily purpose, there are 16.4 percent of migrant household used covered public well as

sources of safe drinking water and rest of household around 22.8 percent used uncovered public well as a main source of drinking water. The uncovered well are not treated and are often infected with bacteria, which lead to water borne diseases such as dysentery, cholera, diarrhea, and typhoid.

Another aspect of basic sanitation and housing condition is the availability of bathroom facilities. The data shows that total percentage out of the total sample respondent is 82.50 percent including 82.13 percent migrant and 83.20 percent non-migrant household do not have bathing facilities within their premises. While percentage the household having no bathroom facilities 82.13 percent including 17.87 percent migrant and 16.80 percent are non-migrant. It clearly indicated that the large proportions of respondents are taking open bath in pond, river, stream and tube wells. Most of the women and girls face various kinds of discrimination and facing sexual harassment while taking bath in open spaces. According to census of India reveals that 90 percent of the households do not have covered bathrooms within their premises (Census, 2011). These uncovered bathrooms are unable to offer sufficient privacy and safety for the women and girls. The government of India is trying to provide covered and safe bathrooms and toilets to the poor households under the SBM (Swacha Bharat Mission) under the ministry of drinking water and sanitation government of India.

Thus, it can be concluded that the lack of safe drinking water and basic sanitation is an obstacle for economic growth and development of country. Jaiswal's findings on status and trends in provision of safe drinking water and sanitation in India claims that lack of adequate water supply and sanitation results increased the health problems and higher morbidity and mortality which ultimately impacts on cost of treatment (Jaiswal and Joon, 2017). The improved basic household characteristics such as better water supply and sanitation facilities has positive impact on the primary education for example relieving girls from their water-fetching duties and they can attend school properly. The study also claims that better sanitation and safe drinking water is directly or indirectly have positive impact on women's living conditions by giving more time for productive endeavours and reduce the safety and risk of harassment (Jaiswal and Joon, 2017). Another important impact is on the tourism sector; lack of sanitation and safe drinking water does not attract foreign tourists to the country, which leads to the decreasing revenues and ultimately hamper the economic

development of country. Therefore, for better human development of a country, there is need to strengthen the basic sanitation and drinking water availability.

**Table-4.4.2 Distribution of Households by Access to Electricity and Lighting Facilities**

Access to Electricity	Migrants	Non-migrants	Total
Yes	20.43	16.00	18.89
No	79.57	84.00	81.11
Total	100	100	100
<b>Sources of Lighting</b>			
Electricity	20.85	16.00	19.17
Kerosene	79.15	84.00	80.83
Any others	--	--	--
Total	100	100	100
<b>Cooking Facilities For Separate Room</b>			
Separate Room	20.85	43.00	19.17
Same Room	79.15	57.02	80.83
Total	100	100	100
<b>Type of Fuels for Cooking</b>			
Firewood	98.3	96.8	97.78
LPG	1.7	2.28	1.94
Biogas	--	0.08	0.27
Total	100	100	100

Sources: Field Data, January-March, 2016

Table-4.4.2 represents the access to electricity and sources of lighting facilities in study area. There four variables have been shown i.e. access to electricity, sources of lighting, cooking facilities for separate room and fuel used for cooking. In the discourse of development in India, it is often heard about the challenge of the provision of *bijili, sadak and pani* (Electricity, Roads, Water). Therefore, electricity is considered as an essential component for household infrastructure and has a significant bearing on the quality of individual's life. Particularly in rural areas this is very important for increased productivity in the fields of agriculture, cottage industry, domestic use and improvement of health facilities, education, and access to communications. Access to electricity is important for improving the socio-economic condition of the respondents. The central and state government provides electricity connections to the poor or BPL households under the *Kutira Jyoti Yojana, Deendayal Upadhyaya Gramin Yojana, Biju Gramin Jyoti Yojana*. These schemes are mainly for development of electricity infrastructure in rural areas as well as household. In this

scheme monthly households were charges nominal fees. According to the census data at the national level 67.2 percent of households have access to an electricity facility, while in rural areas it is around 55.3 percent and 92.7 percent in urban area (Census, 2011). In the study area it has been found that the access to electricity is around 19 percent both migrant and non-migrant household. There are 81 percent respondents who do not have access to lighting facilities including both migrant and non-migrant household. It means the feasibility of government schemes on access to electricity is not reaching beneficiaries in the current study area.

Another aspect of the table-4.4.2 is sources of lighting in the study area. The source of lighting is consisting of three categories such as electricity, kerosene and any other source. These are most important source of lighting in the study area. The total household having source of lighting as electricity is only around 19.17 percent which includes both migrant and non-migrant. Around 81 percent households are using kerosene as source of lighting which includes both migrant and non-migrant. It means in the study area, the large proportions of migrant and non-migrant households are using the kerosene as sources of light, as it is found that kerosene is only source of lighting during night times.

The cooking is an essential component of household survival, and it is needs a separate place for cooking the food. In rural India, generally people were cook their food in the same room there is no separate place or room for cooking. NFHS-4 data reveals that total household in Odisha having separate room for cooking food is around 36.7 percent which including both rural and urban area, while rural area is 33.7 percent and 51.6 percent in urban area. Around 36.6 percent in urban area and 30.5 in rural area household in Odisha having no separate room for cooking food they used same room as cooking purpose(NFHS-4, 2017). In study area around 32 percent of household is having separate room for preparing food including both migrant and non-migrant, while 68 percent of household both migrant and non-migrant does not have any separate house or place to cook their daily food. It means the largest proportion of household is using same room for the cooking purpose.

Finally, table-4.4.2 also explains about the type of fuel used for cooking purpose. In the study area, it is found that three kinds of fuel are used by the household such as firewood, cow dung, residues, LPG and Bio-gas. Here firewood constitutes a major

proportion among the household which represents around 98 percent including both migrant and non-migrant. As the forest is the common property of the local people, they used to depend on forest for their daily fuel collection. The firewood is commonly used by the people for cooking purpose due to the profuse availability of forest products. However, under the OTELP scheme by government has provided the loan for plantation in pasture land, at the same time it is also found that most of the household collect firewood from the forest and sell them in the market. It clearly shows firewood is available in abundance to local households. Even NFHS-4 data reveals that in rural Odisha around 71.7 percent of household is using firewood as a cooking fuel while urban area it around 28.7 percent (NFHS-4, 2017). Another type of cooking fuel is Liquefied Petroleum Gas (LPG). It is found that very few household i.e. around 2 percent use LPG as fuel for cooking, whereas NFHS-4 report says that around only 17.3 percent of household used LPG as fuel both rural and urban area of Odisha, rural area is 9.7 percent and 54.8 percent in urban area (NFHS-4, 2017). The national data reveals that more than 24 crore households out of which about 10 crore households are still deprived for LPG as cooking fuel and they have rely firewood, coal, cow dung cakes and agriculture crop waste as primary sources of fuel for cooking. The smoke from burning such fuels causes pollution which adversely affects the health of women and children. Now the government lunch *Pradhan Mantri Ujjwala Yojana* (PMUJ) to safeguard the health of women and children by providing clean cooking fuel like LPG connection to every poor and marginal households both in rural and urban areas. But it has been found that the levels of awareness such schemes are not effective in the study area. The Bio-gas is another form fuel used for cooking purpose, it is known as ‘Gobar Gas’ in local term. The household having domestic animal such as cow, buffalo and ox is used. It indicates the less than one percent non-migrant household is using biogas as cooking fuel in study area.

**Table-4.4.3 Distribution of Households by their Usual Saving and Borrowing Practices**

Bank/Pos-office Account	Migrants	Non-migrants	Total
Yes	71.48	87.2	76.94
No	28.51	12.8	23.05
Total	100	100	100
Saving Practice			
Yes	54.9	63.2	57.8
No	45.1	36.8	42.2
Total	100	100	100
Borrowing Practices			
Yes	78.72	70.4	75.83
No	21.27	29.6	24.16
Total	100	100	100
Sources of Lending			
Co-operative Bank/Bank	3.8	3.4	3.7
LAMP	15.7	12.5	14.7
Relatives	38.9	37.5	38.5
Local Money Lender	40.5	46.6	42.5
SHG	1.08	---	0.73
Total	100	100	100

Sources: Field Data, January-March, 2016

Table-4.4.3 shows the distribution of household access the usual banking service and borrowing practice in study area. Since study is conducted in the tribal area, one of the 12 tribal districts of Odisha. It is important to know the accessibility of formal banking services to the household. As it is one of positive indicator of financial inclusion and development of individual household as well as state as whole. It is important to discuss that poor section of rural populations are mostly uneducated and unaware who have lack of accessibility of banking services. The field study has been carried out in order to get information about the accessibility of banking services in the study area and data has been collected from both migrant and non-migrant households. Accessibility of banking and post office services has led to the saving practice of household and economic development of household. Still accessibility of banking and financial services is day dream for the tribal people particular and study area in general. The distribution and accessibility saving accounts in bank and post-office is unequal in study area. In table 4.4.3 data indicates that total household around 76 percent of households having Bank or Post-office accounts both migrant and non-migrant household in the study area while migrant household is around 71 percent and

followed by 81 percent of non-migrant household. It means both migrant and non-migrant household accessing the banking or post office services in their locality. The national level data reveals that tribal household availing banking services is around 45 percent (MoTA, 2014). While NFHS-4, in Odisha data reveals that total 87.5 percent of household both in rural and urban area having bank or post-office account (NHFS-4, 2017). It can be possible due the existence of social security schemes such as MGNREGA, OTELP, and OLM. According to recent guidelines of government encourages to job card holder for MGNREGA payment on bank or post-office account. It is remarkable step by the government to access the financial service through the bank and post-office. Even now the government has come up with the concept of 'zero account'; it seems to be one of the positive steps to financial inclusion.

It has emerged from the study that, savings practice is very popular in the households in the current study area. The data reveals that total around 58 percent of households including both migrant and non-migrant, while migrant household is 53 percent and 63 percent of non-migrants is saving their money either in bank or post-office. Around 42 percent of total household i.e. both migrant and non-migrant is do not saving their money in bank or post-office, while 45 percent of migrant and 36 percent non-migrant households.

On the other hand, informal lending practice is highly practiced in the study area. In tribal set up people still belief in such practice, may be illiteracy and ignorance is the one of the reasons for informal lending practice. It is found that both the migrant and non-migrant households practicing informal lending. Around 75.83 percent of both the migrant and non-migrant households are practicing lending, while 78.72 percent households are migrants and 70.4 percent households are non-migrants. Whereas 24.16 percent of total households are not practicing any informal lending, includes both migrant and non-migrant households. Among 21.27 percent migrant and followed by 29.6 percent are non-migrant households.

Furthermore about the lending sources which happen through both formal and informal ways. People still practice their traditional way of lending sources. Thus, accessibility of banks for the lending purpose is still very lesser than accessibility of local money lenders and relatives. 3.7 percent of both migrant and non-migrant

households access Co-operative Bank for lending in which 3.8 percent households come under migrant and 3.4 percent households come under non-migrant. Around 14.7 percent of both households access LAMP whereas 1.08 percent households are only migrant access to SHG. There are also a large section of households those lend money from their relatives and local money lenders. 38.5 percent of both migrant and non-migrant households lend money from their relatives in which 42.5 percent households lend from local money lenders. 38.9 percent of households those are only migrant say that they lend from their relatives and 40.5 percent households say that they lend from local money lenders. In the case of non-migrant 37.5 percent households lend from their relatives whereas 46.6 percent households lend from local money lenders.

**Table 4.4.4 Distribution of Households by Land Ownership and Size of Land Holding Status**

Ownership of Land	Migrants	Non-migrants	Total
Yes	30.64	52.8	38.33
No	69.36	47.2	61.66
Total	100	100	100
Size of Land Holding (Acres)			
less than 0.01	51.38	4.5	33.33
0.02-1.00	34.7	13.63	20.28
1.01-2.0	9.7	46.96	27.53
2.01-4.00	4.1	34.84	18.84
Total	100	100	100

Sources: Field Data, January-March, 2016

Table-4.3.3 indicates the distribution of respondents by their ownership land and size of land holding. According to NSSO defines a plot of land is considered owned by the household if land permanent inheritance possession from one generation to another, even land held in owner like possession under long term lease is also considered as land owned (NSSO, 2015). The ownership of land is very crucial for each and every rural household. In rural areas owning a piece of land is very important aspects social strata. It is a symbol of pride and prejudice in socio-economic milieu of Indian society. However, from the economic point of view, lands is one of the important factors of production other than labour, capital and enterprises, which may considered as an original source of all material wealth. In study area, it has been found that around 38 percent household is possessing land which include both migrant and non-migrant. This includes own land as well as land under Forest Rights Act (FRA). As



high as 62 percent of households do not have any kind of land. It indicates around 69 percent of migrant household do not have any kind of land, which ultimately pushing them to migration for their livelihood and employment. Even all India data reveals that the share of land owned in rural India by different social group was 13.06 percent among the STs, around 9.23 percent in the SCs community which seems to be the distribution of ownership of land among the marginal section is very unequal and low (NSSO, 2015).

Like the ownership of land, another significant aspect of ownerships of land is holding of land. The size of land and ownership of land is closely linked to the socio-economic growth of individual. Therefore, it is an important aspect to study the size of land holding of the households. The prosperity of a nation is closely linked with ownership of land and size of land holding. In Indian context, ownership of land and size of holding has its own importance and closely associated with the most of human needs such as food, shelter and work. According to M.N. Srinivas, an eminent sociologist on his study on Rampur if a caste or group own a sizeable arable land holding, it may considered to have significant dominance in Indian social structure (Srinivas, 1958). But in India, distribution of size of land holding is unequal and skewed since inception. Table-4.4.3 also depicts distribution of size of land holding by the households in the study area. The size of land holding among household is different from household to household. It includes both operational land holding as well as the non-operation land holding such as grazing land, home stead land, and forest land occupied for own cultivation. Around 33.33 percent of total households are having less than 0.01 acres of land, which includes 51.38 percent migrant and 13.63 percent non-migrant. This size of land is possible after the implementation of Forest Rights Act, it means every tribal households entitle to get the forest land for their livelihood. But it has been found that the land under FRA is neither fertile nor cultivate the seasonal crops due to the upland or '*Dongor*' land, mostly depends on monsoon rain. It seems to be the agriculture production is very low or marginal, which could not provide sufficient food security to the tribal household. The households having 1.01 acre to 2.0 acres of land holding are very less in the study area.

Hence it can be stated that the size of land holding and migration are closely interlinked, the subsistence of level of land holding among the households does not guarantee to the employment and livelihood throughout the year and the provision of

social security schemes provided by the government are not sufficient or such entitlement can avails by any other household members. Therefore, it is ultimately pushing them to opt for migration as strategy for employment and better livelihood.

**Table-4.4.5 Distribution of Households by Their Assets**

Assets Index	Migrant	Non-Migrant	Total
Poorest	56.3	43.7	100
Poorer	57.5	42.5	100
Middle	75.00	25.00	100
Richer	70.8	29.2	100
Richest	66.7	33.3	100
Total	65.3	34.7	100

Sources: Field Data, January-March, 2016

Table-4.4.5 indicates the households by their assets, the assets of household consisting of agriculture equipments including pump sets, hand sprayer, bicycle, moped and tractors, electronics appliance, livestock and orchard plants which includes trees and bamboo. On the basis of household assets, a score has been created and each score has given to each household. Again on the basis of score, each household score is based on the number of items with its present value, which the sample household owned. The household who do not have any assets assigned the value zero, on the basis of household asset value of each household have been ranked. Then both, migrant and non-migrant, households were divided into five ranks such as poorest, poorer, middle, richer and richest (NFHS-3, 2007; Raushan, 2015). Table-4.4.5 shows the poorest of the households belong to the non-migrants i.e. 43.7 percent while for the migrants it is 56.3 percent. It means migrants are having great exposure to the consumer goods such as mobile, electrical appliances and other durable assets due the process of migration. While in middle groups assets are more among the migrants i.e. 75 percent followed by the non-migrants 25 percent. The middle household groups are basically the migrants, they possess more assets in terms of both agriculture equipments as well as the livestock. Mostly the migrants invest in creating future assets including purchase of orchard land and brick making.

#### **4.5: Conclusion**

In this chapter discusses about the profile of study area which includes the demographic characteristic of Odisha as well the Rayagada district. In order to understand the social security and migration, it is important to know the basic

demographic characteristics of sample households including migrant and non-migrants in study area. Thus, it is considered as one the important positive indicator of human development. In the beginning of the chapter it has shown overall picture of tribal population of Odisha vis-a-vis Rayagada district including sex ratio, trends of literacy rate. It also discusses the demographic profile of sample households which includes both migrant and non-migrant taking into consideration for analysing migration and development of tribals. It is found that demographic characteristic is favourable to the sample households including both migrant and non-migrant interms of sex ratio, marital status, age structure and level of education. With regards to level of education, it is found that most of the respondents are illiterate and primary level of education which forces them to work in agriculture and subsistence sector. In case of marital status, mostly currently married households are migrating out for better employment and income in order to develop the living condition of family. Besides, it has also been attempt to understand the socio-economic condition of migrant and non-migrant households, with regards to socio-economic condition of sample household various aspects has taken into account to know the living condition of households in the study area such as primary occupation, secondary occupation and level of income etc. In this regards, it has found that mostly tribal households are depends on the agricultural and allied activities as their prime source of income. In terms of occupation and economic activities, it has also looking into the household saving and lending practise of tribal people. It is found that majority of proportion tribal households are borrowed money from the informal institution such as village land lords, Mahajan, local money lender, relatives etc. It is the only sources mechanism in study area to lending money for their need.

Another important aspect of household characteristics is housing condition and basic amenities. It is found from the study area that the housing condition of sample households both migrant and non-migrant little better off due to the governments initiative programme on housing for poor such Pradhanmantri Awas Yojana, Biju Pacca Ghar Yojana and Mo Kudia Yojana by state government. Under such programme poor household specially tribals are getting pacca house with 2 dwelling rooms and migrant household having more than two rooms. It seems that migrant household spend on construction of better pacca house. Besides this basic sanitation is condition is very precarious in tribal study area, most of households are practising open defecation as option for sanitation, although government intervention of Swacha

Bharat Mission (SBA) programme government provides monetary facilities to the tribal households to construction of toilet. But the people are not using the toilet facilities due to lack of awareness. It also discusses the access to electricity and lighting facilities in study area. It is found that still in tribal area poor household did not getting any electricity facilities, it mean very little households access to electricity. Whereas, source of lighting is also major issues in the study area, mostly they were used the kerosene oil for lighting purpose, it means kerosene oil is accessed through the PDS. In case of cooking purpose, it is found that mostly households depend on firewood as fuel for cooking food. In tribal areas, there is abundance community forest area where they can collect firewood for cooking purpose. Thus, sample household in terms of housing conditions and living condition not better off, still tribal people are not access the various benefits provided by the government, some of the benefits could not reach at the study area.

\*\*\*

## CHAPTER-V

### ACCESS TO VARIOUS SOCIAL SECURITY PROGRAMME AT ORIGIN AND MIGRATION

“The hungry millions ask for one poem-invigorating food. They cannot be given it.  
They must earn it. And they can earn only by the sweat of their brow”

-Mahatma Gandhi, *Young India*, 13<sup>th</sup> October, (1921:326)

In this chapter, an attempt has been made to discuss about the access to various social security programmes in the origin areas of the migrants. The social security programme is a key aspect to address the poverty, unemployment, food scarcity and migration. In developed countries social security measures have played an important role for the improvement of the socio-economic condition of the poor and marginalized people. The developing countries are not much advanced in terms of providing social protection for maintaining a healthy society. Therefore, it is the duty of the state to provide all necessary protection in terms of social and economic benefits to its people. In India, the constitution has mentioned various provisions in DPSP<sup>8</sup> (Directive Principle of State Policy) in its articles 36 to 51 for providing the welfare of state. According to these articles, state has the obligation to provide socio-economic protection to the poor and marginal sections of people. However, the state has provided the social protection to the people engaged in organised sector, and thus only few people are getting the actual benefits of the policies. On other hand, unorganised sector is where more than 90 percent of workforce and about 50 percent national products are directly or indirectly accounted for the economic growth of the country (NCEUS, 2009). It is evident that a significant proportion of socially and economically poor and unprivileged section of people is engaged in unorganised economy which does not provide any social protection to people (NCEUS, 2009.). The existence of such disparity between the unorganised and organised sector create problems in society in terms of perpetuating inequality, poverty, food scarcity and distress migration as well. In order to reduce such inequality, the government takes initiatives to create employment opportunity through the rozgar yojana, provide

---

<sup>8</sup> DPSP (Directive Principle of State Policy) Part-IV of the Indian constitution Art- 36 to 51 directs to the state to promote the welfare of people. It cannot be enforceable by any law and fundamental for the better governance of the country.

financial assistance through for micro credit, and food grains to ensure the food security. In India, there are various social security programmes initiated by central government as well as state government to mitigate the poverty, unemployment, food insecurity and migration. The planned economy of India has formed in every sector to reallocate the resources to rural and urban areas, in order to reduce the above mentioned problems. Undoubtedly both central and state government of India has initiated large number of social security schemes for which significant amount of money sponsored by central government. The selective social security schemes are designed in such a way which influence whole life cycle of the common man or poor section people in various aspects such as employment, livelihood, food security, and financial. In order to make the study more focused, it takes into consideration only four selected social security programmes which are provided by central as well as state governments. The central government schemes are MGNREGA and PDS, whereas OTELP and OLM are state government sponsored schemes. As it is mentioned earlier that research has considered MGNREGA is form of employment and livelihood options for the tribal dominated villages of Rayagada districts which is mostly a micro account of broader ground reality. Therefore, it is necessary to explain each of the selected social security schemes in order to understand the accessibility and function in the ground level.

### **5.1: MGNREGA in Odisha**

In order to protect the above mentioned reason the government started the employment guarantee scheme in rural areas in the name of MGNREGA in the year 2005. It is a statute aiming to achieve the enhancement of livelihood security to the rural households in Odisha and also the combination of both Swampurna Gramin Rozgar Yojana (SGRY) and Food for Work (FFW). It is considered as one of the world's largest employment generation programmes. The main objective is to provide at least 100 days of guaranteed wage employment in every financial year to the rural households, whose adult members volunteer to engage in unskilled manual work. It plays significant role in Odisha since its introduction, it has spread in 30 districts in Odisha. The District Rural Development Agency (DRDA) is the nodal agency in the implementation of scheme through the Gram Panchayat (GP). Initially it was implemented by the Government throughout the country in a phased manner. In the first phase of introduction of MGNREGA only 19 districts were covered including the

Rayagada district of Odisha and rest of the district included in the later phase. In 2014 the government has implemented extra 50 days' work for tribal areas which affected by the Maoist insurgency.

### **5.1(1): Need of Such Employment Guarantee to the Poor and Tribal people**

India was under the colonial rule for more than two centuries under the British. The British introduced various administrative and revenue policies to extended the British Empire in India. The regressive policy on high taxation on land revenue, commercialization of agriculture and decline of traditional handicraft industry in rural areas led to increasing the poverty, unemployment, food insecurity and vulnerability in the rural areas. After Independence, a planned economy was introduced for every sector to measure the various dimension of development in India. The economic performance goes hand in hand to reduce the vulnerability, poverty and unemployment in the country. Despite these measures, there is existence of high level poverty, malnutrition, low level of education and lower Infant Mortality Rate (IMR). According to the estimation of poverty in the year 1973-74, income poverty levels were persistently high in India and it has steadily declined around 56 percent among rural people and 49 percent in urban people due to planned economic effort (Srivastva, 2013). According to World Bank 2011 estimates that 35.45 crore people were considered as poor. However, many studies and expert groups estimation on poverty have pointed out that the current poverty line thresholds are too low but the level of deprivation and vulnerability in India are much higher (World Bank, 2011, NCEUS 2007; Srinivasan, 2007, MoRD, 2009). Apart from the above mentioned reason, there is also some important reason in rural areas which gives birth to employment schemes in rural area, as given below

### **5.1(2): Steadily Increasing Migration from Rural areas**

Migration has been considerable reshaping the traditional socio-economic structure of rural communities in India. The Food and Agriculture Organisation (FAO) states that in India about 70 percent of rural people are depend on agriculture as their main source of income (FAO, 2016). But in the contemporary times livelihood activities of rural people are no longer confined to farming and allied activities. With the development of trade, industry and the awareness produced by the mass media in the rural area people are shifting people towards the urban areas in order to improve their

standard of living. In the contemporary period, rural areas are also witnessing the slow agriculture growth in sluggish manner due to traditional way of carry out the cultivation, small size of land holding and uneven monsoon. In this juncture rural people could not find the alternative sources of employment and livelihood for their sustenance. Therefore, the persistence rise of unemployment, poverty, food scarcity and limited access of social security in rural area force them to go out specially urban city centres for the better employment and livelihood option.

### **5.1(3): Raising Malnutrition**

Malnutrition is one of the important problems in modern time which people mostly suffer. Malnutrition reflects an imbalance of both micro and macro nutrients that may be due to inappropriate intake of nutritional foods. Poor feeding practices during infancy and childhood as well as the unable to consume nutritional food by the rural household due to lack of purchase power are resulting in malnutrition in developing countries like India, which directly affects the individual for impaired cognitive and social development and also reduced the economic growth and productivity in later life of Individual. It is more rampant in the rural rather than urban areas. The NFHS-3 national level data reveals that, around 48 percent of children under five years of age are stunted and 43 percent of children are underweight due to lack of proper nutritional food (NFHS-3, 2007). As result, the tribal and marginal sections of households are mostly under nutrition and malnutrition due to lack of proper food. The recent data on global hunger index states that India ranked in global hunger index is 100 out of 119 countries in the world (IFPRI, 2017). So, there is need of nutritious food for the healthy life of individual to increase the economic growth and production in terms of goods and services.

### **5.1(4): Agrarian Distress**

The performance of the agriculture sector remains the matter of central concern to the policy maker as well as researcher at large. Till date more than half of the total work force in country remains employed in agriculture sector as the main source of livelihood for the majority of the population (Economic Survey, 2016-17). The census 2011 data reveals that 39 percent of total workforce is still dependent on agriculture and allied activities while significant i.e.41 percentage are rural households (Census, 2011). Therefore, it indicates that there is constrains employment opportunities in



agriculture and allied sectors and non-farm employment opportunities in rural is also limited. So, this pictureisation shows decline of agriculture investment in rural area due to lack of initiative by the government and other institution. It also found that the role of formal credit institution unable to provide credit to the small and marginal farmers and poor extension service increases the distress among farmers and farming in India. It also observed that the advancement of green revolution in India has great impact not only on the small and marginal holding but also the rural farmers in large due to the mechanisation of agriculture. Due to the mechaisation of agriculture small and marginal farmer mostly depends on the market for agriculture inputs such as hybrid seeds, fertilizer and pesticides which costly for them to afford for agriculture activities. Therefore, small and marginal farmers could not afford due to higher cost. In addition, tribal indigenous knowledge has redundant after the mechanisation of agriculture.

#### **5.1(5): Farmer Suicide**

Undoubtedly, persistence mechanisation of agriculture leds to the agrarian distress among the small and marginal farmers specially in the tribal people whose main sources of income affected which reflected in the form of farmers' suicide. Where, the 70 percent of people area directly or indirectly depends upon it for their livelihood (FAO, 2016). In India still people are depends on the monsoon for agriculture activities, the uneven monsoon is attributed to the failure of crops, low yield of production as well the drought situation. The small and marginal people depend on the informal credit institution in the local areas such as money lender, village headmen and '*mahajan*' for the money. The poor and low level of production or series of drought brings chaos situation in the small and marginal farmers in India. They are unable to repay the loan or debt amount on time and family burden also force them to commit suicide. In early 1990s there was large number of farmer suicide in India special in the arid zones such as Maharashtra, Andhra Pradesh, Telangna, Karnataka, odisha etc. (Sainath, 1996). Among all the states of India, Maharashtra reporting highest rate of farmer suicide, recently Maharashtra has recorded about 1092 cases of farmer suicide till the end of May, 2018 (Times of India, 2018), even the National Crime Report Bureau (NCRB) data reveals that there are 2474 farmer suicide in the year 2015, which mostly reported from Maharashtra and Telangna (NCRB, 2015). It

is one of the emerging issues in India and government has been taking various initiatives to reduce farmer suicide in India.

Therefore, the above mentioned reasons in rural areas in general and particular in tribal areas has created a precarious situation in the welfare states like India. It has created the imbalance in healthy society as well as the economic growth and development of country. In order to reduce such vulnerability government has introduced a series of public measures in the form of social security schemes for the marginal section of people specially the tribal peoples in India. The following are selective social security schemes discuss below;

### **5.1: Access to MGNREGA in Rayagada District**

In order to protect the above mentioned reason the government started the employment guarantee scheme in rural areas in the name of MGNREGA in the year 2005. It is a statute aiming to achieve the enhancement of livelihood security to the rural households in Odisha and also the combination of both Swampurna Gramin Rozgar Yojana (SGRY) and Food for Work (FFW). It is considered as one of the world's largest employment generation programmes. The main objective is to provide at least 100 days of guaranteed wage employment in every financial year to the rural households, whose adult members volunteer to engage in unskilled manual work. It plays significant role in Odisha since its introduction, it has spread in 30 districts in Odisha. The District Rural Development Agency (DRDA) is the nodal agency in the implementation of scheme through the Gram Panchayat (GP). Initially it has implemented by the Government throughout the country in a phased manner. In the first phase of introduction of MGNREGA only 19 districts were covered including the Rayagada district of Odisha and rest of the district included in the later phase. In 2014 the government has implemented extra 50 days' work for tribal areas which affected by the Maoist insurgency.

In the present study is focused on the Rayagada district, one of the tribal backward districts of Odisha. According to Ministry of Rural Development (MoRD) report 2016-17 reveals that total 1,13,315 job cards were issued to the ST households in Rayagada district, which constitute the largest proportion STs 60.8 percent followed by the SC 22.2 and OBCs 18 percent.

**Table-5.1.1 Distribution of Participation in MGNREGA by Social Category (2016-17)**

Blocks	Bissamcuttack	Kalaynsinghpur	Kasipur	Total
STs	59.62	59.22	59.58	59.47
SCs	21.31	19.4	20.81	20.51
OBCs	19.07	21.38	19.61	20.02
Total	100	100	100	100.00

Sources: Ministry of Rural Development, 2016-17, Government of Odisha

Table-5.1.1 shows the distribution of participation in the MGNREGA programme in the study area by social categories. It indicates that largest percentage i.e. around 60 of STs is participation in this programme followed by the SCs 20.5 percent and OBCs 20.2 percent. The reason is Rayagada district is the home of second largest tribal population after Malakanagiri district of Odisha. It means the largest numbers of job card holders are the tribal population rather than other social groups. As the beneficiary of the programme they participate in various works undertaken by the Gram Panchayat. The MoRD report 2016-17 reveals that there is evidence that the introduction of MGNREGA, created additional employment opportunities in rural areas. The main aim is promoting livelihood options for the poor and marginal people. Under this scheme a lot of durable community assets have been created in the villages, which includes the village roads, ponds, irrigation tanks. A study by Joshi and Omkar et al. (2014) highlighted that mostly the poor and marginal households with low level of assets bases are participating in employment schemes. It also found that MGNREGA is targeting poorest and vulnerable communities those with fewer opportunities to find work in the rural areas (Joshi and Omkar, et al., 2014). Another study by Indian Human Development Survey (IHDS-II) finds that rural employment programme is mainly targeted to the SCs and STs household who is coming under the below poverty line (IHDS-II, 2015). The participation and demand for work has varied from state to state. The study by Datta and Murgai found that the less developed or poor states like Odisha, Jharkhand and Chhattisgarh had more demand for work and participation of employment scheme. They also pointed out that MGNREGA is such scheme with potential to reduce the poverty through the regular employment (Datta and Murgai, 2014).

