

**RURAL MALE OUT-MIGRATION: A CASE STUDY
OF CONSTRUCTION WORKERS OF MALDA
DISTRICT, WEST BENGAL**

*Thesis submitted to Jawaharlal Nehru University
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DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

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DECLARATION

I, MD EMDADUL HOQUE, hereby declare that the thesis entitled “RURAL MALE OUT-MIGRATION: A CASE STUDY OF CONSTRUCTION WORKERS OF MALDA DISTRICT, WEST BENGAL ” submitted by me for the award of the degree of DOCTER OF PHILOSOPHY is my bonafide work and that it has not been submitted so for in part or in full, for any degree or diploma of this university or any other university.

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I own the responsibility for all the errors and omissions that might have in this work.

Date 20 July 2018
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MD EMDADUL HOQUE

DEDICATED
TO
MY LOVING FAMILY

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Chapter-1

Migration is an indispensable part of human civilisation and it has been one of the most dynamic processes of activities from the very beginning of human life. Migration which is defined as “a form of spatial mobility of population involving a permanent change of residence,” is a very complex social process by United Nations (1958). Migration is barometer of changing socio-economic and political conditions at the national and international levels. It is associated with a number of various economic, demographic, social and political factors. A number of theories and models like Ravenstein’s (1885) “The Laws of Migration, Stouffer’s (1940) “Model of Intervening Obstacles Opportunities”, Lee’s (1966) “ A Theory of Migration” and many micro studies has been done to understand the factors associated with the process of migration in the field of migration studies. Ravenstein (1889) observed that migrants move from areas of low opportunity to areas of high opportunity. Lewis model (1954) also finds that the people in rural areas find hard to get employment and this surplus labour force tend to migrate to urban areas for better job opportunities. In other studies income maximisation is considered as one of the motive for migration. In this regard, mention of Todaro (1969) model is important as it states economic rationalisation for migration and showed that, the discounted wage differential between the place of origin and place of destination motivate people to migrate. The regional inequality within a country also acts as an accelerator of migration. It is also an indicator of wide disparities of economic and social conditions between the place of origin and destination. It is considered as a livelihood strategy for the poor people of rural areas. Rural people migrate towards the urban areas in order to upgrade the living standards and to reach better livelihood opportunities. There are many factors that motivate the people to out-migration. Economic reasons are considered as one most important reason for male out-migration. The factor like lack of employment opportunities in the rural areas motivate the people to migrate in urban areas. In rural areas “sluggish agricultural growth and limited development of the rural non-farm sector raise the incidence of rural poverty, unemployment and under employment. The highest productive activities are located in urban areas-people from rural areas move towards town or cities with hope to grab diversified livelihood opportunities” Bose (1961). On the other hand, Migration primarily occurs due to inequality in regional development. Large country like India, regional disparity among

the states prevailed, even within the state also. Hence, it enforces to migration from one state to another state or within the state boundary (Sahu and Das, 2008).

Out migration is generally defined as the movement of people from the one place to another place because of different reasons. According to NSSO an “*out migrant is defined as any for member of a household who left the household anytime in the past, for stay outside village/town considered as out migrants provided he/ she was alive on the date of survey*”. Out migration is thought as an indicator to measure the development of socio-economic conditions of the place of origin of the migrants. It is considered as a very important for both the place of destination and place of origin of migrants. Many studies find out that out migration is mostly influenced by pattern of development and social structure. “Uneven development is considered as the main reason for migration along with factors like landholding system, poverty, lack of employment opportunities, large family size and natural calamities. The high land man ratio, caste system, lawlessness and exploitation, at the native place speed up break down of traditional socio-economic relations in the rural areas and people decide to migrate to prosperous areas in search of better employment and income” (Singh etc.al, 2011).The large number of migrants from rural areas are involved in traditional and informal sectors of urban economy. Census is the mains source for data of migration in India but NSSO-64th round collected separate data on out migration for the first time in 64th round survey. According to 64th round of NSSO, 46 percents of male out migrate to other states from rural areas while 47 percents male migrate to within state boundary. Only 7.2 percent migrants cross the national boundary and reach to another country. This percents are changed in case of female migration from rural areas. A large portion (89 percents) of rural female migrates within the state boundary whereas more than ten percents migrants cross the state boundary. According to census in India, “a person would be considered a migrant by place of residence, if he/she had last resided at a place other than his/her place of enumeration”. The data on migration by place of last residence in India as per Census 2001 shows that total number of migrants was 314.4 million. Employment related reason is predominant to male out migration whereas female migrated because of marriage related reason. Mukherjee (2001), “the more an individual is poor, landless and socio-economically deprived, the greater the chance of his migration from rural to urban areas”. Deshingkar and Akhter (2006) mentioned that in India the major portion of migrants are involved in informal and unorganised sector of economy.

Construction sector is considered as one of the fast growing sectors in Indian economy and it becomes one of the rapid blooming and expanding sector from last few decades. Urbanisation rate is also growing that influence the construction sector in many metropolitan cities of India. According to National Sample Industry Organisation, “growth of employment in this sector is very significant and noticeable”. It becomes a great labour absorbing sector of Indian economy. There are two process of labour recruitment in this sector: one recruitment process is recruitment of labour through the sub contractor or middle main and another process is picking up the labour from the chocks. It becomes a very difficult task the direct recruitment of labour by the contractor. On the other hand, it is also quite difficult to search work for the rural migrants in urban areas. Middleman and jamalder have great role to provide the labour in construction sites. The most of the time, they recruited the workers from their own village, district and state. Middlemen work for both side workers and the company. They get some charges from the company for supplying the labour. Groups of workers are directly transported to the worksites. Mainly labour is recruited in lower wage from the rural areas where the cost of labour is lower. The migrants before they move out the long distance interstate migration, they do the work in the state and local level. The migration stream from Bengal to Delhi was developed for a long time but recently study shows that a new migration stream has been developed from East India, North India and North East India. People migrated to Southern states like Kerala, Karnataka etc. Most of the migrants engaged in construction sector, casual wage labour, carpenters, plumber, electrician etc. A large no of migrants move to Delhi and southern states to do the work in construction sectors that provides the better job opportunity and higher wage rate than home state.

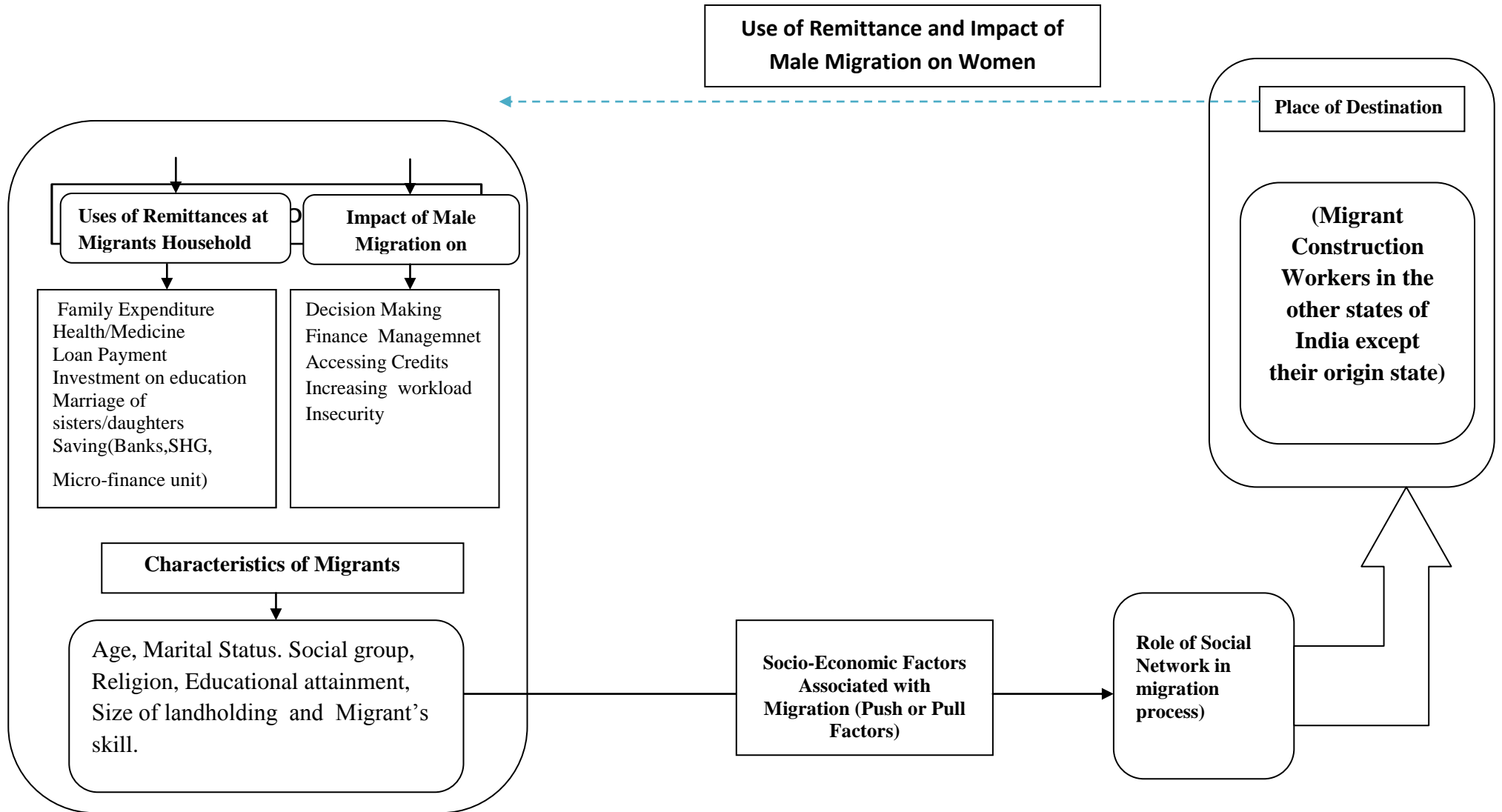
1.1 Statement of the Problem

The factor like unequal regional development and investment lead into out migration from rural areas in many developing countries. “The lack of industrial development in rural areas, limited market place, poor infrastructure, rural poverty, low agricultural income & productivity and under-employment influence the rural population to out migrate to other areas which offer better employment opportunities and wages” (Bose,1961). The high population density resulting fragmentation of land has been considered as an important reason for increasing rural male out-migration. Regional disparities are considered as important catalyst force of migration. There are 29 states

and 7 union territories in India and socio-economic development level is also different not only states boundary but also within state boundary. So, it is evident that migration would be held within and beyond the state boundary. India liberalize the economic policy for development that increasing the export oriented growth through removing of licensing and government control and inspire the private participation for efficiency and competition. The new impulse would expand economy and the job opportunities are being increased. These factors increase the employment opportunities in urban areas and accelerate rural to urban migration.

The Malda district economy is primarily rural where livelihood opportunities depend on the agriculture. There are some agriculture related industry such as mango pickle making industry, silk industry and jute industry. There is no large industry without some small industries in the district which have important role to the district economy. The most important industries are silk and tobacco industry. There are limited opportunities to expand base of economy of the district because of the high population density and the low availability of agriculture cultivable land. Malda is the second lowest HDI district in the state after Purulia. The literacy level is very low that clearly indicate the lower stage of human development. Lack of infrastructural development that make a challenge the higher population growth in the district. Rural poverty, lack of employment opportunities, seasonal unemployment, higher population pressure, low agricultural productivity, low industrial development, high population density and flood are important push factors of rural male labour migration from Malda district. The growth pull effect promises higher level of growth due to increasing public and private investment and wage differentials are influencing pull factors at the destination. After adapting the open economic policy of liberalisation and globalisation in India, construction sector becomes one of the booming sectors in our country. A large number government and private agencies are investing in this sector. A large numbers of both skilled and unskilled labour are required in that sector. The demand of workers is met by the rural male labourer for both skilled and unskilled workers. Unemployment, low wage rate, lack of employment opportunities lead to out-migration of rural labour, especially male labour. Therefore, a study of rural male labour out-migration from Malda district in particular is desirable. This study an attempt to deal with the background characteristics of construction workers, responsible factors associated with their out migration, role of social networks, use of remittances at household and impact of male out migration on women left behind at the place of origin.

1.2 Conceptual Framework of Rural Male Out-Migration of Construction Workers



1.3 Research Questions

- Which socio-economic and demographic background, the large scale migration of construction workers occur from Malda district to others Indian state?
- Why do they migrate beyond the state boundaries?
- How do they manage finance to meet the cost and establish linkages with the place of destination?
- In what purpose, the migrant's household use the sending remittances by the migrants?
- What are the impacts of male out migration on women left behind at the place of origin?

1.4 Objectives

The objectives of research for this study to understand the rural male construction labour out-migration are as follows.

- To understand the socio-economic and demographic (education level, religion, social group, size of land holding, age group, marital status, family size etc.) characteristics of male out migration of construction workers from Malda to others state.
- To examine the factors responsible for the development of large scale migration of male construction workers from Malda.
- To understand the role of social network (Kinship/caste/co-villagers/Middlemen) to arrange the migration process of construction workers at local level.
- To examine the frequency, volume, use (consumption, education for children, construction of house, for agricultural input, marriage daughter/sister, health etc. purposes) of remittances at household level at the place of origin.
- To assess the impact of male out-migration on women left behind to the household particular in the context of nuclear family (family responsibility, taking decision, manage the finance of remittances, accessing credit etc.).

1.5 Database

For the present study both the primary and secondary data has been used.

Primary Data: The primary data is collected through sample survey with the help of structured, pre-coded schedule. The individual based sample survey of migrant and non-migrants have been done in place of origin of migrants. The whole analysis of the present study is based on the primary data.

Secondary Data

- **Secondary Data:** The present study also use the following source of secondary data especially for the pre-text set up of the study.
 - Census of India, D-series, 2001.
 - Census of India, paper 2 of 2, population provisional tables, 2011.
 - National Sample Survey Organisation (64th Round), 2007-08.
 - Economic Survey Report, 2011-12.
 - Various Newspaper Reports.

1.6 Methodology

1.6 (a) Significance of the Study

West Bengal has the fourth position in term of population after Utter Pradesh, Maharashtra and Bihar in India. It is located in the eastern part of India whereas it is extended to the Bay of Bengal in the south. Northern part of state is bounded by the neighbouring countries of Bhutan and Nepal and state of Sikkim. The country like the Bangladesh and state of Assam make boundary in the eastern part whereas the western part of the state is bordered by the states of Orissa Jharkhand, Bihar. Malda is one of the backward district of state among the twenty three districts of West Bengal whereas it is extended over an area of 3733 square kilometres that share is 4.2 percent of the total land mass of West Bengal. It located between latitudes of 24°40'20" N to 25°32'8" N and longitudes 87°45'50" E to 88°28'10" E. The district southern part is bordered by the district of Murshidabad across the river the Ganga while eastern part of district is bordered by the neighbouring country of Bangladesh and district of Dakshin Dinajpur to east and north east. On the other hand, Utter Dinajpur districts makes boundary to its

north while the neighbouring state of Bihar and Jharkhand across the Ganga bordered to southwest part of Malda.

There are three broad physiographic sub regions within Malda district. The region of north Bengal is formed by the old mature alluvium is known as Barendari but presently is well known as Barind. This region is comprised with the ancient alluvial humps which are remnants parts of the old floodplains that remained subsequently unaffected by overflow and renewed silting. The eastern and north eastern barind tract has been extended into parts of North and South Dinajpur and with adjoining areas of neighbouring country Bangladesh. It formed an upland which is raising to nearly 40 metres elevations of above sea level in its highest portion. The Barind area is extended over the north and south Dinajpur and Malda districts in North Bengal that is spreading over 1621sq.km. The soils of these barind regions are hard salty reddish clays that have developed due to the accumulation of sesquioxides. Organic residues contains in this soil is high while organic carbon contain is low and modest fertile type of soil. On the other hand percolation capacity of barind soil is low.

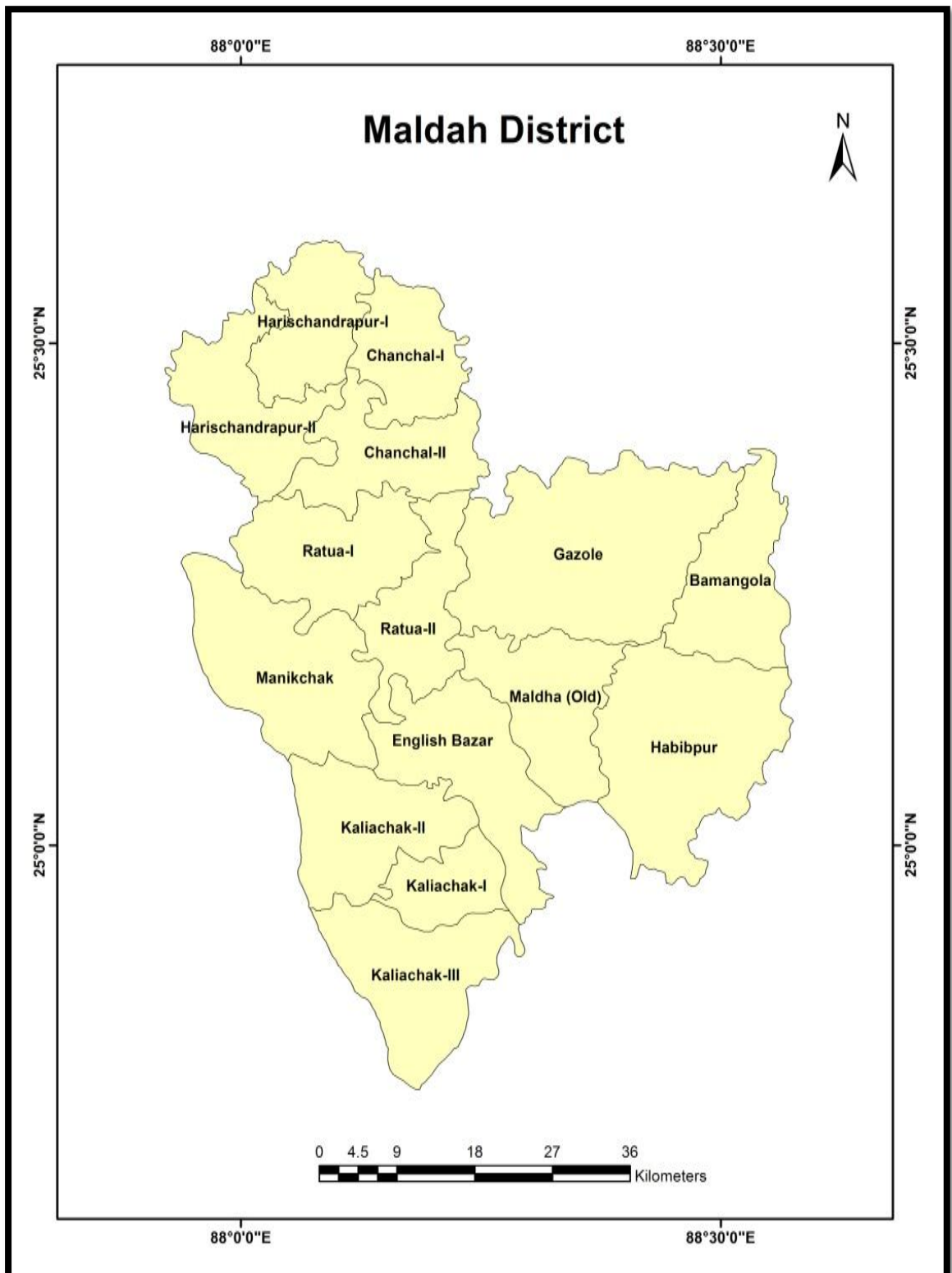
The remainder part of the district undercover by the tract of flat lowland. It forms the local catchments area of the Ganga and Mahananda. This lowland tract which slopes is gradually declined from the north to south, is divided into two physiographic regions are known as the Diara and the Tal. The Tal has been comprised with the block of Manikchak, Englishbazar and three blocks of Kaliachak within the district whereas the Diara is transitional zone between the higher land of barind and low land Tal while drainage condition of Diara is well drainage compare to the Tal. The Tal is mostly formed by the bog lands in many marshy pockets around rudimentary inland drainages. Tal is spread with innumerable oxbow lakes, marshes and bills.

Different pattern of rainfall has been observed along with the district of Malda. Generally it is found that annual rainfall increases from southern to northern parts to the district. Physiographic of the district influence the spatial distribution of rainfall in the district. The average rainfall of district is 140 c.m annually though the rainfall also increases due to monsoon depression over the district during the rainy season. Flood frequently occurs during the rainy season in lower part of the district while opposite seen is observed during the summer season when water level reached the lower level and make a problem of water shortage.

According to census data of 2011, it has a population of 39, 97,970 which amounts to 4.3 percent of total population of West Bengal. The demographic profile clearly indicates that it is one of the backward district of West Bengal. The population growth rate is also high whereas it has been noticed that Malda has the eleventh position in the West Bengal. The population density becomes 1071 from 881 per sq. k.m that is higher than the state average. Another important fact is that Malda district has second highest decadal growth rate in the state though population growth rate has been declined in 2011 census. In case of sharing of child population (0-6 years), it has the second highest in the West Bengal although the child population decline from 19.46 percent to 14.76 percent. An interesting point is that state sex ratio has been increased but the district sex ratio decreased from 948 to 944.

The backwardness of Malda district is evident from the predominantly of a rural district which had urban areas extended over only 25.33 percent of the total residing in it in 2001 which was least among the all districts of West Bengal. According to census data 2011, due to amalgamation of some rural areas with urban areas and increase in number of previously village as census town, the percentage share of urban population has nearly doubled 13.8 percentages which improve twelfth ranks among nineteen districts. Another aspect of backwardness of Malda district has been its literacy rate which has been remained for below the overall literacy of the state. The literacy rate of Malda district is second lowest among the nineteen districts of West Bengal after Utter Dinajpur though there has been improvement from 50.28 percents in 2001 to 62.71 percents in 2011, though it remained in the second position among the rest of districts of state. A large number people engaged as agricultural labourers in rural areas. Low productivity, low wage rate, seasonal unemployment, lack of employment opportunities in industrial sector are important push factors of rural male out-migration from Malda district. It is reported from the informants that at least one member of household migrated to Kerala, Delhi, Mumbai, Bangalore, Chennai, Goa and Hyderabad for employment related reasons. Every year more than 3 lakhs of people migrate to other states to try their luck. Most of them are construction workers (Voice of Malda, 2012).It is very interesting matter to find characteristics of rural male out-migrants, socio-economic factors associated with process of migration and use of remittances, impact of male out migration on women left behind the place of origin of the migrant.

Map 1.1 Study Area



1.6 (b) Sample Design: This study is based on the field survey and for that simple random survey method has been adopted for selection of village and household for collection of data.

I. Selection of Village:

There are three distinct characteristics of physiographic division of Malda district i.e. Barind, Tal and Diara whereas for administrative purposes, it has consisted with 15 blocks. Barind region of this district is more backward than others two region. Pilot survey was carried out in two villages 16 mile in Kaliachak-3 and Mohitharpur in Chachal-1. Survey showed that a large numbers of male out-migrated from these two villages. They are employed in the construction sector in the other states in India. Rural male labour out-migration rate is also higher from that region. Two blocks Kaliachak-3 and Harishchandrapur-1 have been selected for study purpose. Three villages 16 mile, Bhagwanpur and Shib Pur from Kaliachack-3 and Bhawanipur, Mahendra Pur and Shoktal from Harischandra Pur-1 have been selected. In case of village selection, distance from the nearest urban centre would be considered viz within 5, 5-10 kms. distance beyond the 10kms. Literacy rate has been considered as important criteria for village selection. Muslim, SCs and STs Population concentrated village would be given higher priority for village selection because they are more backwards and likely to more migrate.

II. Selection of Household:

After listing of the village, from each selected village 50 migrants household and 25 non-migrant households have been selected. Migrant and non-migrant households would be selected from each village by random sampling method. Total sample size would be 450 households. For selection of household preliminary survey of households was conducted. Migrant's household have been selected randomly. However, it is likely to be mentioned that the information regarding household characteristics are taken for migrant's and non-migrants households. For selection of household preliminary survey of households would be conducted. From each selected village 50 migrant's and 25 non-migrant's household would be selected by simple random sampling method. Total sample size would be 450 households from six villages.

1. Migrant Household:

- Household in which at least one member is staying out for work (at least 1 years), migrants return back to home but they have intention to go out after some time.

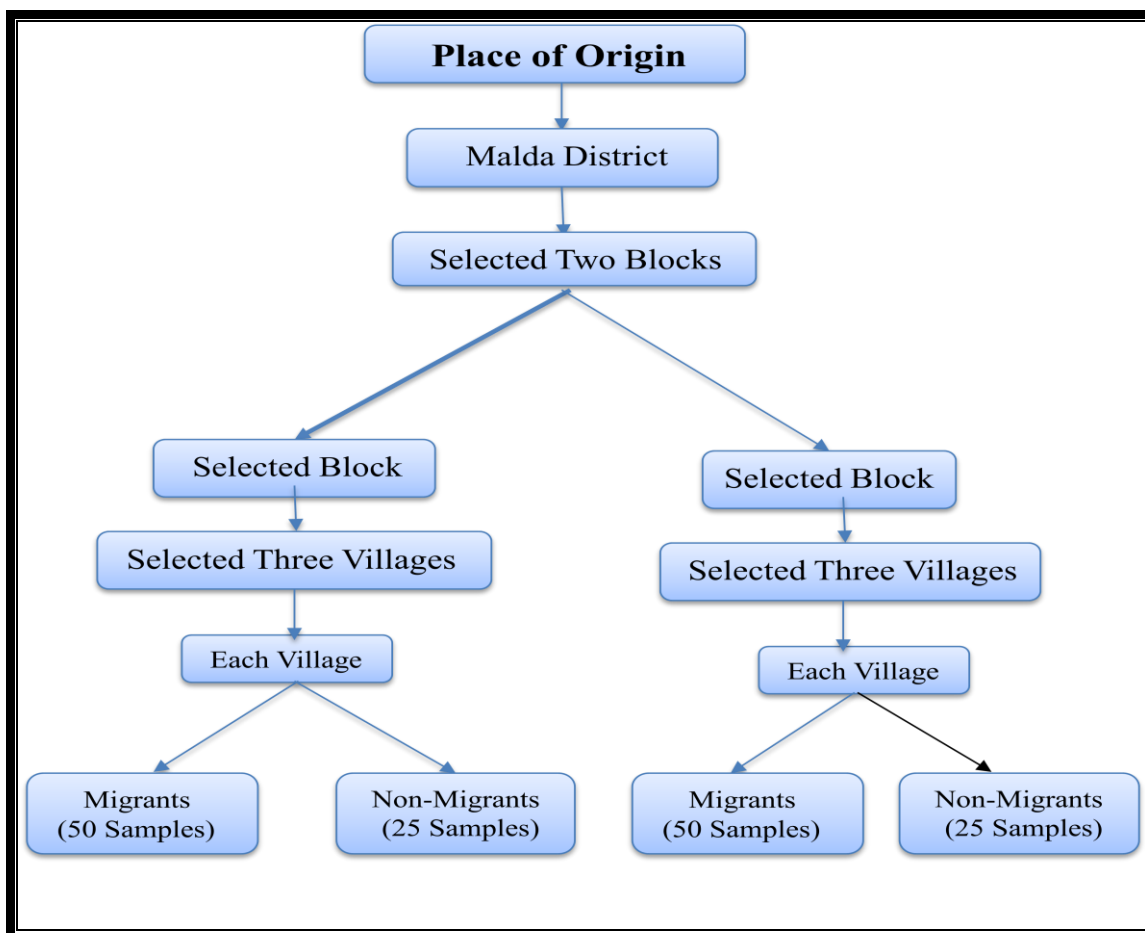
2. Non-Migrant Household:

- No member of household has gone for work or never intent to go for working purpose (till the date of survey) is considered as non migrants household.
- 25 Non-Migrant's households would be selected from same village of migrant's Household.
- Total 150 households would be selected from selected six villages of migrant's household.
- In case of selection of non-migrant's household, house listing would be done base on the similar criteria and same, size of landholding, social group, religion to that of migrant's household from selected villages.

3. Sample of the Study:

- Household survey would be done with presence of migrant
- The respondent of survey is migrant own self during the visit home at the time of festivals and frequent visit on occasions at the place of origin.

Fig.1.2: Process of Sample Selection



1.7 Statistical Techniques and Tools:

In the present study various statistical techniques have been used for meet objectives of the study.

1. Simple statistical technique like rate and percentage has been used to meet the objectives of study.
2. Cross tabulation and Compare means techniques have been used to understand the average, means and value of different variables across the different categories.
3. **Multiple Response Technique** has been applied in many occasions in this present study. This technique generally used when a survey questions have many responses. The execution of these techniques has been done by using SPSS software. In the present study, to identify the reasons associated with migration and non-migration, uses of

remittance etc. this technique has been used as the sample migrants often cited more than one reasons.

4. Logistic Regression The bi-variate analysis is not sufficient to give conclusive information about what are the factors associated with rural male out migration because it depicts only the one to one relationship between two variables, where as in reality hosts of factors play their role simultaneously in the processes of temporary migration. So, logistic regression has been applied in this analysis. To show the probability of migration being migrants, logistic regression has been done. In this logistic regression migrant status has been taken as a dependent variables which converted into binary variables i.e. migrant=1 and non-migrant=0. Age groups, marital status, educational status (Illiterate, primary, secondary, higher secondary), number adult ale member, size of household small, medium, and large), type of household (nuclear, joint family and extended joint family) and size of landholding is taken as explanatory variables

The logistic regression can be expressed by the following equation form:

$$Li = \left[\frac{Pi}{1-Pi} \right] = \beta^{\circ} + \beta 1 \text{ Education status} + \beta 2 \text{ Social groups} + \beta 3 \text{ Religion} + \beta 4 \text{ Age groups} + \beta 5 \text{ Marital status} + \beta 6 \text{ Sex} + \beta 6 \text{ Size of landholding} + \beta 7 \text{ Rural MPCE} + \beta 8 \text{ Urban MPCE} + \beta 8 \text{ Place of residence} + ui.$$

Where, Pi is the probability of temporary migration takes place

1-Pi is otherwise.

β° is the constant term,

$\beta 1$ to $\beta 8$ is the regression coefficient associated with the independent variables and ui is error term

5. Test of ANOVA: F test of ANOVA has been done to understand categorical means value of remittances sending by the migrants at the place of origin. Amount of remittance sending by migrants per month is dependent variable whereas daily income, age, educational level, marital status, status of skill is the independent variables. R square value indicates the fitness of model to the study while F test is variation between sample means/variations within the means. Every variable has the different value in the model summery. R square has total variation in the dependent variable; size of remittances can be explained by the independent variables.

6. Index is made to measure or understand the status of women of nuclear household the following technique which has been used by Desai and Banarjee (2008) to calculate to make the different indices.

$$\text{Index} = \frac{P-A}{P}$$

Where,

I= Index Value

P= Total number of observation of each category which is multiplied by the number of indicator have been taken ($P=N \times I$)

A= Sum total of the value scored by each indicator

1.8 Organisation of the Study

The present study consists of eight chapters. The first chapter deals with introduction of the topic, statement of the problem, conceptual framework, database and methodology. The second chapter contains review of the existing literature in order to give a background of migration research. In third chapter, a detailed analysis has been done regarding the socio-economic background characteristics of the construction workers migrated from Malda district of West Bengal to other states. The analysis of the socio-economic background of non migrants who belongs to the same area from where migration to different states is not taking place has also discussed in detail. The fourth Chapter would examine role social network in migration process and the factors associated with male out-migration and not-migration. The fifth chapter has discussed in detail the living and working condition of construction worker of Malda district to out migrate to other states. In sixth Chapter, detail information regarding the frequency, volume and use of remittances send by the construction workers of Malda district from the place of destination. Seventh chapter deals about impact on female of male out-migration from Malda district.

- Chapter-1** Introduction (Statement of the Problem, Conceptual Framework, Database, Methodology)
- Chapter-2** Literature Review
- Chapter-3** Socio-economic Background Characteristics of the Migrant and Non-Migrants
- Chapter-4** Role of Social network in migration process and Factors Associated with Migration and Not Migrants
- Chapter-5** Living and Working Condition of Migrant Construction Workers of Malda District to Place of Destination.
- Chapter-6** Remittances send by Migrant Construction Workers to Place of Origin
- Chapter-7** Impact of Male Out-Migration to Women Left Behind at Household:
- Chapter-8** Summery and Recommendations

Chapter-2

2. Literature Review:

Migration and movement of human population have always been an integral part of history of mankind. It is a complex combination of microeconomic and social motivation for migration. One region may be characterised with in-migration and other region may have experienced large scale out-migration. An area's development milieu can affect the various components of the migration process. There is extensive debate among the scholars that whether migration is motivated by economic, political, social or others factors. But it has been widely accepted that primary factor behind migration is economic. Other than development, there are many other factors which influence to the individual to migrate. Social, demographic, environmental and individual-specific characteristics such as age, level of education, accumulated job skills, earnings, unemployment experience, and migration history also play important role to determine the migration. A lot of literature is there regarding the various component of internal migration process.