**Table-5.1.2 Distribution of Households by Awareness of MGNREGA**

Awareness	Migrants	Non-migrants	Total
Aware	99.57	100	99.72
Not Aware	0.43	--	0.28
Total	100	100	100
<b>Source of Information</b>			
Notice Board	10.64	12.8	11.39
Public announcement by GP	83.83	84.0	83.89
Drum Beating	2.13	0.8	1.67
Neighbour	3.4	2.4	3.06
Total	100	100	100

Sources: Field Data, January-March, 2016

Table-5.1.2 represents the distribution of the households by their awareness to MGNREGA in the study area. The present study is conducted in tribal areas, Rayagada district is one of the tribal dominated district of Odisha. Since the introduction of scheme, the most important issue is awareness about the programme. During the initial period of scheme people does not know about the schemes and proper implementation of schemes. To increase the level of awareness among the mass, the government has spent lot of money to create awareness among the people. The 'Right to work' is one of the basic rights of people that implemented by the Government of India to provide work to the people. In India there is no such legislation which guarantees that every person will have job. The government was required to take effective steps to realize the right to work for every individual (Ghosh, 2009). For smooth implementation or function of any government schemes in the study area, it is important to understand the level of awareness about accessibility of scheme by the rural people.

Undoubtedly awareness about the access to scheme is one of the important provisions of the act and thus it is vital in exercising the demand for work and other entitlements under MGNREGA. A study by NSSO (2011) on MGNREGA conducted in four states of India, found that there is low level of awareness about the unemployment allowance, work on demand, and grievance redressal mechanism in the state level (NSSO, 2010-11). Another study by Bhatia and Dreze in Jharkhand found that there is shortcoming of employment programme due to lack of awareness about the basic feature of schemes and its objectives in ground level (Bhatia and Dreze, 2008). The study by Gaiha, Jha and Shankar (2011) highlighted that access to information is

important component of empowerment of the beneficiary. The link between information, access and the delivery of the scheme is not straightforward. The relationship between possessing information and gaining access to MGNREGA is better way to understand the successful programme. But in the rural area, it has seen that information did not reach to the people who were not its primary target group and unable to enhance the usefulness of programme to such beneficiary. The lack of access to information seen to decrease the ability of citizen (Gaiha, Jha and Shankar, 2011).

While, in the study area, it was found that awareness about employment schemes is higher among the migrants and non-migrant households. The main reason is the active participation in the Gram Panchayat meeting, which is conducted in every month. Therefore, it can be concluded that in term of awareness about the access to the employment scheme is universal among the migrant and non-migrant household in study area.

According to the provision of employment scheme, government agency is the sole authority to create awareness among the local people by adopting various methods in terms of availability and accessibility information. In the study area, it is found that for awareness the local agency used various methods to inform the people about the scheme such as notice boards, public announcement by Gram Panchayat, drum beating and neighbour. The first and foremost source of information is notice board, which are displayed in the Gram Panchayat office or every public place of the villages. It shows the rate of awareness among the people regarding the programme is around 11 percent through the notice board. The notice board has written in the vernacular language by expert, importance of scheme, the main aims, and beneficiary of schemes etc. Whereas, the majority proportion i.e. 84 percent of household get to know the information about the employment scheme through the public announcement by Panchayat to aware the people. It is exclusively for the benefit for illiterate household who does not know the reading and writing. In the study area, it has been found that there are two types of language used for public announcement about the employment scheme such as Odiya language and ‘Kui’ language<sup>9</sup>.

---

<sup>9</sup> ‘Kui’ is a branch of South-Central Dravidian language widely spoken by Kondh in Southern Odisha, According to census of India 2011, there are 920,000 people speaking this language (Census of India, 2011)

However, there are very least i.e. 2 percentages of households both migrant and non-migrant getting information through drum beating. It is the traditional approach to announce in the public and mostly found in the rural areas. The importance of schemes, wage rate and other aspects of schemes announced through this approach. Another 3 percent of household including both migrant and non-migrant get to know about the programme from their neighbour house. It is considered that in rural area still people follow their neighbour households' path to get any kind of information on employment scheme. Therefore, it is observed that the source of information plays a crucial role aware the people about the nature of employment programme.

**Table 5.1.3 Distribution of Households by their Participation of MGNREGA**

Working under the Schemes	Migrants	Non-migrants	Total
Yes	97.87	99.2	98.33
No	2.13	0.8	1.67
Total	100	100	100
<b>Availability of Work</b>			
Less than 30 days	35.32	30.4	33.71
30 to 50 days	42.13	46.4	44.1
Above 50 days	22.55	23.2	22.19
Total	100	100	100

Sources: Field Data, January-March, 2016

Table-5.1.3 depicts the distribution of households by participation in MGNREGA schemes. The participation by the beneficiary is one of the important aspects of successful implementation of the programme. If it shows a lower level of participation, then the programme is considered to be a failure. The engagement of rural adult members contributes to the success of the programme and enhancement of rural livelihood through the participation of this programme. Deininger and Liu study in Andhra Pradesh found that participation in MGNREGA had a significant and positive impact on consumption expenditure of the beneficiary in terms of intake and in asset accumulation specially the SC and ST households (Deininger and Liu, 2014). Another study by Liu and Barrett on pro-poor targeting MGNREGA by using NSSO 66<sup>th</sup> round data suggest that MGNREGA is a self-targeting design of programme led to the higher participation from marginalised groups including the SCs and STs. At national level the share of SCs and STs in the work provided under MGNREGA has been high at 50-60 percent across each of the years of the schemes implementation (Liu and Barrett, 2012).

It reveals both migrants and non-migrants participation level in the MGNREGA. The total participation under this scheme in the study area is 98.3 percent, which includes both migrants and non-migrants. The level of participation of the migrants under this scheme is around 98 percent. Whereas, around 99 percent of the non-migrants participated in these schemes. It indicates that the level of participation among non-migrants is higher than among the migrants, this is because scheme has for the non-migrants not to push for migration during the lean season. Imbert and Papp study on short-term migration and India's employment guarantee scheme finds that border states like Rajasthan, Gujarat and Madhya Pradesh witness high out-migration area due to the border area, there is significantly decrease of short-term migration due to the participation in employment programme (Imbert and Papp, 2012). Another study by Das on gender lens argues that women participation of employment programme decrease the distress migration and enhance the labour wages which can able to mitigate the risk for distress migration (Das, 2014).

Ravi and Engler study on the impact of MGNREGA on rural poor households in Andhrapradesh found that the impact of the programme on the food security, savings and health outcomes of poor and marginal sections of people (Ravi and Engler, 2015). Another study Sambodhi's research on six states study to evaluate impact assessment of MGNREGA found that there is a significant effect of the programme on the creation of durable assets on lands of small and marginal farmer's household such as SC and ST and IAY beneficiary. The higher proportion of participation in the employment programme has significant impact on improving the quality life their land and generating extra incomes through the dual crops and creating alternative source of livelihood for these household (Sambodhi, 2012).

Participation is lesser in the scheme by the migrants which is due to various reasons such as better option for work, seeking better wage, explore more from outside. Secondly, very fewer proportions of respondents are not working under a scheme which is around 2 percent including both migrants and non-migrants. The migrants who are not working under this scheme is 2.13 percent and 1percent non-migrants. It has been observed from the study that mostly young people age group of 20-25 years are not interested to work under this MGNREGA, even among the non-migrants. Some household are not interested that it has less prospects and who so ever is staying

in village is best option for them. The young generation is always looking for the better prospects of life which they find in the urban areas and thus opt for migration.

Table-5.1.3 describes the number of working days by the respondent in MGNREGA. According to the provision, job opportunity without meeting norms of MGNREGA is meaningless. It is found that provision of job opportunities to beneficiary in terms of number of days are also important one. So from the study the working day has been classified into three categories such as less than 30 days, 30 to 50 days and above 50 days. The first category the table shows that around 34 percent worked for less than 30 days, which includes both migrants and non-migrants. The percentages of migrants and non-migrants are 35.32 and 30.4 respectively. It indicates the slightly higher than non-migrants. In the second categories represents more than 30 to 50 days, the total percentage is around 44.10 percent in terms of migrants and non-migrants, under this category 42.13 percent migrants are working more than 30 to 50 days and 46.4 percent non-migrants. It clearly indicates the higher participation among the non-migrants than the migrants, so the non-migrants people are working more number of days than the migrants. They do not have interest as employment which are available in the local area and satisfied with schemes provided by the government. Third category represents above 50 days of working under the existing schemes, the total percent of 22.19 including to migrants 22.55 percent and non-migrants 23.2 percent respectively, here the working day is more among non-migrants than the migrants. It is observed from the study area that migrant households are not much interested as much as non-migrants households. So it is the clear indication that less number of working day leads to less effectiveness of the programme. It can be concluded that more number of working days enables the people for more employment opportunity and investment on non-food items. The Klonner and Oldiges' study pointed out that successful employment programme has not only increases consumption levels of particularly vulnerable households like SCs and STs but also reducing these households exposure to the risk of seasonal drops consumption pattern. They also emphasize on successful participation of employment programme is leading to improving livelihood security (Klonner and Oldiges, 2014). The reason behind the availability of less number of working days due to the lack of coordination from the block headquarter and implementing agency at bottom level as well as the interested towards the nature of work.



**Table-5.1.4 Distribution of Respondents by their Wages in MGNREGA**

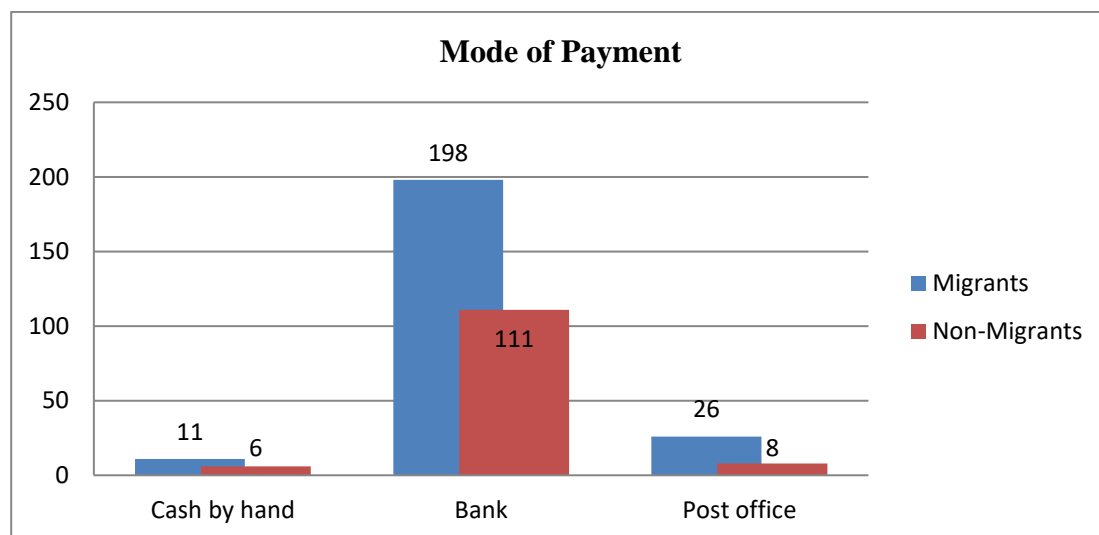
Daily Wage Rate	Migrants	Non-Migrants	Total
Rs 90/-	1.28	1.6	1.39
Rs 120/-	15.32	17.6	16.11
Rs.170/-	74.04	68.0	71.94
Above Rs. 170/-	9.36	12.8	10.56
Total	100	100	100
Frequency of Getting Wage	Migrants	Non-Migrants	Total
Weekly	7.66	8.00	7.78
Fortnight	23.40	16.8	21.11
Monthly	68.94	73.6	70.56
Once in a two month	—	1.6	0.56
Total	100	100	100

Sources: Field Data, January-March, 2016

Table-5.1.4 shows the distribution of daily wage rate, frequency of payment and mode of payment related issues. First it has categorised daily wage structure of the scheme. Since the introduction of schemes, MGNREGA wages are mostly calculated according on piece-rate which means quantity of work output in day. As per the rules government has provided the minimum wage to participants. In the study area, the wage structure consists three categories such as Rs.90/-, Rs 120 and Rs.170/- per day which is provided to the beneficiary under MGNREGA. Here it indicates the total highest percentage is found in the category of Rs.170/- per day, it includes both migrants and non-migrants. On the other hand, around 16.11 percent of total respondents is getting Rs.120/- per day which also includes both migrants and non-migrants. However, migrant's percentage in this category is about 15 and non-migrant's is 17 percent. Around 10 percent including both migrants and non-migrants is getting Rs.170. Among the migrant households 9.4 percent are getting above Rs. 170/ per day whereas among the migrant around 13 percent are in the same wage slab. Thus it can be concluded that non-migrants are getting more wages than migrants and because of that they are non-migratory. From the beginning of schemes, it has been found that there was irregularity of payment to the beneficiary which led to generate disinterest among the people. So the government came up with solution on wage irregularity. Table-5.1.4 shows the frequency of receiving wage. The frequency is consisting of four types such as weekly, fortnightly, monthly and once in 2 months. In the first one is weekly payment, is around 7.7 percent and it is same for both the categories i.e. migrants and non-migrants. Fortnight is another option for getting

payment and it is around 8 percent. The Monthly payment is received by 70 percent. Among the migrants 68 percent and among the non-migrants 73 percent received payment on monthly basis. It indicates the highest percentage for non-migrants as compared to migrants. Among the four categories, monthly payment is good option for them to get their wage on time. Moreover, the government is also making stringent rules towards the monthly basis payment which is not better option for the beneficiaries. However, some of the respondents claim it is very difficult to adjust the family expenditure in whole month; on contrary it can help them to save some extra expenses. It seems that less than one percent of payments are disbursed once in 2 month. The study finds that responds are rarely in favour of this option as it is very far from their requirement.

**Figure -5.1.1 Distributions of Respondents by Mode Payment in MGNREGA**



Sources: Field Data, January-March, 2016

Figure-5.1.1 illustrates the mode of payment to the beneficiary who is working under this MGNREGA. To ensure the transparency on wage payment and to check misappropriation, the government of India mandated that payment should be made through bank and post office account by the concerned beneficiary. As a result, over 10 crore post offices and bank account have been opened. About 93 percent of total wage are being paid through the post office and bank account (MoRD, 2010-11). During the initial period of employment scheme, it was observed that the cash payments were made through contractor or any other middle men, it seems that the rampant corruption and misappropriation of wages occurred. As a result, worker did not get their dues as per their work. It was found that around 86 percent of the

beneficiary was having account in the Bank such as schedule commercial bank or gramin bank, which is near to the villages, under the 5 Km of radius, whereas only 9.4 percent beneficiaries have an account in Post Office. NSSO survey on MGNREGA data observed that the opening an accounts has brought the poor into the organised sector and it has provided better access to credit because under the MGNREGA beneficiary getting their payment through bank or post-office. Thus it can be considered as one of the basic tool to access to the credit (NSSO, 2010-11). Another study by Banerjee and his colleague in Bihar found that introduction electronic governance reform in the form of bank, post office leads to corruption free and smooth functioning of the programme (Banerjee and Pande et al., 2014).

On the other hand, only 4.7 percent of the respondents are getting payment through cash in hand. In case of urgency, the beneficiary had to get the cash in hand. Still there is evidence of making payment in cash due to the lack of infrastructure including the poor coverage of bank or post office. NSSO panel survey data at national level indicates around 83 percent of MGNREGA payment through post-office and followed by 4 percent in bank, 6 percent through smart card (NSSO, 2010-11). The study by Karthik and his colleague on MGNREGA payment system in Andhra Pradesh found that efficiency of smart cards in transferring benefits and entitlements to the worker. The electronic benefits are transferred into the bank accounts of beneficiaries of MGNREGA. Biometric authentication is required for withdrawals using smart cards, which means there is significant increases are being received by beneficiary from this new system (Karthik and Sukhatankar, 2014). So, it is considered that it is one of the important steps taken by the government to check the corruption and interference of the contractors in this programme. It is also found that the opening of an account in banks and post office is part of financial inclusiveness. It is one of the remarkable steps by the government through the MGNREGA where the beneficiaries have access to their account in the bank or post office, so that they can save their money for future and for having a better living condition.

**Table-5.1.5 Distribution of Respondents by their Perception about MGNREGA**

Perception MGNREGS	Migrants	Non-Migrants	Total
Guaranteed Employment	20.0	24.0	21.39
Strengthen Livelihood	77.87	71.2	75.56
Sustainable Development	1.28	3.2	1.94
Independent Income	0.85	1.6	1.11

Sources: Field Data, January-March, 2016

Table-5.1.5 represents distribution of respondents by their perception about the programme. MGNREGA is considered as one of the world's largest rural employment programme, where aims of the Act is providing wage employment to rural household and strengthening their livelihood through works which can address the causes of chronic poverty like drought, deforestation and soil erosion, and rural migration. In the study area, it has observed the four kinds of perception about MGNREGA such as guaranteed employment; strengthen livelihood, sustainable development and independent income. The perception about the strengthening livelihood promotion is higher percentage of among all categories; it shows around 75 percent both migrant and non-migrant households. Anjor and Yadav study found that under MGNREGA creation of assets specially the land preparation, construction of well in the barren land are considered to be the key for the improvements in agriculture production and increased income and better livelihood for the rural households (Anjor and Yadav, 2015). Another study by Narayan et al., on MGNREGA works and impacts assessment in Maharashtra finds that most of the rural beneficiary under the employment scheme directly or indirectly benefited. It also pointed out that under the scheme farmers from small and marginal or big farmers use their land for plantation and construct well in the highland which increases the productivity of land as well as crops. Thus, it is not only supportive for the big farmers but also the small and marginal farmers for creating their own asset (Narayan et al., 2014). While around 21 percent households including both migrant and non-migrant is using MGNREGA is guaranteed employment options. It means the household do not have any land; they are mostly depends on the wage employment and getting regular employment through this scheme. It also observed that during off agriculture season local people easily getting work under this scheme.

Since the introduction of the programme, one of the objectives of the scheme is using common people's resource. It is found from the study area that people those having some barren land and pasture land use it for digging pond, construction of well and using for plantations. Around 2 percent of household including both migrant and non-migrant opted as sustainable livelihood. It is found from the study area that construction village road has remarkable impact on the local people to connect with daily market and transportation specially tribals sending agriculture products on daily basis which ultimately enhancing the independent income. Sinha's study on Madhya Pradesh under the MGNREGA assets were created known as Kapil Dhara i.e. wells were constructed in the tribal forest land which help small and marginal farmer in the tribal areas to improve the cropping intensity. The Kapil Dhara approach is new style of short-term measures of sustainable water recharge programme under MGNREGA in Madhya Pradesh for irrigation of land (Sinha, 2013). Another perception about the MGNREGA is independent income, around 1 percent household i.e. very less proportion people are believed to have an independent source of income. The reason might be mason worker and other skilled workers are working under this scheme which finds the regular employment thorough out the year.

## **5.2: Public Distribution System (PDS)**

Public distribution system is an oldest and extensive network of public food delivery mechanism in India. It is more than half a century old concept, as its origin traced back to the period of Second World War i.e. 1939 onwards, after the Second World War period the scarcity of food was very acute in the world. During that period India had marked a major paradigm shift towards production of cash crops instead of food crops. The result of this shift brought immense changes in the field of agriculture and there by reduced food production rate. Thus the previously predominated surplus agrarian economy of India became subsistence and stagnant. As a result, the situations of food crisis, food insecurity, food shortage, malnourishment, undernourishment etc. looked threatening towards existence of human development. For the first time this type of situation was felt in Bombay during the second world war where private individuals failed to provide food grains at affordable prices to urban consumers. Taking this situation of food shortage and rising prices into consideration, the colonial government had undertaken the charge of introducing public distribution system in Bombay with the objective of making price stability and providing equitable

distribution of food grains to poor consumer at subsidized rates (Swaminathan, 2000). The first appearance of Public Distribution System (PDS) in India was in the form of a wartime rationing measure by which each poor household entitled with a specified quantity of selected commodities at subsidized prices. The PDS which is operating today has thus evolved from these beginning and is widely recognized to be key instrument of household food security. According to Bapna (1990) the objectives of PDS are as follows:-

- Increasing the welfare for the poor
- Rationing during situation of scarcity and
- Keeping a check on private trade

The growth and development of PDS in India is associated with various time periods and being covered through several distinct phases along with five year plans and policy changes. The history of public distribution system in India has been broadly divided into four phases (Swaminathan, 2000). The first phase began with the introduction of PDS in 1939 and continued up to sixties. At the initial stage it was seen as a mere rationing system of scarce commodities and largely confined to urban areas. At that time the operation of PDS was irregular and mainly based upon imports of food grain under Public Law 480<sup>10</sup> from US government with little internal procurement (Parikh, 1994). During the first five-year plan (1951-56) the government has introduced the few urban and small town areas for certain amount of PDS. The role of both food grains policy committee report 1950-51 and food grains enquiry committee report 1957 is crucial in emphasizing a control system of procurement and opening of more FPS (Fair Price Shops) for expanding the reach of PDS in India. As a result, in between 1958 to 1966 the distribution of grains through PDS was slightly higher which is made possible because of substantial imports of food grains (Swaminathan, 2000). The second phase marked its beginning from two significant happenings on the one hand, the green revolution started in India which increases agricultural productivity especially wheat and paddy.

---

<sup>10</sup> It is also known as 'food for peace' a funding avenue by which US food can be used for overseas Aid to combat the hunger and malnutrition.

## **5.2 (1): Mechanism of PDS**

The term mechanism in the present context is used to denote the combination of both organization and administrative structure involved in the implementation of public distribution system which starts from the Planning Commission of India now renamed as NITI Aayog<sup>11</sup> to the consumers. The organizational and administrative planning involves both macro and micro structure in developing PDS quotas to the consumer. PDS is unique in terms of responsibility shared between the central and state government, covering vast infrastructural arrangement (Jharawal, 1998). However, the PDS is implemented with the help of the joint efforts of the governments at both the level i.e. central and state with a little difference in their structure and function. While the central government is assigned with the task of procurement, storage, transport and distribution of food commodities to different states; state governments have the responsibility of implementing, monitoring and enforcing legal provision are assigned to them. This study deals with access to social security in terms of PDS in delivering food grains to the poor people.

## **5.2 (2): Central Planning of PDS in India**

As PDS is a rationing mechanism delegated with the responsibility of providing specific quantities of selected food grains to all household as per their quota, thus the responsibility of procuring food is the basic requirement that lies specially with the central government. Presently wheat, rice, sugar, edible oil, kerosene and soft coke are the major commodities distributed through network of fair price shops and designated depots. But besides all these things state wise distribution varies on the basis of various state government's own procurement and distribution. In the central level, the department of food and civil supply and specifically, the Ministry of Food and Supply Department has the primary responsibility related to the policies of food procurement and food distribution through PDS. But in reality there are a different institutional and organizational body which deals with the planning and execution of PDS through a proper channel. In 14<sup>th</sup> January 1964, Food Corporation of India (FCI) was set up in order to fulfill the objectives such as effective price, support operation for safeguarding the interests of the farmers, distribution of food grains through out the

---

<sup>11</sup> The National Institution for Transforming India a government policy think tank established in the year 2015, to replace the Planning commission of India.

country for public distribution system and finally maintaining satisfactory level of operational and buffer stocks of food grains to ensure the food security in the country. The vital responsibility of making procurement assigned with Food Corporation of India (FCI). It is nodal agency of government of India along with other state agencies. They procure wheat, paddy and coarse grains under the price support schemes and rice under statutory levy scheme. Through procurement policy government ensures Minimum Support Price (MSP)<sup>12</sup> to the farmers before the harvest during each Kharif and Rabi season on the basis of recommendation of Commission of Agriculture Costs and Prices (CACP). Farmers are not compelled to sell their product below the support price. Thus they can sell their produce to either the governmental agencies or the private traders and millers. For facilitating procurement of food grains FCI along with various state agencies established a large number of purchase centers at various key points. While FCI is only accessible for storage of food grains the CWC (Central Warehouse Corporation) and SWC (State Warehouse Corporation) are used for the storage of food grains and also other notified commodities (Pal, 2011). The allotment of PDS items is guided by several factors like overall availability of food grains in the state, stocks with central government, relative demand, and the price situation, presently allocation of food grains to various state governments is made on the basis of total number of BPL person in the state. Therefore, the position of allocation and take varies from state to state depending on the efficiency of PDS. After allocation to various states the responsibility of transportation, storage and distribution through proper licensing mechanism assigned to the state government more especially to department of civil supply and consumer affair operating each and every state. Through proper supervision and coordination mechanism, the civil supply and consumer department of various state governments distributes the essential commodities to various districts with the involvement different micro level process.

As mentioned earlier that the present research considered PDS as a form of food security in tribal dominated villages of Rayagada districts which is mostly a micro picture of broader ground reality. Thus it is necessary to present the brief discussion.

---

<sup>12</sup>The price at which government purchase crops from the farmers, whatever may be the price for the crops. It helps to incentives the farmers and ensures adequate food grains production in the country.



### **5.2(3): PDS in Odisha**

In Odisha, while the Department of Food Supplies and Consumer Welfare (FSCW) is responsible for distribution of essential commodities to people of Odisha at subsidized prices. Odisha state civil supply corporation takes the operational charges associated with PDS. The vision and mission of Food Supplies and Consumer Welfare Department is to ensure food security by providing food grains under the PDS. It acts as the agent of government of Odisha in purchase, storage, transport, distribution and sell of essential food grains to the consumer. For storage of rice, Odisha State Civil Supplies Corporation through the use of miller and handling and transportation contactor level stored the food grains in its own godowns' along with Rice Receiving Centers (RRC) in different block within the state which will further converted to Department Storage Center (DSC). Through the above all process, the retailers in different areas of state comprising of private dealers, cooperative groups, Self Help Groups (SHGs) and Gram Panchayat representative receive the food stocks and finally the consumer get the essential quotas from those retailer. FPS can either be run by a private party, or by cooperative society, or by women self-help group or by gram panchayats. The procedure for issue of licenses to the Fair Price Shops (FPS) for distribution of essential commodities under the PDS is clearly laid down in Odisha Public Distribution System (OPDS).

### **5.2(4): PDS in Rayagada District**

In Odisha, there are 37 percent of BPL populations living with acute poverty and food insecurity (Planning Commission based on Tendulkar committee report 2009-10). In this context PDS owes maximum importance within the state for each and every persons belonging to weaker sections of the society. After the establishment of Odisha State Civil Supply Corporation under the companies act 1956 along with department of Food Supplies and Consumer Welfare, the responsibility of organization and implementation of PDS is assigned with it. In Rayagada, the Targeted Public Distribution System (TPDS) has implemented in the year 1997 after declaration of separate district by the Government of Odisha. With implementation of TPDS, population is categorised into Below Poverty Line (BPL), Above Poverty Line (APL) by using the poverty estimation criteria by expert group on estimation of poverty. Besides BPL and APL, there are two other categories which include Antyodaya Anna

Yojana (AAY) for those who are poorest of the poor along with the aged persons. As per the division of population into various categories different colors of cards are distributed by the government among them for claiming their entitlement in the form of specific quantities of essential commodities from the retail outlets every month.

The main objective of this scheme is to provide food and non-food grains and other essential commodities at subsidized prices to the poor people in the society. It provides six essential commodities like rice, wheat, sugar, edible oils, kerosene and soft coke. As per the instruction of the Government, all the BPL families of urban as well as rural area were getting 25 Kg of rice per month at the rate of 1 rupee.

**Table-5.2.1 Distribution of Respondents by Access to PDS**

Access to Ration card	Migrants	Non-Migrants	Total
BPL	69.79	74.4	71.39
AAY	9.36	10.4	9.72
APL	18.72	14.4	17.22
PLO	2.13	0.8	1.67
Quota of Ration Under PDS			
35 Kg	44.23	42.99	43.81
20 Kg	49.04	42.06	46.67
10 Kg	6.73	14.95	9.52

Sources: Field Data, January-March, 2016

Table-5.2.1 shows the distribution of respondents by access to PDS. In order to access the PDS, households must have to acquire a card which indicates the name of head of household along with members included on the card and the place of residence for the card holder. In study area, it is found that there are four kinds of cards accessed by the household such as Below Poverty Line (BPL), Antyodaya Anna Yojana (AAY), Above Poverty Line (APL and Poor Left Out (PLO). On the basis of card holder, household can be identified as by the category to which they belong to. PDS is one of the important social safety net and widely network of distribution of food grains. In the study, there is largest proportion of BPL ration card holder about 71 percent including both migrant and non-migrant households' access to the PDS. While around 70 percent are migrant household and 74.4 percent non-migrant household respectively. The Rehamans study by using NSSO 2011-12 data finds that in all India level 37 percentage of beneficiary are BPL card holder (Rehmans, 2014). It means both migrant and non-migrant household are beneficiary of this ration card. However,

state level NFHS-4 data reveals that around 42 percent of household is holding BPL ration card in Odisha (NFHS-4, 2017). Thus, it is found that all households are accessing the benefits of BPL ration card and also highest among all three categories in study area because study area witnesses the tribal dominated district and mostly tribal people are poor and vulnerable groups. So it can be concluded that BPL category of household both migrants and non-migrants is very common in the study area. In this card an individual households entitled to get 25 Kg of ration in every month at the rate of Re. 1 per Kg. Subsequently another category is AAY (Antodaya Anna Yojana), the total percentage of respondents' avails this ration card is about 9 percent which is including migrants 9 percent and non-migrants 10.4 percent. The available of ration in this category is 35 Kg per month, mostly the destitute family, widows and extreme poor household are the actual beneficiary in this scheme. Although the national level data reveals that almost 85 percent AAY beneficiary are concentrated in the rural areas, where as tribal beneficiary are 57.2 percent (NITI, 2016). In the third category is Above Poverty Line (APL) only the 17 percent of total households are getting facility in this ration card which includes both migration and non-migration. The percentage of migration household is 18.72 and 14 percent respectively, which is higher than the AAY ration card holder. The national level data reveals that there are 20.5 percent of APL ration card holder in the country (NITI, 2016). This kind of card is issued to the people with little better living condition. The APL households entitled to get 25 Kg of ration in every month at the rate of Rs.1 per Kg. The fourth category is PLO (Poor left Out), it is another remarkable step by the state government to identify the poor people, those unable to get above ration card due to administrative error or any natural disaster reasons. Therefore, the state government decided to introduce such ration card to the beneficiary who can entailed to get the food grains through PDS. The data shows the total 1.7 percent of household beneficiary is under PLO, which is including both migrants and non-migrants. The percentage of migrants' household is about 2.13 whereas the non-migrants' households constitute 0.8 percent of the total. The beneficiary of this card holder is able to get ration of 15 Kg per month at the rate of Re. 1 per Kg. The ground level above data reveals that there is lower proportion of households coming under the PLO category.