2.1 Models and Theories of Migration:

There are many models which try to analyse the migration process. First dimension of concern migration conflict is time about the migration is synchronic term and diachronic or whether historical analysis is required or not. The scholar like Wallenstein, Petra and Walton etc thought that 'migration is time dimension and cannot be distracted from time to analysis the migration process with changing the socio-economic structure of society'. On the other hand, Todaro, Davis, Lewis and Lee etc thought that migration process is individual decision whereas individual becomes the main actor of migration process. On the other hand, neo-economic labour migration followers think that migration is the concern of household or family decision for sustenance as well as upswing of socio-economic development of household. Firstly economic models regarding the migration process would be discussed and then the other models which see the migration process in other perspective would be taken up in this literature review.

The first make an effort to specialize the "Laws of migration" was made by E.G Ravenstein as early as in 1885. Using the birth place data, he found out a set of generalization, which he called as 'laws of migration' relating to inter-country migration

in Britain in the nineteenth century. According to this theory, 'migrants move from areas of low opportunity to areas of high opportunity in which the choice of destination is regulated by distance. Migrants from rural areas move first to nearby towns, and then to larger cities. Another point made by Ravenstein is that migration accelerates with growth in the means of transport and communication and also the expansion of trade and industry'.

In 1940, S. Stouffer propounded his 'Theory of Intervening Opportunities' in which he recommended or suggested that the number of persons going a given distance is directly proportional to the number of opportunities at that distance and inversely proportional to the number of intervening opportunities.

Everett Lee postulated another comprehensive theory of migration in 1966. He begins his formula with the factors, which spearheads to spatial mobility of population of any area. These factors are '(1) factors associated with the place of origin, (2) factors associated with the place of destination, (3) intervening obstacles, and (4) personal factors'. The final decision to move does not rely merely upon the balance of positive and negative factors between the place of origin and destination. The balance of preference of the move must be enough to beat the natural slaking and intervening obstacles.

During the 1950s and 1960s, Lewis (1954) attempted the model of development to explain the 'transformation from a stagnating economy based on a traditional rural sector to a growing economy motivated by the development of a modern urban sector. In this model, economic growth does not only control from the collection of capital in modern industry but also from the fundamental interaction between the rural and the urban sectors. Lewis presumes that rural economies primarily present a particular context in which there is 'surplus labour' in the agricultural sector, so that marginal productivity in that sector is close to zero. In his opinion the agricultural sector is able to supply a perfectly elastic labour force to the modern industrial sector which can grow by assembling the capital and poaching labour from the traditional agricultural sector, paying wages just equal to the mean product in the agricultural sector. The migration from rural sector to urban sector comes out until surplus labour or 'disguised unemployment' is absorbed by the modern sector.

Sjaastad (1962) conferred a human investment theory of migration which behaves towards the decision to migrate as an investment decision involving costs and returns distributed over time. According to this model, a person is expected to migrate, if the present value of all monetary benefits from migration is greater than monetary costs involved. The theory thus, involves costs and benefits at the origin and destination as well as transport costs. Benefits of migration are defined as the present value of potential income gains resulting from the difference in income between the origin and the destination. Non- monetary benefits such as those arising from location preference are also included in the theory. Costs include moving expenses, opportunity costs of foregone earnings between jobs and non- monetary psychic costs such as the disutility of leaving one's own community and settling in an unfamiliar environment. The theories also recollect the effect of the individual characteristics. Older people are less likely to move because differential income come backs from migration accumulate over a shorter remaining life span and psychic costs may be greater. Educated youth likely to be more mobile because their lifetime origin destination income differences are usually larger and their greater awareness probably reduces the psychic costs of migration.

Harris-Todaro (1970) models also consider the role of internal migration in a dual economy in which the urban sector design labour force from the rural sector but the focus is on explaining the existence of unemployment in urban areas and its link with internal migration. Todaro (1969) proposes a simple dynamic formalization in which individual migration decisions are based on the difference between the expected income streams in urban and rural areas net of migration costs. In this model, an urban job-seeker evaluates his expected income stream in the city taking into account the endogenous probability of being employed. While labour demand in the city exogenously increases at a constant rate over time, labour supply increases with migration at an endogenous rate which is argued to be a function of the difference in expected income streams between the urban and the rural area.

In recent years, a 'new economics of migration' has been proposed to challenge many of the assumptions and conclusions of the neo- classical theory (Stark and Bloom, 1985). A key perception of this new approach is that migration decisions are not taken by isolated individual factors, but by larger units of related people typically families or households in which people act collectively not only to maximize the expected income but also to

minimize the risks and to loosen the restrictions associated with variation of market failures, apart from those in the labour market.

‘Network or a social connection to someone with migrant experience at a particular destination represents an important resource that can be used to facilitate movement. Movement of one person within a network transforms the relationship into a valuable connection that can be utilised by anybody within the network to assist migration. Social network also plays an important crucial role for finding accommodation, circulating goods and services, jobs as well as psychological support and continuous social and economic information’.

2.2 Characteristics of Migrants:

Population movement and its social, economic and demographic characteristics have pinched increasing attention of social scientists in recent years and a large number of studies on migration have been coordinated. It is noticeable that propensity to migrate differs significantly among the different socio-economic groups of the society. The range of mobility diverges from section to section, class to class and place to place. As a result, the tendency of migration is quite differs and dissimilar in conformity with cadre, group and society. It is generally assumed that out- migrants possess three types of main characteristics, namely, demographic, economic and social. The factors like knowledge about the personal characteristics of the out-migrants are significant from two points of view. Firstly, it makes us a picture about the determinants of out-migration. Secondly, it projects light on the influences of out-migration on both the place of origin and the place of destination areas. On the whole, the literature on out-migration suggests that out-migration is a selective process. Out-migrants do not represent a random cross section of the population of the area of origin. The characteristics distinguish them from the non-migrants (Bora, 1996). The characteristics of migration give the selectivity of certain persons or groups based on age, sex, marital status, class, social status, education, income, type of work, size of landholding, size of household etc. to be more mobile than others. Several authors have repeatedly proved to foundation of universal migration differential, which could be implemented to all countries and at all times. But to date the only differential which seems to have stood the test in researches undertaken in various countries and various periods is that persons who are young adults are more prone to migrate than those belonging to other age groups (Jansen, 1966). In the context of India,

Zachariah (1961) stated that young and adult age people are more interested to migration rather than old aged people. Dorothy Thomas (1938) after study of the extensive knowledge regarding migration arrived at the conclusion that persons in their teens, twenties and early thirties are more migratory than other groups.

The educational attainment of a person and his other family members plays an important role in migratory operation. A number of studies dealing with the internal migration have shown that migrants are found to be relatively more educated than non- migrants with respect to place of origin and less educated with respect to the place of destination. Hugo (1979) revealed that migrants in Jakarta from other provinces of Indonesia have a statistically significant higher level of formal educational level than non-migrant with considerable variation according to place of origins. However, Singh and Yadav (1981) have shown that the persons who have acquired a higher level of education tend to migrate to nearer distances as compared to the less educated persons. The reasons may be that several state governments of India have developed policies to accommodate to their residents on top prime concerned with regard to occupation, Visaria (1969) stressed that migrants in general have lower unemployment and hence cannot be held responsible for contributing to higher urban unemployment. Absolutely, the rural-urban migration is more selective of occupation, which desires a sizeable workforce in urban centres; on the other hand, most of the migrants have been assured that their journey outward will make sure for them some non-agricultural job. The kind of job opportunities in urban areas which keep the promise of a standard of living better than that in rural areas is one of the most powerful pull factors available at the places of destination (Soni, 1976). Lipton (1976) in his study expose that the migrants who are very poor, illiterates and landless are found to be having more frequency of migration, which is because of their poor socio-economic condition enforces them to migrate. The second important category of migrants falls within the highest economic groups of well educated worker, who are more likely to be pulled. On the other hand, John Connell's (1976) study proclaims that both higher and poor income group strata of population have a similar tendency of migration. However, migration of both these strata depends upon the availability of resources. The evidence on the characteristics of individual migrants suggests that both rich and poor migrants move out of villages. Sovani (1965) in a survey of migrants from two districts in Bihar found that households with the highest propensity to migrate So far as the sex selectivity is concerned, rural-urban migration is also sex specific having

considerable variation among various countries. Writing about Britain in the late nineteenth century, Ravenstein (1885) asserted that the males were more migratory over long distances whereas females dominated the short distance migration. The rural female of India have the higher migration rate because in rural areas female migrated from rural to rural migration due to marriage (Singh, 1986). However, for rural-urban migration in India, relatively young unemployed or under-employed males migrate in large numbers (Oberai, Prasad and Sardana, 1989) while women stay back in the villages (Singh, 1986).

Recent analysis proclaims that move to urban areas is no longer dominated by males. Increasingly large numbers of females are moving into India's urban area either singly or with their families. Pathak (1992) proclaimed that nearly half of the 15.7 million rural-urban migrants in India in 1971-81 were females. Most of the studies suggest that migrants tend to come from relatively large families: i.e., from families in which both need and earning capacity have expanded relative to local earning opportunity. Upton (1967) found that migration from six Nigerian villages was positively correlated with family size. As far as caste is concerned, Bora's (1996) study of U.P Hill village reveals that about the migrants belonged to high caste-Brahmin and Rajput families. The higher incidence of migration among the high castes may be largely due to their relatively higher level of social and economic status. A related aspect is the marital status differential in migration. But much less information is available on migration differentials by marital status than for age and sex (UN, 1967) that to some extent the distance moved by a migrant is closely associated with the marital status, depending on the varied type of responsibilities. Married persons having higher responsibilities usually try to move to shorter distances and avoid going too far distant destinations with a view to visiting their families easily and frequently. Yadav (1977) further reported that a greater number of highly educated married migrants are accompanied by their spouses in comparison to the less educated were in the lowest and highest income groups. So far as the sex selectivity is concerned, rural-urban migration is also sex specific having considerable variation among various countries. Writing about Britain in the late nineteenth century, Ravenstein (1885) says that the males were more migratory over long distances whereas females dominated the short distance migration. Of course, the propensity of female migration is higher in India in rural to rural migration flows mainly due to marriage (Singh, 1986). However for rural-urban migration in India, relatively young unemployed or under-employed males migrate in large numbers (Oberai, Prasad and Sardana, 1989) while women stay back in the villages (Singh, 1986).

2.3 Socio-economic Factors of Migration

Migration is a socio-economic process and various socio-economic factors play important role. There are numerous factors like low land-man ratio, low wage rate, less job opportunities, upgrade preservation in social strata etc in the place of origin and vis-a-vis better job opportunities, high wage rate and good payment system etc at the place of destination help people to migrate from one place to another place. In the following section the literature on the distinguished factors which motivate people to migrate would be reviewed.

The wage difference between the place of origin and the place of destination is considered to be the most prominent factor behind the migration process. According to Todaro Model, the probability of migrating is positively associated with the wage differential between origin and destination and negatively associated with cost of migration. Todaro (1969) notes the importance of defining the wage differential as the expected in the destination minus the expected wage in the origin. The wage in either origin or destination is determined both by the prevailing wage for individuals with given characteristics (age, education, experience etc.) and by the probability of employment for individuals with those characteristics.

Regional disparity and unequal development is considered as key factor of migration. Regional disparity in large country like India has decreased with economic growth over years that modify the pattern of labour migration in India. A large number of populations move out from rural areas due to illiteracy and lack of employment opportunities (Kundu and Gupta, 1996). The higher percentage net migration is mainly observed in the developed states like Punjab, Delhi, Haryana, Gujarat and Maharashtra where pull factor is stronger. On the other hand, backward states have higher rate net out migration. As far as distance of migration is concerned, female migrants mainly migrate in the intra district level whereas men have higher migration rate in inter district and interstate level. Main reason behind the male migration is employment related reason while the female migrate mainly for marriage purpose as well as moving member of house hold. The push factors like low literacy, low income, dependence on agriculture and high poverty are associated with place of migration. On the other hand, high income, dominance of industries, high literacy and services pull factors are associated with place of destination (Bhagat, 2009). Rural poverty and seasonal unemployment are the main reasons for out-migration from

rural area whereas in-migration is increased due to regional differences in the population pressure on land, wage rate differentiation, inequality of infrastructure, industrial development and modernization of agriculture (Dwivedi 2012).

Industrialization expands the gap between rural and urban areas, inducing a moving of the workforce towards industrializing areas. The scale and growth of these disparities is also important concerned. The main reason of migration is economic incentives and these are also important for long distance male and urban stream migration. North Eastern states people mainly migrate for the purpose of employing in tertiary and secondary sector of economy. A greater percentage urban migrant worker is non agricultural (self employed or regular employed). Mostly, rural migrants are engaged in construction sector, following by brick kilns and agriculture sector at the place of destination. Migration occurs due to many different factors like livelihood, better employment, higher wage rate and income purposes. Internal migration pattern of India is influenced by the factors like regional disparity and adaption of economic liberalization policy. There is contrasting reason of migration for increasing rate of migration in India. On the one hand, increasing poverty, unemployment, population pressure, depletion of natural resource, environmental degradation, etc limit the livelihood options and may push people to migrate. But at the same time urbanization, better employment, educational opportunities, improvement of educational level, changing occupational pattern, development of transport and communication are the new impetus facilitating of spatial mobility. Males migrate mainly for economic reason and educational purpose but females migrate mainly due to marriage, moved of family member though in recent time, the pattern has been changed and they migrate in reason of education and employment purpose also (Mahapatra, 2012).

Mariko (2012) has analysed the role of remittance of social class in Bihar and found out that rural agriculture labourers from Bihar mostly out migrated to Haryana and Punjab but currently the destination of the migrants in the 1990 shifted toward the industrial areas such as Maharashtra and Delhi. Rural to Urban migration induced by the widened the gap between rural and urban areas due to high economic growth in the urban sector. The out migration is initiated by males who are motivated by employment and job related reasons. The factor like poverty, rural distressed economy, agricultural low productivity is important reasons for rural out migration from Bihar. On the other hand, backwardness and social discrimination of SCs is also important social reason of

migration. Mander and Sahgal (2009) did primary field survey in Delhi to study about the distressed migration. They stated that distressed migration is motivated by extreme economic deprivation, social oppression, natural and environmental disaster whereas most of the migrants are engaged in waste picking, rickshaw pulling, domestic work, construction labour and other casual labour. Most of the worker age is below 40 years. Muslim religious group and SCs tended to dominate domestic work, rickshaw pulling and waste picking. Migration to vulnerable occupation is dominated by economically and socially most disadvantaged groups. Migrants reported that they were engaged primarily in agriculture as tenet workers or self employed cultivators. Most of them are landless people. Decision of migration is taken mostly by individually.

Push and Pull factors have a greater role to out migration from the rural areas and in migration to urban areas. Rural to urban migration is reasoned as important cause of urban growth. It can be illustrated as cause of push factor agricultural low productivity and higher wage rate as pull factor. Study shows that urban residents are interested to search employment in urban areas. Education is considered as important factor for determining the job status in urban areas. Highly educated workers got the work in modern sector whereas low educated migrants are engaged in unorganised or traditional sector of the economy (Gary Fields, 1975). Rural to Urban migration and urbanisation, economic growth is important issue in developing countries. Poverty, lack of employment opportunities, higher fertility rate, low wage rate and seasonal unemployment in rural areas are identified as push factor while urban job opportunities, better standing life opportunities are reasoned as pull factor for rural to urban migration. The majority of the new workers in the urban labour market start their own employment and business while the self employed are engaged in a variety of activities such as hustling, street vender, knife sharpening, prostitution, selling drugs. On the other hand, other migrants start to find jobs as barber, carpenters, mechanics, maids, personal servants and artisans (Mc Catty, 2004). Gomathi etc al. (2009) studied the rural out migration surrounding of Coimbatore city of Tamilnadu. Labour migration becomes an important livelihood strategy in India. The factors like lack of balance rural and urban migration threats the major social and economic difficulties; it deteriorate the social and economic progress. Rural people out migration occur at earlier younger age for seeking of better job. Poverty and opportunities of work are important push factors of rural out migration. The fragmentation of joint families had led to declining family income

enforced the people to out migration. It is also interesting point is that migration tendency decreasing with increasing the distance between place of origin and destination. An important reason of behind the migration of youth from North East Region to urban centre is educational or employment. The gloomy employment prospect in the local labour market is the most important pushing factor of migration from north-east region to urban centres. Lower level of industrialization and lower expansion modern service of sector occupation in the North Eastern region has increased educated and youth unemployment. The factors like better working condition in the cities, new economy jobs and possibilities of getting in the city influence to their decision of migration. The pushing factors like the violence, political unrest and poverty of the region enforcing factors of migration from North East region to urban centres. The most of the migrants belong to Scheduled caste or Scheduled tribe and Christian or Hindu communities (Ramesh, 2012).