**Table-5.2.2 Details of Ration Delivered by PDS**

PDS Goods	Amount Received Per month in Kg/ltr.	Units price of items in (Rs.)	Transportation cost paid of (Rs.)	Unit price if sold in Market (Rs.)
Rice	25 Kg	1.00	-	22
Sugar	2 Kg	13.50	1.50	30
Kerosene	4ltrs	12.60	7.35	25
Wheat	5 Kg	5.10	3.20	15

Sources: Field data, January-March, 2016

Table-5.2.2 depicts the services that are delivered by PDS in the study area. The commodities that are delivered under PDS include rice, sugar, and kerosene and wheat. The allotment of wheat is not so widely distributed in the study area as most of the people are preferred to consume rice rather than wheat. The rice was distributed to all families irrespective of BPL, APL, and AAY along with PLO. In the study area, it has been found that the quota of ration has declined to the APL and BPL beneficiary due to the National Food Security Act (NFSA-2013). In this act the beneficiary gets ration according to the per head member of households. Rice is widely distributed in the study area, mostly people are consuming rice. In the eastern part of India people mostly consume rice and considered as their staple food. Besides rice, another important commodity distributed through PDS is levy sugar<sup>13</sup> which is mainly imported from other parts of the country. Primary data confirmed that although rice is distributed timely for each and every month, distribution of sugar is not regular by the supply department. The reason behind that the people are not interested to purchase sugar in every month as it is not a necessary item for daily use. However, few people purchase it while levying their monthly ration. Another important thing distributed under the PDS is kerosene oil which plays a major role in lighting sources for each and every poor households and kerosene oil is also used for cultivation purpose. The kerosene oil distributed four liters to each and every card holders and most of the time kerosene is available at Panchayat office for distribution among the households.

As per the rule of Food Supplies and Consumer Welfare (FSCW) rice should be distributed among households at the rate of Rupee 1 per Kg. The transportation cost for rice distribution is bear by the state government. While, sugar is distributed at the

<sup>13</sup> Every sugar mill mandatorily surrenders 10 percent of its production to the central government at a price lower than the market price known as levy sugar. This enables the central government to get access to low cost sugar stocks for distribution through the Public Distribution System (PDS)

rate of Rs.13.50 per Kg and kerosene at the Rs.12.65 per liter to each and every household. But the above data reveals from the field that the BPL households are buying rice at Rupee 1 per Kg but for the collection of other three commodities they are paying extra amount of rupees 1.50 and 7.35 respectively. The block official narrated the reason behind such extra charges is that government allowed them to collect extra amount as transportation charges in hill areas as well as in the welfare fund for village gram Panchayat. These extra charges are unable to bear by poor tribal household for which sometimes they lose their sugar and kerosene oil quota. This is one of the hidden realities associated with the implementation of PDS in study area.

**Table-5.2.3 Distribution of Respondents by their Purchase of Ration from Private Shop**

Sufficient Rationing	Migrants	Non-Migrants	Total
Yes	11.48	14.4	12.5
No	88.51	85.6	87.5
Purchased Rice Per Kg/Private Shop			
Rs.18/-	2.88	1.87	2.54
Rs.20/-	70.19	66.36	68.89
Rs.22/-	26.92	31.78	28.57
Total	100	100	100

Sources: Field Data, January-March, 2016

Table-5.2.3 shows the distribution of rationing by the respondent. The quantity of ration under PDS is not sufficient for whole month. In the study area, it has found that there is very less percentage of household who have opined that the quantity of ration is sufficient for whole month. Around 12 percent respondents are opined sufficient consumption for whole month includes both migration and non-migrants. It means the household getting ration from other source, it might be the reason that household is having small paddy field, which gives supplementary food grains for consumption. Whereas, an overwhelming majority i.e. 88 percentages of respondents opined that quantity of ration is not sufficient for household consumption for whole month including both migrant and non-migrant household. For any kind of physical activities there is need for food which they basically purchase from the private ration shops. Therefore, in rural areas people were spending more on food items than the other non-food items. So it has helped them to spend money on other non-food items rather than food. Here the question about the sufficient of ration for whole month was asked and only 12.5 percent of sample respondents said full quota of ration is sufficient for

whole month which include both migration and non-migration. The migrant percentage is 11.8 percent whereas the non-migrants 14.4. Here it shows the little bit higher than the migrant households. On other hand, about 88.51 percent of household opined that is not sufficient as quota of ration for whole month as getting under the PDS.

### **5.3: Odisha Tribal Empowerment and Livelihood Programme (OTELP)**

In India, majority of the people live in rural areas and most of them directly or indirectly depend on agriculture for their livelihood. During 1951-81 the share of agriculture production was 72 percent then the changes took place and percentage came down to 66.8 per cent in 1991 (Mukundan, 2009). This shows the fluctuation in agricultural activities which is the main source of livelihood for majority of the people. The rural livelihood has always remained central in all the policy programme of the government which is also given importance by researcher or academician. People in rural areas mainly depend on indigenous source of income and employment for their livelihood (Gupta, 2011). After independence, India has adopted modern techniques in the field of agriculture but it is unable to reach to those who are needy. So people have engaged themselves in various non-agricultural activities for their livelihood. Livelihood refers to work or profession of the individual, which he/she depends on for surviving or 'making a living' supported by a family or any job is described as livelihood (Conways and Chamber, 1991). In other words, it is the inner capacity of individuals to make strategies to save their life. In case of rural areas 70 percent of the populations are dependent on agricultural activities along with livestock rearing which is their main source of livelihood (FAO, 2016).

In case of Odisha, the livelihood of people also depends on agriculture and allied sector. Most of the people are engaged in agriculture, livestock rearing, cottage and small scale industries. But the main sources of work force are engaged in agriculture which comprises 60 percent of the total population. Apart from this, the state suffers from diverse natural calamities like cyclones, droughts, and floods along with inadequate and irregular irrigation facilities which still remain as a major constraint for agriculture and agricultural productivity. In addition, there are other two sectors such as services and industries which also provide income generation options for rural people, which comprise around 26.1 per cent and 57 per cent to GSDP (Gross State

Domestic Production) respectively (Odisha Economic survey, 2016-17). The importance of agriculture is high for people in the rural areas in general and particular in study area.

In case of tribal population, agriculture has a pivotal place for their livelihood sustenance but due to developmental inequality in the state tribal population tends to lose their economy on agriculture and allied activities. To minimize the existing gap, the state government has implemented several policies for reducing poverty, creating employment opportunity etc. in tribal dominated areas. The programmes are like integrated action plan, Biju Kalahandi, Bolangir and Koraput Plan (BKBKP), Gopabandhu Gramina Yojana (GGY), Odisha livelihood Mission (OLM), Western Odisha Livelihood Programme (WOLP), National Rural Livelihood Mission (NRLM) and Odisha Tribal Empowerment Livelihood Programme (OTELP).

### **5.3(1): Objectives of Odisha Tribal Empowerment and Livelihood Programme (OTELP)**

The OTELP has been started on 2nd October, 2004 supported by International Fund for Agriculture Development (IFAD) Department for International Development (DFID) and World Food Programme (WFP), sponsored Government of India and government of Odisha. In order to ensure the livelihood and food security of poor tribal households, they can use the sustainably exploitation of natural resource at their disposal through off farm or non-farm enterprises development. The Odisha government tribal development department is implementing agency of this programme. It is also considered as the nodal agency of programme for implementing. The main aim of this programme is to empower the tribals and enable them to enhance their food security, to increase their income and improve overall quality of their livelihood. In addition, there are other objectives of this programme like capacity building of community, to encourage of firm enterprises, to strengthen the institutional capacity of government agencies, building of indigenous knowledge and blend with technological innovations, encourage development of pro-tribal environment.

### **5.3(2): Operational Area of OTELP in Rayagada**

It intends to provide livelihood through promoting a more efficient use of resource among tribal population. Initially it was started in 30 community development block

of 7 districts namely Koraput, Kandhamal, Kalahandi, Gajapati, Rayagada, Nabrangpur, Malkangiri in three phases. In the first phase, 10 blocks of 4 districts have been chosen for the implementation i.e. Koraput, Kandhamal, Kalahandi and Gajapati. Later in 2009, OTELP was started in Rayagada district. Now, it has covered 176 villages in five blocks where this study has been conducted such blocks are namely Kashipur, Bishamakatak and Kalyansinghpur. In Bishamakatak block there are 42 villages that come under the OTELP followed by Kashipur 14 villages and Kalyansinghpur 10 villages are covered. The total numbers of ST households are 5649 getting benefits of this scheme, where the male population is 12066 and female population is 12116. The OTELP scheme was initiated in three phases in the present study area.

**Table-5.3.1 Distribution of Respondents by Information of OTELP**

Information about OTELP	Migration	Non-Migration	Total
OTELP office in village	9.79	5.6	8.33
NGO/CBO	90.21	94.4	91.67
<b>Kind of Food security OTELP</b>			
Land & water	34.47	24.8	31.11
Agriculture and Horticulture	34.47	45.6	38.33
Livestock	20.85	18.4	20.0
Rural finance	4.26	6.4	5.0
other specify	5.96	4.8	5.56
Total	100	100	100

Sources: Field Data, January-March, 2016

Table-5.3.1 shows the accessibility of information regarding OTELP by beneficiaries in study area. It has observed the accessibility of OTELP information migrant and non-migrant reliable the sources of either OTELP office or NGO for getting information regarding livelihood scheme. It shows the overwhelming majority of household i.e. around 92 percent of household both migrant and non-migrant getting information through the Non-government organisation (NGOs). In the study area NGO plays key role while creating awareness about the livelihood scheme. While 8 percent of household both migrant and non-migrant getting information through the OTELP office. It means household members have contacts with any member in the OTELP office through the various programme. Another important aspect of OTELP is various food security options delivered under OTELP. The majority i.e. 39 percent of the household are getting benefits of agriculture or horticultures through the OTELP



schemes including migrant and non-migrant household. Tribal people are mostly dependent on agriculture or horticulture for their sustenance of livelihood. Under the OTELP beneficiary getting various inputs for agriculture or horticulture such seeds, manure, fertilizers and agricultural equipment. In agriculture and horticulture option beneficiary is getting the good quality of seeds with subsidised price, it not only provides only seeds but also the agriculture equipment such power tillers, low cost paddy thresher, seed machine, spray machine and grass cutting machine etc. for horticulture purpose seeds and fertilizer and plants also provides to the beneficiary. While around 32 percent both migrant and non-migrant household getting benefits for land and water development. In OTELP schemes people are creating assets specially the land preparation, and construction of well in the barren land for agriculture purpose. It is considered to be the key foundation stone for improvement of agriculture production and individual income household. Rearing livestock is another important livelihood option for the beneficiary specially the land less labourer and marginal land holder around 20 percent of household both migrant and non-migrant household are getting the benefits under OTELP schemes. In this category beneficiary are getting the livestock such as cow, buffalo, goats, hen and ducks. Besides this the government provides free treatment of domestic animals such as cow, buffalo and goats. Last but not least the rural finance is another livelihood option for the rural tribal people around 5 percent of household are getting the micro credit for starting any kind of business in the local area. Under this category beneficiary are getting the money from the bank to start the new business such grocery shop, pan shop, cycle and bike repairing point in their locality. These are the livelihood option as provided by the OTELP in terms of food security to the beneficiary.

**Table-5.3.2 Distribution of Respondents by Family Member Beneficiary in OTELP**

Beneficiary of Members	Migration	Non-Migration	Total
Two member	19.15	24.0	20.83
one member	80.85	76.0	79.17
<b>Benefits from OTELP</b>			
Monetary help	8.51	10.4	9.17
Agricultural Equipment	32.34	43.2	36.11
Training and Capacity Building	3.83	0.8	2.78
Irrigation	36.6	25.6	32.78
Any other options	18.72	20.00	19.17
Total	100	100	100

Sources: Field Data, January-March, 2016

Table-5.3.2 represents the participation of family member in the OTELP, it has found that only member is participating in this programme. According to the rules OTELP, any head of household whether male or female may be the beneficiary of this scheme. They have the responsibility of the schemes. From the above table it is revealed that most of the one member family have benefited more than two member families i.e. seventy nine per cent and more than twenty per cent in non-migrant tribal population covered by this programme. If in the case of two members are getting benefits it means the beneficiary are getting two different options of livelihood. It has been observed that still there is dichotomy while identify the actual beneficiary of OTELP though they have mentioned about the sole criteria of selection procedure of beneficiary but that actual not work.

Table-5.3.2 has also analysed the diversification of livelihood of tribal population through diverse sources. In addition to this, it has observed that most of beneficiaries have taken by migrant people than non-migrant. For instance, in case of monetary and agricultural equipment migrant has dominated the livelihood component more than sixty percent and as well more than fifty eighty percent, while rest is in hand of non-migrant population. And migrant tribal have also benefited other sources like capacity building, irrigations and other facilities, which has improved their livelihood options, for example migrant tribal population have taken ninety per cent at training facilities, irrigation claims more than sixty five percent and other sector they occupy more than sixty three per cent. Here this data shows the dynamics involved between migrant and non-migrant tribal population and their livelihood diversification options.

**Table-5.3.3 Distribution of Respondents by their Suggestion about OTELP**

Improvement of OTELP	Migration	Non-Migration	Total
Enhance Monetary help	56.6	54.4	55.83
Marketing facilities	22.13	24.0	22.78
Any other specify	21.28	21.6	21.39
<b>Food Security Option</b>			
Minor Irrigation	37.02	26.4	33.33
HYV seeds and fertilizer	34.04	40.8	36.39
Livestock Rearing	19.57	17.6	18.89
Financing for Business	7.66	8.0	7.78
Any other options	1.7	7.2	3.61
<b>Total</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>

Sources: Field Data, January-March, 2016

Table-5.3.3 Although the government is providing various livelihood options in terms of food security, it has found that beneficiary is not satisfied with the scheme, still there is need to be better on scheme. However, the motives of respondent suggest that there is need to enhance the monetary provision in OTELP as per the scheme the government provides onetime money to the beneficiary. It would be better if the government enhance the monetary help in cash. It has observed that the beneficiary did not get any kind of incentive for the failure of crops, no insurance failure of crops or any damage related to the livestock and they bear huge loss, that might be reason for not satisfied by beneficiary. Secondly, in rural area there is no proper market facility; beneficiary did not get their proper due as per the rules and regulation. They always face the shortage of market in their own area. So there is need to be improve the market facilities in the local area, that is important to increase the income level and any others too. And it is also hallmark of marketing facilities for better performance of livelihood of poor tribal people. Thirdly, there should be better life of household, if the government provides any other alternative such as IT kiosk, in the daily activities beneficiary. Therefore, the suggestions should be taken as per the priority of the beneficiary. This has also reflected various components of OTELP, which covers the livelihood options of tribal population. In OTELP there are several provisions for improving the livelihood such as minor irrigation, HYV seeds and fertilizer, livestock and financing petty business etc. Among all the livelihood options the table shows that beneficiary has taken most of livelihood facility from minor irrigation, High Yielding Variety (HYV) seeds and fertilizer for the horticulture and farming purpose i.e. 33.3 and 36.3 both migrant and non-migrants. In minor irrigation beneficiary are check dam, well and small pump set provided by the government for cultivation and daily purpose. In HYV seeds are also one of the important components of livelihood in OTELP. In this category, the beneficiaries are getting the HYV seeds and fertilizer for the farming of vegetables and cash crops. Thirdly livestock is another option basically the beneficiary from marginal land holding or no land the percentage is about 18.8 both migrant and non-migrants. Finally, petty business is also components of livelihood in OTELP, where the beneficiaries have reported to be getting the financial help from the government to running own business.

### **Case Study-5.1.1 Alternative Livelihoods a New Ray of Hope for Tribals**

Sri Shankar Hikaka, age 31, a marginal farmer of Hadasikula village had cultivated 'Pallie' variety bitter gourd in his 6 cents land with the financial help as well as technical inputs from OTELP. He kept the line to line space of 5ft and pit to pit space of 3ft during transplanting of seed and had applied only two Kg compost and 20gm DAP per Pit. After twenty days while the plant grew to a height of 1 foot, OTELP provided him 5kg polymer wire and 2 Kg GI wire as grant to make fencing and he himself contributed wooden stick and labor. Within 35 to 40 days the plants came to flowering stage and started giving fruits after 50 days. He started harvesting after two months of transplanting. The total cost of around Rs.1500 including all inputs was used for this cultivation.

Previously, some of the farmers of the same village were doing better cultivation with 'Desi' variety and were using 'Ranja', (the dried branch of plant) to allow the plants spread on it, but these *Ranjas* were getting damaged after one season. There is intervention of OTELP and constant guidance of technical team by the OTELP. While harvesting started in field, technical team from OTELP took responsibility for facilitating in marketing of the crop. The producers group of that village collected the crop and sent to nearest market like J.K Pur and Rayagada. The market value of this bitter gourd was in high demand in market because it was fit to be used for chips in hotels and Dhabas. Through this process Mr. Shankar Hiakak got a total of Rs.9000 from his 6 cents plot and now he is telling, it has possible only due to *pallie* variety, fencing method and technical support provided by OTELP. It has changed the life of Mr. Shankar Hikaka. He gets regular employment in his own garden and able to feed his family.

### **5.4: Odisha Livelihood Mission (OLM)**

In the year Government of Odisha formed a society named Orissa Poverty Reduction Mission (OPRM) to implement the poverty reduction programmes in the state, which was renamed as Odisha Livelihood Mission. It is an autonomous society under the stewardship of department of Panchayat Raj, Government of Odisha, presently is implementing both rural livelihood mission and National rural livelihoods projects.

Odisha was the first state in the country to launch rural livelihood mission in its bid to bring down rural poverty by promoting diversified and provide self-employment to the rural poor household. This is a government sponsored programme with the partnership of 60:40 ratios between central and state government. The OLM has put distinctive and supportive structure to place to take the rural poor household out of poverty line through the capacity building, financial assistance and self-reliant institution. Odisha livelihood mission is functioning from the year 2012 onwards in all over Odisha. Subsequently, World Bank aided project named the Targeted Rural Initiative for Poverty Termination and Infrastructure (TRIPTI) has been merged into OLM since the mandate of TRIPIT was very much similar. OLM has spread all over the 30 district of Odisha on both intensive and non-intensive approach.

#### **5.4(1): Objectives of OLM**

Following are the main objectives of OLM since its functioning.

- Mobilizing all the poor households into functionally effective SHGs
- Enhancing their access to bank credit and other financial technical and marketing services
- Building their capacities and skill for gainful and sustainable livelihoods development.
- Converging schemes for efficient delivery of social and economic support services to poor with optimal results.

Odisha Livelihood Mission concentrates on livelihood security of rural poor. To provide better livelihood opportunities, the Mission focus on three key areas such as reducing vulnerability, enhancement of livelihood and expanding livelihood options through seeking opportunities in both farm and non-farm sectors as well as in micro enterprises. OLM gives more focus on various social categories in very detailed manner to ensure no poor family from the poor section is left out. All of social groups are put under the special focus to improve their vulnerability and marginalization through ensuring livelihood security. Those groups are identified as SCs, STs, single women, women headed households, person with disability, landless, and migrant labourers etc.

#### **5.4(2): Components of OLM**

**Sustainable Agriculture:** Sustainable agriculture is a key area of OLM's activity. It localizes input and mitigates the risk through enhancing productivity which ensures the food security and increase the family income.

**Non-Timber Forest Produce:** OLM also focuses on producing non-timber forest produces as part of sustainable development programme.

**Employment:** Employment is a key factor which is focused through various skilled development programmes in rural areas where rural youths are the beneficiaries.

**Entrepreneur/ Self-Employment:** OLM encourage rural Self-employment entrepreneurship through facilitating banking sectors and training institutions.

**Financial Inclusion:** OLM provides financial inclusion through universal access to financial service. Basic financial activities are accessed to all, like opening up bank account, saving, credit, insurance, remittance, pension etc. This accessibility helps rural poor a new avenue of job activity through credit facility from the banking sector.

#### **5.4(3): Function of OLM in Rayagada District**

The OLM programme was started in the year of 2012 by the ministry of rural development with the partnership of World Bank. In initial phase of the programme, it concentrated on four blocks, such as, Kshipur, Muniguda, Chandrapur and Bissamcuttack. It strengthened the programme through the medium of creating Self-help Group (SHG) in rural area where the District Rural Development Agency (DRDO) as a nodal agency to play the key role for programmes implementing in the district level. Now, OLM programme is functioning in all 11 blocks in the Rayagada district. It is working towards fulfilling the basic objectives for building an efficient institutional platform and providing financial access to the poor tribal households to increase their income. In order to address such issues, government has started a social security scheme known as Odisha Livelihood Mission (OLM).

In the year of 2012, the government of Odisha launched programme to provide livelihood security for rural poor, which took into several initiatives through the Self-help Group (SHG) to increase the income level of each household. Some major initiatives of those are namely, skill development programme, agricultural activities,

livestock, and financial support for developing institutional mechanism. OLM has been also taking initiative for linking up with the basic entitlement programmes, such as MGNREGA and PDS system through the SHG to ensure food security, employment and financial credit to the poor and vulnerability people.

**Table-5.4.1 Livelihood Operation under OLM in Rayagada District-2015-16**

Name of Block	No. of Producer Groups	No. of producer covered
Gudari	4	90
Kalyansingpur	4	50
Rayagada	4	176
Padmapur	2	80
Kashipur	3	71
Kolnora	6	286
Bissamcuttack	17	687
Total	40	1440

Sources: OLM office, Rayagada accessed data on 12<sup>th</sup> February, 2016

Table-5.4.1 indicates the block wise livelihood cluster in Rayagada district. In every livelihood cluster there is a producer groups, which takes initiative to create livelihood options through producer group. The producer group are playing important role to make aware about livelihood to local people through the self-help group. There are 40 producer groups in district, it is found that in study area has maximum i.e. Bissamcuttack is 17 followed by Kasipur 3 and Kalyansinghpur 4 groups. For the concern area under the supervision of livelihood the study area covered only 24. The beneficiary participated in getting benefits. Under this producer groups consisting of individual as well as SHG member who can take part of this schemes. In this programme, the beneficiary from one block to another may vary due to the inaccessible or remote areas that might be the one reason for the low level of producer groups.

**Table-5.4.2 Livelihood Activities under OLM in Rayagada District-2015-16**

Activity	No. of Producer Groups	No. of producer covered
Pulses	4	130
Hill broom	2	70
Turmeric	8	193
Cashew	4	130
Tamarind	7	121
Goatery	10	170
Siali Leaf	4	106
Mushroom	2	43
Total	42	969

Sources: OLM office, Rayagada accessed data on 12<sup>th</sup> February, 2016

Table-5.4.2 shows the livelihood option or different sources are adopted by tribal population i.e. among them goatery, turmeric and tamarind are the highest producer of the livelihood of tribal population. Apart from these there are other different sources for their livelihood such as *Siali* leaf, Mahua flower, Kendu leaf, and Karnja collection, Pulses and cashew for their betterment or alternative source of income. Apart from this there are non-producer group where the goatery takes the highest position followed by turmeric, cashew and pulses which assumes the same position in non-producer group. Beside these Hill broom and mushroom are the lowest non-producer groups amongst the tribal population. This shows that the highest per cent wage labourers belong to non-producer groups and the lowest number are from the producer group.

**Table-5.4.3 Distribution of Respondents by Access to OLM**

Access to OLM	Migration	Non-Migration	Total
Yes	76.17	96.8	83.33
No	23.83	3.2	16.67
<b>Facilities of OLM</b>			
Training for skill Development	36.87	15.7	25.33
Loan for Livestock rearing	25.7	20.66	16.33
Financial Support for Micro investment	31.84	54.55	56.33
Brick making	5.59	9.09	18
Total	100	100	100

Sources: Field Data, January-March, 2016

Table-5.4.3. depicts the access of livelihood schemes by the respondents in the study area. It is found from the study area that the total 83.33 percent of respondents are availing the schemes; whereas total 16.67 percent is unable to access this exiting scheme including both migrants and non-migrants. The proportion of not accessing is prevailing more than non-migrants, it has various reasons not getting benefit of this schemes. The field note reveals that people are not that much of aware about newly merged schemes and kind benefits are not visible as recently launched by the government. The government officer has given more emphasis on having SHG group rather than the normal beneficiary. So it may be one of the reasons for prevailing large percent of migrants not access the benefits. The table also attempts to highlight the livelihood facilities provided by OLM. For instance, majority of the beneficiary of OLM have been covered through skill development training and micro financial benefit. It is quite interesting that both migrants and non-migrants have used the financial support as their basic part of their livelihood i.e. more than sixty-nine per



cent and more than thirty per cent in each case. In case of skill development migrant population has availed more facilities than the non-migrants, and through livestock rearing both have equally benefited.

**Case Study-5.1.2 OLM as a Brick in Building the Livelihood for Poor Tribal Household**

SHG plays an important role in the micro level for providing livelihood for rural poor. It became an integral part of OLM to provide a platform to deliver various schemes under the government for such marginalized populations. However, SHG became backbone for rural poor to reduce their suffering from exert poverty, starved hunger, malnutrition and unemployment. This study on Maa Majhi Gouri as a SHG group of Ranga Garm Panchyat in Kashipur Block is a case study which represents a particular case of how SHG function in rural areas and provide an alternative strategy for sustainable development and social bringing up historically neglected sections of our society. Initially the group was formed by 10 female members. All these female are from Scheduled Tribe (ST) community. The group was started with a saving system where women were individually contributing a fixed amount of money in their bank account for the initial two years. But, after two years when they came to contact with OLM they initiated livelihood programme in their group activity. They were provided opportunities in various training camps and awareness programme. One such thing is that, they were trained in preparing broom from the OLM training camp.

Although the group has no proper maintenance system before the OLM intervention, but after the OLM action programme the group kept every detail of their activities. Through the better accessibility of banking service, the group accessed taking loan which helped them through financial assistance for their livelihood. Further they started distributing PDS rice which reduced the corruption at the distributing level and ensured food security. Thus, in this way, Maa Majhi Gouri SHG became one of the best Self-help Group in the Rayagada district.

## 5.5 Logit Analysis

Out-migration from rural areas, especially among the tribals area often push driven. There are different kinds of livelihood security and social security programmes have been introduced by the centre as well as state in order to reduce the poverty, unemployment and migration from the study area. Descriptive statistics observed almost universal access to the selected social security scheme. In spite of that migration from region continues. This section tries to focus on the determinants of migration while controlling for socio-economic and demographic factors by applying binary logit regression. While doing the analysis, access to selected social security schemes have been considered as predication variable.

Results from the binary logistic regression as shown in the table-5.5.1 shows that keeping all other variables constant, with regards to the migrant and non-migrant households with access to social security are less likely to report the out-migration in tribal area. It is true in tribal areas; there may be different reasons for out-migration among the tribals i.e. economic, demographic and socio-psychological. The variables used in this model are mostly categorical such as demographic, land ownership, irrigation, economic factors and access to social security. The regression table-5.5.1 shows the mentioned the each and every reason of access to social security at the place of origin and out-migration has discussed below

The first and foremost household characteristic is age of migrant, age of the migrant plays important role in the process of migration. It has significant effect on the tribal migrant household than the non-migrant household. Mostly in age group 35-44 are higher likely to migrate than the non-migrant household. In the study area, it is observed that active working age people could not get any employment opportunity in their local area due the lack of industrial development units and other activities. It may be one of the reasons for migrants to out-migration for better livelihood options. The studies by Bisht and Tiwari in rural Uttarkhand observed that the very limited life supporting activities mainly low agricultural production, lack of industrial development units and other activities which is necessary for the working population of the hill region to migrate to other part of the country for seeking livelihood and better income. They also pointed out that out-migration from rural areas is generally

motivated by several factors in which the economic factors plays a crucial role (Bisht and Tiwari, 1997).

**Table-5.5.1 Determinants of Migration by Selective Social Security Schemes access at the Place of Origin**

Migration Household Characteristics	Odds Ratio	Std. Err.	Z-Stat	P>Z
<b>Age Group of Migrants (18-24 years®)</b>				
25-34 years	0.428	0.366	-0.990	0.321
35-44 years	0.167**	0.144	-2.070	0.038
45-54 years	0.262	0.232	-1.510	0.130
55-63 years	0.249	0.242	-1.430	0.153
<b>Sex (Male®)</b>				
Female	0.418	0.292	-1.250	0.211
<b>Marital Status (Currently Married®)</b>				
Never married	0.918	0.463	-0.170	0.866
<b>Education Attainment (No Education®)</b>				
Primary	0.485**	0.181	-1.940	0.053
Middle	1.118	0.585	0.210	0.832
Secondary and Higher	1.851	1.301	0.880	0.381
Graduate and Above	0.843	0.328	-0.440	0.661
<b>Size of Household (Less than 5®)</b>				
Households 5	0.665	0.227	-1.200	0.232
6 Above	0.743	0.269	-0.820	0.412
Dependency (Child Population®)	2.856*	1.679	1.780	0.074
Household Debt	0.476***	0.146	-2.430	0.015
Household Ownership of Land	1.207	0.909	0.250	0.803
<b>Size of Land Holding (Less than 1 acres®)</b>				
0.002-1.00	1.099	0.613	0.170	0.865
1.01-2.0	1.598	0.815	0.920	0.358
2.01-4.00	1.475	0.758	0.760	0.449
<b>Land Irrigation</b>				
Canal®	0.943	0.500	-0.110	0.912
Rain-fed	1.789	0.936	1.110	0.267
<b>MGNREGA Working Day</b>				
30-50 Working Days®	0.831	0.249	-0.620	0.536
Above 50 Working Days	0.808	0.316	-0.550	0.585
Not Working Days	1.746	2.265	0.430	0.668
Members Getting Benefits under MGNREGA	1.028	0.321	0.090	0.930
Members Access to OTELP (Not access ®)	1.770	1.193	0.850	0.397
OTELP Sustainable Livelihood (Not access ®)	1.592***	0.306	2.420	0.016
<b>Region (Development®)</b>				
Developed Block	1.247	0.402	0.680	0.494
Under Developed Block	1.742	0.779	1.240	0.214
Constant	5.221	10.570	0.820	0.414
Log likelihood Ratio	-207.355			
Pseudo R <sup>2</sup>	0.108			
Number of Observation	360			

**Note:** \*, \*\* and \*\*\* indicate 10%, 5% and 1% level of significant, respectively, ® Reference category

Source: Authors' estimation, based on the Field survey from the households in Rayagada Districts, January-March, 2016

Another important characteristic is attainment of education; it is found that the lower level of education attainment is more likely to migrate than the non-migrant household. It is positively correlated to the migration. It means the young adult age groups i.e. 25-34 typically move with their friends and villagers who have previously migrated and join with them in migration process. It is also observed that in tribal area migration occurs mostly among the adults aging group 25-34 without any skills, which means they have just completed primary level of education which is highly found among the young adults. In rural areas this move is important due to the lower level of education force them to engage in the agriculture and subsistence sector, while remaining economic activities such as industrial units and other economic activities are located in the urban city which are believed to be magnet to attract migrants for seeking better livelihood and income.

Old age population is considered as member between the age group of 60 and above. It is observed from the table-5.6 old age population has highly significant on the migration decision than the non-migrant household. Since old members are experienced and they can play important role in the family to manage family responsibility properly. It also found that the old population has great experience of cultivation and farming during the agriculture season. Thus they may be willing to permit other members of household to migrate for better employment and livelihood

Another important reason of out-migration in tribal areas is indebtedness; it observed that in tribal area people are more likely migrate to recover the debt than non-migrate household. Generally, in tribal areas, it is observed that lending practice is very common among the tribal household. The tribal migrant households are lending for various reason such as festivals, social ceremonies, and cultivation purpose. Thus, they decided to send a active members to migrate out expecting that remittances will facilitate the repayment of their outstanding debt.

## **5.6: Conclusion**

In this chapter, attempt has been made to discuss the selective social security schemes availed at the place of origin. There are four selective social security schemes taken into consideration for the present study such as MGNREGA, PDS, OTELP and OLM. These selective social security schemes are provided by both central and state government. The MGNREGA and PDS schemes are provided by the central

government, whereas OTELP and OLM schemes provided by state government in collaboration with the IFID and WFP. The above mentioned schemes are mostly designed for the rural poor and vulnerable section people to address the poverty, unemployment and food security to the poor and marginal section of people. Thus, in nutshell these schemes provide the guaranteed employment and alternative livelihood to rural people especially to the tribals. In the beginning of this chapter, each selective schemes have been discussed separately to understand the accessibility of social security schemes among the tribal people in rural areas.

In this scheme various question related to access to MGNREGA has been asked to the 360 tribal households both migrant and non-migrant household. In case of MGNREGA, it has observed that access to MGNREGA is universal by both migrant and non-migrant households. The household who is having job cards can get the benefit of this scheme as per the guideline of schemes. In the study area, it is found that any adult member of household can participate in this scheme, it may be male or female, in case of migrant household mostly female members or any adult members of family participate and get the benefit of this schemes and male member go out for better income or livelihood. In case of PDS, it is considered that one of the India's largest safety net programme. It has also found that every sample household including both migrant and non-migrant fairly accessed. In study area, it is found that every household is getting food grains through the PDS at subsidised price i.e. Rupees 1 per Kg and Kerosene oil at Rupees 12.65 per litre. Every household is getting food grains under PDS such as rice, wheat, kerosene oil and sugar. Mostly sample households are getting rice and kerosene in every month. PDS rice is essential for every households and also staple food habit of tribal people. Kerosene oil is also very important for the lighting and agriculture purpose. Besides this sugar also distributed under this schemes people are not interested to purchase, as it is not a necessary items for daily use. Thus, it indicates that sample households are not spending more money on the food items as they gets food grains under PDS at cheap price. Therefore, they can save money which spends on food grain and spent more on non-food items such as children's education, motor bike colour, television as well as some future durable assets. Besides PDS, another important social security schemes is OTELP, this scheme is mainly designed for tribal people. The main objective of the scheme is to providing the alternative livelihood in the form of food security to each tribal

household. It is true that sample households are getting livelihood benefits in the form of livestock rearing, HYV seeds, fertilizer and marketing facilities for non-timber forest products. Thus, the activities under this scheme enhance the better livelihood of the tribal people in their locality. Another important social security scheme is OLM, it is also provided by the state government to reduce poverty through creation of skill development and financial credit to generate alternative income of the poor households. Under this scheme people are getting skill development training such as tailoring, mushroom cultivation as well as poultry farming. Above all, in order to understand the access to social security and migration. The logit regression analysis has been undertaken to know the migration and access to social security in the study area. The result shows that some of the variables have negative significance to the social security and migration and some have positive likelihood to migration and social security. Therefore, it can be concluded that all selective social security schemes availed at the place of origin are universally accessed by the sample households and subsequently migration also occurs. As it is not a rule that only the head of the family can access it, but it might be accessed by any members of household.

## **CHAPTER-VI**

### **SOCIAL NETWORKING, LIVING AND WORKING CONDITION OF MIGRANTS**

“The globe shrinks for those who own it, for the displaced or the dispossessed, the migrants or refugee, no distance is more awesome than the feet across borders or frontiers”

-Homi Bhabha (2003:449)

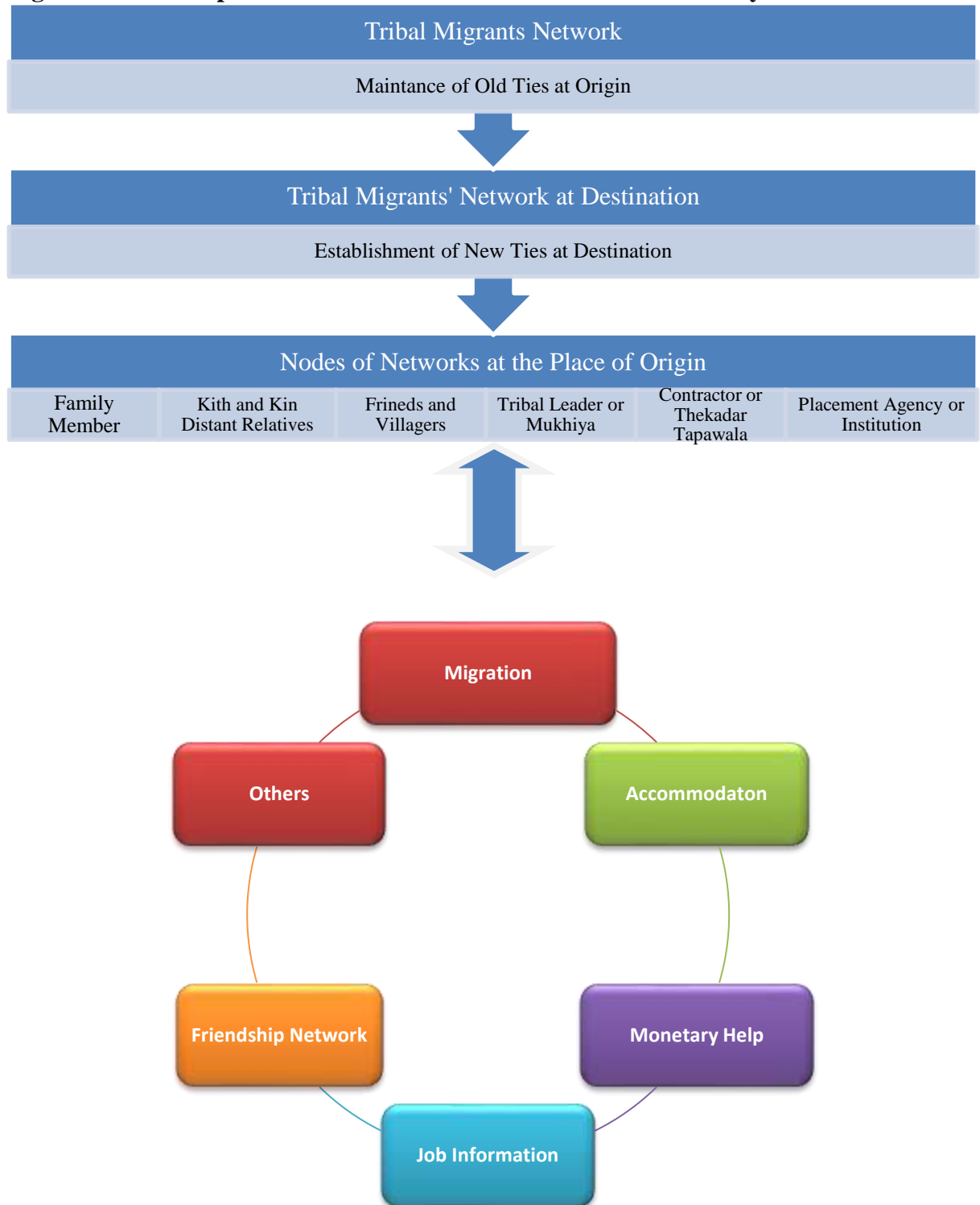
In this chapter, an attempt has been made to discuss the social networking of migrants at the place of origin, living and working condition of the migrants at the place of destination. Rural to urban migration generally happens due to the social connections among the kith and kin groups. Such a networking is a village-based social connection which perpetuates into the flow of migrants from rural to urban areas through kith-kin groups, and consequently their lineage is shifted from their home setting to the major cities. The identity based migration creates more opportunities and function for a new source of capital in the existing society (Kuhn, 2003). This chapter consists of three sections 1. social networking of migration, 2. working condition, and 3. living condition of migrants which is based on the sample of 235 migrants in the study area.

#### **6.1: Social Networking and Migration**

Before discussing the actual process of migration, it is important to know the social networking of tribal people helps in migration. Over the last two decades, there has been growing interest in finding out the role of social networks in facilitating the process of migration. Social network is an age old practice, especially in the case of migration. There are considerable evidences which indicate that the presence of absorptive social networks strongly influence the choice of destination of migrants, both in developing and developed countries specially in the tribal areas (Choldin, 1974). Social networks have been increasingly seen as important to understand the patterns of migration, settlement of employment and links with home (Boyd 1989, Castles and Miller, 2003; Jordan and Duvell, 2003). The process of network building depends on the relationship across space linking migrants and non-migrants (Boyd, 1989). The relationships and contacts of the migrants may influence their decisions to migrate; it influences the decision in more than one ways, i.e. economical, physical,

emotional, etc. These contacts may finance the journey of the migrants, and moreover provide them with accommodation, jobs information, and emotional support (Boyd, 1989). Thus, networks may be a key element in facilitating community formation and permanent settlement (Portes, 1995).

**Figure-6.1.1 Conceptual Framework of Social Networks at the Study Area**



Sources: Based on Authors Review of Literature



The social network is an integral component in the place of origin and destination in the process of migration. It bridges the linkage between migration and non-migration in the study area. In the case of tribal migration, networking also plays key role in the place of origin. During the process of migration, nodes of networking help in integrating the migrants. There are various nodes as mentioned in the above figure such as family members, kith-kin and distant relatives, friends and villagers, tribal leader or *mukhiya* and placement agency or institutions and contractor or *thekadar* etc. The role of family member always links to other family member as new entrant to the place of destination. During the initial period they help non-migrants related to their job, accommodation, monetary help while process of migration. Therefore, family members are considered as important nodes of networking in the place of origin (Boyd, 1989). It is also observed in the study area that distant relatives are key nodes of networking while migration, old migrants who are the distant relatives or acquaintances are influencing the non-migrants too, because old migrants already knew the place of destination, nature of job, and wage, sometimes they have face to face conversation with their relatives while meeting in occasion of festival. Friends and villagers are also influencing the people at the place of origin to migrate. During the festive or social ceremony in the village, there is opportunity to interact with the migrants. In village set up old migrants have considered as respectable household, they imitate the urban life style through the use of smart phone, bike, changed dressing pattern which is always centre of attract to others specially among non-migrant. They share the information related to job, living condition, independent income and other activities.

Another node of networks in the study area is the tribal leader or clan leader i.e. 'mukhiya'. He plays an important role at the place of origin during process of migration. In tribal area, tribal leader or 'mukhiya' are considered to be the respectable and charismatic leader and they influence the people of their community for migration. Tribal people believe on the tribal leader as he knows the conditions of local people. Such nodes of network mostly found in the tribal areas. The placement agency or religious institutions play an important role in the cotemporary times and it is considered as one of modern nodes of network at the place of origin. The placement agency or institutions promotes local people through brochures published in vernacular language with all details about the place of destination, nature of job, remittances, leaving condition and others. In the present time, eastern part of Indian

states such as Odisha and Jharkhand tribal people especially young women and girls migrated towards the urban centres like Delhi, Mumbai and Kolkata. The tribal young women and girls are engaged as domestic labours (Kumari, 2015).

The contractor or *thekadar* are also found in the study area as nodes of network at the place of origin. It is considered to be the old age nodes of network at the place of origin. They play key role, at the place of destination, in assisting migrants on arrival and facilitating them with accommodation, etc. In the Western India the contractor recruits the tribal during the off season of agriculture activities; basically they mostly migrate to the urban centers like Rajkot, Surat and Kota and are engaged in the construction sites and stone crusher units for their livelihood. The contractors or *thekadar* are the middle men who recruit the tribal migrants from the remote villages and also solely dependents on the recruiter for their livelihood (Mosse, Gupta and Shah, 2005).

**Table-6.1.1 Distribution of the Respondents by Major Contact for Migration**

Contact Person	Percentage
Siblings and Relatives	35 (14.89)
Friends and Villagers	152(64.68)
Self	48(20.43)
Total	235(100)

Sources: Field Data, January-March, 2016, Figure in the parenthesis indicates percentage,

Table-6.1.1 shows the distribution of respondents by the major contact network for promoting migration at the place of origin. According to Portes (1995), family, friends, siblings, and village community underlie much of the recent migration in developed and developing nations as well. The development of friendship and relationship with local people helps a lot in the whole process of migration (Portes, 1995). The study of Granovetter and Wierzbicki suggest that migrants who maintain strong ties only with a small group of people, e.g. relatives, may be socially at disadvantaged position (Granovetter, 2002; Wierzbicki, 2004). In the study area it has been found that the contacts are one of the major nodes of network in the place of origin during initial period migration, mostly in rural areas; people have minimum contacts in the form of their relatives, friends, acquaintance etc. Among major contacts, friendship is one of them and it plays a vital role at the place of origin during process of migration. It shows that greater percentage of respondents migrated through

contact with friends and villagers i.e. 64.68 percent; it means in rural set up, the development of friendship happen through the informal ways such as festival, social gathering, and face to face interaction etc. This kind of rapport helps migrants to explore more information about working place, job, nature of work and living condition so on. Kumari's study on tribal women migrants as domestic workers in Mumbai reveals that tribal population especially young women and girls migrated to different urban city centres for seeking job or employment through their friends who already stays at the destination and shares various piece information about job, working conditions and place. Thus, friends and villagers can help them to migrate to the various urban cities like Delhi, Mumbai and Kolkata (Kumari, 2015). The migration literature reveals that the villager is one of the nodes of network at the place of origin for migration. In India, village is micro level of unit and mostly people are homogenous groups i.e. same caste, or same tribe living together, they know each other very well and co-operation each other in every moment of life. Therefore, villagers are one of the major contacts of network for promoting migration.

Significant percentages of people have migrated with self-motivation which amounts to 20.43 percent of the total. This happens due to the development of rail transport and communication at the origin place. However, the young people have been inspired and lured by the urban life style outside their regions village, town, city, state, etc. and want to be the part of such development. Bhagat's study on internal migration in India and unprivileged class found that the recent growth of Indian economy, expansion of transport and communication infrastructure, increasing level of education are associated with rise in aspiration among the migrants; it leads to higher level of migration to urban cities (Bhagat, 2010). It has also been found that the prior information though the established sources about the place, employment and wage rate, etc. become another influencing factor for an individual's migration (Boyd, 1989). According to one of the migrants who had shared his experience;

*“When I saw the people return from outside wearing good cloths especially my friends in our locality, I changed my mind and also wanted to go out for work. My parents did not agree and I was even slapped when I told my idea. Going out is a social taboo in our community, as it hurts the sentiment of ‘Bejuni’ who is supposed to be a saviour of village community. One night I then quietly escaped from village and went to Chennai. Now I am working as crane machine driver in Chennai. I did not regret my decision.”* (24 years old Male, Renga Gram Panchayat, Kashipur).

The sibling and relatives are considered as one of the major contact of network at the place of origin for promoting migration. In the study area, it has been found that siblings influence other non-migrants directly or indirectly for migration, and around 14.89 percent of the migration happens because of this influence. The siblings always try to motivate their own brother and sister to migrate, because they already have information about job, the working place accommodation, and wage rate. Through interaction with contact of non-migrants get information related to the place of employment and rate of wages. In the study area it has also been found that in the place of origin mostly non-migrants get influenced by the lifestyle of relatives who is living in urban areas. The family members have faith on the relatives to help them out during the unfavourable conditions. Therefore, it is one of the prominent dominating contacts in rural areas which help or facilitate migrants at place of origin to think about migration. The studies by Das and Ansary (2017) on Bangladeshi inter-state migration and their adaption and acceptance pointed out that members of the household or family who had previously migrated have significant influence over the decision of making other members as potential migrant. It is not only the family member or neighbours influencing the act, but individual person who reached at destination and constantly function as an agency to bring the migrants from the source areas (Das and Ansary, 2017).

In other words, contacts play major role in rural areas to know all the possible kinds of information about the destination place. Getting information about the place of destination in recent days has become very easy because of the development of media, mobile technology and communication, etc. Banerjee's empirical study on social networks in the migration process in India, found that social contacts at destination place not only reduce the psychological costs of migration by providing a supportive relationship during the migrant's adjustment period, but also reduce monetary costs by providing information on employment opportunities as well as material assistance during the job search (Banerjee, 1983). Therefore, major contacts are very important at the place of origin for migration from the point of view of the present study.

**Table-6.1.2 Distribution of the Female Respondents Who had Migrated with their Spouse**

Migrants with their Spouse	Frequency
With spouse	9(3.83)
Without spouse	226(96.17)
Total	235(100)

Sources: Field Data, January- March, 2016, Figures in the parenthesis shows the percentages

Table-6.1.2 represents distribution of female migrants with their spouse or without spouse. In the study area, it is found that majority of the migrants leave their spouse at the place of origin during the process of migration. As the data show, 96 percent of the migrants didn't migrate with their female partner, primarily due to the risk of job security, place, and improper accommodation facilities at the place of destination. The large proportions migrants leave their spouse at the place of origin. The main reason is that female member has to take care of the whole family in the absence of male member. It has found that in the tribal society both men and women are getting equal status. Tribal society is considered as egalitarian society, where both men and women have equal rights in every matter. Therefore, both male and female pre-decided about migration decision. But in case of other social group it is very difficult to take of care the whole family by female head. In fact, the empirical study by Roy (2011) on 'Distress migration and left behind women- a study from Bihar' found that the relatively long-term absence of husband from their family leads to the deterioration of family and also affects the social status of the family, mental and physical health of women and children of the family, in personal relations as well as deterioration of family value and sometimes, it may create extramarital affairs (Roy, 2011). But in tribal area, in the absence of husband or head of family, female member takes the whole responsibility from pillar to post. They are even doing the agriculture activities in the absence of husband. Thus it can be seen as positive aspects of migration.

Only 4 percent of respondents have reported to be migrating along with their wives. They are mostly the young group and are currently married. Under the livelihood scheme, youth are getting vocational training on tailoring, plumber food processing and electrician etc. The majority of spouse or both husband and wife is working in apparel, textile industries, and food industries. It also found that there are women

migrants who did not work but they came to accompany their spouse. One of the migrants explain about her experience;-

*“My husband and I worked since 2012 in Tamil Nadu due to the lack of job opportunities in our locality. Now my husband works there and, I came back and stayed back at home to take care of children and other household works. Sometimes, I feel alone and painful at home, the burden of family, domestic work, decision making, taking care of children, makes it all very difficult for performing all household tasks.”* (29 years old female, Sungari Gram Panchayat, Kashipur)

**Table-6.1.3 Distribution of the Respondents by their Place of Destination**

Place of Migration	Frequency	Percent
Within District	20	8.51
Within State	18	7.66
Other State	197	83.83
Total	235	100

Sources: Field Data, January- March, 2016

Table-6.1.3 shows the distribution of respondents by their place of migration. It consists of three categories on the basis of person’s last place of migration such as within district, within state and other states. The study by Gurak and Caes (1992) reveals that there is always influential factor of social networks while selecting places of destination. According to them migrants tend to head to places where they already have established networks (Gurak and Caes, 1992). Therefore, young age group people always prefer to migrate to those places, where they already have better contacts. It has found from the study area that majority proportion i.e. 84 percent of migrants prefer to go other states such as Tamil Nadu, Kerala, Andhra Pradesh, Chhattisgarh, Gujarat and Maharashtra go to other states. They are basically motivated by the lifestyle of their siblings or friends, and also these people provide lot of prior information and give assurance upon their arrival at the destination place. Here is one of the respondents explained his experience why they chose the particular state.

*One of My relative named Durlabha has been staying in Hyderabad since last 5 years. He encouraged me to come over there. Initially he was working as helper in Ranga Reddy Steel Company, after 3 years he became a supervisor in the production unit in the same company and get close with their relatives and friends. I choose Hyderabad, because I have relatives working there, and wanted to be with them. They also assisted me to learn and for getting better job. (21 year old Male, Narayanpur Gram Panchayat, Rayagada)*

The studies by Khan and Mahapatra (1998) reveals that lower social strata of society mainly SCs and STs have higher proportion of migrants from the higher caste of category (Khan and Mahapatra, 1998). Mostly migrant in the study area prefer to migrate to other state for better employment and better income. The main reason behind to choose the other states may be physical proximity of Rayagada district with other states which is better in terms of transport and communication. It is well-connected to various urban centres such as Raipur in Chhattisgarh, Kochi in Kerala, Chennai in Tamil Nadu, and Vishakhapatnam, Vijayawada in Andhra Pradesh. These are urban industrial towns of India which are connected through rail transport. It has found from the study area that Hyderabad, Chennai, Kochi, Raipur are the prominent destinations for most of the migrants.

There are 8.51 percent of respondents chose to migrate within the district. In Rayagada district, there are two big industries such as Utkal Alumina and J.K paper mills which provide the job opportunity. Along with these two, there is also a mega industry named Indian Metals and Ferro Alloys Ltd. (IMFA), located near the district headquarters. These industries attract local people from the suburb or rural areas for employment. Another 7.66 percent of people migrated to the nearest commercial districts, or newly urban centres within the state. The districts emerge as the major hubs of employment are Cuttack, Bhubaneswar, Sambalpur, Berhampur, and Rourkela. These districts are prosperous in term of transport and communication. But the NSSO 64<sup>th</sup> round report reveals that, migration of households was largely confined within State. Around 78 percent of the migrant households in rural areas, and 72 percent of the migrants' households in the urban areas had confined their migration destination within the state (NSSO, 2007).

**Table-6.1.4 Distribution of the Respondents by their Cause of Migration**

Reasons of Migration	Frequency	Percentage
Lack of Job Opportunity	136	57.87
Indebtedness	52	22.13
Crop Failure	11	4.68
Others (Relative Deprivation)	36	15.32
Total	235	100

Sources: Field Data, January- March, 2016

Table-6.1.4 shows the distribution of migration reasons of migration. It is evident that the greater percentage respondents around 58 percent have migrated due to the lack of employment opportunity in their local areas. The national level data reveals that in case of male out-migrants around 79 percent people are migrant for employment related reason both in rural and urban areas. Mostly male members are migrating for better employment purpose. In case of Odisha about 87 percent of people are migrating for the employment reasons (NSSO, 64th round, 2007). It might be one of the reasons in the study area that people are migrating for job related, due to lack of job opportunity in local area. The lack of employment opportunity in the local area is the reason of poverty, distress migration, food scarcity and indebtedness. As the majority of the rural migrants depend upon agriculture for their livelihood, and agriculture being the seasonal employment, it doesn't simply cater to the basic need of the people. It has been found from the chosen areas that, most of the people have small and marginal possession of cultivable land, and they are consequently economically disadvantaged groups. The studies by Djurfeldt et.al (2008) in Tamil Nadu found the similar results that households having low proportion or small landholding has higher probability of migration for employment or livelihood purpose. Thus, it can be concluded that the reason behind the migration in the chosen area is high because of unemployment, despite the big industrial units in these districts, such as Utkal Aluminium in Tikiri, J.K paper Mills in Rayagada, Vedanta Aluminium in Lanjigarh, it is widely understood and known as the region of poverty and unemployment. Most of the industrial units require the skilled labour with technical education. The unskilled or illiterate people like the tribal or villagers don't suit for the job. These reasons made them overlook the nearest companies, and force them to migrate to the nearest states in the search of employment. Additionally, in the



study area, it is found that higher indebtedness is one of the reason of migration (lack of job or money sources make them borrow money from money lenders, etc.) is another reason for migration in rural areas. The table-6.1.4 indicates that about 22.13 percent respondents migrate due to the indebtedness. There can be various reasons for the indebtedness, such as debt taken for agriculture activities which includes sowing, application of manure and harvesting purpose, festival, marriage function, illness, etc. The literature, however, reveals interesting reason that most of the tribal people are in debt during festive celebrations; tribal population celebrate various festivals throughout the year to appease their own social norms which force them to borrow money. It is said to be the cultural aspects of the tribal. Here is one of the migrant who had shared his experience of migration

*'Chaita Parava' is one of the biggest festivals of our tribal community. It is a part of tribal culture and tradition, in every year we are celebrate it after the harvesting. On this auspicious occasion, we buy new cloths for every member of the family and new material for household activities, also invite the relatives to home for such grand festival. For the success of the festival, we spent lot of money therefore we borrowed money from local Mahajan or Gointia at high rate of interest. As a result, sometimes we are unable to repay the loan amount, and for that reason migration is ultimate decision to repay back loan.*

(Male 32 years old, Minahala, Bissamcuttak)

Another study by Mosse, Gupta and Shah (2002) Bhil tribals in Western India have prolong indebtedness which enforce Bhil tribal to migrate to urban cities for alternative livelihood. It is also equally important matter revealing how they are indebted (Mosse, Gupta and Shah, 2002). According to David Hardiman, one of the leading subaltern sociologists pointed out that credit relationship between trader or money lenders and local tribal people have long been traits of tribal social life in western India, which helps them in daily life (Hardiman, 1987). Here one of the respondents explains how and whom he had borrowed money during the critical conditions.

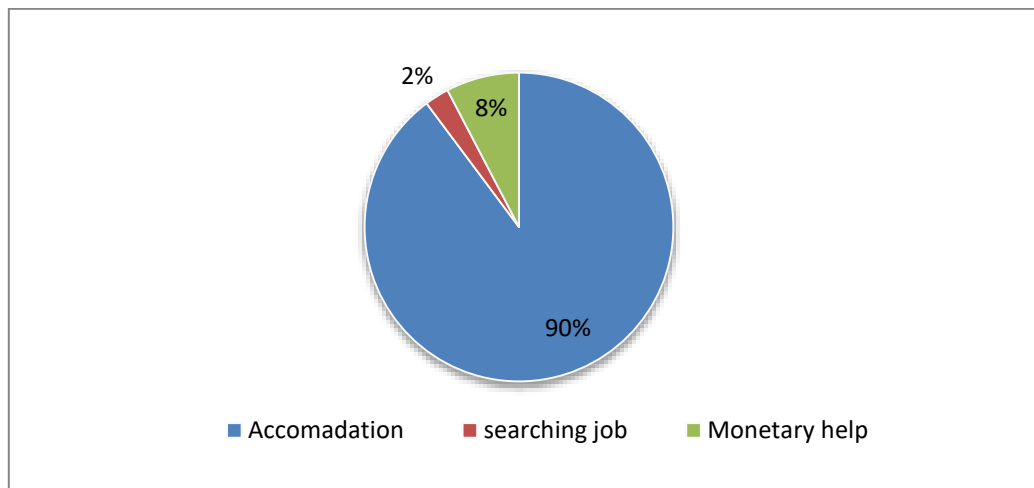
*I married since 2 years. During Odisha Panchayat election, my wife was contesting as a Sarpanch candidate for the Paikadakulu Guda Gram Panchayat under the Bissamcuttack Block. For the contesting election, I had borrowed huge amount of money from the 'Shaukar' and to get money kept my land in mortgage. I also arranged some money from the friends and relatives to met the election expanses. Unfortunately, my wife had lost the Panchayat election, which has put me in traumatic situation for repay back the loan amount. To repay back the loan amount and mortgage of land, I was landed in Hyderabad, initially to do some odd jobs. Finally, I got a good company who is paying more than Rs.350/- per day. Now I slowly repay the loan amount for my wife's election expenses. This was the statement regarding indebted as a cause of migration. (Male, 32 years old, Paikadakulu Guda Gram Panchayat, Bissamcuttack)*

Another 4 percent of the respondents have migrated due to the crop failure. India rural people are mostly depending on agriculture; it is one of the important sources of income. Around 70 percent of rural household still depends primarily on agriculture for their livelihood (FAO, 2016). The agriculture in India mostly depends on monsoon, where uncertainty of monsoon leads to failure of the paddy crop and other kharif crops. In the study area, it has been found that some of lands are situated on hill areas which are practically very difficult for canal irrigation. The inaccessibility of irrigation and dependence on rain leads to the failure of crops. A study by Mahapatra (1998) finds that there is significant proportion out-migration from rural to urban area due to the widespread crop failure or short duration crops leads to the reduced the duration of employment in the village area (Mahapatra, 1998).

The last cause of migration is categorised in 'others', i.e. relative deprivation. It is recent phenomenon developed by the sociologist Stouffer. It is one of the reasons of migration in rural areas. Around 15.3 percent of people are migrating due to the relative deprivation, it means when someone has migrated and comes back to visit the village, he/she carries a personality in terms of clothing, gadget and financial independence. They give money to their parents. The migration not only develops individual's personality but also his/her social status. This arises the deprivation or inferiority among the other groups, even the parents sometimes insist their children to migrate. Thus, it can be concluded that in recent times migration for economic reasons

has increased, it can also be seen in both according to census and NSS data. As per the census data indicate, share of migrants for economic reason in total population has increased from 2.4 percent in 1991 to 2.8 percent in 2001 (Census, 2001). The study by Kundu and Sarangi (2007) finds that main reason behind increasing migration rates are positively associated with education attainment, social group status and per capita consumption (Kundu and Sarangi, 2007; Srivastava, 2011 and Bhattacharya, 2003). Another study by de Haan and Dubey (2006) suggests that due to the migration process the level of poverty among the migrants has lower than that of among non-migrants (de Haan and Dubey 2006).