Rural unemployment, sluggish growth of agriculture, limited development of rural non farm sector take up the incidence of rural poverty are main pushing factor of migration to urban areas in search of work as well as better job opportunities purpose. Migration rate is decreased with increasing distance. The number of male is significantly high in long distance of interstate migration whereas female is dominant in short distance migration (Mitra and Murayama, 2008). Okhankhule and Opafunso (2013) studied on causes and consequence of rural to urban migration in Nigeria. They stated that rural people mainly out migrated due to natural catastrophic such as landslide, earthquake, flood, drought, political instability, lack of fertile land for cultivation, infertile soil, communal clashes, family dispute etc. On the other hand, the factor of urban job opportunities, educational facility, health facility, higher income and high slandered living are important pull factors for rural to urban Migration. Though, urban environment adversely affected by urban crime, overcrowded, congestion and haphazard growth of urbanisation. A large number of landless, illiterate poor, people migrate to metropolitan areas led by seasonal unemployment, poverty, lack of employment, and low agricultural productivity in rural areas. These unskilled labourers are engaged in low quality informal sector of urban economy (Mukherji, 2001). Sridhar (2010) tried to explore the factors connected with rural out migration because of lacking of non agricultural jobs, low productivity of land and inadequate income, small size of agricultural landholding large size of household, and poor public services whereas the pulling factor like impetuous job opportunities,

higher income are main pull factors to urban migration. Lower level education attainment of migrant's moves out the greater importance of the push factors while with increasing level of education of the migrants attract as a pull factor. Migration plays important role distribution of population of any country and determines the growth of labour force in any area. Migration is primarily influenced by economic factors. The main reasons for rural out migration is unemployment, low productivity, underemployment, poor economic conditions, lack of opportunities for advancement and natural calamities like (flood, drought, earthquake) (Kumar and Sadhu, 2005). The high pressure of population on limited land base, seasonal unemployment, low wage payment, and gradual decay of traditional occupations and village industry in India have considerably aggravated the economic miseries of the rural masses, making migration from rural areas inevitability (Bose, 1961). In India the labour migration is mostly influenced by social structure and pattern of development. Uneven development is the main reason for of migration along with factors like poverty, landholding system, fragmentation of land, lack of employment opportunities, large family size and natural calamities. The high land man ratio, caste system, lawlessness and exploitation, at the native place speed up break down of traditional socio-economic relations in the rural areas and people decide to migrate to prosperous areas in search of better employment and income. The migrants are mostly illiterate. People mainly migrate in order to attain better economic status in life (Singh etc al, 2011). Bihar is being known as poorest state with the high illiteracy, defunct health care system and corrupt political systems. Agriculture system of Bihar declined in nineteenth century. High population density, low wage rate, small size of landholding, stagnant economy, social oppression are main important push factors of labour migration from the western part of Bihar (De Haan, 2002).

Cultural and linguistic diversities influenced the migration process because these factors are closely connected with social as well as physical distance. An interesting point is that volume of migrants successfully decreases with increasing distance. In west Bengal, a large number of migrants come from neighbouring states because this state was the hub of the development in the eastern zone of the country for trade, commerce and mines. The shorter distance migration is more selective of females whereas longer distance migration is more for males. The social factors like marriage has greater role in short distance female migration. On the other hand, male long distance migrated because of

work, business and higher education purposes. Economic factors play important role for male migration while social reason is more associated with the female's migration (Singh, 1984).

There are many literatures available which incorporates relationship between migration and land ownership. Having little access to land in a predominantly agrarian society leaves the land-less with few alternatives to migration. In some Latin American countries access to land is so limited that nearly all poor young people view migration as their main and perhaps only livelihood option (Acharya, 2003). Connell et al. (1976) argue from their village studies in India that land availability at the village level is the primary economic force driving emigration. Many small farmers are forced to sell their land to the large land owners and seek wage labour in the area, to work as temporary or seasonal workers in other areas or to migrate permanently away from the area. It is said that "the more an individual is poor, landless and socio-economically deprived, the greater the chance of his migration from rural to urban areas" (Mukherjee, 1979). Other than the small land-to man ration, another factor which is affecting people's decision to migrate to other areas is inter-regional disparities in economic growth caused either by industrial or by agriculture (e.g. The Green Revolution) development. It was suggested that migrant labours help to raise their household's standard of living. Tsujita and Oda (2009) explored migration from Bihar, one of the most underdeveloped states in India. Land is important determinants factor of migration from this state. Landless and small landholder have higher tendency of migration but it is decreased with increasing the size of landholding. A large number of rural people out migrated from the western part of Orissa because of its unequal land distribution, high level poverty, among landless and marginal farmer and low level of human capital, industrialisation, urbanisation and diversification into nonfarm occupations combined with poor governance. It suffers from multiple social, political and economic disadvantages leaving the poor with few local options for making a living (Deshingkar and Akhter, 2009).

Employment is the most important reason for migration among males, whereas marriage was the most important reason for female migration. The level of education of migrants was also found higher than the non-migrants. (Bhagat, 2010). This is also because those who have higher levels of education or economic assets find it easier to establish linkages with urban economy through socio-cultural channels, put their foothold in the city and avail the opportunity offered through migration (Kundu, 2007). Bose (1961) has

tried to explain the phenomena of rural to urban migration based on the push-pull model. He argues that the increasing pressure of population on limited land, seasonal employment, poor wage and the gradual decay of traditional calling and village industries tend to push the rural people to the urban areas (Chandrasekhar,2011). Srivastava and Bhattacharya (2003) find out that in recent years as more young men travel to work in construction and urban services in the expanding informal sector. The pull of urban areas may include better employment opportunities, regular and higher wages, fixed working hours better amenities of living, facilities for education and socio-cultural activities (Chandana,1986).The agricultural unemployment, unemployment, low wage of agriculture and poverty as the majors push factors of rural out migration where as job opportunities, relatively higher wage, better educational opportunities, good infrastructure and transport facilities are major factors to migrate in urban areas (Todaro, 1970, Bhattacharya, 1998).

Migration is a social, economic and universal phenomenon in modern times, through which human being move from one place to another place in pursuit of certain cherished objectives like avenues of better employment, better wages, better working and living conditions, better quality of life and better livelihood. The nature and pattern of migration varies from one social group of migrants to another because of the fact that the rural migrants are not a homogenous group (Mitra and Murayama, 2008). In India temporary, circular and seasonal migration, with people in response to opportunities for agricultural work or farm off rural employment in construction and services has, long been part of poor people (Roglay, 2002).A large number of rural uneducated poor people migrate for search of employment. The only difference is that rich people migrate willingly to for better and comfortable life, while the poor people migrate for economic hardship (Kainith, 2009). Pallav (2009) studied on rural to urban migration in India. He found out that rural people migrate for seasonal unemployment, lack of job opportunities in rural areas, low age, natural calamities (drought, flood) and poverty push to rural people to out migration. They are mostly engaged in urban informal sector of economy.

There are many literatures found which discussed about the relationship between migration and urbanization in detail. Urbanization has been a major driver of internal migration in many countries and has overtaken other factors in many Asian locations. Rates of urbanization influence rural-urban wage differences: an increase in the demand for labour in urban areas can push up urban wages and increase migration. Rural-urban

differences in average incomes increased in many South and East Asian countries during the (1990 Eastwood and Lipton, 2000). Kaur (1996) finds that the areas with relatively high proportion of intra-state rural-urban male migrants were mainly found in areas which experienced low to moderate rate of urbanisation in recent decades. In contrast, the regions with high inter-state rural-urban male migration experienced high rate of urbanization in recent decades. They included industrial-mining areas, Assam region, Punjab-Haryana tract and areas with considerable agricultural colonization. Rural to urban migration is important component of urbanisation in developing countries. Determination in the land man ratio in the agriculture sector, the rural population in search of a livelihood migrate to urban areas. There are limited job opportunities in organised sector particularly in industrial economy leads to absorption of labour in the informal sector. Most migrants prefer to job place near to place of residence though the wage rate is less than the distance place. Most of the migrants are engaged in the five category of jobs- petty traders and vendors, transport workers, workers including service, workers in manufacturing, construction and related activities. Migrants able to improve their standards of living through accessing to information pertaining to urban labour market and to shift better paid job (Gupta and Mitra, 2002). Rural people migrate to metropolis city of India mainly for the purpose of job, business, marriage, education from rural areas. The pull factors of better job facilities, good salary, more income, medical and educational facilities are attracting factor the rural people to move cities whereas the push factors are poverty unemployment, low job opportunities, low salary, less income drought, less medical and educational facilities.

The process of decision making, however, is stimulated through various socio-cultural factors. Mehta (1991) in his study finds that persons belonging to poor and landless sections and illiterates have higher frequency of migration, which due to the fact that their poor socio-economic condition forces them to migrate. However the migrants from higher economic groups are lower in proportions, who are motivated by the desire to obtain prestigious 'white collar jobs.' Generally lower unemployment levels in the destination areas and higher unemployment levels in the origin areas are linked with the higher migration rates. The pressure of population is not the only or even the principle cause of the increasing unemployment and poverty of the rural population. (Boserup, E.1965). Equally important causes are the low rate of investment in agriculture, fragmentation of land, inequalities in the distribution of land and productive assets,

institutional mechanism which discriminate in favour of the owners of wealth and a pattern of relative prices and therefore investment and technological change, biased against labour (Mukherjee, 1979). Several other studies have noticed the flow of migration from rural economy to industrial economy. This kind of migration is due to small landholdings, unemployment, underemployment and the growth of rural population (Dara, 1981). Labour migration is an important livelihood strategy in India. Accelerated movement of people mainly from the rural and backward areas in search of employment has been one of the most important features of the labour market. People migrations from the rural to urban as well as lagging to developed region are absorbed in the unorganised sector. Unskilled mainly labourers migrate through contract binding and contract workers constitute one of the largest categories worker in the unorganised sector. Decision of migration is dominated by the availability of employment opportunities in the place of destination (Kishore and Kiran, 2013). Rural male out migration is significant trends of migration process of developing countries. A large number of people of southern Rajasthan migrate to developed states like Gujarat, Maharashtra, Karnataka, Haryana, Punjab and other states due to low agricultural outputs, small size of landholding, recurring drought and degradation of environmental conditions whereas higher age rate, alternative employment outside the farm sectors are important pull factors for out-migration. Mostly Migrant background characteristics are illiterate, poor economic background, as concern of caste most of them belong to Scheduled tribes (Aajeevika, 2006).

Decision of migration is important household strategy for improvement the livelihood of the people. The neoclassical theorist assume that household member jointly formulate a strategy to maximise household income. The family collectively choose member jointly formulate an optimal allocation of family workers to potential productive activities. In contrast the neo economic labour migration theory postulated that migration is not only strategy to maximise income but also the diversification of activities by which risk of household would be minimise (Stark and Bloom, 1970). Decision of migration is influenced by various motivational and social factors. Male is more prone to migration than the female. Male who did not acquired information by mass media exposure, has more tendency of migration. Friends are most important factor for influencing of migration Male migrants are less influenced by their families to migrate. Migrants seeking for employments are more likely to migrate themselves compare to family and

friends. Non-educated Migrants are more likely to migrate themselves because of low level of skill (Hilda, 2014). Migration is studied in broader view, as household strategy for sustenance and socio economic development of household (Bloom and Stark, 1975). Household face a set of resource that is fixed a set of resource in the short run, including (land, farmland, real state), labour (number, age and sex) and capital (savings, tool and other property). Household also face of basic consumption and reproduction that depends on their age-sex composition and family socio economic aspirations. Household resources are allocated in different ways to meet the requirements of family and reproduction. Thus, Migration is effective way to maximise income and to reduce the risks. First cost benefit model was adumbrated by Sjaastad (1962) and it was given classical form by Todaro (1970) and Todaro and Harris (1970). Wage differentiate is the prime motivation of migration but this concept is criticised by the supporter of structuralise and they thought that migration process is the combination of individual and structure elements. Decision is made within the socioeconomic conditions of the society.

2.4 Role of Social Network in Migration:

The economist Glenn Lourey (1977) initiated the concept of social capital to designate “a set of intangible resources in families and communities that help to promote the social development of young people”. Migrants network are defined as set of interpersonal ties that help to connect the migrants with the former migrants and non migrants to another through relationship of friendship, kinship and share community origin. Network influences to increase the migration because it reduces the risk of movement cost and increase the hope for returns to migration. In the context of structure of the society, social networks have greater role in the process of migration. “Migrant networks are set of interpersonal ties that link migrants, former migrants and non migrants in origin and destination areas by ties of kinship, friendship and share community origin” (Massey, 1987 and Hugo, 1981). First, if the migrant leaves out for new destination, do not have social ties increase the migration cost. After first time migration, the cost of migration will be reduced by relatives, friends and community origin (Massey etc.al, 1987). A research study on construction workers in Guwahati, Assam stated that kinship ties play very significant role in receiving labour market information and entering with the help of contractor (Das, 2007).

Social network is an important influencing factor to choice of destination of migrants as well as reducing psychological cost of migrants by providing helpful and supportive relationship during the migrant's arrangement period but also it helps to cut down the monetary cost by providing information relating of employment opportunities. Studies proved that the relative and co-villagers is main supporting agent at the place of destination while relatives have great role rather than friends due to tight kinship. In chain migration process, social factor like caste plays an important crucial role for assistance to migrants by providing the information of job and accommodation (Banarjee, 1983). "Migrant networks are 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 origin. The network theory of migration highlights the role of social relationships in fostering migration phenomena" (Boyd, 1989). Interpersonal ties, such as friendship, kinship, and shared community origin, between migrants, non-migrants and former migrants in origin and destination areas influenced to increase the intention toward the migration (at individual and household level). This is because of encouraging the migrants to reduce the risk of migration and lower the costs and risks and increases the expectation of net-returns to migration (Massey 1993). Though the migrants are poor, social networking is considered as their wealth. The social network factor like kinship, social groups and geography were found to be critical in enabling and facilitating the process of migration (Mander and Sahgal, 2009). Social networks have a greater role to the process of migration whereas co-villagers and caste fellows attract the migrants (Singh et.al, 2011). Another study shows that low caste and minority groups have higher tendency to pull migration through network effects (Mitra and Gupta, 2009). Social network ties influence to make the decision making process of migration. Trust and affinity can excite the people to keep stay at the place of destination of migrants. Ritchey (1976) postulated three main hypotheses on social network which gives the direction of migrants in decision making process. Firstly, the chance of migration decreases because of increasing the density of network of family and friends in the place of origin society increases. Second important aspect is that social network can help the migrants through providing the different facilities, helping to find job, lending money in the place of destination. Thirdly, kinship ties with migrant also have very significant role in the migration.

2.5 Use of Remittances

Migration has become integral part of the current global economy. Generally, remittances are defined as the portion of migrant's income sent from the place of destination to the place of origin. Remittances may be sent in cash or kinds but mostly transfer of cash is considered as remittance. There are different thought about the impact of remittances to the place of origin of migrants. Two distinguish and contrasting views are arisen regarding the migration while they discussed about the benefits and shortcomings of migration. One group of scholars' believe that the impact of out migration at the place of origin is negative and proposes to formulate policies to promote employment opportunities to limit population movement. Another view suggests that migration can impact positively on development at local, regional and national level. Supporters of this view think that migration would be considered a household strategy whereas economic and social link would be maintained the between migrants and their household.

Internal and international migration both has the major development and poverty reduction in both the place of origin and destination. The remittance effect on larger scale to individual, households, community and regional and national level. Migrant's remittances have created many effects in rural economies to economic development. Migration can be used as an agent of reduction of poverty and inspired the socio-economic development. Remittance's contribution can be seen on community development through establishment of school and cultural institution. Migration indirectly helps to increases the employment opportunities and income. Education and health are the priority sector for using the remittance (Siddique, 2012). Remittance also an important factor to influence through increasing the agricultural production, consumption, rural income whereas it is invested in constructive work like the construction of house, health and education at the place of origin of migrants. The migrants usually help to contribute the society in village welfare and building school, hospital and community centre. It also helps to reduce the poverty and inequality in rural areas (Gaurav, 2012).

Remittances maintain the link between the place of origin and the place of destination of the migrants. The study reported that more than three quarters of remittance of the World go to developing and under developed countries. Taylor et al. (1996) have shown that Mexican migrants are more interested to invest in housing construction rather than the productive activities of household. De Brauw and Rozlle (2003) have tested whether or not migration leads to productive or consumptive investments where the former are investments in agricultural and non agricultural activities and latter are investments are directly improve the quality of life for members of the housing such as housing and durable goods. Remittances sent to the rural household by the migrant that impact on their economic development and become important source as possible means to improve their living conditions. Remittance plays important role as a means of poverty alleviation or as means of easing their income liquidation, by allowing them to consume more food (Mariko, 2009). Migrants maintain their linkage with the place of origin through visit and by sending remittance. Remittances are considered as important for family welfare not only this but also a change in the size of remittance depending upon the link between the migrants and place of origin (Kishore and Kiran, 2013). Labour migrants make tremendous contribution to the Indian economy through growth of the major sectors of economy (Deshingkar and Akhter, 2009). The economic conditions of the migrants in their native villages had developed. The remittances had contributed to improve the educational level of their relatives, purchasing durables goods, marriages, and clearing old debts. Remittance has important positive impact of migration at the place of origin. The short term migrants brought their earning to their native place personally, whereas long term migrants used postal money orders either monthly or quarterly for sending remittance to their families at native place (Singh etc al, 2011). Remittances help to the migrants to improve the living standards of family, increasing agricultural productivity at place of origin of migrants (De Haan, 2010). Remittance is used in different investment purposes like of cultivation, repairing house, buy livestock, arrangement of dowry, repayment loans, better house, better access of health facility, education for children and faster escape out of poverty (Ghosh, 2009). Remittances help to improve the living standards of family, increasing agricultural productivity to the place of origin (De Haan, 2010). The positive effect of the migration was envisioned through changes brought about by in their social values perceptions relating to ideal family size, age of marriage, medical care, children and life style etc whereas negative impact was highlighted by tension created by local farm workers and exploited by contractors (Arora and Agarwal,

1988). Remittances of migrants play important in the economy of origin countries. It makes linking the development of both sending and receiving countries. Remittance rate depends on the banking sector of economy and global economic market. Impact of remittance is noticed in different level. Remittance pattern helps to decide migration as household strategy. Remittances are generally used in consumption of household investment and saving in the destination. The small portion of remittances are used for productive purpose and mostly are used for paying off debts subsistence living, land purchase, house renovation or construction and health (Ahsanullah, 2011). Remittances directly effect on the household of origin countries. As per as remittance is concerned the receive remittances expend on higher share their household budget on durable goods health care and housing and less on food. Remittances improved the household welfare of place of origin of migrants (Airola, 2007).

Remittance is significant source of income of the sending household in rural economy. It increases the consumption level and investment of capital in education farming activities of the household. New home construction is important primary reason for using remittance followed by starting small business, purchasing agricultural land etc. of migrant sending communities. Remittances are also used for health care, purchasing clothes, repay debts and improvement of consumption level of the household (Davis and Carr, 2010). In South Asian countries, remittances play important role for economic development. One of the remittances economy characterised by large volume of remittances transferred through informal channel. The formal channel of transferring remittances are bank drafts telegraphic and electronic transfer through bank, money transfer companies whereas informal channel are hawala brokers, friend, trader and relative that do not have legal license of exchange and transaction. Remittances are mainly used for poverty alleviation starting of business, education and house construction. Some suggestions to improve the remittance system bringing informal remittances to formal and improving formal financial system, consumer education and protection (Ozaki, 2012). Remittances are important source of socioeconomic development of migration at place of origin or migrant sending areas. Remittance is considered as important external economic source of migrant sending countries. The positive effects increase the in family welfare for migrants and their families such as nutrition food living condition and health (De Haas, 2007). Neo-economic labour migration supporter think that remittances function as income insurance and protect

people from income shocks due to slow down of economic market climate vagaries and political conflicts. Frequency and volume of remittances are very important factors for sending remittances of migrants. Male migrant send more remittances than counterpart whereas in case of remittance sending by age groups, 26-35 age groups sending more remittances than others age groups. Informal channel prevails as prominent channel of sending remittance. A large portion of remittance is used for daily households needs followed by housing, purchasing land, health, education, purchasing durables goods, wedding and paying debt etc (Sisenglath, 2009).

2.6 Impact of Male Out-Migration to Women Left Behind at Household:

Impact of male out migration to women left behind is an interesting aspect of migration study. A very little research has been contacted on that aspect. Women are left behind the place of origin and how maintained their family at the native place. Experiences are acquired by the women is different because it depends on the structure of household. Experiences of nuclear household would be different from their counterpart (Desai and Banerjee, 2008). Another study shows that the women, who take part in farming activities, faced a lot problem in household, increasing the work load and family responsibilities. On the other hand, it also helps to increasing the decision making power of the women and manage the remittances in households. It means that rural mobility from home has positive impact on households. (Datta and Mishra, 2011).

Male out migration and leave their children and women at household. Women participate different role in the absence of male, to maintain the household and budget management. On the other hand, women enjoy more freedom for movement, decision making power. It indicates that male out migration empowered the women (Bloom etc.al, 2001). Another study point out the interesting point is that there are both negative and positive impacts on women left behind in family at the place of origin. Woman become head of family in the absence of husband and it helps to increase the women autonomy in the family. There is risk of creation of family problem, psychological stress and fragmentation of social network (Siddique,2009).Many scholar reported that negative impact like divorce, family disintegration and reduce the take care of children etc. (De Synder, 1993). Durand and Massey, (2004) explored that “men’s migration increases the female autonomy by promoting the wife’s labour force participation”. Another interesting study stated that male migration leads to reduce in fertility because his

absences greatly reduce the chance of sexual intercourse in married life, a key proximate determinant of fertility (Bonggarts and Potter, 1979). Rural male out migration has great impact of women left behind at place of origin of migrants. Absence of male member or husband increasing the work load of the women, increasing mental stress. Male out migration of husband leads to increase the chances of divorce, harassment and abusing of women (Kakati, 2014). There are also some negative impacts on left behind women due to male migration. Women have to compel to bear stress and higher strains due to increased higher reproductive morbidity of children and management responsibilities for women (Roy and Nangia, 2005). Male out migration influence and increase the women autonomy and empowerment through the decision making process, to participation and management household and work. Male migrants' household's women enjoy greater freedom movement than the counterpart i.e non migrant household woman (Agasty and Patra, 2014). Large numbers of out migration from Kerala to Middle East countries have both positive and negative impact on family left behind. Remittances increased the standard of living of household whereas female become the head of household, increasing the responsibility of women. On the other hand, the women of migrant household confront of tensions, pressure, conflicts and anxieties. Apart from these loneliness and separation from spouse are also growing (Gulathi, 1983). Male out-migration has increased the freedom of movement and decision making power of women left behind but lack of confidence, lack of education of women and male dominated society create the problems (Sarker, 2012). With the out migration of the male members of the household workload of women goes up substantially. Absence of their husband loss to emotional and psychological support whereas decision making power is influenced by the family structure. The women of nuclear family enjoy more freedom for decision making and movement than the women of joint family. Mostly, the women take loan from relative and neighbour during the absence of male at household for the purposes of household needs, social responsibilities (marriage, death in the family) and illness of family members (Aajeevika, 2006).

Chapter-3

Migration is an important component of population changes. It is a complex social phenomenon whereas it is a combination of both microeconomic and social motivation for migration process. Different theories of migration have focused on attention the complexities involved in the process of migration. There is expansive debate among the scholars whether migration is motivated by economic, political, social or others factors. But, it has been extensively approved that primary factor of migration is economic. A number of economic, social, political and cultural factors have a great role in the decision making process to migration. These variations are observed due to differentiation of socio-economic, demographic and cultural factors. The factors like high population growth, low income, unequal distribution of land, unemployment and dissatisfaction of job and housing are identified as important factors for out migration from rural areas (Bilsborrow et.al, 1987, Sekhar, 1983 and Yadav, 1988). Many scholars have stated that characteristics of household play important role to migration process. Household level factors like size of family, type of family, number of adult male member in household and size of landholding are important. It is necessary to understand about the characteristics of out-migrant from two points of view, firstly, it gives us the depiction of decision making process for migration and secondly, it is clear to examine the impact of out-migration in the society. The background characteristics of migrants help to understand the migration pattern and trend. Socio-economic and demographic characteristics of migrant have also take the attention of migration studies because it may be different from place to place and class to class. These individual characteristics also influence the decision of the people on whether to migrate or not. Migration selectivity has been investigated by using the socio-economic and demographic variables, such as age, sex, race, physical health, educational attainment, socio-economic and occupational condition (Haq and Rehman, 1975). It is an interesting point is that the migration process is different along with the different factor like, age group, marital status, social group, size of land holding etc. in the society. These factors play important role to decision making process of household. Individual characteristics along with characteristic of household play important role in migration process (Oda and Tsujita, 2014).

The present study deals about male out-migration of labour from the Malda district to other states in India in the construction sector. To understand the process of migration in

comprehensive way, non-migrants are also considered in this study. The people who have not migrated anywhere from their place of birth are considered as non-migrant. Same socio-economic background characteristics of households have been selected for understanding the migration process. Why some people are ready for migration to outside state boundary while some others people prefer to confine at the native place.

In the beginning, first section deals about background characteristics of migrant and non-migrants. Characteristics are divided in to two categories, demographic include the age, marital status, size of family, number of adult male member in the household, type of household structure. A Socio-economic characteristic deals about the social and religion group of household, size of landholdings, monthly income and expenditure of household and occupation pattern of member of household. Third section deals about the housing conditions, basic amenities and facility of migrant and non-migrant's households.

3.1 Background Characteristics of Migrants and Non-Migrants:

3.1. Demographic Background of Migrant and Non-migrants

This section deals about demographic and socio-economic background of migrants and non-migrants. The important demographic factors are age group, marital status, family size, number of adult male member etc. Every factors play important role to determine the characteristics of migrants. Household decision of migration depends on demographic structure of household i.e. household member, age-sex structure of household and household size because larger families have required certain individuals to migrate to diversify of labour of household (Harbison, 1981).

3.1.1 Age Distribution of Migrants and non-migrants

Age is considered as an important demographic factor for migrants because individual working capability depends on age. Many different studies reveal that young age group people have higher tendency of migration while older people have less tendency for migration. Young age group people have higher tendency for migration because of their energy, stamina for work (Pattanaik, 2009). Many studies have attempted to show the migration differentiation by age while majority of studies have shown that among the adults have higher propensities of migration (Hugo, 1978, Lipton 1980, Sing 2011 and Yadav, 1981).

Table 3.1.1: Age Distribution of Migrant and Non-migrants

Age Group	Migrant		Non-Migrant	
	No. of Cases	Percentage	No. of Cases	Percentage
Below 20 Years	10	3.33	3	2.00
20-29	153	51.00	47	31.33
30-39	93	31.00	56	37.33
40-49	40	13.33	37	24.67
50+	4	1.33	7	4.67
Total	300	100.00	150	100.00

Source: Field Survey, 2016

Table 3.1.1 reveals the information regarding the age distribution of the migrants and not migrant's respondents. It is found out that young people have higher propensity for migration. Age group of (20-29) have the highest percentage of male out migration which is followed by the age group of (30-39), (40-49), below 20 and 50 years and more years. Average age of male out-migrant is 27.94 years with the standard deviation of 8.2 years. It is also interesting point is that 82 percentages migrant belong the age groups of (20-39). On the other hand, the highest percentage of non-migrant proclaims age group of (30-39) years, followed by age group of (20-29), (40-49), 50 and more and below 20 years. Male out-migration is higher in the age group of (20-39) years because after completing the education, they engage in economic sector for their livelihood. Average age of non-migrant is 40 years with standard deviation of 10 years. Zachariah (1961) study showed that the age distribution of migrants to Bombay was different from that of the non-migrants. The most of the migrants belong to young and adult age groups. There is nonlinear relationship between the age groups and out-migration rate, migration rate is decreased with increasing age groups of migrants. Hugo in his study proclaimed that the average age of migrant is 25 years. The findings of this study has the similar result to 64th NSSO data (2007-08) on migration which found out that the average age of long distance of interstate male out-migrants from rural Bengal was about 27 years. It is easily depicted that there is different of age between the migrants and non-migrants in this study. The average age is higher for non-migrants than the migrants. The older age people are not much more interested for migration because energy and stamina has been decreasing with the increasing of age. Migration intensity has been decreased with increasing the age of the male. Age is the most important factor to determine the background characteristics of migration. Active working age group of people have greater propensity of migration than the old aged people.

3.1.2 Marital Status of Migrant and Non-Migrants

Marital status of migrant is important factor to understand the characteristics of migration. But it is difficult to get information of marital status of migrant. It has been reported that very less information is attainable on migration by marital status than for sex and age (UN, 1967).

Table 3.1.2: Marital Status of Migrants and Non-Migrants

Marital Status	Migrant		Non-Migrant	
	No. of Cases	Percentage	No. of Cases	Percentage
Married	228	76.0	139	92.66
Unmarried	72	24.0	11	7.33
Total	300	100.0	150	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2016

A related aspect is the marital status differential in migration. The distance plays important role to move of migrant's differentiation by marital status because after the marriage family responsibility has increased to the migrants. One interesting point is that married persons usually try to go short distance because they want frequently visit to their house. As closer look the table 3.1.2, it is easily depicted that 76 percentage migrants are married while unmarried percentage is very low only 24 percentages. In case of marital status of non-migrants, it is found that non-migrants are higher percentage married than the migrants and unmarried percentage is very low. The mean age of marriage of migrant is 31.73 years with the standard deviation of 7 years whereas marriage age of unmarried is 23.49 years with the standard deviation of 6 years. In contrast, non-migrants age of marriage is 40 years with the standard deviation of 10 years while the mean average age unmarried non-migrant is 25 years with the standard deviation of 2.6 years. In addition, the migrants have lower marriage and unmarried age than non-migrant in both cases. One interesting point is that it may because of low age of marriage of migrants otherwise migrant married after migration from place of origin. Many studies try to find out the relationship between the migration and marital status. People engaged married in earlier age and they are compelled to migrate because of family burden (Pattanaik, 2009). On the other hand, contrasting seen was found. Kothari (1980) stated that migration positively associated with single man rather than married one and explained that married are less migrant because of stringer sense family ties and increasing responsibilities or obligation to married person compare to single man.

3.1.3 Family Size of Migrant and Non-Migrants

Household is considered as important factor to determine the decision of migration. Household is selected as most significant unit of decision making for migration (de Haas 2010). Family size play important role to decide the migration of household member. Larger sizes of family have higher opportunity to motivate to out migration.

Table: 3.1.3 Family Size of Migrant and Non-Migrants

Family Size	Migrant		Non-Migrant	
	No of Cases	Percentage	No of Cases	Percentage
Large(Above 5)	79	26.3	32	21.33
Medium(3-5)	167	55.7	83	55.33
Small(1-3)	54	18.0	35	23.33
Total	300	100.0	150	100.00

Source: Field Survey, 2016

The larger families have the chance to send at least one member as risk resistant strategy (Stark and Taylor, 1991). Massey et al. (1993) found out that in developed countries where income risks are minimized through insurance markets, developed credit markets or programs from the government, developing countries experience a lack of such institutional mechanisms for minimizing risks, which in turn gives people (families, households) the encouragement to diversify risks through migration process. Table 3.1.3 presents the family size of migrant and non-migrants households. It is easily depicted from the above table 3.1.3, the highest percentage migrants migrated from medium size of household which is followed by the larger and smaller family. On the other hand, in case of non-migrant household, the highest percentage non migrants also belong to medium size of family following by small and larger family. An interesting point has been seen that larger size of household member have higher propensity of migration than non-migrant household. Larger family size share 26.3 percentage for migrants and 21.3 percentages for non-migrants. Small family size has low propensity of migration than migrant household. Single male member does not out migrate because of security reason of household at the place of origin. The average family size of migrants household is 5.27 while 4.93 persons for non-migrant household. Prasad (2016) study on “Socio-economic Characteristics of Rural Households in Bundelkhand Region, Uttar Pradesh found out that migrants households have large family size than non-migrants households.

3.1.4 Number of Adult Male (Above 18 years) Member of Migrants and Non-Migrants Family

Demographic characteristics of migrant households have great role to determination of decision of migration. Number of adult male member play important role for determining of decision of migration of member of household. Family is important unit for decision making of migration process. Household member is considered as resource for household, especially adult male member play important role to decision of migration.

Table 3.1.4: Number of Adult Male (Above 18 years) Member of Migrants and Non-Migrants Family

No. of Adult Male Member	Migrant		Non-Migrant	
	No of Cases	Percentage	No of Cases	Percentage
1	101	33.7	67	44.7
2	122	40.7	63	42.0
3	61	20.3	13	8.7
4	16	5.3	7	4.7
Total	300	100.0	150	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2016

Number of adult member of household is also important deciding factor of migration. Table 3.1.4 reveals the number of adult male member of migrant and non-migrants household. As far as number of adult male member is concerned, the highest percentage of migrants households have two adult member while the highest for same is found in single adult male number for non-migrant household. Number of adult member is more found in migrant household than the non-migrant household. About 20.3 percentages migrant households have three number of adult male member whereas this percentage is low for non-migrant household. As far as, number of four adult male members is concerned of household, the higher percentages of migrant household than non-migrants household. Number of adult male member and family size have greater role to decide the decision of migration. Number of adult male member play role as a risk aversion agent of household in rural areas at the place of origin. Massey etc. al (1993), adult member of household is considered as resource of family like the agricultural land. Household is basic unit of decision of migration. Household make strategy for reducing risk of income from agriculture failure and diversification of resources through taking decision of migration as livelihood strategy.

3.1.5 Type of Household of Migrant and Non-Migrants

Many studies reveal that type of household structure play important role to determine the background characteristics of migrants as well as to make decision of migration. Table 3.1.5 reveals the information of type of family of migrant and non-migrant household. Household structure is classified in to three different categories such as nuclear, joint family and extended joint household. As closer look table 3.1.5, both majority percentages of migrant and non-migrant household have nuclear type of structure but interesting point is that nuclear type of family percentage is higher for non-migrant household rather than migrant household.