**Figure 6.1.2 Distributions of the Respondents by Type of Help Received at the Place of Destination**



Sources: Field Data, January- March, 2016

Figure 6.1.1 shows the distribution of respondents by ‘type of help’ received in the process of migration. The family and personal network plays important role at place of. It refers to monetary remittances, gifts and written communication among network members that flow between place of origin and destination (Boyd, 1989). The figure is categorized into three aspects of ‘helping’, such as accommodation, searching job and monetary help. The figure indicates that the large percentages of migrants are helped by the local people with accommodation. It is one of the biggest help in getting the employment at the destination area. In the initial period of migration, new migrants face problem in finding job, accommodation and financial credit during the initial period of migration. The local people specially the same community or villagers arrange the room accommodation for staying. Help in the form of accommodation dominates among all the three helping aspects, it contributes 90 percent alone

followed by 8 percent getting monetary help. In case of shortage of money in the initial period of migration at the place of destination, it is local people who give monetary help. Not only the monetary help provided to the newly entrants but also establish a healthy relationship between each other and sharing of family problems which reduce the socio-psychological cost (Banerjee, 1983). While very few proportion i.e. 2 percent local people are helping the migrants to find job at the place of destination. They have helped them to establish a better relationship with the local people. The study by Rogaly et.al (2002) pointed out from the seasonal migrants in West Bengal suggests that travelling in groups often composed of people from the same or nearby village who know each other provides strength in numbers and some personal security in the journey (Rogaly et.al, 2002). Here experience of one of the migrants of his first migration journey to Kerala is described;

*My first day of migration in Kerala and I was unknown to the place. After the reaching there, it was very difficult to speaking with non-Odiya people since I was not aware about the local language. I met some odiya people who helped me about the place and also find a job in iron smelting company. Initially they helped me a lot for accommodation as well as searching job. I could not forget those days which I spent as a first migrant in Kerala; it was one of the memorable experiences of my life. (Laxman Bedisika, Male, 32 years old, Ranjuguda, Kashipur)*

## **6.2: Working Conditions of the Migrant**

In this section, the working conditions of migrant across all sectors have been explained. There is a sharp sectorial division of economics in India, and it has been found that the largest persistence of labourer migrants is in the economic sector rather than traditional sector. Most of the economic sectors of developed states of India depend heavily on migrants; these migrants belong to the unskilled, semi-skilled and skilled categories. Most of the migrants fall in the category of informalisation. Most of the unskilled and semi-skilled migrants are engaged in construction sector, it is said to be one of the emerging sectors in India where the engagement of marginal section of the society, like SCs, STs and minorities have fair share. The population fall in this migrant category is entitled for certain basic facilities according to various rules and regulation of labour laws. Nevertheless, these rules are hardly implemented, in order

to know the extent of compliance of the labours' laws with regard to the condition of services for the migrants, certain questions were asked.

**Table-6.2.1 Distribution of the Respondents by Types of Employment**

Types of Employment	Frequency	Percent
Contract Basis	135	57.45
Daily Basis	94	40.0
Others	6	2.55
Total	235	100

Sources: Field Data, January- March, 2016

Table-6.2.1 represents the distribution of respondents by their types of employment. The table shows three types of employment, such as contract basis, daily basis and permanent basis. In small companies and other construction units, the middle man plays crucial role on behalf of the migrants. About 57 percent of the respondents are working on the contract basis; in this case mostly iron smelt company or construction units are tendered for a year or more by the big contractor. The big contractor or *Thikadars* recruited the petty contractor who is suppose to be collects people for labour work from various source like villages and tribal hamlets. They collect the labourer from one village to other villages by promising better wage and living conditions. The petty contractors are mostly recruited the labourers for iron smelt company, construction units and fishing industries. The labourers working under these companies mostly are recruited by contractors. Sometimes they are even unknown about the place of destination as well as terms and condition of job. Out of all the respondents, only who are permanent come directly under the company's rules, rest of all are contractual labours working through the contractors. It is found that study area is witnessing such kind of employment for migrant labour. The nature of work is daily basis wage. They do not have any agreement with company or that matter with contractors. There is no job security, it is temporary and one can be removed from company any time or any moment without prior notice. If any kind of accident occurs at the work place, the company is not responsible, only their contractor handles the situation. Sometimes the migrant labour exploited by the petty contractors in the form of wages or payment. Thus, it can be concludes that migrant labour often trap into vulnerability specially the unskilled labour. The Siddiqui study on Bangladeshi short-term migrants (2003) found that the vulnerability of migrants associated with the

destination. In the process of migration, migrants especially destitute and unskilled are more vulnerable in terms of health and security. They are cheated by recruiting agencies or contractor by changing of contracts or job (Siddiqui, 2003). It is also found from another empirical study by Khan and Seeley observed that poor accommodation condition in the working place creates sickness and disease, among the migrant labourer as they are working in the construction units or iron smelting company (Khan and Seeley, 2003).

Another types of employment found from the study area is daily basis, around 40 percent of respondents working as daily basis. The migrant labourers are working any companies as daily labourer and getting wage on daily basis. The terms and conditions of the employment is purely temporary in nature known as ‘no work no payment’. They have to work for daily to get the payment. It also found that migrant labourer often face the problems of getting wage on time as company does not fulfil the promise to deliver the payment to the migrants. It is evidence from empirical research by Srivastava and Sashikumr (2003) suggests that delay in non-deployment of works, overcharging placement fees, and not receiving wages in times are vulnerability faced by migrants (Srivastava and Sashikumar, 2003). Another empirical study on seasonal migrant’s in West Bengal by Rogaly et.al highlights that, health was found to be at risk due to the intensity of work, overexposure to harsh conditions, and unhealthy workplaces (Rogaly et al. 2002).

There are only 3 percent of the migrants working as other categories i.e. semi-permanent employ in any companies. The reason behind the semi-permanent is that they have long association with company and key employee of the company’s development and growth. The migrants under this category are getting fixed amount of wage and some incentives in the form of payment and other facilities.

**Table-6.2.2 Distribution of the Respondents by Duration of Migration**

Duration of Time	Frequency	Percent
1 to 2 year	145	61.70
2 to 3 year	87	37.02
More than 3 years	3	1.28
Total	235	100

Sources: Field Data, January-March, 2016

Table-6.2.2 represents the distribution of respondents by their 'duration of migration'. It has been divided into three categories of duration of migration, such as 1 to 2 year, 2 to 3 years and more than 3 years. The largest percent of respondents are migrants from 1 to 2 years, i.e. 61.70 percent, followed by 37.02 percent respondents staying for 2 to 3 years. It clearly indicates that most of respondents migrate for the short duration, i.e. 1 to 2 years especially during off season (agricultural) or failure of crops. It has been found that those respondents are residing at the destination for a minimum duration of 1 to 2 years. It seems they fulfil the double responsibility of shouldering the family in terms of economy (employment) and physical presence. One year as migrants is very normal for them; they also perform various agriculture activities at origin place. It is evident from various sources that rural to urban migration happens due to the lack of job opportunity in the local area. In the second category, it shows the time duration of 2-3 years. Such long duration of migration is generally arisen from the indebtedness of the migrants; they even lack the food. It is observed that migrants working as labourer at construction sites deployed as unskilled have to stay for longer period of time. Contractors too uses various tricks to keep the labourers for longer period, e.g. the untimely or delay of payment method.

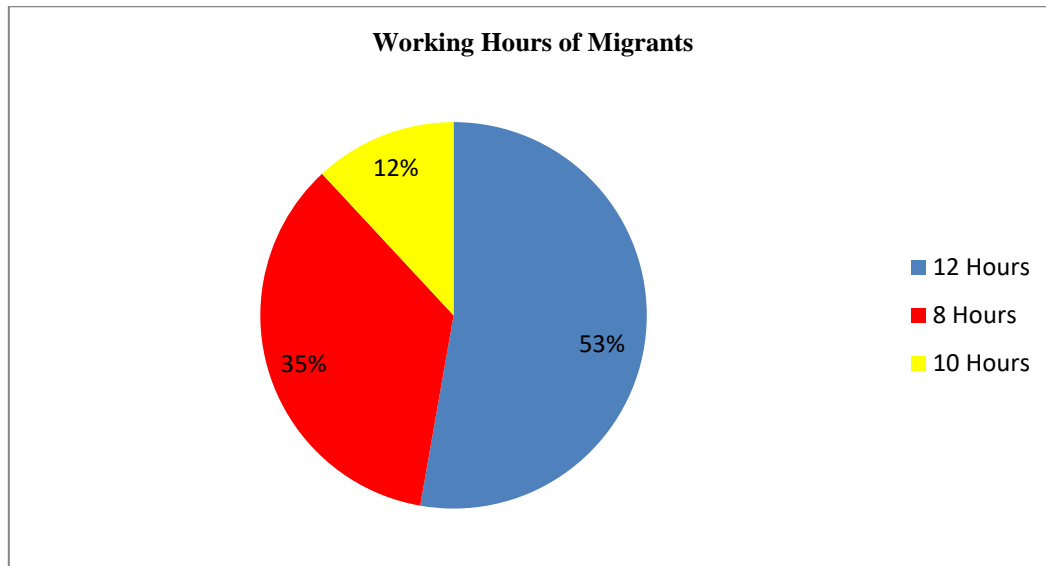
It is observed that those who are engaged in the construction sector are at maximum risk, in terms of health. They also get shifted from one place to another because company takes up new projects. Another way of making workers confined for longer period is by keeping their important documents such as voter ID card, Aadhaar card and Pan card as identity proofs in the custody. This makes labourers bonded labourers.

*I have 1.5 acre of land, where I cultivate mainly paddy and ragi during the Rabi season. Since last two years due to irregularity of monsoon brings drought situation in our area. Due to the failure of Rabi crops bring the scarcity of food in the family. So I borrowed money from the Mahajan at the interest of Rs.3/- per hundred rupees to met the expenses. Now I am working as Mason in Kerala since two years, getting well paid and sending money to my family. (Male, 27 years old, Siadmal, Kashipur).*

Third category shows only 1.28 percent of people are staying for more than three years, basically most of the youth and unmarried people come under this category. In the duration of more than 3 years, they get familiar with people and place. Report

provides the information that migrants of the short periods, i.e. 1-2 years in comparison with 3 years or more do not integrate into the local community and have problem in adaptation.

**Figure-6.2.1 Distribution of Migrants by their Working Hours at Destination**



Sources: Field Data, January-March, 2016

Figure-6.2.1 shows the distribution of working hours among migrants at place of destination. It represents that 35 percent of respondents are working 8 hours per day in the various companies. One of the migrants describing the nature of the work which he works as operator the company manufactures automobile parts and spares for trailers, engines, tractors, railways, pipe fittings, and machine component. The labourers are assigned to prepare material, making frame (which is called core making), loading and uploading of raw materials, producing materials, melting iron, carrying sand, furnishing, finishing etc. All these types of works are given on contract by the company, and, in turn, contractors employ labourers for the works. While majority proportion i.e. 53 percent of migrants are working for 12 hours per day, in addition, if any worker is interested he can take up overtime. There are some workers who work overtime, time and again, and paid accordingly. On an average, they work for 24 days per month. Some of the respondents work for 10 hours of the day, according to the map 12 percent of the total.

The eight-hour work schedule is mandatorily applicable for all the migrants but they work on an average for ten to twelve hours a day. Many of the times they are not paid



for this extra 2 to 4 hours. Even if some of them are paid, it is very nominal. The working environment is not healthy, i.e. lack of sufficient rest rooms, lockers or ventilation, etc.

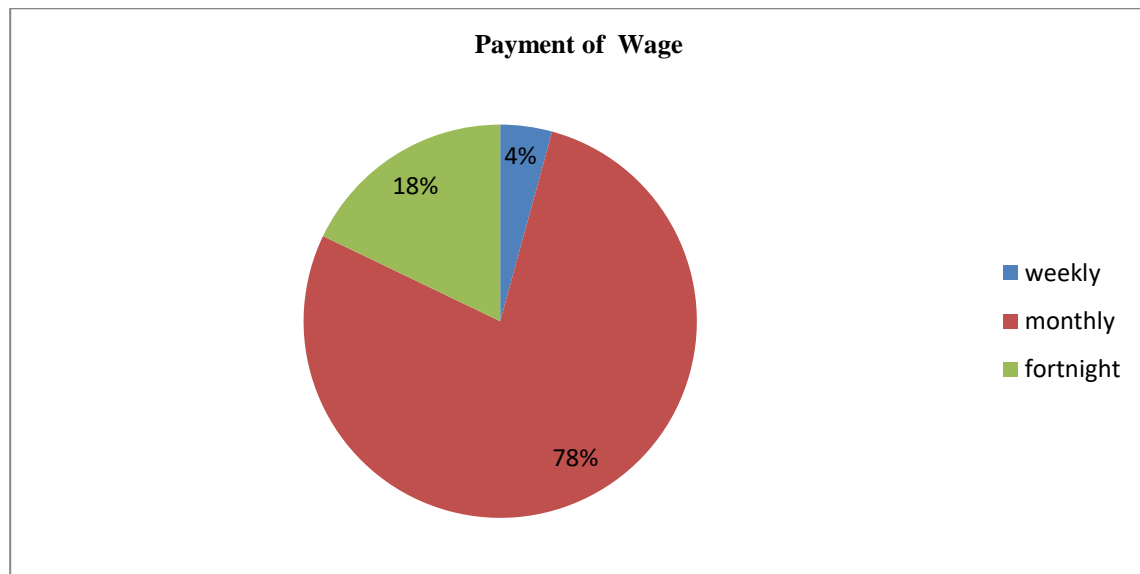
**Table 6.2.3 Distribution of Migrants by their Weekly Working Days**

Weekly Working Days	Frequency	Percent
7 Days	198	84.26
6 Days	34	14.47
5 Days	3	1.28
Total	235	100

Sources: Field Data, January- March, 2016

Table-6.2.3 represents the distribution of migrants by their working days in a week, which consists of three packets of days in a week. The first category shows that out of 235 migrants 198 migrants work seven days in a week, i.e. 84.26 percent. The largest percent of people who work seven days in a week generally are construction labour, driver and manual labour. There is no holiday or leave for them who are working in the construction sites, driving or manual labourers. Most of the companies follow the mantra of ‘no work no pay’. In the second category about 14.47 percent are working six days a week. It means the employer or contractors provide the rest day or holiday to the workers. It either be on Sunday or any other day of the week. In this category of workers basically work in garment company, spinning mills and manufacturing units. This one-day leave in a week is a paid leave, but labourers are not allowed other holidays or leave, if they take leave other than the permissible, they are not paid. In third category, i.e. about 1.28 percent of migrants get five days of work in a week; these are mostly the call centre job or printing press.

**Figure 6.2.2 Distribution of the Respondents by Frequency of Payment of Wage**



Sources: Field Data, January- March, 2016

Figure-6.2.2 shows the payment of getting wage at the place of destination. The largest proportion i.e. 78 percent of workers are getting monthly basis of wages. The migrants work the whole month then they get payment at the end of the month, there is no incentive (on daily basis). At the end of the month, the payment is made considering the efficiency of the workers and their regularity, and work hours. Another 18 percent of the worker get payment bimonthly. Such a payment method depends on the nature of the work and migrants' agreement with the contractor. Only 4 percent of the respondents get weekly payment. The income is directly proportional to their nature of work, i.e. it is based on their sector of work. They are liable to take advance during the month for their personal shopping, which is deducted from their monthly payment. Besides the data given above, there can be other ways of payment; some of the workers get payment after every fortnight. It largely depends upon the two factors, i.e. the nature of the work and the agreement with the contractor. While asking about their job satisfaction, majority of respondents are satisfied with their present job, as they get the wages on time and the amount is much better than what they use to earn back at native place. Another area of concern is the compensation, generally for any accident or minor injury for the migrants, often the owner of the company takes the responsibility for paying compensation to workers in case of any accident resulting in death or injury. Some of workers said that they are not able to get any compensation, and the workers themselves have to bear the expanses of any major accident or injury. Some of the respondents told that the company or contractors

preferred to be non-committed on the issue of compensation by saying that, since we have not faced any situation as such till now, we are unable to say what exactly could be paid for the compensation.

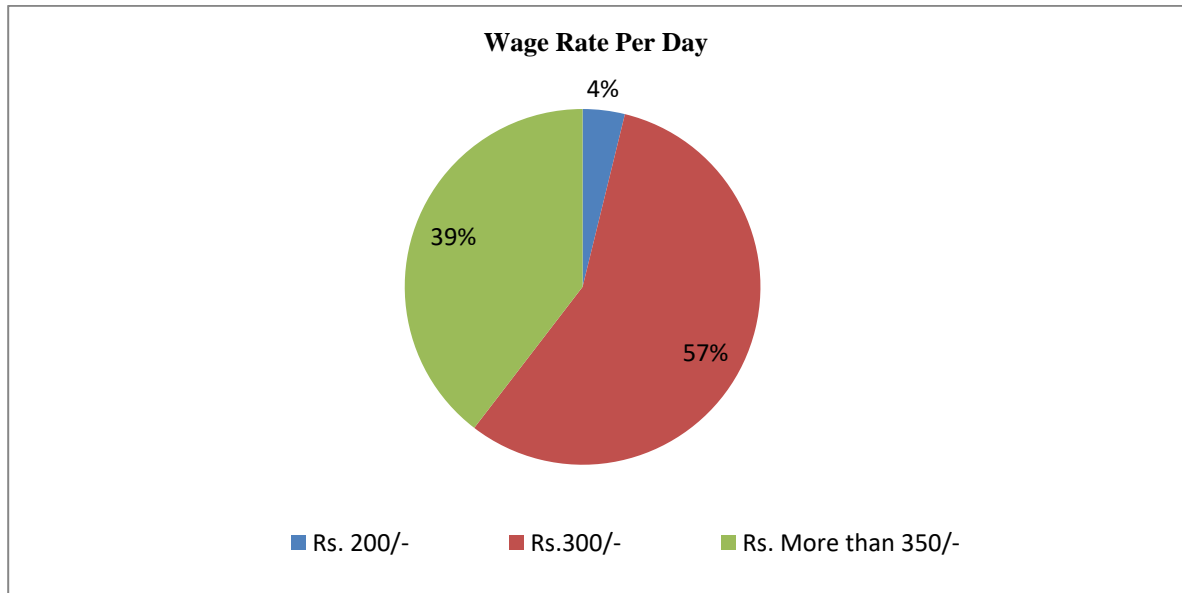
*A migrant worker who went with a contractor, worked as a construction labourer in Bangalore. After completed month as a construction labourer he met with an accident while returning back from work. The incident happened due to suddenly dash by a tipper which as used for the loading and unloading purpose. He unfortunately fell down in the dump and faced severe injured. Then he admitted into hospital immediately but it was too late to save his life and the doctor declared him as dead. That was a tragic incident happened; the contractor did not pay a single penny to the labour as well his family. At the same time all the labours collected money and did the last rites for the labour after his death. One of the migrants from same village narrated the story of his friend's untimely death. According to him, there is no compensation or any financial aid to the migrants' family even the government did not take any action against the company till today. (Male, 24 years old, Saana Guma, Kalyansinghpur Block, Rayagada)*

By outsourcing the work to contractors or employer escapes the responsibility of providing workers' statutory benefits. Informal employment tortures the workers in many ways, many times it results in non-payments, part-payments or paying wages lesser than verbally agreed upon. The aggrieved workers, given their limited access to information and mechanism for redress their grievances, are often compelled to make compromises on their wages. It is found out that employers do not adhere to most of the labour legislation in the case of migrant workers. Such law has not been strictly enforced in the place of destination. Similar is the fate of other cases with most of the other legislations intended as a social protection for labourers.

Figure-6.2.3 shows the wage rate for labours who work in metal melting sector. They are paid around 300 to 350 rupees per day. In the construction sector, labourers are paid on the basis of per square feet, for each square feet they get Rupees10. Those who make big size of core get around 200 rupees per day, and those who do small size of core get 220 rupees per day. In the company, the minimum wage is 200 rupees per day. The wage is better in comparison to the amount they used to earn at their native place. According to an old migrant labourer, when they came for the first time in the year 2009, they used to get 150 rupees per day, since then it has increased gradually from 150 to 200 rupees, and 200 to 300 rupees, and now it is 300 per day. At that time in their native place, they were getting 90 to 120 rupees per day for daily wage work. Regarding their job satisfaction, majority of respondents are satisfied with their

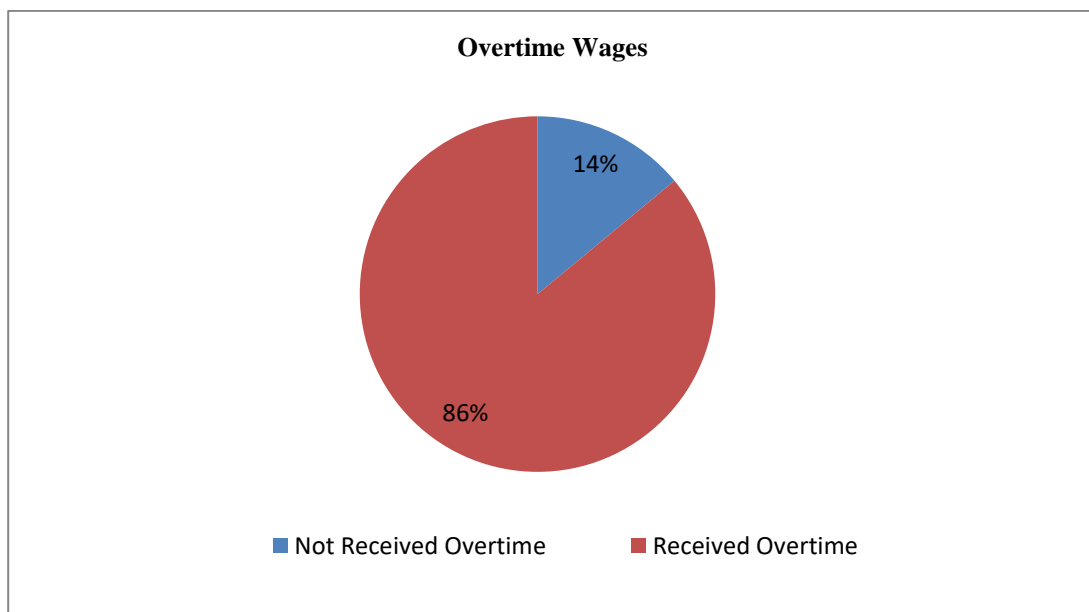
present jobs, as they get the wages on time and the wage is better than what they used to earn back at native place. Majority of them are working in the same company and on the same position since last five years.

**Figure-6.2.3 Distribution of the Respondents by Wage Rate at the Place of Destination**



Sources: Field Data, January-March, 2016

**Figure-6.2.4 Distribution of Migrants by their Overtime Wages at the Place of Destination**



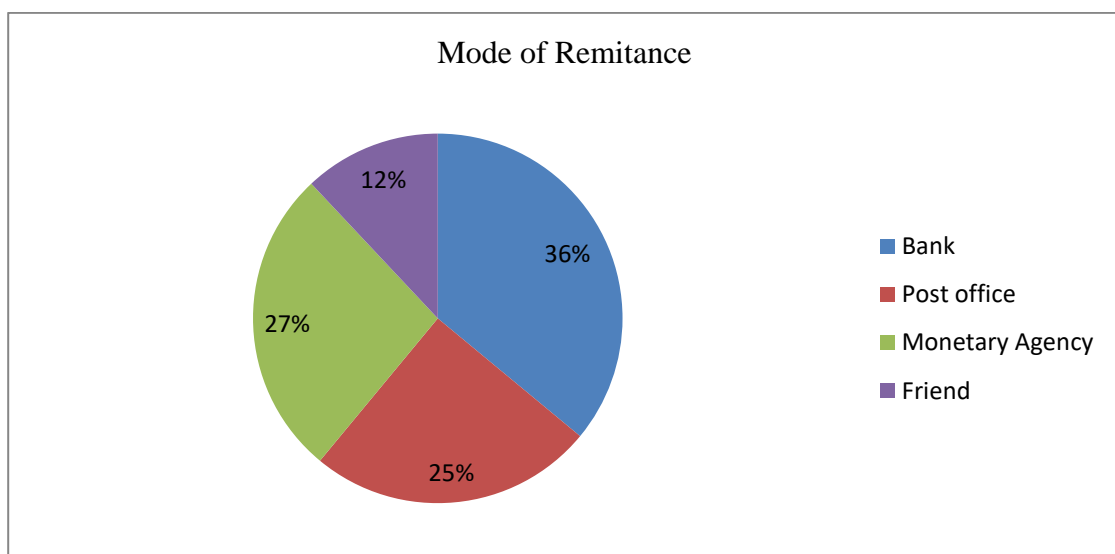
Sources: Field Data, January- March, 2016

Figure-6.2.4 depicts the migrants working overtime at the place of destination, generally the migrants work for 8 to 10 hours per day. In addition, they work overtime for few more bucks. The migrants who are working in the construction or iron smelting and apparel use to work overtime. The overtime wages vary from one sector to another, for example, labours working at the construction sites get Rs.50 to 60 per hour, whereas apparel workers get Rs. 100 per hour. The working of extra hours ultimate increases the earning of migrants, and in turn their saving. These extra bucks can also be used to meet the additional expenses such as *Bidi*, *paan-masala*, tobacco, *khaini* etc. According to the study, about 86 percent of the migrants are working extra hours for the extra wage, and 14 percent are not working overtime.

### 6.3: Remittance of Migrants

Remittance is one of the important integral components in the process of migration especially at the place of origin. It is transfer in the form of cash or in kind to the household from which the individual has out-migrated. Remittance is the part and parcel for the formation of better livelihood for the migrant household and considered as twin life guard at place of origin. Remittance helps not only at the individual level but also aids the development of economy of the country. Many developing countries like India, Bangladesh, and Sri Lanka etc. have become prosperous due to the remittance sent by the migrants. Therefore, it is very crucial to understand the issues of remittance sent by the migrants to the place of origin.

**Figure-6.3.1 Distribution of the Respondents by Mode of Remittance**



Sources: Field Data, January- March, 2016

Figure-6.3.1 shows the mode of remittance send by the migrants. Remittance plays crucial role for strengthening the livelihood of the people at the place of origin. The large volume of remittance has leads to the improvement of economic condition of the individual as well as nation. It can help to enhance the human development index of the people as well as country at large. The study by Oberai et al., (1989) highlighted that the remittance sent by out-migrants are an important aspects of the migration process. As the figure indicates, migrants send remittance through various modes, such as bank, post-office, monetary agency, and friend or self. It is found that around 36 percent of migrant are sending their remittances through the scheduled commercial banks and regional banks followed by 25 percent of the respondents send remittance both through bank and post office. Banks and post-offices are the safest option for sending remittances. Many migrants have their account in banks and post office due to the government's initiative during 12<sup>th</sup> Five Year plan to open zero balance accounts in bank and post-office for all poor or marginal people across the country. So it might be reason to send remittances through the banks and post-office. It is considered that banks and post-offices play important role in recent times for sending remittance, since it is safe and reliable.

Srivastava and Sasikumar (2003) pointed out that the resources flows in the form of remittance to the migrants household occurs as a result of migration which is the only one aspects, other aspects being saving brought home by the migrants in cash or kind. According to Mishra and Ranjan (2011) found that remittance sent by the migrants to the household is not only crucial for their family but also for the significant contribution of country's growth of Gross Domestic Product (GDP), in their study also cited example of Kerala and its higher quality of life index. Therefore, remittance is an integral component for development of human development index.

Prior to the development of regional bank in the rural areas, another considerable proportion i.e. 27 percent of the migrants are sending remittance through monetary agency, in Odiya it is known as '*Tapawala*', who collects the remittance from migrants and distribute it to the migrant household at the places of origin. For this they are paid a commission by the migrants. The reason behind to choose monetary agency is lack of education or illiterate migrants sent remittance through this options. But, it is not a safe option; there are many threats like, theft, burglary, etc. Notwithstanding, it is still prevailing in the rural areas, and also is one of the exclusive options for the

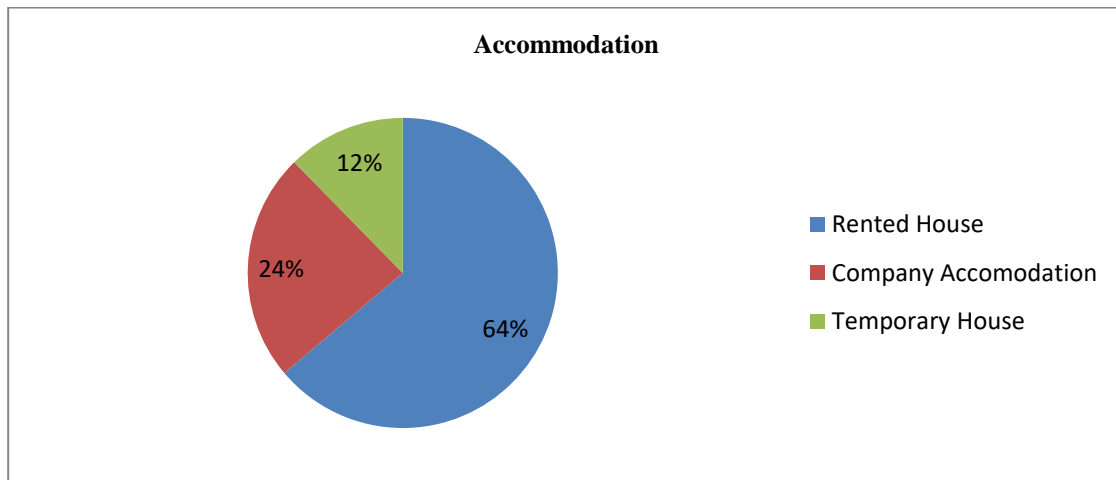
illiterate persons for sending the remittance to their homes. Another common option of sending remittance is through friends and siblings, it only happens when they (friend and relative) visit their (migrants') native place. It is definitely a more trustable option than 'Tapawala', because the family member is the part of this process.

*One of the migrants said that, MGNREGS has one of the important modes to open an account in bank or post office. As of now the government makes mandatory to open an account with zero balance. Although the main objective of the scheme was for better disbursement of wages through the bank account or post office account. It was a good opportunity for the family who did not have any account in Bank or post-office. After opening account in the Bank or Post-office, it was very easy for the migrants to send their remittance through the concern account. (Male, 32 years old, Narayanpur Gram Panchayat, Kalyansinghpur)*

#### **6.4: Living Conditions of Migrant**

The living conditions of migrant workers depend upon the condition that whether the migrants came with their families or not. It also depends on the nature of job as well as the sector they employed in. living condition is one the important factors in determining the overall development of human index. Better living conditions means a better quality of life for migrants. It also contributes in the overall performance of country's economy growth and development. Planning commission reports 2008 and Ajivika report 2014 have observed that migrant labourers' living condition is very precarious and pity. In urban areas the cost of living is very high, and they cannot afford better housing and basic amenities. They live mostly on urban peripheries or slum areas. The various living conditions are arranged on the basis of basic needs of migrant labourers, such as accommodation, housing conditions, and basic amenities. These are the positive hallmark of better living conditions of the migrant labourers which ultimately contribute to the national development.