Table 3.1.5: Type of Household of Migrant and Non-Migrants

Type of Household	Migrants		Non-Migrants	
	No. of Cases	Percentage	No. of Cases	Percentage
Nuclear	155	51.67	102	68.00
Joint Family	129	43.00	55	36.67
Extended Joint Family	16	5.33	5	3.33
Total	300	100.00	150	100.00

Source: Field Survey, 2016

In addition, the higher percentages (43.00) of migrant belong to joint family type rather while this percentage (36.67) is lower for non-migrant household. Percentage of extended joint family type is also high for migrant household as compare to non-migrant household. Many nuclear type of non-migrant reported that sole security of family and family problem become the main obstacle for decision of male out migration to leave family at the place of destination. Migration propensity is higher from joint and extended joint family because low size of landholding and large number of family member in household forced them to move out from native place for economic related reason. Prasad (2016) in his study “Socio-economic characteristics of Rural Households in Bundelkhand region, Utter Pradesh” finds out that more than half migrants belong to nuclear type of family. Same result is found out by Ginsberg (2012) study on “Out-Migration from Kaka mega District in Kenya”. Many studies reveal that percentage of migrant household is larger as compare to non-migrant’s household. Singh (2011) finds out that high population growth, high population density, larger family size and high land man ratio enforced the people from rural areas to out migration. The factors like seasonal unemployment, higher population pressure, low agricultural productivity, low industrial development, high population density leads to out migration from Malda district.

3.2 Socio-Economic Characteristics of Migrant and Non-Migrants

To understand the migration in comprehensively, it is very important to know the socio-economic background of migrant and non-migrants. Migration decision making process is depending on the socio-economic background characteristics of migrants as well as non-migrants. Socio-economic factors like social groups, religious community and educational attainment, size of landholding and family income and expenditure play very important role to migration process.

3.2.1 Educational level of Migrant and Non-Migrants

Educational attainment is considered as an important factor to understand the background characteristics of Migrants. It also helps to determine the migration decision making and to understand the skill of the migrants. Highly skilled migrant worker are more educated than the unskilled workers. Various studies reveal that most of migrant workers are illiterate and low educated. As far as educational level of migrants is concerned, illiterate people are more migrants than the others. More than one third migrants are illiterate while 32 and 26 percentages migrants have completed the basic primary and upper primary level of education in respectively. Secondary and higher secondary completed educated migrants percentage is low. Poor economic conditions at the place of origin forced them to migration for employment purposes. Two third migrants belong to the category of illiterate and primary level of education.

Table 3.2.1: Educational level of Migrant and Non-Migrants

Education Level	Migrants		Non- Migrants	
	No. of Cases	Percentage	No. of Cases	Percentage
Illiterate	102	34.0	29	19.3
Primary (I-IV)	98	32.7	59	39.3
Upper Primary (V-VIII)	78	26.0	48	32.0
Secondary (IX-X)	15	5.0	7	4.7
Higher Secondary (XI-XII)	6	2.0	5	3.3
Others	1	.3	2	1.3
Total	300	100.0	150	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2016

Mehta (1991) in his study finds that persons belonging to landless, illiterates and poor have higher tendency of migration, which is because of their poor socio-economic condition forces them to migrate. Illiterate percentage is lower than the migrants. In case of the educational status of non-migrants is concerned, 39 percentage non-migrants

respondents completed their primary level education whereas 32 percentages reported that completed upper primary level of education. Migrants are more illiterate than non-migrants respondents. With respect of education, migration rate is high for both less educated and highly educated but in case of seasonal migration, high propensity is observed among the illiterate people (Connell et al.1976).Educational level of migrants have important role to determine type of migration related with the seasonal or permanent migration.

3.2.2: Social Group of Migrant and Non-Migrant Households

Socio-economic background is very important to understand the characteristics of migration. Many studies find out that backward social group people are more migrants than compare to others.

Table 3.2.2: Social Group of Migrant and Non-Migrant Households

Social Group	Migrants		Non- Migrants	
	No. of Cases	Percentage	No. of Cases	Percentage
SCs	45	15.0	27	18.0
OBCs	232	77.3	114	76.0
Others	23	7.6	9	6.0
Total	300	100.0	150	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2016

As closer look the table 3.2.2, social profile of migrants reveals that poor and backward people have higher propensity of migration. As far as social groups of migrant are concerned, more than three fourth of migrants belong to OBCs social group. In the sample district mostly population by minority dominated according to the census of India, 60 percent population belong to Muslim minority community. West Bengal state government included Muslim minority group as OBCs (A) category. The highest percentage migrants from OBCs followed by the SCs and others. Scheduled caste constitutes the 15 percentage of total migrants. Others category is constituted of those migrants who does not know about their social groups. Many studies show that OBCs and SCs are vulnerable and more backward socio-economically that forced them to out migration. In case of non-migrants by social groups' category, 76 percentages non migrants are from the OBCs category whereas 18.0 percentages belong to SC social group. About 18 percent non-migrants reported their social group as scheduled caste category. Almost one third population live in below poverty line in rural India whereas

they possess low human and physical capital and tend to be concentrated among the socially deprived groups such as SCs, STs and OBCs. These social groups have higher propensity of migration in India (Srivastava and Sutradhar, 2016). Prasad (2016) in his study finds out that SCs and OBCs have higher chance of migration than the other social groups. Social groups like STs and SCs have higher propensity of migration than the other social groups in the society (Bhagat and Keshori, 2010). Most of the seasonal migrants are lower caste, lower educated level and interior part of the country side of Dungapur district of Rajasthan (Menaria et.al, 1991). Circular type of migration rate is high among the poor, SCs, STs (Deshingkar, 2006). As far as social status of migrant is concerned, lower and backward social strata people are more migrants than the other groups of population in the society.

3.2.3: Religion of Migrant and Non-Migrant Households

India is a country of unity in diversity in terms of physical, cultural and ethnicity. There are many religious groups whereas migration behavioural pattern is different from the different groups of people in India.

Table 3.2.3: Religion and Migrant and Non-Migrants Household

Religion	Migrants		Non- Migrants	
	No. of Cases	Percentage	No. of Cases	Percentage
Hinduism	45	15.0	27	18.0
Islam	255	85.0	123	82.0
Total	300	100.0	150	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2016

Table 3.2.3 reveals the religious category of migrants and non-migrants household. Table 3.2.3 indicates that more than four-fifth number migrants belong to Muslim community. Many reports and studies show that they are more backward than the other community. Even they are more backward than SCs category. According to the census of India (2011), 60 percentages people belong to the Muslim minority communities of Malda district. In both the cases migrant and non-migrants, Muslim is dominant because sampled village are Muslim dominated. Lack of employment opportunities, poverty and lower wage rate enforce them to out migration. Srivastav and Sudhradhar, (2016) study on construction worker in Delhi NCR finds out that a large number of Muslim people engaged in construction sector while they come from West Bengal Malda and Murshidabad district.

3.2.4 Size of Landholding of Migrant and Non-Migrants

Land is considered as important resources for rural society. Land is considered as assets for making the decision of migration. Low land and landlessness force the people to out-migration because income from agriculture is no sufficient for sustenance of household. There are many literatures available which incorporates relationship between migration and land ownership. Little accessibility of land in a predominantly agrarian society enforces the people to leave with alternatives to migration. The accessibility of land is very limited that enforce all poor young people to outmigration as a livelihood option in Latin American countries. (Acharya, 2003).Land is considered as productive assets for the household in rural areas.

Table 3.2.4: Size of Landholding of Migrant and Non-Migrants

Size of Landholding	Migrants		Non- Migrants	
	No. of Cases	Percentage	No. of Cases	Percentage
Landless & below 1 Bigha	198	66.0	60	40.0
(1-5) Bigha	87	29.0	68	45.3
More than 5Bigha	15	5.0	22	14.7
Total	300	100.0	150	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2016

Connell et al. (1976) stated that lack of land availability is the primary economic driving force of out migration in many villages in India. Many small farmers are compelled to sell their land to the big company and large land owners and enforced them to enter the migration process. It is said that “the more an individual is poor, landless and socio-economically deprived, the greater the chance of his migration from rural to urban areas”. (Mukherjee,1979). As closer look to the table 3.2.4 of landholding size of migrants and non-migrants, two third migrant are landless i.e about 87 percentage migrants have either no land or below one bigha of land. The factors like lack of employment opportunities and landlessness forced the people to out migration. About 29 percentage household of migrant have the land (1-4) bigha. Only 5 percentage migrant reported that they have land more than 5 bigha. There is nonlinear relationship between size of land holding and migration, percentage of migrants decrease with increasing the size of landholding. As far as, non-migrant household is concerned, the highest percentage non-migrants posses the medium category size of landholding (1-5) bigha which is followed by landless and bellow 1 bigha and more than 5 bigha respectively. The higher percentage of non-migrant’s household have more than 5 bigha than the

migrant's household. Larger sizes of land holders are non-migrants because they have the sufficient land for survival of household. Sharma (1984), in his study finds out that household with no land or have less than one bigha have higher tendency of migration. Migration is livelihood strategy for landless and poor people in rural areas. Land is considered as the productive assets for rural people. It is the main source of livelihood of the people of rural areas. Hugo (1985) had also pointed out that larger landholders have the sufficient land for their survival while many landless people migrate from rural areas because of seasonality of unemployment in the village level.

3.2.5 Monthly Household Income of Migrant and Non-Migrants

Monthly household income is considered as an important economic indicator to understand the economic conditions of household. Table 3.2.5 provides the information of migrant and non-migrant's household income. Household income means total family member of household. Table 3.2.5 reveals that average income of migrants household is 14500 per month with the standard deviation of 3430 whereas household income of non-migrants household is 11000 per month with the standard deviation of 3234.

Table 3.2.5 Monthly Household Income of Migrant and Non-Migrants

Household Income (Monthly)	Migrants		Non-Migrants s	
	No. of Cases	Percentage	No. of Cases	Percentage
Below 8000	1	.3	5	3.3
8000-110000	81	27.0	95	63.3
11100-14000	129	43.0	19	12.7
14100-17000	53	17.7	22	14.7
17100-20000	24	8.0	7	4.7
20000+	12	4.0	2	1.3
Total	300	100.0	150	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2016

The highest percentage of migrant's household income is within the (R.s 11100 to 14000) which is followed by (R.s 8000-11000), (R.s 14100-17000), (R.s 17100-20000) and more than R.s 20000 and below R.s 8000 per month. On the other hand, the highest percentage non-migrant's household income is between (R.s 8000-11000), followed by (R.s 14100-17000), (R.s 11100-14000),(R.s 17000-20000), below R.s 8000 and more than R.s 20000 per month. Another interesting point is that, from the average income of household, increasing percentage is high from migrant's household rather than the non-

migrant's household. Migrant's households have higher percentage income than the non-migrant household because of two reasons. Firstly, number of male member engaged in economic activities, secondly, the higher wage of migrants' construction worker than the local level. Another point can be mentioned that female member also engaged in economic activities of migrant's household for sustenance the family at the place of origin. Mberu (2006) in his study on 'Internal Migration household Living Conditions in Ethiopia' finds out that the migrant's households have higher level of income than non-migrant's household.

3.2.6 Monthly Consumer Expenditure of Migrant and Non-Migrant Households

The expenditure incurred by a household on domestic consumption during the reference period is the household's consumer expenditure (NSSO, 2007-08). Monthly consumer expenditure is considered as an important indicator for measurement of economic goodness of household. It is indirect measurement of economic status of household. Monthly consumer expenditure is formed with expenditure of food, health, education and non food items and others.

Table: 3.2.6 Monthly Consumer Expenditure of Migrant and Non-Migrant Households

Monthly Household Expenditure (in Rs.)	Migrants		Non-Migrants	
	No. of Cases	Percent	No. of Cases	Percent
Below 6000	12	4.00	8	5.33
6001-7000	67	22.33	28	18.67
7001-8000	77	25.67	72	48.00
8001-9000	110	36.67	27	18.00
9001-10000	21	7.00	10	6.67
10000+	13	4.33	5	3.33
Total	300	100.00	150	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2016

As closer look of table 3.2.6, the highest percentages monthly consumer expenditure is found among the migrant's household range (R.s 8001-9000 per month which is followed by (R.s 7001-8000), (R.s 6000-7000), (R.s 9001-10000), (R.s 10000 and more) and below R.s 6000 per month. On the other hand, the highest percentage consumer expenditure is found of non-migrant's household is (R.s 7001-8000) per month, followed by (R.s 6001-7000), (R.s 8001-9000), (R.s 9001-10000), (more than R.s 10000) and

below Rs 5000 per month. Average monthly consumer expenditure of non-migrant household is Rs.7885 whereas this is Rs. 8742 for migrant households. Mohanty and Dubey (2013) use NSSO (2007-08) data for the study of “Economic well being of households in the state of India” finds out that migrant’s households have higher expenditure than non-migrant’s household.

3.2.7 Occupational Structure of Migrant and Non-Migrant Household’s Member

It is very important to know the occupational profile of migrant and non-migrant household’s member because it gives the background characteristics for both migrant and non-migrant household. Most of the people of rural areas engaged in agricultural sector of economy and do work as daily wage worker in different type of activities. Table 3.2.7 present the occupational structure of member of migrant and non-migrant household. As closer look the table 3.2.7, the highest percentage member engaged in construction labour/helper of migrant household followed by mason, daily wage worker (other than agriculture), daily wage worker (earning from agriculture while the highest percentages member of non-migrant household engaged in daily wage worker other than agriculture, followed by mason skilled labour, cultivator, construction labour. A large number of people out migrate from rural areas because of low land or landlessness and agriculture failure due to natural disaster drought, flood whereas most of them enter into construction sector because lack of skill and easy to get job. The highest percentages people enter in construction sector as helper of mason. They acquired their skilled by their colleague, friends and relatives while there is no institutional training system. Second occupation profile of migrants’ household member is mason skilled labour. They also migrate due to low wage rate, lack of availability of job at local level. On the other hand, the highest percentages of member of non-migrant’s household member engaged as daily wage work (earning from agriculture) because in rural areas lack of diversification occupation and most of the people engaged as wage worker in agriculture. The second important occupation of non-migrant household member engaged in daily wage worker other than agriculture. Above 13.35 percents migrant household member engaged in daily wage worker (other than agriculture) whereas 10.83 percents member of non-migrant’s household engaged as cultivator. Land is important resource for rural people while it is important source of income for household.

Table 3.2.7: Occupational Profile of Migrant and Non-Migrant Household's Member

Occupational Profile of Member of Household	Migrant Household		Non-Migrant Household	
	No of cases	Percents	No of cases	Percents
Daily Wage Worker (Agri.)	117	7.40	80	10.83
Daily Wage Worker (other Agri.)	211	13.35	60	8.12
Cultivator	38	2.40	48	6.50
Construction Labour/Helper	183	11.57	33	4.47
Mason Skilled Labour	164	10.37	46	6.22
Housewife	131	8.29	150	20.30
Student	556	35.17	254	34.37
Self Employed	22	1.39	10	1.35
Not Working	151	9.55	55	7.44
Others	8	0.51	3	0.41
Total	1581	100.00	739	100.00

Source: Field Survey, 2016

Size of larger land holders do not migrate from native place because they are satisfied from agriculture. In opposite, landless and low size of landholding household member migrated for work to sustenance for their family. As far as, sex wise occupation is concerned, migrant household reported that female of household also engaged as daily wage worker whereas most of the female member of migrant's household engaged agriculture activities as wage labour. On the other hand, most of the female of northern Malda engaged as daily wage labourer in beedi manufacturing cottage industry. The percentage of daily wage worker other than agriculture is higher for migrant household rather than the non-migrant's household. As closer look table3.2.7, an interesting point is that the percentage of housewife is higher for non-migrant's household as compare to migrant's household that means migrant's household member take part as daily wage at local labour market. The higher percentage of student is found in migrant's household than the non-migrant's household. Migrant worker reported that they spend their remittance for education of sister/daughter and brother. Not working percentage population is high for migrant's household while this percentage is low for non-migrant's household. The higher percentage migrant household reported as joint and extended joint family system that is why a portion of family member would be below 15 years and people more than 65 years.

3. Housing Conditions and Living Quality of Migrant and Non-migrant Household

Census of India is important major source of data about housing conditions and quality of living. House listing and housing conditions of data scope was widen in the census of types of materials used by household and selected basic amenities of household in 1991. As far as Census of India 2001 is concerned, major changes is taken place including the information regarding asses the quality of living and quality of housing of household.

3.3.1 Housing Conditions of Migrant and Non-Migrant's Household

Housing condition data of building usages materials of houses, number of dwelling room in house and nature of house by ownership are included.

Table 3.3.1: Building Materials Usages in House of Migrant and Non-Migrant's Household

Nature of House	Migrants Household		Non-Migrants Household	
	No of cases	Percentage	No of cases	Percentage
Pucca	48	16.0	21	14.0
Semi-pucca	170	56.7	91	60.66
Kachcha	82	27.3	38	25.3
Total	300	100.0	150	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2016

The study to understand the background characteristics of migrant's worker is incomplete without the information of their living conditions of migrants at the place of origin. Nature of house is an important indicator to assess the living condition of migrants. Only 16 percent of migrants belong to the families who lived in pucca house whereas almost two third migrants live in semi-pucca house. As far as the nature of household of non-migrant is concerned, the highest percentage of non-migrant household nature is semi-pucca followed by the kachcha and pucca. An interesting point is that the higher percentage of pucca house is found among the migrant's household than the non-migrant's household. This study also shows that the migrants are asked about the aspiration factors of migration. Most of the migrants answered that construction of house is an important factor of migration. After meet the basic needs of family, migrants are using their remittances for construction and repairing the houses. It indicates that migration helps the migrants to improve the housing conditions at the place of origin.

3.3.2 Number of Dwelling Room of Migrant and Non-Migrant Houses

Number of dwelling room of houses help to assess the quality of living of migrant and non-migrant's at the place of origin. Number of dwelling room is an important indicator for housing conditions of household. Table 3.3.2 provides the information of number of dwelling room in the house. The highest percentages of houses have two dwelling room which is followed by three, one and more than three number of dwelling room respectively in the migrant's house.

Table 3.3.2: Number of Dwelling Room of Migrant and Non-Migrant Houses

Number of Dwelling Room	Migrant House		Non-Migrant House	
	No. of Cases	Percents	No. of Cases	Percents
1	50	16.67	31	20.67
2	142	47.33	85	56.67
3	83	27.67	24	16
More than 3	25	8.33	10	6.67
Total	300	100	150	100

Source: Field Survey, 2016

On the other hand, 56.67 percentages non-migrant's house have 2 number of dwelling room followed by one, three and more than number of three dwelling room. In addition, percentages of house with two dwelling room is more in case of non-migrant's while percentages house with number of three and more than three dwelling room house are more for migrant's house than the non-migrant's house. Interesting thing is that major percentage of household do not have separate kitchen for cooking while they use dwelling room space as cooking space.

3.3.3 Basic Amenities of Migrant and Non-Migrant Household

Basic amenities have great role to assess the quality of living of household. There are different type of basic amenities while major of scholar emphasised on three amenities, sanitation, drinking water and electricity.

Safe drinking water influence in different way as it reduces the incidence of disease and deaths. It also helps to cut off the money on health expenditure, save money for health and help to improve human quality and quality of living. Table 3.3.3 reveals source of drinking water for migrant and non-migrant household. In case of both migrant and non-migrant's household, major source of drinking water is hand pump well. About 97.7

percentage of migrant's household source of drinking water is hand pump while that percent is lower in non-migrant's household than migrant's household. On the other hand, a very low percent of household use well water as source of drinking water for both migrant and non-migrant's households.

Table 3.3.3: Basic Amenities of Migrant and Non-Migrant Households

Source of Drinking Water	No of cases	Percentage	No of cases	Percentage
Hand Pump	293	97.7	137	98
Well	7	2.3	3	2
Total	300	100	150	100
Availability of Water				
Within Premises	192	64	92	61.33
Near premises	108	36	58	38.67
Total	300	100	150	100
Kitchen Facility				
Non Separate Kitchen	142	47.33	80	53.33
Separate Kitchen	158	52.67	70	46.67
Total	300	100	150	100
Bathroom Facility				
Separate	48	16	21	14
Non Separate	252	84	129	86
Total	300	100	150	100
Latrine Facility				
Yes	216	72	105	70
Open Defecation	84	28	45	30
Total	300	100	150	100

Source: Field Survey, 2016

Majority of household of both migrant and non-migrants reported that source of water is within the premises of house whereas 36 percents migrant and 38.67 percents non-migrant's household have water source near the premises (table 3.3.3). Census of India (2011) revealed that 82 percent household receive drinking water within the premises and near the premises.

Another important basic need is sanitation. It is very important for rural health and hygienic because two basic needs safe drinking water and sanitation. Sanitation is broad term comprising with domestic sanitation, safe drinking water, excreta disposal, garbage disposal etc. Kitchen facility and latrine facility have great role for health of household member and dignity for women. As far as latrine facility concerned for migrant and non-migrant's household is concerned, 72 percent migrant's households have reported that they have latrine facility within premises and near premises while this percent is lower

for non-migrant's household. On the other hand, 28 percent migrant's household and 30 percent non-migrant's household usually use open defecation for latrine facility (table 3.3.3). Lack of latrine facility inversely affects on the health of household. According to Census of India (2011), 49.8 percent households involved in open defecation.

Kitchen facility in the household is considered as important indicator for assess the indoor pollution of household while it adversely affects on the health of household. Kitchen facility available in the household is also important for assess the health of household. As closer look table 3.3.3; about 52.67 percentages of migrant's household have separate kitchen facility whereas this percentage is low for non-migrant's household. On the other hand, the opposite result is found in case of non separate kitchen facility of household, higher percentages non-separate kitchen is found for non-migrant's households while this percentage is lower of migrant's household. According Census of India (2011), nearly 61 percent households have separate kitchen while 39 percents household do not have separate kitchen facility.

Bathroom facility of household is also considered as indicator of basic amenities of household. Table 3.3.3 provides the information of bathroom facility of migrant and non-migrant's households. As far as bathroom facility available is concerned, 16 percent migrant's households have separate bathroom facility whereas 14 percent households have separate bathroom facility for non-migrant household. On the other hand, the higher percentage of non-separate bathroom for non-migrant's than the migrant's households. It may be because of higher income and expenditure of migrant's household than non-migrant's households. As far as bathroom facility is concerned, 16 percent households have separate bathroom facility in India.

3.3.4: Cooking Fuel Used by Migrant and Non-Migrants Household

Fuel source uses by the migrant and non-migrant's household is also considered as important factor to understand the socio-economic background characteristics of migrant as well as health conditions of the household member. Table 3.3.4 provides the information of fuel using by migrant and non-migrant's household. Fuel wood is main source of fuel for migrant household whereas crop residual is main source of fuel for non-migrant's household. Both migrant and non-migrant households have majority of source for cooking are fuel wood and crop residual.

Table 3.3.4: Cocking Fuel Used by Migrant and Non-Migrants Household

Source Fuel for Cocking	Migrants Household		Non-Migrants Household	
	No. of cases	Percentage	No of cases	Percentage
Fuel Wood	140	46.7	63	42.00
Crop residual	111	37.0	66	44.00
LPG	23	7.7	5	3.33
Coal	26	8.6	16	10.67
Total	300	100	150	100

Source: Field Survey, 2016

According to Census of India (2011), 49 percent household use fuel wood as cocking source. Almost half percentage migrant's household use fuel wood as source of cocking but that percentage is lower for non-Migrant's household. Crop residual is used as main cooking source for non-migrant's household while this percentage is low for migrant's household. Most of the non-migrant's households engaged in agriculture sector of economy as agriculture labourer and small cultivator that is reason for crop residual as important source for cooking of household. LPG is also source of cooking source of both migrant and non-migrant's household. The higher percentage LPG connection is found among the migrant's household than the non-migrant's household because migrant's household has higher income from the remittance. About 28.6 percent of household use LPG as source of cocking fuel Census of India (2011). Coal is important source of fuel of household in rural areas. As closer look, 3.3.4, about 10.67 percentage non-migrant's household use coal as cocking fuel source while this percentage is lower for migrant's household. Census of India data is different from sampled study area while census of India shows that nearly 2 percentage households use coal as fuel cocking. The higher percent use of coal is used because lack of availability of different cocking source or availability of coal or comparatively low cost of using for cocking.

3.3.5 Source of Light of Migrant and Non-Migrant Household

Energy consumption is considered as important indicator for measuring the economic development. As far as, source of light of household is concerned, about 81.7percentages migrant's household have electricity as source of light whereas this percentage (79.33) is lower for non-migrant's household. On the other hand, opposite picture is found in case of kerosene as source of light of, about 18.3 percentages migrant and 20.67 percentages of non-migrant households use kerosene. In both the cases migrant and non-migrant

household use more electricity because of different scheme initiated by centre and state government for rural people in West Bengal.

Table 3.3.5 Source of Light of Migrant and Non-Migrant Household

Source of Light	Migrant		Non-Migrant	
	No. of Cases	Percents	No. of Cases	Percents
Electricity	245	81.7	119	79.33
Kerosene	55	18.3	31	20.67
Total	300	100.0	150	78.67

Source: Field Survey, 2016

3.3.6 Distribution of Assets of Migrants and Non-Migrants Household

Land is considered as important assets of household. However, assets of household i.e. durable goods of household play important role to maintain the standarity of living of household.

Table 3.3.6: Distribution of Assets of Migrants and Non-Migrants Household

Assets	Migrants Household		Non-Migrants Household	
	No of cases	Percentage	No of cases	Percentage
Radio	26	8.7	10	6.66
Television	123	41	30	20
Mobile	300	100	150	100
Bi-Cycle	270	90	125	84
Bike/Scooter	33	11.0	8	5.3
Refrigerator	31	10.3	10	6.66
Computer	18	6.00	5	3.3
Both Phone	15	5.00	6	4.00

Source: Field Survey, 2016

Table 3.3.6 reveals that the highest percentage durable possession is mobile. The both the houses has 100 percents mobile. Another important common asset for both the migrant and non-migrant's household is bicycle. Table 3.3.6 indicates that migrant's household posse's higher percentage of bi-cycle than the non-migrant's household. In case of distribution of entertaining assets are concerned, 41 percentage of migrant's household have television whereas 20 percentage the non-migrant's household posses television. The higher percentage bikes are possessed by the migrant's household than non-migrant's household (table3.3.6). In case of assets or durable goods distribution of household is concerned, migrant's households posses' higher durables goods rather than the non-migrant's household. About 6.00 percentage migrant's household have computer

while this percentage is lower for non-migrant's household. It can be easily assessed that the migrant households have higher percentage of assets and durable goods than the non-migrants household. Migrant's household income is influenced by the remittance sending by the migrant's to place of origin. Remittances of migrant's play important role as factors of assets distribution of migrant's household. Prasad (2016) in his study finds out that the migrant's households have more number of assets or durables goods than non-migrant's household.

Chapter-4

The previous chapter deals about the socio-economic and demographic background characteristics of construction worker of Malda district. This chapter deals about the role of social network, decision making process of migration and factors associated with male out-migration from Malda to other states. People migrate from the rural to urban areas mainly for employment related reasons. They face many types of problem at the place of destination after reaching while adjustment and getting employment become important issue for the migrants. Many studies reveal that social network play important role in labour migration process. There is multiplayer effect of social networks in migration process. Informal network help migrants to accommodation, to find job and to finance to their travel. "Migrant networks are set of interpersonal ties that connect migrants, former migrants and non-migrants in origin and destination areas through ties of kinship, friendship and shared community origin" (Massey etc al., 1983). According to Hugo (2008), "a migration network can be defined as a composite of interpersonal relations in which migrants interact with their family or friends. Social network provides a foundation for the dissemination of information as well as for patronage and assistance'. The economist, Glenn Lourey (1977) introduced the concept of social capital to designate 'a set of intangible resources in families and communities that help to promote the social development of young people. Migrant's network are set of interpersonal ties that connect migrants former migrants and non migrants to another through relations of kinship, friendship and share community origin. According to Bourdieu and Acquaint (1992), 'Social capital is the sum of the resources, actual or virtual, that accrue to an individual or a group by virtue of possessing a durable network of more or less institutionalized relationships of mutual acquaintance and recognition.'" Apart from that, social contacts help to minimize the risk factors which are associated with the potential migrants once the migrants reached the destination place. Well established social networks put a destination job within easy reach of most community members; making emigration a reliable and relatively risk-free resource' (Massey et al. 1987). Social network of migration reduce psychological and monetary cost by providing supportive relationship during migrant adjustment period as well as information of job search. Social network play important role to choice place of destination of migrant's. Relatives and friends help to search of job, shelter at place of destination (Banerjee, 1983). Many literature identified the three main types of social capital. These are bonding social

capital , bridging social capital and Linking social Capital .According to Boateng (2012), “bonding social capital connect the people in similar situations and exists among family member, friends and neighbours. Bridging social capital refers to distant relationship, such as those with service providers, traders and fellow workers. Linking social capital connects actors of dissimilar situation (people who live entirely different situations),”

4.1 Role of Social Network in Migration Process:

Table 4.1 reveals the information of role of social network in migration process. At initial time of migration, migrants heavily depend on strong social ties with relatives and family of migrant. The migrants decide to migrate after getting information of work at place of destination. It plays crucial role to decision of migration. It is very difficult task to search of work in construction site without contact with the concerning person for work. As closer look to table 4.1, about 40.00 percentage migrants get information for work from the contactors whereas 25 percents migrants reported that friends give information about the work. Fernandez and Paul (2011) study on “Role of Social Network in Construction Industry in Goa” finds out that contactor have a great role to provide the information about the works. Nearly 38.33 percentages migrants informed that relatives and friends are important source for information of work at place of destination. Banerjee (1983) study also shows that strong social bond like relatives and friends play important role to get information of Migration. When the relatives and friends are living in different places, propensity of migration increases (Ritchley, 1976). In addition, 13.33 percentage migrants reported that relatives provide information for work. On the other hand, 11.37 percent migrants proclaimed that family member give information for work while 10 percentages migrants informed that co-villagers are first informer about the work.

Table 4.1 reveals about how migrants go there for work, about 29 percents migrants informed that they go to place of destination with friends while 23.33 percents reported that they accompanied with co-villager for place of destination. Interestingly, 25.33 percents migrants accompanied with relatives for work to place of destination. More than two-third migrants migrate to place of destination with friends, relatives and co-villager for work purpose. There is very close bond within the Indian village, every people know to each other though they are not genealogically, they have the personal relationship to each other. This type of intimate relationship helps the migrants to get assistance from

their co-villager at the place of destination. After reaching destination where they stay also indicates role of social network in migration process. As far as with whom staying is concerned, 26.67 percent migrants informed that friend is assistance for staying to place of destination whereas 25.33 percents reported that they stay with relatives. Interestingly, about 23.33 percent migrants informed that they stayed with relatives after reaching in place of destination.

Table 4.1: Role of Social Network in Migration Process

First Information for Work		
Contactator	120	40.00
Friends	75	25.00
Relatives	40	13.33
Family member	35	11.67
Co-villager	30	10.00
Total	300	100.00
Accompany of migrants to go Place of Destination		
Friends	87	29.00
Co-villagers	70	23.33
Relatives	65	21.67
Family member	25	8.33
Contactator	53	17.67
Total	300	100
First Stay with at place of destination		
Friends	80	26.67
Relatives	76	25.33
Co-villagers	70	23.33
Contactator	48	16.00
Family Member	26	8.67
Total	300	100.00
Who help to Get Work		
Contactator	219	73.00
Friends	46	15.33
Relatives	20	6.67
Co-villagers	15	5.00
Total	300	100.00

Source: Field Survey, 2016

Social and Kinship ties are strong about staying of migrants at place of destination. On other hand, 16 percent migrants reported that they stay with contactor at the destination. Relatives and friends help the migrant to prompt the place of destination to provide facilitating of staying in new location, job search, material support and provision to new ties at place of destination (Choldin, 1973). Awumbila and Teye (2016) in his study also

finds out that social network like relatives and friends have greater role for helping to the migrant to accommodation and to find job at the place of destination in Ghana. Banarjee (1986) findings also show that relative and fellow villager have greater role to help the migrants to arrange of accommodation and different types of assistance to the place of destination.

It is very difficult task to arrange or get work at place of destination. Social network have great role to give information about of job at place of destination. They need help for getting work while contactor plays very important role to get work in construction sector. Contactor works as mediator to contact with big company for work. Construction labours mostly are recruited by contactor because there is no direct link with rural labour to big company. Table 4.1 reveals that about 73 percents migrants get information of work through contactor. On the other hand, 15.33 percentage migrants reported that friends help to get work at the place of destination while nearly 12 percentage of migrants also informed that their relatives and co-villagers have helped to get work at the place of destination. The job network means ties of migrants with which migrant enter into labour market. Contactor has a greater role to enter job market or getting of job in construction sector. Fernandez and Paul (2016) make sociogram network to assess the role of network in construction sector whereas they find out that contactor help the migrants to enter into job market in construction sector because they have relatively more degree of network.