**Figure-6.4.1 Distribution of the Respondents by types of Accommodation at the Place of Destination**



Sources: Field Data, January- March 2016

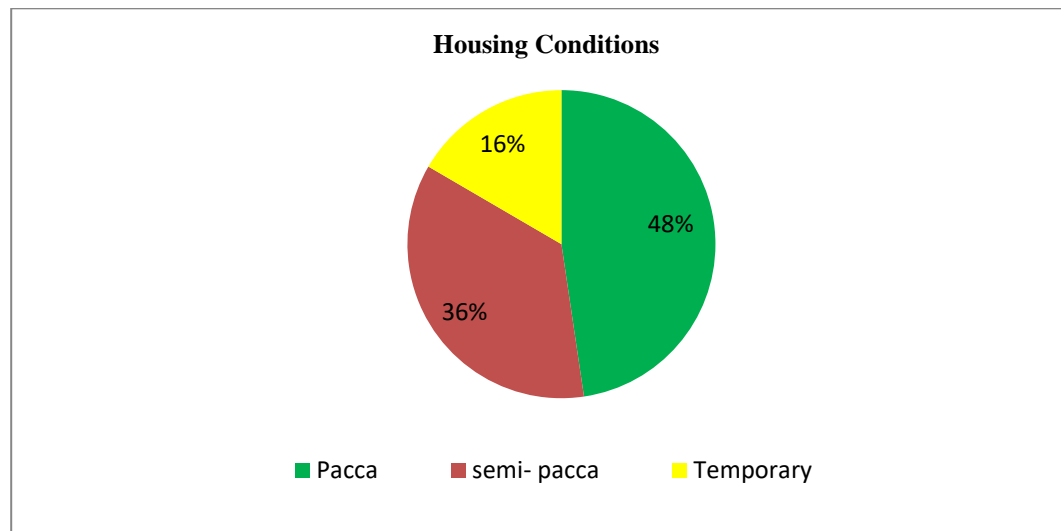
Figure-6.4.1 represents the distribution of accommodation facilities in the destination areas. The accommodation is one of the prior and basic necessities of the migrants. A good accommodation enhances the psychological and physical strength of the migrants. The above-figure indicates that there are three types of accommodation facilities usually found in the destination areas, such as own arrangement in terms of rental house and company arrangement. It is found that the families with children always prefer to stay in the affordable rented houses in the peripheries of the cities. Families without children, particularly migrant couples, stay in the rented houses. They try to stay together at places where similar families stay, especially who speak the same language or from the same native place. It has been found out in the study as well that most of the migrants with same ethnicity stay together, as it is easy for communication, sharing of food, celebrating festivals and other cultural values. Even single male migrants prefer to live together with other single migrants who are from their regions, culture, etc. It has been found that the single male migrants prefer to take big size room, which cost them around Rs.8000-9000 per month. Such a room is enough for accommodating 3 or 4 persons. According to one of the migrants, who is working in apparel industries, says that single migrants can easily pay the monthly rent; there is no burden or financial crunch while paying at the end. The rented accommodations are equipped with basic facilities. It is found that about 64 percent of the migrants are staying in the rented house. All the basic facilities are provided by the house owner, for that they charge on monthly basis. Generally, water and electricity



rent is charged separately. The rent varies from one place to another, especially in big cities. They negotiate with the local landlords.

24 percent of respondents stay in the company's accommodation. According to one of the migrants, taking the companies' accommodation is a good option. It has some benefits like, no need to travel for work. This kind of arrangements also helps them to save some extra money which they would have been spending on rented accommodations. The reason behind choosing company's accommodation can also be motivated by the fact that it would save the time and money in travelling from work place to rented rooms, sometimes due to traffic workers get late and are fined. Around 12 percent of migrants are staying in temporary accommodation. These migrants are generally works on construction sites, and fishing industries. In construction sites, mostly temporary rooms are provided by the contractors or employer to the workers; these accommodations are close by the working sites

**Figure-6.4.2 Distribution of Migrants by Housing Conditions at the Place of Destination**



Sources: Field Data, January- March, 2016

Figure-6.4.2 depicts the type of housing condition of the migrants; it consists of pacca, semi-pacca, and temporary houses. It indicates that 48 percent of migrants are living in pacca houses; these can be both in the form of rented as well as companies' arrangement. In rented pacca house, more than four single male migrants' members live in a single-storey, migrant families also prefer to stay in such types of houses. 36 percent of the migrants live in the semi-pacca houses, these houses are made up with asbestos, wood frame and concrete floors. The rooms in such houses are not well

equipped with material like pacca houses. Those who work in the iron and steel company, they stay in such accommodations. About 16 percent of migrants live in the temporary housing, basically the male single migrants prefer to stay in these houses. It is found that migrant workers working in the large scale construction sectors live in such houses, which are meant for makeshift shelters made up of ridged sheets. The temporary accommodations are congested and have cramped rooms with lack of ventilation. The migrant labourers who are working in marine fishing live in the boat, and/or in temporary room near the fish landing centres. The quarters are mixed; both thatched as well as asbestos quarters are available.

**Table-6.4.1 Distribution of Migrants by Basic Facilities at the Place of Destination**

Facilities and Entitlement	Access	Not Access	Total
Safe Drinking	79.1	20.9	100
Electricity	89.78	10.22	100
Latrine facility	59.14	40.46	100
<b>Entitlement</b>			
Ration card	-	100	100
Job Card	-	100	100
Insurance/	2.98	97.02	100
Other facilities	-	100	100

Sources: Field Data, January-March, 2016

Table-6.4.1 shows facilities in terms of basic amenities and entitlement of migrants at the place of destination. The table consists two parts, i.e. basic amenities and entitlement, provided by the state government; in basic amenities, we have safe drinking water, latrine and electricity facilities. It is observed that majority of the migrants, i.e. about 79.1 percent have access to safe drinking water in their premises or room itself. The major sources of water are tube-well, tap water and wells. Most of the respondents said that they get the safe drinking water from owner of the rented house and from the concerned companies. Whereas 20 percent of migrants are unable to avail safe drinking water facility. Sometimes in construction sites, the water tank provided by the contractor or builder for working purpose is used by the migrants for drinking purpose, which is not safe for drinking and cooking.

The above figures indicate that the electricity facilities provided to the migrants in the destination place is quite up to the mark. It shows that out of 235 migrants 211 migrants have access to the electricity facilities, it includes both rented house as well

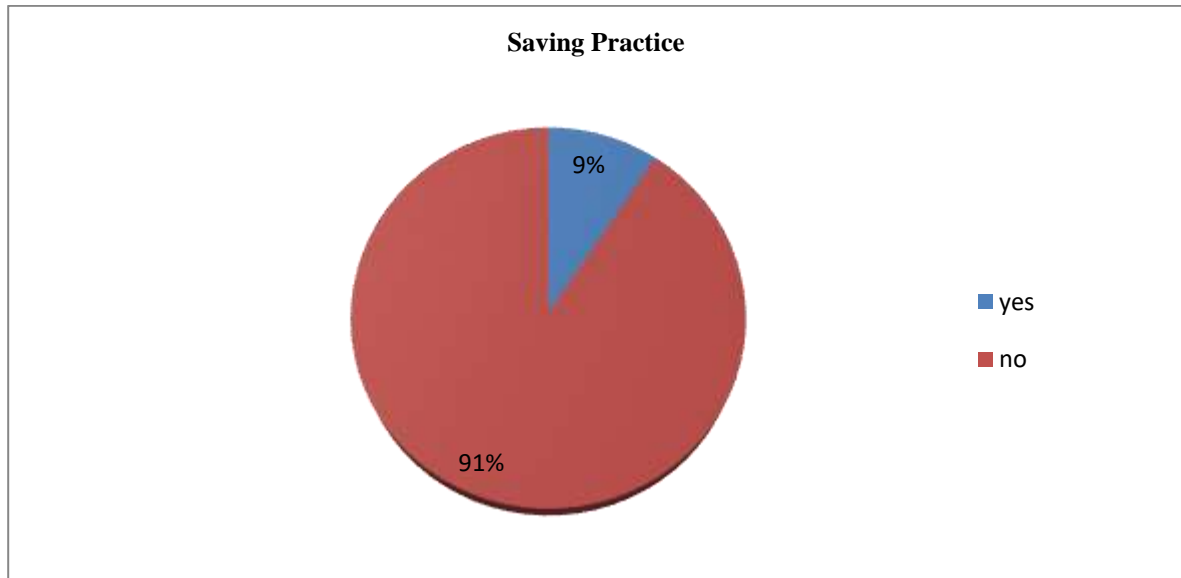
as companies' arranged accommodation. These facilities (electricity and water) are provided by the owner of the rented room or house. The owner of room collects the payment at the end of the month. 10.81 percent migrants do not have access to the electricity. These are those migrants who have temporary house accommodation, those who work in construction units, or work as drivers, and/or earth digging. Even if they have electricity facilities they lack healthy and clean water facility. Generally, a big water tank provides 24 hours water supply, the migrants use it for drinking, food preparation, and for bathing. The company provides limited number of toilets which are unclean and unhygienic. The migrants are compelled to defecate in open, this makes the locale annoyed and angry at migrants, they sometimes attack them verbally or physically.

In the second section of the table-6.4.1, it consists information on the access to the most important entitlement/social security, and the state response at place of destination. According to DPSP directives, every state has to provide all kinds of public assistance or social security to the marginal section of society. These entitlements or social security are in the form of ration card, job card, insurance and other public assistance. Social security is one of the important needs for all human beings, everyone tries to have some forms of social security whether it comes from government sector or private institution. In developed countries, state and market based system provide social security, they cater to over 80 percent of the population. However, in developing countries the percentage of coverage is very low, it excludes majority of the population from the benefits of social security schemes (Gupta, 1994). In the study area, it is observed that under the social security/entitlement scheme such as job cards under Mahatma Gandhi National Employment Guarantee act (MGNREGA) scheme, which ensures at least 100 days work in a year to the card holders. Ration card is another entitlement which ensures the access to food grain, and other basic food items at lower price are not accessing by the migrants at the place of destination.

A very low proportion of migrants revealed that they are accessing to social security including of general insurance policy such health insurance, accident insurance Public provident fund (PPF), etc. Unfortunately, these are the only social security instruments popular among them. While majority proportion i.e. 97 percent of migrants do not have any kind of social security measures, such as EPF, Gratuity, pension, insurance

or house Rent Allowance (HRA). This finding confirms the fact that migrants involved in informal labour often find themselves excluded from public social security mechanism. Social security benefits for a casual labourer often depends on his loyalty to his employer (Vijay, 1999)

**Figure 6.4.3 Distribution of Saving Practice among the Migrants**



Sources: Field Data, January- March, 2016

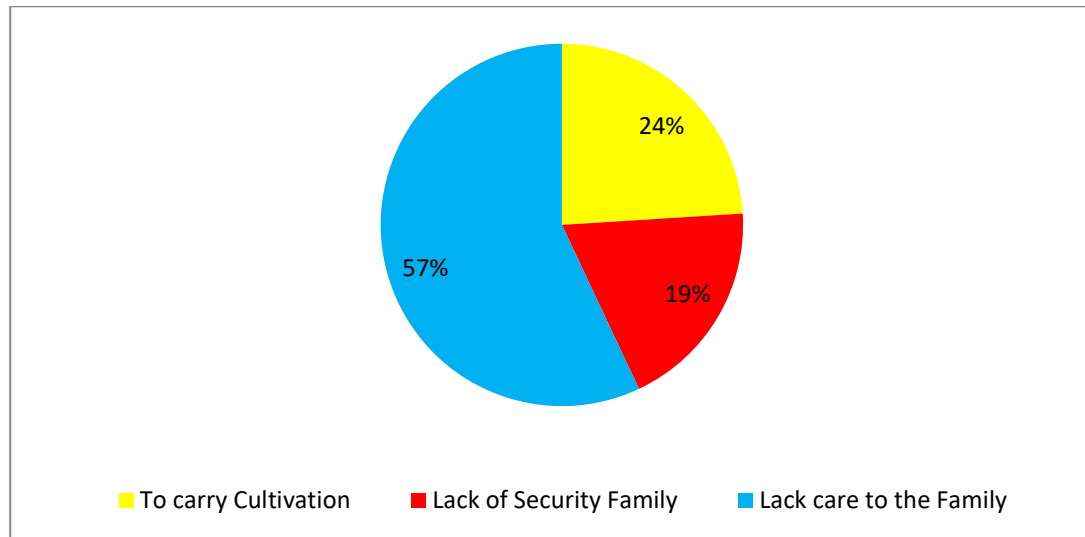
Figure-6.4.3 illustrates the saving practice among migrants. Surprisingly, a large number of migrants have no savings at all. 91 percent revealed their saving pattern, they denied having any saving at all. Those who are not saving money are sending money to their home, and meeting their daily expenses by spending on the daily basis. The saving pattern of 22 migrants ranges from Rs. 1000 to Rs. 2000 per month. They are saving money in commercial banks, and/or are investing in general insurance or Mahila Samitee etc. It is one of the positive aspects for the migrants for their future endeavour.

### **6.5: Living Condition of Migrants after Migration**

Migration is a very complex phenomenon to understand in the contemporary society. There are various reasons of migration which cited by the academician, scholars, and pundits and as well as the different agencies. No doubt the successful of migration is creates important future assets for the individual, families as well as community. This episode is remarkable for the migrants as well as migrant households at the place of

origin. Therefore, it is important to know the living conditions migrant households of after migration.

**Figure-6.5.1 Distribution of Migrants by their Problem during Absence of Male Members**



Sources: Field Data, January-March -2016

Figure-6.5.1 represents the problems faced by the migrant household during the absence of male headed of household. It is found that basically there are types of problems faced by migrant households during the migration process such as cultivation, Insecure in family and to look after the family. The majority proportion of household i.e. 57 percent unable to properly look after the family due the absence of male member. It means, male migrants do not care about the children's education, elder people as well as day to day affairs of family as they are at the place of destination. Roy's (2011) study on distress migration and left behind women- a study of Bihar highlighted the rural migration in developing countries offers a survival strategy for poor section of people. It is both 'pain and gain' formula, in terms of gain, remittances resulting in better access to food and health care facilities, clothing and improved socio-economic status of migrant households, where as pain, in terms of socio-psychological problem of specially the women or other elderly people during the absence of male members. In brief during the absence of male member, the women have taken responsibility on their shoulder such as workload, socio-culture and economic responsibility which are culturally ascribed by the men (Roy, 2011). Secondly, around 24 percent the migrants' family is facing problem during the

agriculture showing and harvesting time to carry out the cultivation. In fact the tribal society both men and women have equal participation in the agricultural activities from showing to harvesting. Sometimes the absence of male member in during the agricultural activities creates problems while ploughing, showing, operation of seeds as well as harvesting. Thus it might be reason of low yield of agricultural production. Apart from agriculture activities and look after the family, 19 percent of migrant household feel insecure in the absence of male headed family. In the study area, nuclear families feel insecure in the society. The long term absence of head of male members creates problems in the families for social ostracism in the society.

**Table-6.5.1 Distribution of Migrants by their Achievement after Migration**

After migration	Frequency	Percentage
Pay back loan	144	61.28
Better living condition	49	20.85
Better House	42	17.87
Total	235	100

Sources: Field Data, January-March -2016

Table-6.5.1 represents the distribution of migrant's achievement after the migration. The achievement of migrant workers per say- they improve their living condition compared to the earlier stage. However, the overall development in life-style doesn't change a lot. The table-6.5.1 shows that 18 percent of migrants have better house, i.e. Pacca with more than 2 storeyed dwelling rooms. Another 21 percent of migrants have improved their living condition after migration. Regarding their purposes of earning, respondents have various motivations for earning money to support their children. Majority proportion of migrants i.e. 61 percent pay back loans and helps their family in debt recovery. It means that most of tribal migrants borrowed money from various sources in order to met the household expenses. As it has been already discussed that tribal people are more spent on various festival and social ceremonies such as *Nuakhai*, *Chaitaparva*, and *Mandiarani*. It also found that very few of them earn to save money for their children, daughters marriage. Thus, it can be concluded that current lifestyles of the migrants have changed as compare to their previous lifestyles. Before the migration they did not have much of facilities, they were influenced/dominated by rural tradition; their environment or upbringing did not

permit them to adopt any kind of urban culture. After migration, they got influenced by urban culture. They are now satisfied with their current lifestyles. As they enjoy freedom, there is no restriction (in terms of social restriction), and no financial difficulties, they are engaged in different kinds of pleasure related activities. Regarding future plan, majority of the migrants want to return back to their native place after earning a substantial amount of money.

#### **Case Study-6.1.1 Transformation of Livelihood through Migration**

Kamal Nasika is a 35 years old, an early migrant from western Odisha. He was married at the time of migration, and was the eldest among all migrant workers. He is from Kalyansighpur block of Rayagada district, belongs to the Scheduled Tribe (Kondha). Although he has a nuclear family, consists of two daughters and one son. All the family members are dependent on him for clothing and food; he was additionally burdened with consanguine side pressure and burden of daughters' marriage. It was difficult for him to meet family's basic requirements, forget about the responsibility of marrying daughters. Owing to low income, seasonal redundancy in village he had to migrate to other state for the sake of employment. Before migration, he came in contact with his nephew of the same village, who helped him. As his nephew is the first migrant person from K.Patraguda village, and was an important channel in bringing large group of youth migrants from village to Chennai. Kamal Nasikia went to Chennai, there he came across an Odiya contractor and labourer with whom he was living and working in the same company. It was not difficult for him to settle down there. According to him, when he arrived, the contractor had provided one accommodation which was to be shared with four to five people. Along with that they faced problems like, drinking water, toilet facilities, but it was my first time and even he was not aware about the language and local people. So he decided to stay with them. After the migration, he was able to support his family, financially. He started to send the remittance to his families, also started to send his children to school. He decided that after his two daughters' marriage, he will return back home and will live with the family. When he was able to send the money home, family started feeling happy and confident. In response to the query of returning back, he says if he returns to the village there would not be any alternative employment; so, it would be difficult to maintain the family. Migration provided him better alternative for earning his livelihood.

## **6.6: Conclusion**

In this chapter an attempt has been made to discuss the social networking of migrants at the place of origin as well as the living and working conditions at place of destination. Generally, rural to urban migration occurs due to better social connection between migrant and non-migrants. Social network plays important role in the process of migration, there are various nodes of social network such as family member, distant relatives, friends and villagers, tribal leaders or mukhiya and placement agency or institution which bridges linkage between the place of origin and destination. In the study area, it is found that nodes like family member or distant relative plays vital role between the old and new migrants during the process of migration. The old migrants are like path maker for new migrants, they pass the various information related to employment, job, nature of work and place to the new entrants. It also found that mostly young age group imitate the living conditions of old migrants which their friends and co-villagers have achieved through migration. The living conditions of friends and co-villagers have remarkable impact on the non-migrant households at the place of origin. Besides, friends and co-villagers another new trends nodes has emerged in tribals areas i.e. placement agency or institution plays important role at the place of origin, placement agency promotes local people through brochures published in vernacular language with details about the place, nature of job and salary. For this they are charge of fees to each individual. It is considered as one of the modern forms of networks in contemporary times, through this node young mass attracted towards the urban centers like Delhi, Mumbai, Chennai and Kolkata. It also examines the kind help they get from migrants during time of migration such as accommodation, financial help and job information in the initial period.

In this chapter the living and working conditions of migrants at the place of destination it also discussed. In order to understand the living conditions of migrants various aspects related to accommodation of facilities, housing condition where the migrants are living have been taken into account. It also discusses the basic facilities and entitlement at the place of destination which includes safe drinking water, toilet and electricity. In case of entitlement, migrants did not get any kind of facilities at place of destination such ration cards, job cards and insurance. In addition, it also discusses the working conditions of migrants including the nature of employment, working hours, wage structure, payment system, over time at the place of destination



has analysed with help pictorial presentation and verbatim. Besides working conditions of migrants, it also analysed the remittance and mode of sending remittance by the migrants to their family. It is one of the important integral components in the process of migration. It not only helps in the formation of better livelihood for the migrant households, but also growth country's economy. Finally, it discusses the conditions of migrants after migration. It is found from the study area, that most of migrant household facing various problems during absence of migrants such as to carry the cultivation and lack security family as well as lack of care of the family. It also discusses the achievement of migrant households with case studies.



## CHAPTER-VII

### SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

#### 7.1: Summary

This study has attempted to examine the access to social security and process of migration among the tribals, in general, and the tribal population in Rayagada district, Odisha, in particular. Tribal population are one of the most marginalised section of people suffering from acute poverty, unemployment, food insecurity and distress migration. In order to reduce the issues like poverty, unemployment, food insecurity and migration government has introduced the social security programme for development of marginal or vulnerable section of people. Social security is one of the antidotes to marginalised people provided by the state for their overall welfare. Like the developed nations, the developing countries also have provision to uplift the poor and marginalised people for their all-round development. The advent of structural adjustment programme has brought the free market policies, free flow labour, goods and services and economic transformation in developing countries like India. The free market economy is essential for promoting open market and efficient economy in the country to improve living conditions people, reduce poverty, and unemployment. In the era of free market economy, undoubtedly the pace of economic growth has increased. This has also led to increased socio-economic complexity in the contemporary society in the absence of proper social security protection. Poverty and deprivation continue to affect large segments of people across the world who suffers from the lack of access to sufficient social security. The current neo-liberal policy has increased not only the social and economic opportunity for all sections of society but also the inherent risks of the liberal economy for a large segment of population. The persistence of such problems, a large proportion of population which are excluded from social security may lead to the wastage of human resources and their economic potential may remain underutilised. Thus, exploration of this issue becomes very significant especially in the context of deprived section of people like the tribal population with a low coverage of social assistance (Srivastva, 2013). Not only the current neo-liberal policy but also the post-independence forest laws did not benefit poor sections people specially the indigenous or tribal people. The government is putting cap on the collection of non-timber forest resources and banning 'Podu'

cultivation in order to protect forest resources as well as reserve forest, which is automatically evicting local indigenous people from their livelihood and sustenance (Gadgil and Guha, 1992). More importantly, the advent of Multi-National Company (MNC) with the exploration of mineral resources in tribal hill areas, they are displaced the local people from their original habitation. In present study area is also witnessing the monopoly of foreign investor to acquire the forest land and water. The 'Vedanta's land encroachment policy in Niyamgiri hill which creates conflict between Dongria Kondha and company. Similar incident in the Kasipur block the UAIL's exploration of bauxite mining in tribal area, there was tussle between local tribal people and company which resulted in the police forcefully firing on local tribal people. This incident is well-known as the 'Maikonch Incident'. Still there is nexus between local people and company investor in the study area. The local tribal people are alienated from their habitation and loss of their livelihood and employment. It has also been found that not only the MNC's exploration of mineral resources but also the biggest irrigation dam projects are great contributors to add to the vulnerability to tribal livelihood and habitation in Odisha. The example of irrigation dam projects in Odisha is; Hirakud Dam irrigation projects in river Mahanadi, Jalaput Dam in Machakunda river of Koraput district, Rengali Project in Brahamni river of Talcher district of Odisha has alienated the mass indigenous/tribal people from their original habitation. The land and livelihood of local people were immersed due to the development projects and without any social protection. Thus the local indigenous people opted migration for employment and livelihood. With all this in mind, this study attempts to understand the issues of social security and migration among the tribal population.

In the Indian history, tribal are considered the most marginalised and vulnerable section of the Indian society, and at the bottom of the development index, having acute poverty, food insecurity, seasonal unemployment, and distress migration (NITI Aayog, 2010). They are shy of modernism and modern means of production, even after 70 years of independence. Most of the government's schemes or plans do not percolate the development of the tribals in India and Odisha is no exception to this. According to the 2011 census, the total population of Odisha is 41 million, out of which 22 percent are Scheduled Tribes, and 16 percent belongs to the Scheduled Caste community. It is considered as one of the poorest states in India. and has a low rank in the development index. According to the BPL survey in 1997, it is found that about 47

percent of the people are below poverty line, the Tendulkar committee also revealed same result on BPL survey in Odisha (NITI Ayaog, 2004-05). It is being witnessed from the 2001 census that Odisha is the key state in sending migrants, about 9, 37,148 inter-state migration. According to Ajivika Report 2014, 2.5 million people migrate from Odisha to other states every year, in which 45 percent of migrants are from coastal regions, southern western and northern districts account 55 percent. As per the UNDP human development reports, 0.9 million of the Odiya migrants are found in Surat, the district of Gujarat, which is considered as the power loom industry hub of India, and gradually move to other new urban cities such as Hyderabad, Chennai, Kochi, Thrunanthapuram, Vijayawada. Another report of civil society organisation found that 0.4 million people are from Kalahandi, Bolangir, and Koraput (KBK) including Rayagada, Nabarangpur, Nuapada and Malkanagiri regions of Odisha; these districts are home of the tribal people, and the nature of migration here is mostly distress migration or debt induced migration but it has gradually changed due advancement of better transport and communication. The migration in the state varies from the rural to rural, rural to urban, and inter-state migration. The inter-state and inter-district migrations constitute the largest portion of labour migration. NSSO survey conducted as the part of the 55<sup>th</sup> round, found that migration in Odisha is about 10.4 percent of the total population, out of which women migrants constitute 7 percent, followed by 14 percent men, while the all India figure shows 12 percent both men and women. Further, 64<sup>th</sup> round NSSO report shows that Odisha share in migration was 18.2 percent which is a rise of 7.8 percent from the earlier NSSO round, while the national figure was 29 percent. The NSSO data clearly indicate the increasing inter-state migration trend in Odisha.

Migration in Odisha is mostly considered as '*Dadan*'. The term '*Dadan*' in Odiya refers to migrant unskilled labour. It works through a proper channel known as '*Dadan system*' (migrant workers recruited through a system of advance by various agencies or middle men or Brokers) has been in practice since British periods. People from tribal and rural Odisha were often recruited by labour contractors or middle men, and subsequently taken to the various parts of India, such as tea garden in Assam, coffee estate in Karnataka and Kerala, construction sites and brick kiln industries (Bates and Carter, 1998). In order to address above mentioned problems, the study has been

attempted to comprehend the social security and migration among the tribal population of Rayagada district, Odisha.

After discussion of tribal vulnerability and migration, now it is important to know the broader aspects social security schemes India in general and tribal of Odisha in particular. The word 'social security' refers to all the measures taken by the government or agencies to provide benefits in terms of cash or kind to secure protection to the individuals who lack employment or have insufficient income originating from sickness, disability, maternity problems, unemployment, injury, old age or the death of earning member of the family. In addition, it also includes the lack of access of health care facilities to the poor sections of society (ILO, 2014). Under the special provision by ILO convention No.102, emphasis was given to the above mentioned beneficiary to reduce vulnerability, deprivation and poverty among the marginalised community especially the migrants. The persistence vulnerability, deprivation, food insecurity and migration creates widen gap in the society, such inequality create more imbalance in the society for peace and harmony. Therefore, selective social security scheme has been designed to reduce the poverty, unemployment and migration. It is considered as one of the antidotes to the poor marginalised or section of people, as it has provided by the state in the form of social security for all-round welfare of the people. Any welfare state which is lacking in social security schemes affects the labour productivity, human development as well as economic growth of nation. Social security, thus becomes a useful tool in raising the labour productivity and improve the full economic potential of the country, so that, the country prospers on social and economic indicators. The existence of social security schemes can help poor and marginal section of people to get employment and other benefits through governments assistance, which results to improve the better livelihood and employment of poor as well as to reduce poverty, inequality, and also prevent people from falling into the poverty trap in general, avoid the social tension, conflicts, and migration in particular.

To comprehend the social security scheme and migration, the present study has analysed aims and objectives of selected social security schemes provided by both central and state government to the marginalised or poor sections of people. These selected social security schemes affects the entire life cycle of individual as well as poor section of people. The selective social security schemes are designed in such a

way that it covers the various dimensions of poor households such as employment, food security, and livelihood in study area. This study summarizes the selective social security schemes provided by the central government as well as state and which are currently being availed by the people at study area. Each of these selected schemes is briefly discussed here;

**MGNREGA:** It is one of the flagship programmes by the central government which was launched in 2005. The main objective is to provide 100 days of employment to the poor rural household by providing manual employment and creating durable assets in the rural areas. The main beneficiary of this scheme is all rural households demanding unskilled manual employment in public works. The central government and state share the contribution of financial assistance in the ratio of 75:25. After 2013 a new rule has been implemented in the tribal areas. The tenure of employment has been increased from 100 to 150 days because of Maoist insurgency. Now this scheme has created 2.4 lakh job cards as well the 48 average working days in the study area.

**PDS:** Public distribution system is one of the important largest food security networks in the world. By 1970s PDS had evolved as an universal scheme for the distribution of subsidised food grains. In 1990s the scheme was revamped to improve access of food grains by the people living in hill and inaccessible areas and also targeted the poor section people. Subsequently in 1997 the government launched the Target Public Distribution System (TPDS) with more focus on poor section of people. The main objective was to provide subsidised food grains and fuels to poor or vulnerable section of people through a network of ration shops. Under this schemes food grains such as rice, wheat, sugar, kerosene and edible oils could be procured. The National Food Security Act (NFSA) of 2013 ensured that the targeted public distribution system is to deliver food grains as legal entitlements to poor household at subsidised rate and making the right to food as permissible right to the poor section of people in the country. In this scheme poor tribal household beneficiary is getting food grains and Kerosene with subsidised rate.

**OTELP:** This scheme has started in the year 2004 with support of DFID, WFP and Odisha government targeted in the tribal areas of Odisha to curve poverty, food insecurity and unemployment in tribal areas. It aims at improving tribal livelihood by promoting efficient, self-managed and sustainable livelihood. Under this programme

households are getting livelihood benefits in the form of livestock rearing, land and development, HYV seeds, fertilizer and marketing facilities for non-timber forest products. Thus, such types of activities under this scheme enhance the better livelihood of the tribal people in their locality.

OLM: This programme was started in the year 2011 under the stewardship of ministry of rural development with World Bank as an aided partner. It is also known as 'Ajeevika' or rural livelihood mission. The main objective is to reduce poverty by enabling the poor households to access gainful self-employment and skilled wage employment through institutional mechanism i.e. Self Help Groups (SHGs). It has targeted the rural poor below poverty line through self-help groups. Mostly the women formed the group and are getting financial credit through the bank thereby creating a new platform for alternative livelihood. Such platforms are creation of skill development and financial credit to generate alternative income of the poor households. Under this scheme people are getting skill development training such as tailoring, mushroom cultivation, leaf plate making, and marketing for non-timber forest products as well as poultry farming.

To understand the access to social security and migration among the tribals in Rayagada districts, Odisha the present study draws from both primary as well as secondary source of data like National Sample Survey Organisation (NSSO), 64<sup>th</sup> round and 55<sup>th</sup> round survey on migration. The NSSO 64<sup>th</sup> round unit level data were used to show the pattern of out-migration and proportion of migration rate among male and female at rural and urban level. It also finds the reasons of out-migration across the national and state level, region wise out-migration rate in the state of Odisha has analysed as well as the social group of out-migration for both male and female. In addition to NSSO 64<sup>th</sup> round unit level data another important data source of migration is the census of India; Census 2001 data has also used to understand the destination points of out-migration from Odisha. The secondary level data were analysed on the basis of rate, proportion and percentage of distribution in details.

In order to know the migration and social security among the tribal, the primary data were collected from each household of both migrant and non-migrant household in tribal district of Rayagada district, who is the beneficiary in terms of accessing and non-accessing of selective social security schemes. Migrants' households and non-



migrant households have been selected, as the sample where non-migrants formed the control group for this study. Using purposive sampling method total of 360 households were surveyed, out of which 235 were migrant households and 125 non-migrant households. The data was collected from both migrants and non-migrant household with structured interview schedule pertaining various questions related to household characteristic, accessing social security, migration, networking of migration as well as living and working condition of migrants. The primary data has analysed on the basis of code, classification and tabulation and it also used descriptive statistics to explore the quantitative summary with the collection of household information in the form of simple distribution, percentage. In order to understand social security schemes among the migration and non-migration households the logit regression analysis has estimated to know the accessibility of social security schemes at the place of origin especially in tribal areas. In addition, to know the household assets in terms of material possession by the migrant and non-migrant the wealth index has used to analyse the economic development of status of migrant and non-migrant households.

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

The main objective of the present study is to assess the access to the social security and migration among the tribal population of Rayagada district. For this, the study examined the access to MGNREGA, PDS, OTELP and OLM schemes by the tribal people in Rayagada district of Odisha. The specific objectives of the study are as follows:

- ❖ To study the socio-economic conditions of tribal population in selected villages in Rayagada district, Odisha.
- ❖ To examine the access to social security by different group of population with special reference in the study area and to establish the linkage between access to social security and migration
- ❖ To analyse the social network and process of migration among STs in Rayagada, Odisha
- ❖ To analyse whether migration has helped in improving the standard of living of the tribal households

In discussing the objectives and research questions, the present thesis was divided into seven chapters. The first chapter dealt with the introductory part of the research, with

historical evolution of social security, definition, and its importance in the present context. In addition, it also discusses the comprehensive picture of migration in India, and Odisha tribal migration in particular. It also presents the objective and research questions of the study. The second chapter pursued the theoretical debate about the exiting literature on labour migration, review of various theories on migration ranging from classical to new economic labour migration, relevance of social security in terms of livelihood, social network theory on migration and various aspects of social networks, nature of work, working and living conditions of migrants, etc. Third chapter dealt with the discussion on problems of study areas, along with data sources, methodology, and the tools of data collection. In addition, it also discusses the organisation of the thesis, and the chapters included in the present study. The fourth chapter, based on primary survey with the support of secondary level data, traced the geographical location of study area along with socio-demographic profile sample of migrants and non-migrants. Fifth chapter dealt with the interpretation of social security schemes and migration. It forms the central part of the thesis which discusses the migrant and non-migrant households, and their access to the social security. Sixth chapter presented the discussion and various nodes of social networking of migrants at place of origin, living conditions of migrants in the place of destination, initially assistance, accommodation arrangement on the arrival of new migrants. It is followed by the job information networks, and credit of network of migrants both in the place of destination and origin. Seventh chapter deals with the summary, concluding remarks along with recommendation from the policy point of view.

The migration is a fascinating term in the era of globalisation. It seeks attention of academician, scholars and policy maker to understand the complex phenomenon of migration. The out-migration from the Rayagada district is caused by several socio-economic and development induced reasons. The first and foremost is the non-accessible forest land, as the forest lands are controlled by the government, and it put restriction on collecting the non-timber forest products (NTFP). It is a well-known fact that tribal people mostly depend on the forest for their livelihood. Secondly, the lack of arable lands, i.e. pastures land deters the agriculture activists. As per the Forest Rights Act 2006, government provides few acres of land to the local people which are not arable, it always depends on monsoon; poor monsoon or drought in the agriculture years results in crop failure. Majority of households confront with difficulties, and get

deprived of their main sources of income. The agriculture productivity is less than their daily consumption requirements. The constrain and restriction on non-timber forest products (NTFP) result over dependency of the rural areas upon forest products. Thirdly, the newly established Multinational Companies (MNCs) in Rayagada district always take advantage of the local people in the name of providing job opportunities in rural areas, but it does not cater to local people. Notwithstanding, tribal people were alienated from their own land, and could not get their due as per the company rules. For examples, recently there was a controversy surrounding ‘Vedanta’s acquire land on Niyamgiri Mountains’, this type of development projects alienates indigenous people from their livelihood. Fourthly, the capability of local labour market is very limited, and the majority of the employable population are out of work, others get only seasonal jobs. Moreover, agriculture cultivation is seasonal in most of rural part of Odisha, therefore people are getting only 6 months job, only in agriculture activities, rest of the year they are off job. Fifthly, social security in terms of livelihood provided by the state is not feasible in rural part of Odisha. MGNREGA, PDS, OTELP and OLM are the social security schemes in terms of livelihood provided by the central and the state government, but they are not sufficient to provide employment to all the households’ members throughout the year. Also, young masses are not interested to work under the schemes like, MGNREGA and OTELP schemes. Under such circumstances, households’ members undertake migration strategy in order to minimize the vulnerability, with help of social networks, such as friends, relatives and siblings. To overcome misery, such as seasonality, crop failure, food insecurity, and indebtedness, they adopt migration strategy to improve their wellbeing through increasing their incomes, as is explained by the theory of the new economics of migration. Furthermore, for many poor households’, migration strategy serves as a mechanism for coping with poverty and other natural, social, and economic vulnerability.

Apart from these economic reasons, social and migration-related reasons for migration have also been identified in the form of personal ties at the destination place, which can encourage to newly migrants at the place of origin. In the present study it has been found that personal contacts or ties play a major role in the migration process. Around 60 percent of migrants are influenced by their friends through the informal meeting and conversion. In rural set up influencing is one of the important factors migrations

since inceptions. The successful migration experience and positive outcomes from relatives or friends that have in return served as another reason to migrate, especially for the young migrants. The presence of personal contacts specially friends and villager plays a significant role in the choice of destination, it shows around 66 percent, since they attract potential migrants not only through a direct or indirect invitation, but also provide detail information about job, nature of work, and place and also initial support to the migrants such as accommodation, monetary help. In case of tribal areas, it is found that mostly tribal leaders or '*mukhiya*' plays central role at the place of origin for migration as well as provide initial information about the job. They are considered as the trustworthy people and saviour of community. Another new trends of social ties found in the study area i.e. placement agency, religious institution plays important role at place of origin for migration. The placement agency attracts special age groups through the advertisement, pamphlet, and fair. The religious institution like church is place where people can contacts or face to face interaction with the old migrants, it is also noticed that church is key sources of information regarding job, education and employment. Therefore, institutions like church, placement agency are playing dominant role in the tribal area for sending migrants (Kumari, 2015). The previous migrants were also searching job for the arrival of the newly migrants. It helps potential migrants a lot in knowing about the place of destination or geographical location (Boyd, 1989).

It is also witnessed from study area that around 20 percent of migrants 'self' motivated to migrate in search of employment and livelihood. The main reason behind the 'self' motivation may be the rapid expansion of transport and communication which plays a vital role for migration it makes inter-state migration easy and accessible. The households sent their family members out in order to improve their living standard, motivated by the other members in villages who migrated and consequently bettered their living conditions. It shows the migration is a process in which people are imitating each other for better life; it can be considered as Sen's 'theory of relative deprivation'.

The finding of the present study also shows that the decision to migrate was often made not by individual but the combination of collective members of the households. In this context, it supports the idea that migration has become a household decision and serves as further evidence of new economic theory of labour migration. Moreover,

members of the household or family who had previously migrated have significant influence over the decision of making on other members of household and they are known as 'potential migrant' in the process of migration. It is not only the family member or neighbours influencing the act of migration, but individual person who already reached at destination and he/she constantly function as an agency to bring the migrants from the place of origin (Das and Ansary, 2017).

In the migration process, place of destination plays a major role for migrants and in the study area it has been found that 84 percent of migrants prefer to go outside state as their destination of migration. The reason behind preferring to move outside may be the better wage rate, more job opportunities and better living conditions. Only 7.66 percent of migrants chose their place of destination within the state, state itself has various urban city centres like Bhubaneswar, Cuttack, Berhampur, Rourkela and Sambalpur, where they can find job opportunities. Around 8.5 percent of migrants chose to migrate within the districts. In Rayagada district there is small and medium scale industries units mushrooming in various parts of districts such as IMFA, JK paper Mills and UAL which have resulted in the migration within the districts.

Besides this, in the study area, it is observed that the labor migration is able to creating future assets for their household through sending remittance. In the earlier studies found that migration is a mechanism to solving most of acute problems, like poverty, unemployment, food insecurity, and indebtedness in the place of origin. But in the study areas, it is found that the universal existence of selective social security schemes work as twin guard for the migrant and non-migrant households. In case of PDS, through this scheme the government provides ration or food grains to each and every households at cheap rate in every month. Therefore, the existence of PDS scheme the poor migrant households can able to spend money on non-food items, such as education of children, and material possession. Thus, it can possible through individual aspiration for migration.

It is also found from the study areas that the labour migration remains a survival strategy for many households in rural areas. It already has positive development effects on migrants' family as well as individual migrants (Deshingkar and Ferrington, 2009). As access to selective social security schemes by the migrant households are getting benefits which create an option for the household to migrate out for future

assets and livelihood. The remittances ultimately help in their welfare, such as construction of new house or renovation of old house, purchase of household articles, like colour TV, Motor Bike and Dish TV, and livestock. Migrants' investments are widely used for the development of households rather than for the development of community or villages. It has also observed that the during the local festival migrants not only contribute a lot in the form of cash for the villages welfare but also migrants contribute money for development local services and infrastructure for own communities or villages.

Apart from positive economic impact, it is also found from the study areas that, there is also both positive and negative social impact on migrants and their families in the absence of male headed family, such as children, elderly parents, and wives. However, it is different notion so far as study area is concern. In the tribal society both male and female have equal status in terms of agriculture activities to household activities. In the absence of head of household or husband, the whole household work along with agriculture work is undertaken by the wives. It does not affect much in the entire families during the migration of head of household or husband. In fact, the empirical study by Archana Roy 'Distress migration and left behind women-a study from Bihar' mentioned that the relatively long-term absence of husband or wife from their family leads to the deterioration of the family in personal relations, and sometime it gives birth to extramarital affairs (Roy, 2011).

Another important aspect of migrants is disputes related to exploitation of employer or *Thikadars* through the various means. It is found from study area that, migrants often return home for temporary period to have rest or attend social ceremonies or festival and *Thikadars* or intermediaries make them not to visit their home for rest which sometimes lose their money while leaving for home. Which has creates the problems between the migrants and employers. It also found that duet to the harsh work and living conditions, health problem and disputes arises between migrant and employers. Besides this, it is also fact that seasonal migrants too return home during the harvesting time or showing season in order to help the families in agriculture activities. It has resulted that they lost their job after leaving for home and difficult to find new job.

The present study observed that social security schemes are universal in assisting the individual who is deprived from their entitlement. These entitlements are provided by the central as well as state government to curb poverty, unemployment and food insecurity from rural and urban areas in general, and tribal areas in particular. It is found that social security schemes are fairly accessed by the all the marginal people, especially by the tribals. It is also found from the study area that, in spite of better social protection to the marginal communities, particularly tribals, young mass are moving outward to explore the new experience of life, and independent income. While relatively older people or any adult member access the social security schemes provided by the government. The young mass aspire to live the urban lifestyle, especially having a smart phone, motorbike, TVs, Dish TV, etc. They also want an independent source of income for their daily life.

## **7.2 Conclusion**

Tribal migration is found to be a complex phenomenon in the contemporary times. It has played an important role for the formation of livelihood through the migration process. Undoubtedly, successful migrants secured incomes and well off status in their own community by investing in future durable assets. Therefore, it can be considered that migration among the tribal is mainly for livelihood strategy to overcome from the acute poverty, unemployment and food insecurity through generating remittances. Through the process of migration, individual migrants or household create assets for future which enables them to have better living conditions at the place of origin. Migration processes have played an important role in improving the standard of people's livelihood. It brings together the lack of socio-economic security and causes the productivity of the people, which indirectly or directly contribute to the national economy. In rural areas, the lack of social security causes difficulties in maintaining households their livelihoods; often there is limited employment and irregular job opportunities. Today, labour migration is the chief livelihood option for the migrants; sending remittances and creating valuable assets are important measures for the tribal people, although the government policies are addressing peoples' issues, such as unemployment, food insecurity, and poverty. These government policies are available across all marginal of the sections of society, it can be considered as universally accessible by all the people. However, it fails to prevent them from migrating, it cannot hold people at their origin.

### 7.3 Suggestions

The present study has following recommendations for the policy and for future research. It is presented into two sections; first section discusses about recommendation for the migrants and second, on social security schemes in terms of livelihood to migrants and non-migrants.

The first and foremost, there is need to have the state's intervention to protect the rights of the migrants. It is observed from the study area that many of the respondents are often cheated by the petty contractors or '*Thikadars*' or intermediaries in terms of wage rate, payments, working conditions and living conditions. Even they are misinformed about the place of destination while recruiting by the petty contractor. It also found that initially, they face problems at place of destination such as lack of communication skill due to the language barrier and to adjust with the local community. Therefore, it is utmost important by the state to create awareness among the migrants about their rights, rules and regulation of wage rate. There is mechanism to inform about working conditions and living conditions needs to be developed.

The government should take the various policy measures in order to protect the rights of the migrants. However, the government has already under taken policy measure to reduce the short-term or temporary migration like providing guaranteed wage employment in rural areas, self-employment through the Rozgar Yojana. But it did not prevent the short-term migration. Thus, there is a need to make the programmes more sufficient to generate livelihoods.

The social network plays key role in the initially process of migration at the place of origin as well as place of destination. Undoubtedly, it helps a lot to the newly entrants about the nature of job, financial helps and accommodation. But later it creates problems among the migrants, seldom they fight with each other in the place of destination and subsequently it brings the social tension among the community at the place of origin. There is need for further research to know the social behaviour of migrants, social reality and complexities that generates which affect both the place of origin and destination.

In recent times, placement agency plays a vital role at the place of origin to recruit particular age group of people and send them out for the better employment and



handsome salary. It is observed from the study area the mostly young age group are attracts towards urban life through the advertisement provided by the placement agency in the form of brochure, magazine and hoarding. The placement agencies are mushrooming in the rural areas to attract young mass and demanding money while recruiting them. But it is witnessed that migrants could not get the same facilities as per the promise and often faces the problems at the place of destination. Therefore, there should be strict rule to regulate the placement agency at the place origin.

Another important fact found form the study area that mostly migrants are engaged especially in the construction units due to their low level of skill and education. The construction sector in India is considered to be a booming sector, where lot of people are absorbed. The nature of work under construction sector is highly heterogeneous and it undertakes many types of activities which said to be hazardous and risky. The safety measures need to be made mandatory by the government.

All the selective social security scheme is need to be properly scrutinize by the government. As in the case of MGNREGA is only providing 100 days guaranteed employment and rest of the days people could not get any employment in their locality and in the study area it is found that the scheme does not attract the certain age groups i.e. young age. In this age group young people are not interested to work in the locality with low payment as it is a prestige issue. They aspire to move out to explore new ways of living. So, there is need for proper execution of MGNREGA scheme especially for the young age group which may be alternative to them.

The social security scheme like PDS has provide only the food grains to poor households at subsidised price on the monthly basis to a quota of 25 Kg. The ration under the PDS is not sufficient for whole month for the large size households. They need to purchase the ration from outside shop at higher cost. They lend money to meet their daily needs. Therefore, poor and marginal households again trap in the vicious cycle of poverty, unemployment and food insecurity. So there is a need to make the TPDS more efficient and more sufficient.

The tribal livelihood programme only focuses on certain aspects of livelihood, like land water and livestock. Whereas, the land less people could not get any kind of benefit from this schemes. Therefore, government needs to focus on land less people to get the benefits of livelihood scheme by broadening the scope of the scheme. None

of the scheme has any provision for skill development. Introducing such component can enhance the capacity of the youth to earn better livelihood without being exploited by the recruiters.

## **BIBLIOGRAPHY**

- Akter, S. and Deshingier, P. (2009). Migration and Human Development in India, Human Development Research paper 2009/13, UNDP. Retrieved from [http://hdr.undp.org/en/report/global/hdr2009/papers/HDRP\\_2009\\_13.pdf](http://hdr.undp.org/en/report/global/hdr2009/papers/HDRP_2009_13.pdf)
- Aajeevika Bureau (2014). Studies, Stories and Canvas Seasonal Migration and Migrants Worker from Odisha, Centre for Migration and Labour Solution, Udaipur Retrieved from
- Ambagudia, J. (2010). Tribal Rights, Dispossessions and State in Orissa, *Economic and Political Weekly*, (45), 60-67
- Bhaduri, A. (2007). Growth Distribution and Innovations: Understanding their Interrelation, *Routledge*, London
- Banerjee, Biswajit. (1983). Social Networks in the Migration Process: Empirical Evidence on Chain Migration in India. *The Journal of Developing Areas*, 17(2),185-196.
- Banerjee, Biswajit. (1984). The Probability, Size and Uses of Remittance from Urban to Rural areas in India, *Journal of Development Economics*, 16,(3), 293-311
- Bapana, S.L. (1990). Food Security through the PDS: The Indian Experience. In D.S. Tyagi (eds). Increasing access to Food, The Asian Experience, *Sage Publications*, New Delhi
- Bates, C and Carter M.(1998). Tribal Migration in India and Beyond. Prakash, G. (eds) The World of the Rural Labourer in Colonial India, *Oxford University*, New Delhi, P.p205-247.
- Bhagat, R.B. (2010). Internal Migration in India: Are the Underprivileged Class Migrating More? *Asia-Pacific Population Journal*, 25(1): 27-45.
- Bhagat, R.B. (2005). Conceptual Issues in Measurement of Internal Migration in India, IUSSP 25<sup>th</sup> International Conference, Contributed Papers, France, July 18-23. Retrieved from
- Bhatia, B. and Dreze, J. (2006). Employment Guarantee in Jharkhand: Ground Realities, *Economic and Political Weekly*, 41 (29)22-26.
- Bhattacharya, P. (1998). The Informal Sector and Rural-to-Urban Migration: Some Indian Evidence, *Economic and Political Weekly*, 33(21):1255-1262

- Bhatt, Wasudha. (2009). The Gendered Dimension of Migration in India: The Politics of Contemporary Space in Orissa and Rajasthan, *Development in Practice*, 19(1), 87-93.
- Bhende, A and Kantikar, T. (2015). Principles of Population Studies, *Himalaya Publishing House*, New Delhi
- Bisht, B.S and P.C Tiwari. (1997), Occupational Pattern and Trend of Rural Out-Migration: A Study of Gomati Watershed in Uttar Pradesh and Himalaya, *Journal of Rural Development*, 16, (2):329-339
- Boyd, M. (1989). Family and Personal Networks in International Migration: Recent Development and New Agendas. *International Migration Review*, 23(3), 638-670.
- Breman, J. (1994). Wage Hunters and Gatherers: Search for work in the Urban and Rural Economy of South Gujarat, Oxford University Press, Delhi, Pp. 133-211.
- Breman, J. (2007). Labour Bondage in West India: From Past to Present, Oxford University Press, New Delhi. Retrieved from
- Brettell B, Caroline. (2008). Theorizing Migration in Anthropology- The social Construction of networks, Identities, communities and Global Spaces in Brettell B, Caroline and Hollifield, F James(eds) Migration theory talking across disciplines, Routledge Publication, New York, Pp.113-160.
- Carney, D. (2002). Sustainable Livelihoods Approaches: Progress and Possibilities for Change, Department for International Development (DFID). Accessed on September 2015  
<http://www.eldis.org/vfile/upload/1/document/0812/SLAProgress.pdf>
- Caldwell, J.C. (1969). African Rural-Urban Migration: The Movement to Ghana's Towns, *Australian National University Press*. Retrieved from
- Choldin, Harvey M. (1973). Kinship Networks in the Migration Process. *International Migration Review*, 7(2), 163-175.
- Chamber and Conway. (1991). Sustainable Rural Livelihood Practical Concept for 20<sup>th</sup> Century, Institute of Development Studies
- Collin, Murry. (2002). Livelihood Research Transcending Boundaries Time and Space, *Journal of Southern Africa Study*, 28(3), 489-509
- Constant, A. and Massey, D.S. (2002). Return Migration by German Guest Workers: Neoclassical Versus New Economic Theories. *International migration*, 40(4): 5-38

- Coombs, G. (1978). Opportunities, Information Networks and the Migration-Distance Relationship. *Social Networks*, 1(3), 257-276.
- Daniel, U. (2011). Migration in Western Odisha: Learning and Intervention, Action Aid Odisha. Retrieved from
- Das, B. and Ansary, A. (2017). Bangladeshi and Inter-State Migrants: Differential Adaption and Acceptance by the Local in West Bengal, India. Accessed on January 2018, <http://doi.org/10.1007/s40980-017-0040-1>
- Davis, B. and Winters, P. (2001). Gender Networks and Mexico-US Migration, *Journal of Development Studies*, 38(2), 1-26.
- Deshingkar, P. (2006). Internal Migration, Poverty and Development in Asia ODI briefing Paper 11, Overseas Development Institute London.  
[www.odi.org/publications/briefing/bp\\_internal\\_migration\\_oct06.pdf](http://www.odi.org/publications/briefing/bp_internal_migration_oct06.pdf), Retrieved from 2014
- Deshingkar, P and Farrington, J. (eds.). (2009). Circular Migration and Multilocational Livelihood Strategies in Rural India, Oxford University Press, New Delhi.  
Retrieved from
- Deshingkar, P. and Start, D.(2003). Seasonal Migration for Livelihoods in India: Coping Accumulation and Exclusion. ODI working paper 220, Overseas Development Institute London. Accessed on 2014  
[www.odi.org/publications/working\\_papers/wp220.pdf](http://www.odi.org/publications/working_papers/wp220.pdf)
- Deshingkar, P (2006), Internal Migration, Poverty and Development in Asia: Including the Excluding through Partnership and Improved Governance, Paper Presented at the Asia 2005 Conference, 6-7 March, London
- Deshingkar, P., Sharma P., Kumar S., Akter S., and Ferrington, J. (2008). Circular Migration in Madhya Pradesh: Changing Pattern and Social Protection Needs, *The European Journal of Development Research*, 20(4), 612-28.
- Djurfeldt, G. A, Venkatesh, N Jayakumar, L, Staffan, A Rajgopal and R, Vidyasagar (2008), Agrarian Change and Social Mobility in Tamil Nadu, *Economic and Political Weekly*, 14(8), 50-61
- De Haas, H.(2007). Migration and Development: A Theoretical Perspective. COMCAD Arbetspaire-working papers 29. Retrieved from
- De Haas, H. (2010). Migration and Development: A Theoretical Perspective. *International Migration Review*, 44(1), 227-264.

- De Haan, A. (1999). Livelihood and Poverty: The Role of Migration- A Critical Review of the Migration Literature, *Journal of Development Studies*, 36(2),1-47
- De Haan, A. and Rogaly, B. (2002). Introduction: Migrant Workers and their Role in Rural Change, *Journal of Development Studies*, 38(5), 1-14.
- Dutta, B., and B. Ram swami. (2001). 'Targeting and Efficiency in the Public Distribution System: Case of Andhra Pradesh and Maharashtra'. *Economic and Political Weekly*, 36 (18),1524-32.
- Ellen, Bal. and Ross, Willem. (2014). Introduction: A Spring Migrants, Local Crises and the Imagination of Futures 'Away from Home', *Identities*, 21(3), 249-258.
- Faist, T. (1998). International Migration and Transnational Social Spaces: Their Evolution Significance and Future Prospects. In: IIS-Arbeitspapier 9/98, Bremen. Retrieved from
- Faweett, James T. (1989). Networks, Linkages, and Migration Systems. *International Migration Review*, 23(3), 671-680.
- Fernandes, Danzil. (2011). Social Networks as Social Security Mechanism for Migrant Labour: Evidence from Construction Industry in Goa, *Indian Development Review*, 9(1)29-46.
- Gaiha, Raghav, Jha, Raghavendra and Shylashri, Shankar. (2011), Information, Access and Targeting to the National Rural employment Guarantee Scheme in India, *Oxford Development Studies*, 39(1)
- Gadgil, M. and Guha, R. (1992). This Fissured Land: An Ecological History of India, *Oxford University Press*, Delhi
- Granovetter, M. (1973). The Strength of Weak Ties. *American Journal of Sociology*, 78(6), 1360-1380.
- Ghosh, J. (2006). The 'Right to Work' and Recent Legislation in India, *Economic and Political Weekly*, 7(2),23-36.
- Government of India. (2005). MGNREGA Programme, New Delhi. Retrieved from
- Government of India.(2011). Population Census of India, D-series, *Migration Tables*, Registrar General, India New Delhi.
- Government of India.(2011). Provisional Population of Odisha: Totals, Odisha Series 22, Census of India, New Delhi.
- Government of Odisha. (2017). Economic Survey of Odisha (2017-18), Directorate of Economics and Statistics, Bhubaneswar.

- Government of Odisha. (2016). Annual Report (2016-17), Ministry of Tribal affairs, Government of Odisha, Bhubaneswar.
- Government of Odisha, (2011-12). Economic Survey 2011-12, Director of Economics and Statistic, Planning and Coordination Department, Bhubaneswar.
- Gupta, Dipankar. (2011). *Mistaken Modernity India Between World*, Harper Collins Publication, New Delhi
- Guhan, S. (1994). Social Security Options for Developing Countries, *International Labour Review* 133(1), 35-53
- Gwatikin, D.R., S. Rutstein, K. Johnson, R.P.Pande, and A. Wagstaff. (2000). Socio-economic Difference in Health, Nutrition and Poverty, HNP/Poverty Thematic Group of the World Bank, The World Bank, Washington D.C
- Harris, J., and Todaro, M.P. (1970). Migration, Unemployment and Development: A Two Sector Analysis, *American Economic Review*, 60(1), 126-42.
- Haan, De Arjan (2011). Inclusive Growth? Labour Migration and Poverty in India, *International Institute of Social Studies*, Working Paper No.513. Retrieved from
- Haas, Hein, de. (2010). The Internal Dynamics of Migration Processes: A Theoretical Inquiry, *Journal Of Ethnic and Migration Studies*, 36(10), 1587-1617.
- Haribson, S.F. (1981). Family Structure and Family Strategy in Migration Decision Making, in Dejong, G.F and Gardner, R.W. (eds), *Migration Decision Making*, New York, Pergamon, Pp.225-251.
- Haug, S. (2008). Migration Networks and Migration Decision Making, *Journal of Ethnic migration Studies*, 34(4), 585-605. Retrieved from <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/1369183080196>
- Hoang, L.A.(2011). Gendered Networks and Migration Decision-making in Northern Vietnam, *Social and Cultural Geography*, 12(5), 419-434.
- Hugo, Graeme. (1995). International Labour Migration and the Family: Some Observation from Indonesia, *Asian Pacific Migration Journal*, 4(2/3),273-301.
- International Labor Organisation (2003). *Social Protection Floor for India*, New Delhi. Retrieved from
- IOM (2003). *World Migration Report 2003*, Geneva: International Organisation for Migration. Retrieved from

- International Social Security Association (1994). The impact of Social Security of Migration from Developing Countries' in Migration: A Worldwide Challenge for Social Security Studies and Research No.35, Geneva
- International Organisation for Migration (1999) incomplete
- International Organisation for Migration (2002) incomplete
- Jaysawal and Shah, Sudheshna. (2018). Impact of Displacement on Livelihood- A Case Study of Odisha, *Community Development Journal*, 3(1), 136-154
- Jha, V. (2005). Migration of Orissa's Tribal Women: A new story of exploitation, *Economic and Political Weekly*, 40(15), 1495-1497.
- Jha, R., Gaiha, R., and Pandey, M. (2010). Food Price Subsidy under Public Distribution System in Andhra Pradesh, Maharashtra and Rajasthan. The Australia South Asia Research Centre Working Papers (ASARC), 7.
- Jharwal, S. M. (1999). Public Distribution System in India Reassessed. *Manak Publications*, New Delhi
- Joshi, K.G. (1989). Migration and Mobility: A Sociological Study of Urban Karnataka, *Himalaya Publishing House*, Bombay, Pp.5.
- Karan, A.K. (2003). Changing Pattern of Migration from Rural Bihar, *Journal of Labour and Development*, 9(2), 155-195
- Khan, N. (1986). Pattern of Rural Out-Migration: A Micro Level Study, *B.R. Publishing Corporation*, Delhi
- Khera, R. (2011). India's Public Distribution System: Utilization and Impact. *Journal of Development Studies*, 47(7), 1038-1060.
- Klonner, S. and C. Oldiges. (2014). Employment Guarantee and its Welfare Effects in India, MGNRGA -Taking Stock and Looking Ahead Proceedings of the International Conference on MGNREGA, Mumbai, IGIDR, 26-28 March.
- Kuhn, R. (2005). The Determinant of Family and Individual Migration: A Case Study of Rural Bangladesh, Working Paper, Research Programme on Population Process
- Kumar, B. B.P Singh and R, Singh. (1998), Out-Migration from Rural Bihar: A Case Study, *The Indian Journal of Labour Economics*, 41(4), 729-735
- Kabeer, N. (2002). Safety Nets and Opportunity Ladders: Addressing Vulnerability and Enhancing Productivity in South Asia, *Development Policy Review*, 20(5), Blackwell Publishing, London



- Keshri, K. and Bhagat, R.B.(2013). Socio-Economic Determinants of Temporary Labour Migration in India', *Asian Population Studies*, 9(2), 175-195.
- Kothari, U.(2002). Migration and Chronic Poverty, Working Paper No.16, University of Manchester, Manchester.
- Korra, Vijay. (2011). Labour Migration in Mahabubnagar: Nature and Characteristic, *Economic and Political Weekly*, 46(2), 67-70.
- Koser, Khalid. (2007). International Migration: A Very Short Introduction, *Oxford University Press*, New York, Pp.1-2.
- Kundu, A. and Sarangi N. (2007). Migration, Employment Status and Poverty: An Analysis across Urban Centres, *Economic Political Weekly*, 42(4), 299-306.
- Kumar, K. (2006). Dispossessed and Displaced: A Brief Paper on Tribal issues in Orissa Vasundhara, Bhubaneswar. Retrieved from
- Lee, E.S. (1966). A Theory of Migration, *Demography*, 3(1), 47-57
- Lewis, W.A. (1954). Economic Development with Unlimited Supplies of Labour, The Manchester School of Economic and Social Studies, 22(2), 139-91.
- Lusome, R. and Bhagat, R.B. (2006). Trends and pattern of Internal Migration in India 1971-2001, Annual Conference of Indian Association for the Study of Population (IASP), Thiruvananthapuram, Kerala. Retrieved from
- Lutz, Helma. (2010). Gender Migration Process, *Journal of Ethnic and Migration Studies*, 36(10), 1647-1663.
- MacDonald, J.S. and MacDonald, B.D. (1964). Chain Migration, Ethnic Neighbourhood formation and Social Networks. *Milbank Memorial Fund Quarterly*, 42(1), 82-97.
- Massey, D.S. (1990). Social Structure, Household Strategies and the Cumulative Causation of Migration, *Population Index*, 56(1), 3-26.
- Massey, D.S., Arango, J., Hugo, G., Kouaouci, A., Pellegrino, A. and Taylor J.E.(1993). Theories of International migration: A review and Appraisal, *Population and Development Review*, 19(3), 431-466.
- Massey, D.S.(1990). Social Structure, Household Strategies, and the Cumulative Causation of Migration. *Population Index*, 56(1), 3-26.
- Mehrotra, S. (2008). NREGA-Two year on where do we go from here, *Economic and Political Weekly*, 2(xx).
- Mitra, Arup. and Murayama. (2008). Rural Urban Migration: A District Level Analysis in India, Institute of Developing Economics (IDE), JETRO, Japan

- Ministry of Tribal Affairs. (2013). Statistical Profile of Scheduled Tribes in India, DAVP, Government of India, Pp. 2-84
- Mishra, Deepak Kumar (2008). Seasonal Migration from Odisha: A View from the Field, Mishra, Deepak Kumar.(eds) Internal Migration in Contemporary India- An Overview of Issues and Concerns, Sage Publication, New Delhi, Pp. 263-290.
- Mohapatra, S. Ratha and D, Silwal, A. (2011). Outlook for Remittance flows 2012-14 Remittance flows to Development Countries Exceed \$350 billion in 2011, International World Migration and Development Brief 17 (December1), Pp.1-15. Retrieved from [http://siteresources.worldbank.org/TOPICS/Resources/214970128887798139/Migration and DevelopmentBrief17.pdf](http://siteresources.worldbank.org/TOPICS/Resources/214970128887798139/Migration%20and%20DevelopmentBrief17.pdf)
- Mosse, D., Gupta, S., Mehata, Saha, V., Rees, J., and the KRIBP Project Team. (2002). Brokered livelihoods: Debt, labour migration and development in tribal western India, *Journal of Development Studies*, 38(5), 59-87.
- Msigwa, Robert Edihart,(2013). Determinants of Internal Migration in Tanzania, *Journal of Economic and Sustainable Development*, 4(9): 28-35
- Mukandana, N. (2009). Rural Development and Poverty Eradication in India, *Century Publication*, New Delhi.
- Muralidharan, Karthik. Paul, Niehaus, and Sandeep, Sukhtankar. (2014). Payments Infrastructure and the Performance of the Public Programs: Evidence from Biometric Smart Cards in India. 'MGNREGA-Taking Stock and Looking Ahead', Proceedings of an International Conference on MGNREGA. Mumbai: IGIDR
- Narayanan, Sudha and Upasak, Das. (2014). Women Participation and Rationing in the Employment Guarantee Scheme', *Economic and Political Weekly* 49 (46).
- Newland, Kathleen. (2009). Circular Migration and Human Development, Human Development Research paper (2009/42), United Nations Development Programme, New York. Retrieved from
- NSSO.(2001). Migration in India Report No.470 (55/108), 1999-2000, National Sample survey organisation, New Delhi, Ministry of Statistics and Programme Implementation, Government of India.

- NSSO.(2010). Migration in India Report No.533 (64/10.2/2), 2007-2008, National Sample Survey Organisation, New Delhi, Ministry of Statistics and Programme Implementation, Government of India.
- Oberai, A.S and H, Singh. (1980). Migration, Remittance and rural Development: Findings of a Case Study in the Indian Punjab, *International Labour Review*, 119(2)
- Oberai, A.S and H. Singh. (1983). Causes and Consequence of Internal Migration: A Study of Punjab, *Oxford University Press*, New Delhi
- Oberai, A.S., P.H Prasad and M.G Sardana, (1989). Determinants and Consequences of Internal Migration in India: Studies in Bihar, Kerala and Uttar Pradesh, *Oxford University Press*, Delhi
- Ota, A.B. and Mohanty, B.N.,(2010). Population profile of Scheduled Tribe in Odisha, Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribe Research and Training institute, Bhubaneswar. Retrieved from
- Pal, B. (2011). Organization and Working of Public Distribution System in India: A Critical Analysis, *International Journal of Business Economics and Management Research*, 1(1),40-48
- Parikh, K. (1994). ‘Who Gets How Much from PDS – How Effectively Does It Reach the Poor?’, Sarvekshana, January-March
- Panda, Smita. M. (2014). Exploring Mobile Livelihoods among Tribal Communities in Odisha, India: Gendered Insights and Outcomes, in Lund, Ragnhild, Kusakabe, Kukak, Panda, Smita Mishra, and Wang, Yunixian(eds.) Gendered Livelihood Transformations, Comparing Indigenous People in China, India, and Laos, Rutledge Publication, New York,Pp. 93-117.
- Parida, Jajatikeshari. and Mdheswarn, S.,(2010). Spatial Heterogeneity and Population Mobility in India, Institute of Social and Economic Change, working paper-234, Pp.1-22
- Piore, Mj.(1979). Birds of Passage Migrant Labour and Industrial Societies, *Cambridge University Press*, Cambridge. Retrieved from
- Poros, MV.(2001). The Role of Migrants Networks in Linking Local Labour markets: The case of Asian Indian Migrants to New York and London, *Global Network*, 1(3), 234-259.
- Pruseth, N. (2008). Seasonal Migration in Western Orissa: A Study, *Navaratna Journal*, 2(1), 35-40

- Pradhan, S. (2015). Socio-Economic and Educational Perspectives of Short-Term Migration in tribal areas: a case study of selected tribal households of Koraput district, Odisha. *Pedagogy of Learning*, 1(1), 1-8.
- Rao, M.S.A.(1986). Some aspects of Sociology of Migration in India, in Rao(eds) *Studies in the Migration: Internal and International Migration in India*, *Monohar Publication*, New Delhi Pp.xx. Retrieved from
- Ranjan, S.I (2011). *Migration, Identity and Conflict: India Migration Report, 2011*, *Routledge*, New Delhi
- Ravenstein, E.G. (1885). The Laws of Migration, *Journal of the Statistical Society of London*, 48(4), 167-235.
- Raushan, Rajesh. (2015). Neighbourhood and Caste in Rural India: Analysing structural Relationship, *Journal of Regional Development and Planning*, 4(2), 13-28.
- Reja, S. and Das, B. (2005). Interstate Out-migration from West Bengal, *Indian Journal of Regional Science*, 45(1), 77-88.
- Rogaly, B.(1998). Worker on the move: Seasonal Migration and Changing Social Relations in Rural India, *Gender and Development*, 6(1), 21-29
- Rogaly, B., Biswas, J. , Coppard, D., Rafique, A., Rana, K., and Sengupta, A. (2001). Seasonal Migration, Social Change and Migration Rights, Lessons From West Bengal, *Economic Political Weekly*, 34(49), 4547-59.
- Sabates-Wheeler, R. (2002). *Gender Equality and the Extension of Social Protection*, ILO, ESS Working Paper
- Sagynbekova, Lira.(2016). *The Impact of International Migration: Process and Contemporary Trends in Kyrgyzstan*, *Spinger International Publishing*, Switzerland.
- Sambodhi Research and Communications Pvt. Ltd. (2012-13). *Impact Assessment of assets Created on Individual Land under Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act*
- Sarap, K. (1991). Collateral and other forms of Guarantee in Rural Credit Markets: Evidence from Eastern India, *Indian Economic Review*, 26(2), 167-88.
- Scoones, I.(1998). *Sustainable Rural Livelihoods: A Framework for Analysis*, IDS Working Paper 72, Brighton, IDS
- Sirja, A. and Shirke, V. Shrinivas. (2012). *An Analysis of the Informal Labour Market in India*, *Confederation of Indian Industry, Economy Matters*, Pp.40-46

- Siddiqui, T. (2003). Migration as a Livelihood Strategy of the Poor: The Bangladesh Case, Refugee and Migratory Movements Research Units, Bangladesh
- Sen, A. (2004). Social Exclusion: Concept Application Security, *Critical Quest*, New Delhi, Pp. Retrieved from
- Shree, Megha.(2012). Female Tribal Migration as Domestic workers: A Study of their Compulsions and Working Conditions, *Man and Development*, 34(1), 45-65
- Singh, S. (2001). Regional Migration in India, *Indian Regional Science*, 33(1), 51-76
- Singh, K.S. (1982). Transformation of Tribal Society- Integration Vs Assimilation”, *Economic and Political Weekly*, 17(34), 1376-1384
- Singh, K.S. (1997). Scheduled Tribe, *Oxford University Press*, New Delhi.
- Sinha, B. (2013). Identifying the Scope for Enhancing Sustainability of Assets Created under MGNREGA, Indian Institute of Forest Management, Bhopal
- Sjaastad, L.A. (1962). The Costs and Returns of Human Migration. *The Journal of Political Economy*, 70(5), 80-93.
- Skeldon, R. (1997). Rural to Urban Migration and its Implication for Poverty Alleviation, *Asia Pacific Population Journal*, 12(1), 3-16.
- Skiligar, P.C. (2002). Social Security for Rural Poor: A Conceptual Framework, *Indian Journal of Public Administration*, 48(3), 22-42
- Society for Regional Research and Analysis. (2010). Migration of Tribal Women: Its Socio-Economic Effects-An In-depth Study of Chhattisgarh, Jharkhand, M.P and Orissa, Planning Commission, Government of India, New Delhi
- Srivastava, R. and Sasikumar, S.K. (2003). An overview of Migration in India, its impact and Key issues, paper presented at the Regional Conference on Migration, Development and Pro-poor Policy Choices in Asia, Bangladesh, Pp.22-24. Retrieved from
- Srivastava, Ravi.S. (2005). India Internal Migration and Poverty Development: A Country Paper, Department of International Development, Pp. Retrieved from
- Srivastava, Ravi.S. (2011). Labour migration in India: Recent trends, Patterns and Policy issues, *Indian Journal of Labour Economics*, 54(33), 411-40. Retrieved from
- Srivastava, Ravi.S. (2013). A Social Protection Floor for India, International Labour Office, DWT for South Asia and ILO Country Office for India, New Delhi,
- Stark, O. and Bloom, D.E. (1985). The New Economics of Labor Migration, *American Economic Review*, 75(2):173-178.

- Stark O. (1984). On Migration and Risk in LDCs Economic Development Cultural Change, 31(1), 191-196.
- Stark, O. and Taylor, J.E. (1989). Relative Deprivation and International Migration, *Demography*, 26(1), 1-14.
- Stark, O. and Taylor, J.E.(1991). Migration incentives, Migration Types: The Role of Relative Deprivation, *Economic Journal*, 101(408), 1163-1178.
- Sundari, S. (2005). Migration as a Livelihood Strategy A Gender Perspective”, *Economic and Political Weekly*, 40(22/23) 2295-2303.
- Sunita, Kumari.(2015). Tribal Migrants Women as Domestic Workers in Mumbai, *Economic and Political Weekly*, 18(16), 84-85.
- Swaminathan, M. (2000). Weakening Welfare: The Public Distribution of Food in India, *Naya Rasta Publisher*, New Delhi
- Taylor, J.E.(1999). The New Economics of Labour Migration and the Role of Remittance in the Migration Process, *International Migration*, 37(1), 63-88.
- Taylor, J.E.(2004). Remittances, Savings, and Development in Migrant-Sending areas, in Massey DS, Taylor, JE (eds) *International Migration Prospects and Policies in a Global Market*, *Oxford University Press*, New York, pp.157-173.
- Thieme, S. (2006). Social Networks and Migration Far West Nepalese Labour Migration in Delhi, Pp. Retrieved from
- Thieme, S. (2010). Sustaining Livelihoods in Multi-local Settings: Possible Theoretical Migration, Methodological and Empirical Perspective. Habilitationsschrift, University of Zurich, Pp. Retrieved from
- Tiwari, R.S an M.S. Goel. (2002). Migration Pattern, Poverty Profile and Consumption pattern: A Study of Unregistered Informal Sector Worker in Citites of Agra and Kanpur in Uttar Pradesh and Puri in Orissa, *Indian Journal Of Labour Economics*,82 (326),311-336
- Todaro, M. (1997). Urbanization, Unemployment and Migration in Africa: Theory and Policy, Working Paper, No.104 Policy Research Division, *Population Council*, New York, Pp. Retrieved from
- Todaro, M.P.(1976). *International Migration in Developing Countries: A Survey*. Geneva International Labor Office, Pp. Retrieved from
- Venkatesh, Anitha and N, Veena.(2014). Mobility Patterns and Gendered Practices among Soliga people in Karnataka, India in Lund, Ragnhild, Kusakabe, Kukak, Panda, Smita Mishra, and Wang, Yunixian(eds.) *Gendered livelihood*

Transformations, Comparing indigenous people in China, India, and Laos,  
Routledge Publication, New York, Pp. Retrieved from  
Yauqb, S. (2002). Chronic Poverty: Scrutinising Estimates Patterns Correlates and  
Explanations, Working Paper No. 21 Chorionic Poverty Centre Manchester.



CENTRE FOR STUDY OF REGIONAL DEVELOPMENT  
SCHOOL OF SOCIAL SCIENCES  
JAWAHARLAL NEHRU UNIVERSITY  
NEW DELHI-110067

**ACCESS TO SOCIAL SECURITY AND MIGRATION AMONG THE SCHEDULED TRIBES IN  
RAYAGADA DISTRICT, ODISHA**

QUESTIONNAIRE SHCHEDULE

**INTRODUCTION**

I Kalu Naik, research scholar at JNU, am doing research on access to social security and migration among the scheduled tribe households in the Rayagada district of Odisha. My research objective is to find out the socio-economic and demographic conditions of tribals in the area and particularly their strategies of risk diversification and the role of public policy in providing social security. I will also look into the migration among the tribals, although the Govt. has provided the various social security schemes which is to reduce the migration and for the welfare of the people.

I request you to cooperate in my study by providing the required information without any hesitation. The information provided will be solely used for research purpose, kept confidential and will not be disclosed for any other purpose.

Thank You

Are you willing/interested to participate in the interview? Yes / No



### Identification of Sample Household

Name of the Block [                    ] Village [                    ] Hamlet [                    ] Household. No [                    ]

Date:.....

Name of Head of Household	Age	Sex	Tribe

### Demographic Details of Sample Household

Name	Sex	Age	Relationship to head (code)	Marital Status (Code)	Main Occupation	Secondary Occupation	Literacy Status (Code)	Educational Level

**CODE**

**Sex:** 1=M, 2=F, 3= Transgender

**Relationship to Head of the Household:** 1=Father, 2= Mother, 3= Son, 4= Daughter, 5= Father-in-law, 6=Mother-in-law, 7= Brother/sister, 8= Brother-in-law/Sister-in-law, 9= Grandchild

**Marital Status:** 1=Unmarried, 2=Married, 3=Widowed, 4=Divorced/Separated, 5 = Abandoned

**Literacy Status:** 1=Illiterate, 2=Literate

**Educational Level:** 1=Illiterate, 2=Literate but below primary, 3=Primary, 4=Middle, 5=Secondary, 6=Higher Secondary, 7=Graduate or higher; 8=Any other specify

**Main Occupation:** 1= Agriculture, 2= Non-agriculture, 3= regular wage/salary person

**Secondary Occupation:** 1= Govt. Job, 2= Pvt. Job, 3= Public Sector 4Agriculture, 3= Petty Business, 4= casual Labour, 5=Any other specify

### Household Amenities of Sample Household

Ownership of House (yes=1/no=2)	Type of House (code)	Dwelling Room (yes=1/no=2)	How many dwelling Room do you have? (Code)	Do you have safe drinking water? facility (yes=1/no=2)	Source of safe drinking water (code)	Location of safe drinking water (code)	Latrine facility (yes=1/no=2)	If no, where do you defect (code)	Do you have bathroom (yes=1/no=2)	Do you have kitchen facility (yes=1/no=2)	f no, where do you bath (code)	Which fuel do you mainly use to cook food (code)	Do you have lighting facility (code)	What is main source of lighting (code)

### Housing Assets of Sample Household

Which of the following assets do you possess?									
Items	Nos.	Value	Electronic Items	Nos.	Value	Livestock Items	Nos.	Value	Comments
Vehicle			Radio/Transistor			Hen			
Bullock			Refrigerator			Goat			
Cart			Cooler			Duck			
Moped/2			Ceiling Fan			Pig			
Wheeler			Table Fan			Sheep			
Auto			Grinder			Cow			
Jeep			TV/DVD			Buffalo			
Tiller			Dish TV			Ox			
Tractor			Mobile			Trees			
Pump Set			Telephone			Bamboo Groves			
Bio-gas			Laptop/Desktop			Fruit Trees			
Solar Plate			Internet						
Hand pump			Other Electric Appliance						

**CODE**

**Ownership of House:** 1=Owned, 2= Rented, 3=Govt.owned, 4= Any other specify

**Type of House:** 1= Kaccha/thatched, 2= Pacca/concrete, 3= Semi-Pacca, 4= Any other specify

**Dwelling Room:** 1= One, 2= two, 3= three, 4= more than three

**Sources of Drinking water:** 1=Tube well/tape, 2=spring, 3=canal/ River, 4= covered well, 5=tank/ pond, 6= Any other specify

**Location of Drinking water:** 1=Near premises by public, 2= within premises by Private, 3= away from premises by public

**Latrine facility:** 1=Own, 2=community, 3=others latrine, 4= open space

**Use to cook food:** 1=Fire wood, 2= crop residue, 3=cow dung cake, 4=coal/ charcoal, 5=Kerosene, 6=LPG, 7= Electricity, 8= Bio-gas, 9= Any other specify

**Location of Kitchen:** 1= Inside house, 2=outside house, 3=Any other specify

**Sources of Lighting:** 1=Electricity, 2= Kerosene, 3=Solar Energy, 4=Any other specify

**Land Characteristics of Sample Household**

	Do You possess land? (1=yes/2=no) [     ]										
	If 1 in the above item then;										
Land Type (Code)	Owned and self-cultivated		Leased in		Leased out		Mortgaged in		Mortgaged out		Total Operated Area
	Area	Source of irrigation	Area	Source of irrigation	Area	Source of irrigation	Area	Source of irrigation	Area	Source of irrigation	

**CODE**

**Land Type:** 1= fertile land, 2= barren land, 3= others

**Area:** 1= less than 1 acre, 2 = 2 acre, 3= more than 5 acre

**Sources of Irrigation:** 1= Tank/pond, 2= Bore well, 3=Lake, 4= Springs/canal, 5= Any other specify

### Cropping Pattern of Sample Household

Crop No	Crops (code)	Variety (code)	Tenurial status (Owned/Leased/Mortgaged) (Code)	Area	Production (code)	Annual Income from cultivation crop wise (code)	Do you have any crop insurance (yes=1/no=2)	If yes, who provides the insurance? (code)

**CODE**

**Crops:** 1=Paddy, 2=Moong/pulses, 3=Turmeric, 4= Groundnut, 5=Ginger, 6=Cotton,7=vegetable, 8= Any others specify

**Variety:** 1=HYV seeds, 2= Traditional seeds, 3= others

**Tenurial Status:** 1= Owned, 2= Leased, 3= Mortgaged, 4= Any others specify

**Area:** 1= less than 1 acre, 2 = 2 acre, 3= more than 5 acre

**Insurance Agency:** 1=Bank, 2= Cooperative society, 3=NABARD, 4= NGO, 5= Any others specify

### Health Status of Sample Household

Access of the Primary Health Facility (yes=1/no=2)	What type of facility available (code)	Do you have Health Insurance (yes=1/no=2)	if yes, what is the amount	Who is providing the medical insurance	Do you have saving practice (yes=1/no=2)	If yes, how much do you save in month (RS.)	Where do you save	Do your family borrowed money(1=yes/2=no)	If yes, source of money lending	How much of the loan is repaid back	Rate of interest (Rs.)	Purpose of borrowing money

### Social Security Schemes of Sample Household Perception of Non-Access Household

1. Are you aware about any social security schemes? Yes=1/no=2

2. Do you have Job card? Yes=1/no=2

3. If no, what is the problem of non-accessing of social security scheme?

1. Not enrolled yet  2. Political Nexus with PRI members  3. Excluded by Govt.  4. Any Other Reason (specify)

4. If you are not getting social security scheme, then what would you do?

1. Working in own field  2. Working in the village  3. Working as manual labour in village  4. Working in construction company  5. Govt. Job holder  6. Pvt.Job/ Business  7. Migrate to nearby city/state  8. Any other (specify)

5. Do you think not accessing of social security schemes causing any of the following?

1. Chronic Poverty  2. Unemployment  3. Malnutrition  4. Deprivation from Basic rights  5. Unhealthy Conditions  6. Migration  7. Any other (Specify)

### Perception of Access of Social Security

1. Are you aware about the MGNREGA? Yes=1/no=2

2. If yes, how have you come to know?

1. Notice Board displayed in Gram Panchayat  2. Gram Shabha  3. Drum Beating by Gram Panchayat   
4. Relatives/ Neighbor  5. Media  6. Any other (Specify)

3. Are you working under this Scheme? Yes=1/no=2

4. If yes, what is reason?

1. Works easily available at locality  2. Better Wage  3. Employment Opportunity  4. Any other specify

5. If no, what is reason?

1. Delay of payment  2. Low wage rate  3. Works not satisfactory  4. Availability of other Job   
5. Any other Reason (Specify)

6. How many days have you worked under the MGNREGA in last year?

1. Less than 30 days  2. More than 45 days  3. Above 50 days  4. Not worked

7. What is wage rate under this scheme?

1. Rs. 90/-  2. Rs. 120/-  3. Rs. 170/-  4. Above Rs. 170/-  5. Any other specify

8. Are you getting unemployment allowance as per Govt. Guideline? Yes=1/no=2

9. if yes, how much you get per day?

1. Rs. 90/-  2. Rs. 120/-  3. Rs. 170/-  4. Above Rs. 170/-

10. What is the frequency of getting wage?

1. Regularly  2. Weekly  3. Fortnight  4. Monthly  5. Once in a two month

11. How do you get wage?

1. Cash by hand  2. Bank  3. Post Office  4. Adhara card  5. Any other specify

**12. How do you invest after getting wage?**

1. Saving in Bank  2. Household purpose  3. Festival/ Entrainment purpose  4. Health

**13. How many members are getting benefit under this scheme?**

1. Two member  2. Three member  3. Four member  4. One member

**14. What is your perception about MGNREGA schemes?**

1. Guaranteed Employment  2. Strengthen Livelihood  3. Sustainable Development  4. Independent Income

**15. Where did you get information about OTELP?**

1. OTELP office in village  2. ITDA office  3. NGO/CBO  4. Public Announcement   
5. Any Other

**16. What kind of food security have you received by OTELP?**

1. Land and water  2. Agriculture and Horticulture  3. Livestock  4. Rural Finance  5. Any other specify

**17. How many members are getting benefit under this scheme?**

1. Two member  2. Three member  3. Four member  4. One member

**18. Are you still a beneficiary? Yes=1/no=2**

**19. If yes, what kind of benefit you gets from the scheme?**

1. Monetary help  2. Agricultural equipment  3. Training and capacity building  4. Irrigation facilities   
5. Any other

**20. How do you feel about the benefits of the schemes for sustaining of livelihood?**

1. Sufficient  2. Somewhat sufficient  3. Not sufficient  4. Can't say

**21. If not happy, what do you think should be incorporated?**

1. Enhance monetary help  2. Marketing facilities  3. Any other specify

**22. Does it provide any sustainable livelihood for security purpose? Yes=1/no=2**

**23. If yes, what kind of food security have you received by OTELP?**

1. Minor Irrigation  2. HYV seeds and Fertilizer  3. Livestock rearing  4. Financing for Business   
5. Others specify

**24. What kind of ration card use for accessing PDS?**

1. BPL card  2. AAY card  3. APL  4. PLO  5. ANP

**25. What are the items you get under PDS?**

1. Rice/wheat/Kerosene/ Sugar  2. Wheat/ Edible oil/ Soft Coke  3. Others specify

**26. Do you get monthly ration regularly? Yes/no**

**27. If yes, how much you pay for per 1 Kg ration?**

1. Rs.1/-  2. Rs. 5/-  3. Rs. 10/-  4. Rs. More than Rs. 10/-

**28. Do you get per head ration in your family according to Govt. norms?**

1. 35 Kg.  2. 25 Kg  3. 15 Kg  4. 10 Kg

**29. Is it sufficient nutritional food for your family? Yes=1/no=2**

**30. If No, how much do you purchase from outside?**

1. More than 30 Kg  2. 20 Kg  3. 10 Kg  4. 5 Kg



**31. Is that ration sufficient for full month? Yes=1/no=2**

**32. If no, where do you buy the ration?**

1. Govt. retail shops  2. Pvt. Shops  3. Others specify

**33. What kinds of facilities are provided by Govt. under OLM?**

1. Training for skill Development  2. Loan for livestock rearing  3. Financial support for micro invest plan   
4. Others specify

**34. Are they providing any skill development programme under OLM? Yes/no**

**35. If yes, what kind of skill development programme?**

1. Broom making  2. Turmeric collection  3. Collection of minor forest product  4. Others specify

**36. How do you get financial help through this scheme?**

1. Govt. Agency  2. Pvt. agency  3. Others specify

**37. Have you received any help from OLM ? Yes=1/no=2**

**38. If yes, how does it enhance your income to stay back at origin?**

1. Employment throughout the year  2. Better Income  3. Decent living conditions  4. Others specify

### Migration Status of the Family Members

Who have migrated out in your family (code)	If yes, which place (code)	What is nature of work (Code)	What is reason of Migration (code)	Do you migrate during lean season (yes=1/ no=2)	If yes, what is Reason (code)	Have you ever migrate after the introduction of social security schemes (yes=1/ no=2)	If no, Why (code)	If yes, why (code)
Sl No.	Name of migrants	Sex (code)	Age	Marital Status (code)	Education level (code)	Where do migrate(code)	Purpose	Comments

**CODE**

**Migration with family:** Spouse=1, 2= Relatives=2, 3=Friends, 4= others specify, **Place of migration:** 1= Within District, 2= Near District 3= Near state, 4= others specify  
**Reason of migration:** 1=Employment, 2= better wage 3= Marriage, 4= Higher Education, 5= Inadequate food security,6= Landlessness and displacement, 7= Indebtedness, 8= Others, **Nature of Work:** 1=Manual labour 2=construction work, 3=manufacturing company,4=service sector, 5= Education, 6= others specify, **Reason of Lean season:** 1= lack of employment, 2= Poor agriculture Production, 3= Ineffective of Govt. Scheme in villages, 4= Indebtedness ,5= others specify, **Introduction of Schemes:** 1= Improper function of Govt. schemes, 2= Delay of payment, 3= low wage rate,4=No guaranteed employment, 5= others specify

### Social Networking of Migrants of sample household

Who influenced you to migrate (code)	How long you have migrated out (code)	Do you migrate now with your relatives (yes=1/no=2)	Do you have any family member migrated out before you (code)	Where have you migrate (code)	What was the occupation before (code)	What is the occupation after migration (code)	Do you have any relative here (yes=1/no=2)	Have you helped people from your region/locality migrate to this place (code)	Have you helped people from your region/locality migrate to this place? (1=Yes/no=2)	Helping in what way (code)

#### CODE

**Family Relation:** 1=Spouse, 2= Relatives, 3=friends, 4= villagers, 5= maternal uncle, 6= others specify, **Migration Place:** 1= Within District, 2= Near District 3= other state, 4= others specify, **Occupation before/ After:** 1= agriculture labour, 2= manual labour, 3= manufacture company, 4= service/Education, 5= construction, 6=cultivator/plantation, 7= Artisan/craft, 8= others specify, **Helping Relatives:** 1= monetary help 2=help them getting job, 3=arranging their accommodation, 4=other, specify

### Working and Living Condition of Migrants

Do you have long-term contract with company or do you work on daily basis? (code)	How many hours do you work per day (code)	How many days do you work per week? (Code)	How often do you receive your wages? (code)	What is your current wages in destination per day? (code)	What is current wage per day in village? (code)	How did you find current job? (code)	Where do you stay there? (code)	Do you stay in your own arrangement or provided by company?	How much do you spend for housing? (Rs.) (Code)
Does it have safe drinking water facility? (yes=1/no=2)	Do you save money (yes=1/no=2)	If yes, where do you save? (code)	Do you send money to family (yes=1/no=2)	How do you send money to family (code)	Do get any social security benefit a destination? (yes=1/no=2)	Do you get any ration at destination (yes=1/no=2)	Do you contact your family while at destination (yes=1/no=2)	How do you contact them (code)	Have you ever ill there in last 6 month (yes=1/no=2)
									If yes, where did seek treatment (code)

**CODE**

**Term & condition work:** 1=Contract, 2= Daily basis, 3= others specify, **Work per week:** 1= 7days, 2= 6 days, 3= 5 days, **Work per hour:** 1= 12 hours, 2= 8 hours, 3= 10 hours, 4= others specify, **Wages/ Salaries:** 1= Daily, 2= weekly, 3=monthly, 4= fortnight, 5= others specify, **Rate of wages:** 1= more than Rs.200/-, 2= more than Rs.300/-, 3= Rs.500/-, 4= others specify, **Find of Job:** 1= through the spouse, 2= friends, 3= through the contractor, 4= others specify, **Staying:** 1= With other workers, 2=With Friends,,3= with family,4= others specify, **Arrangement of House:** 1= by own , 2= by company,3= others specify, **Mode of saving:** 1= Bank/post, 2= LIC/ other policies,3=Pvt. financial institution/chit fund, 4=Relatives/Friend5= others specify, **Contact with family:** 1= By post, 2=Mobile/telephone,3= oral message by friend,4= others specify, **Seeking treatment:** 1=your self,2= with friend, 3=relatives,4= Employer.

**Changes after Migration**

Who is major earner of your family (code)	Is your family facing problem in your absence? (yes=1/no=2)	What is your role for the development of your family (code)	After your work here what kind of changes have you observed in your family (code)	Has migration helped you to improve your standard of living? (code)	In your absence, is your family facing problems? (code)	Have you achieved anything by migrating(yes=1/no=2)	Respect in family/comm unity	
							Handling of monetary transaction	
							Any other	

**CODE**

**Major Earner of family:** 1= Father, 2= Mother, 3= Son/ daughter, 4= yourself, 5= others specify, **Role for Family:** 1= Better, 2= worst, 3= moderate, **Standard of living:** 1= Living condition, 2=Assets and amenities, 3= Dressing pattern, 4= Health and Insurance, 5= Education, 6= Any other specify, **Achieved status:** 1= same 2=improved 3= deteriorated, 4= others specify,

If you would not have access to the benefit, what would have happened to you ?  
How have you arranged money for the migration?