4.2 Costs and Arrange Money for Migration

Migration is socio-economic and dynamic process in which migrants change place of destinations accordance with their employment opportunities at place of destination. The cost of migration is also important issue in process of migration because they need different type of costs like transportation, food cost during travel as well as cost of food after reaching at destination. Cost of migration also depends on the distance between place of origin and destination, mode of transportation. Most of the sampled migrants migrate to other states for their work while train is main mode of transportation. Most of migrants reported that they go to destination place by train whereas generally they journey by train in unreserved compartment. In addition they reported that to get reservation ticket is very tough and there is no prior information to go for work. As far as cost of migration is concerned, about 36.67 percent migrants reported that they need cost of travel range R.s 1251-1500 whereas 31 percent migrants reported that they need

money R.s 1501-1750 for migration. On the other hand, 8 percent migrants reported that they require R.s more than 1700 for migration while 3.33 percent sampled migrants reported that they need below R.s 750 for migration cost.

Table 4.2 Costs and Arrange Money for Migration:

Cost of Migration	No. of Cases	Percents
Bellow 750	10	3.33
751-1250	63	21.00
1251-1500	110	36.67
1501-1750	93	31.00
1750+	24	8.00
Total	300	100.00
Arrange Money for Migration	No. of Case	Percents
Have sufficient money	120	40.0
Borrowing money from relatives	30	10.0
Borrowing money from people in the village	45	15.0
Contactator	105	35.0
Total	300	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2016

Arrangement of money for migration is also important for the migrant because they may not able to arrange money for cost of migration expenditure. The most of the migrants migrate to other state for their work so that a large amount of money is required for arrangement of Migration. Table 4.2 provides information of arrangement money for migration. Table 4.2 indicate that more than one-third migrants are self sufficiency in money for migration cost while about 10 percent migrants borrow money from relatives for expending money for migration process. Contactator also influences the migration process through the advance payment of money at the place of origin. Contactator provides the full expenditure of travelling cost and migrants are bounded to work under his project. Contactator is the second important source for providing the cost. In addition, 15 percent migrants also reported that they take money for rural money lender to submit jewellery of wife to money lender. There is different process of labour recruitment for construction industry. Middleman and Sub-contractor play important role to recruit labour from rural areas while the sub-contractors advance payment to migrants for expenditure for migration cost as well as migrant expend these money for their household's consumption at the place of origin. Role of contactator cannot be ignored to process of migration of construction worker from Malda to other States.

4.3 Credit Network of Migrants at Place of Destination

It is very important issue for migrant construction workers how they manage money at necessary time at the place of destination. The migrants make new friendship at working place that means increasing social network.

Table 4.3: Credit Network of Migrants at Place of Destination

From whom credit Takes	No. of Case	Percentages
Relatives	54	18.00
Friends	26	8.67
Co-villagers	13	4.33
Contractor	207	69.00
Total	300	100.00

Source: Field Survey, 2016

Table 4.3 provides the information of crediting network at the place of destination. As far as credit network is concerned, two third migrants reported that they get credits from ‘Munshi’ who is the appointed by contactors as accountant in construction sites, cut down the amount form their wage during monthly payments. About 18 percent migrants informed that they borrow money from their relatives during the necessary times whereas 8.67 percents mentioned that friends give money when they need in any normal and emergency time. Very low parentages 4.33 migrants reported that they borrow money from their co-villagers during the shortage of money at the place of destination. Fernandez and Paul, (2011) found out that contactor has greater role to give credits to construction workers who are completely depended on contactors for their credits while the evident shows that another construction workers have hardly money for lending to others. Contactor becomes the main actor for lending money to construction workers. On the other hand, the construction workers who work under individual arrangement of work and borrow money from the friends, relatives and co-villager at the place of destination.

4.4 Decision Making Process of Migration

Migration is a complex socio-economic process while different factors play important role to decision and determine the migration process. Different theories have given different view regarding migration process. Some theorist propounded that individual is main actor for decision making process of migration whereas some criticize the role of individual as an actor of migration decision and they have given their view that

household and other local or community factors also play important role decision making process of migration. The theorist like Todaro (1969) stated that the main deciding factor of migration is differentiation of wage rate between place of origin and destination. Another theory of cost benefit model propounded by Sjaastad (1962), human migration is individual cost benefit model which stated that migration as the outcome of rational assessment of the cost and benefit movement. Bilborrow (1998) has give the more emphasized on the role of non economic factors like individual and household characteristics and as well as local level socio-economic at the place of origin and destination. However, decision of migration may be selective while young adults male who are expected to have positive net expected return on migration and in search of better lives (De Haan and Rogally, 2002). New economic labour migration theorist stated that household is best unit for decision making for migration. Male migrate from the household not only for maximize the income but also diversion of family risk and diversification the source of income for household (Stark and Bloom, 1985). Household decision of migration depends on demographic structure of household i.e. household member, age-sex structure of household and household size because larger families have required certain individuals to migrate to diversify of labour of household. Table 4.4 gives the information to decision making process of migration.

Table 4.4: Influencing Agent to Decision of Migration

Influence to take Migration Decision	No of Cases	Percentage
Family	96	32.00
Individual	80	26.67
Contactora	61	20.33
Friends	38	12.67
Relatives	25	8.33
Total	300	100

Source Field Survey, 2016

As closer look the table 4.4, about 32.00 percents migrant reported that the migration decision is influenced by family whereas 26.67 percents migrant informed that they take decision migration individually. Many new migration studies shows that household is basic unit for migration decision. Bloom and Stark (1978) in ‘New Economic Labour Migration’ theory propounded that family is basic unit for migration not only this it reduces the risk of income of household but also diversify the household income generating process. On the other neo classical theorist more emphasise has been given to

individual decision of migration where wage differentiation is important factor for migration decision. Third important factor which influenced the decision of migration is contactor, is the actor for giving the new information about the work in different construction sites. Another catalyst for decision of migration is friend's network because they give the work market information to their friends and influence the migration process of migrants. About 8.33 percents migrants also reported that relatives influence the migration decision while relatives give the information of about the working conditions and job market. Social network have greater role to decision of migration as well as many studies show that family decision of migration is also indirectly influenced by the social network.

4.5 Number of Adult Male Members Migrated from Household

Number of adult male members in a family is also an important determinants factor to decision of migration from household. It is very important to know about the number of adult male members migrated from households. Massey (1993) stated that household has taken decision of allocation of different work of member of household because they want diversify their income while household member is considered as resource of family.

Table 4.5: Number of Adult Male Member Migrated from Household

Number of Adult Male Member Migrated	No. of Case	Percentage
1	254	84.70
2	40	13.33
3	6	2.00
Total	300	100.00

Source Field Survey, 2016

Table 4.5 reveals the information of number of male out migrated from the family. As far as number of adult male members of migration is concerned, about 84.70 percentage migrants reported that only one male member is migrated from the household whereas 13.33 percents informed that only two male member out migrated from the household. On the other hand very few members only 2 percentages reported that three male member out migrated from the household. Type of household structure perform very important role to deciding number male member out migration from household. Our study shows that majority of household is nuclear in structure while single male member

out migrated from household. Many literatures show that demographic factor like age and sex play important role to determine number of male out migration from rural areas.

4.6 Determinants of Rural Male Out-Migration of Construction Workers of Malda District:

Migration is complex process and it is associated with different factors of migrants. To understand the determining factors of migration logistic regression is done. The bi-variate analysis is not sufficient to give conclusive information about what are the factors associated with migration because it depicts only the one to one relationship between two variables, whereas in reality hosts of factors play their role simultaneously in the processes of migration. So, logistic regression has been applied in this analysis.

To show the probability of migration being migrants, logistic regression has been done. In this logistic regression migrant status has been taken as a dependent variable which converted into binary variables i.e. migrant=1 and non-migrant=0. Age groups, marital status, educational status (Illiterate, primary, secondary, higher secondary), number adult male member of household, size of household (small, medium, and large), type of household (nuclear, joint family and extended joint family) and size of landholding have been taken as explanatory variables while religion and social group are not for consideration of analysis because sample is mostly from Muslim community as OBCs category of social group.

Age is important determining demographic factors for migration because working ability and stamina depends on age. Table 4.6 indicates that age group (20-29) and (30-39) is highly significant for determination of migration. The highest propensity of migration is observed among the age group of (20-29) whereas second most important age group is (30-39), others age group is not significant statistically. The people of young age group have the higher tendency for migration because of their energy, stamina for work (Pattanaik, 2009). The higher propensity of migration is found aged between 20 and 25 (Yadav, 1998).Hugo in his study has also found out that average age of migrant is 25 years. Average age of migrant is lower than the non-migrant sampled. The propensity of migration is decreased with increasing age that is the main reason behind the decision of not migration by the non-migrants. NSSO (2007-8) result also finds out that average age of migrant is 27 years that indicates the higher tendency among the young age population.

Table 4.6: Determinants of Rural Male Out-Migration of Construction Workers of Malda District

Table 4.6: Result of Logistic Regression:

Variables	No of Case	B	Sig.	Exp(B)
Age Groups				
Age Groups below 20 Years (R)	13			
20-29	200	2.794	.000**	8.144
30-39	149	1.603	.000**	4.967
40-49	77	1.424	0.883	4.226
50-59	11	0.369	1.407	2.573
Marital Status				
Un-married(R)	83		.000**	
Married	367	1.507	.0001*	4.511
Number of Adult Male Above 18 Years				
Adult Male (1) (R)	207			
Adult Male (2)	176	0.371	.000**	1.449
Adult Male (3)	59	1.423	.000**	4.148
Adult Male (4)	8	1.832	.025	6.245
Educational Level				
Illiterate (R)	131			
Primary (1-1V)	157	-0.939	.000**	0.391
Upper Primary (V-VIII)	126	-1.098	.000**	0.334
Secondary (IX-X)	22	-0.802	0.177	0.449
Higher Secondary (X1-XII)	11	-1.138	0.115	0.321
Above Higher Secondary	3	-3.369	0.067	0.034
Type of Family Structure				
Nuclear Family (R)	256		0.447	
Joint Family	177	0.101	0.737	1.106
Extended Joint Family	17	-0.776	0.246	0.46
Size of Household				
Small (1-3) (R)	89			
Medium (3-5)	250	0.601	0.000**	1.825
Large Above 5	111	0.481	0.001*	1.617
Size of Landholding				
Landless & Less than1 Bigha (R)	256			
(2-4) Bigha	157	-1.052	.000**	0.349
(5 and Above)	37	-1.711	.000**	0.181
Constant		-0.023	0.979	0.977

Source Field Survey, 2016

***(R) Indicates reference Category, ** highly significant and *Significant**

As far as, marital status of migrant is concerned, married persons are significantly higher propensity of migration than their counterpart (table 4.6). The migration decision of an individual is influenced by marital status because family burden and responsibility are increased after marrying. The migrants have lower marriage age and unmarried age than non-migrants in both cases. It may be because of low age of marriage of migrants or migrant married after migration from place of origin. Low ages of marriage and the family burden compel to out migration for sustenance of family (Pattanaik, 2009).

Number of the adult male member of household is also important determinant factor for decision of migration. Susceptibility of migration is increasing with increasing number of adult male member in household (table 4.6). The logistic regression analysis indicates that number of adult male member significantly effect on rural male out migration of construction workers. Tendency for out migration is increased with increasing with increasing number adult male member in household. The higher inclination of male out migration from household of with more than one adult male member because there is chance of additional of some persons to migrate outside while remaining member can look after their household's work.

As closer look table 4.6, the highest probability of the male out migration is found among the illiterate people in comparison to primary upper primary, secondary and above higher secondary level. De Haan (1993) in his study found out that illiterate and less educated people have higher tendency of migration. Mehta (1991) in his study stated that persons belonging to poor and landless sections and illiterates have higher tendency of migration which is due to fact that their poor socio-economic conditions force them to migrate. Sengupta (2010) finds out that education inversely influenced the decision of migration; there is higher probability of migration in low educated than the highly educated.

Size of family plays important role to determine the migration process. Several studies reveal that there is positive relationship between family size and migration (Connell et.al, 1976 and Sekhar, 1993). In other words, a large number of migrant's household has larger size of family than non-migrant's household because there is easy to spare some member to go outside for work betterment of household. As closer look table 4.6, it can be noticed easily that propensity of migration has been increased with increasing the household size. Prasad (2016) in his finds out that migrant's households have larger size

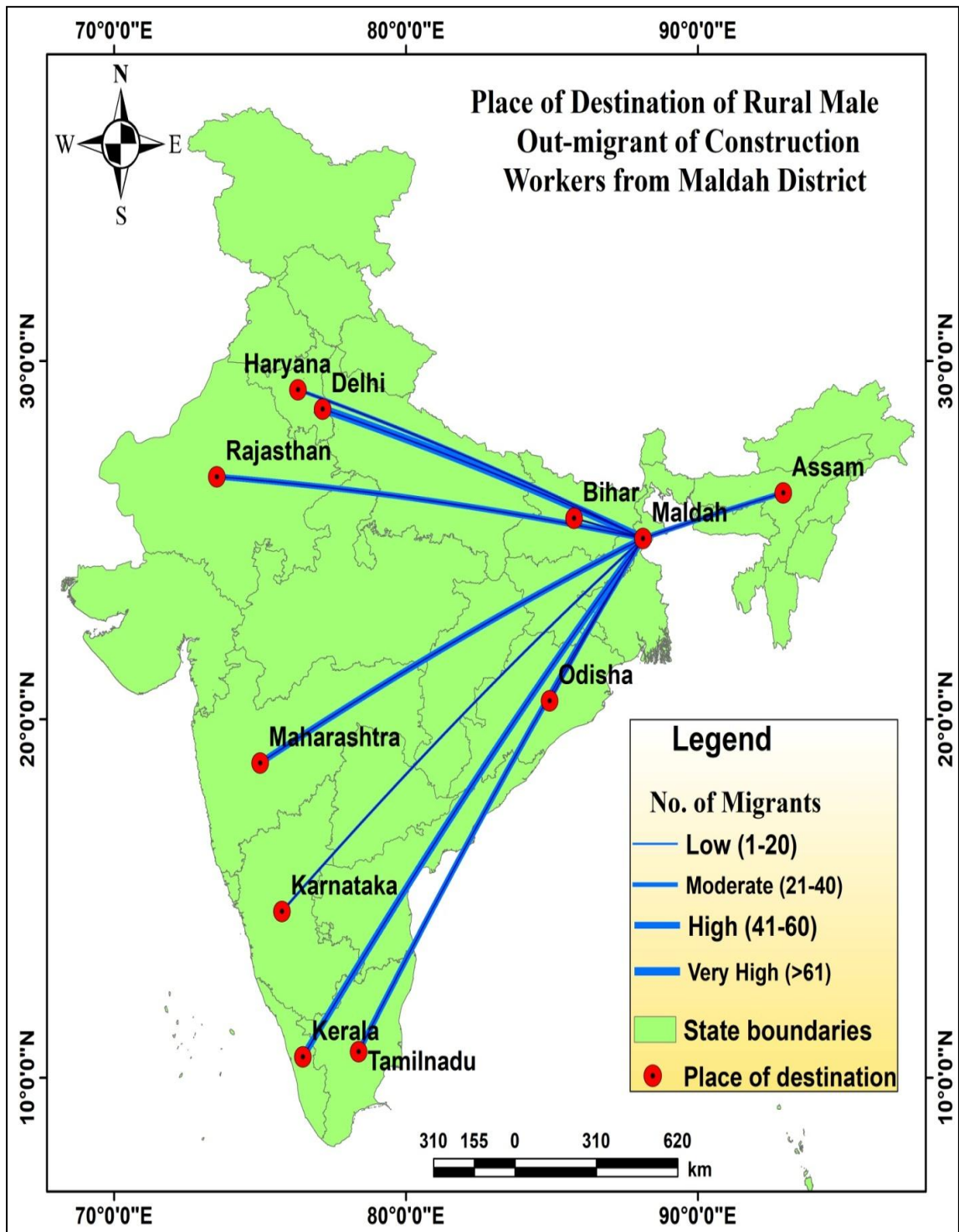
of family than non-migrant's household. As far as relationship between size of family and migration is concerned, larger family size inputs some extra economic pressure and increasing the poverty in the household as result there is chance of out migration from larger households (Sengupta, 2010).

Size of landholding plays important role to decision of male out migration process in agrarian economy whereas the people depend on land for their livelihood. Unequal resource distribution in rural areas and decreasing of size of landholding influenced the decision of migration in household (Bilsborrow, 1985). As closer look table 4.6, Landless and land less than 1 bigha size of landholding people have higher propensity of male out migration as compare of household landholding size of (2-4) bigha and More than 5 bigha. Hill (1972) in his study found out that 'landless and poorer have a higher propensity of migration than bigger and richer household. Landless household member out migrate for livelihood because size of land is not sufficient for supporting their family. On the other hand, larger size of landholder is less migrants because land is important resource for the income of household.

4.7 Place of Destination of Rural Male Out-Migrants of Construction Workers from Malda District

Construction sector is the second largest booming sector of economy while a large number of people engaged for work in this sector. There are opportunities for both skilled and unskilled workers while unskilled rural migrants are mostly absorbed in this sector for work. Availability of employment is important factor for choosing the place of destination. The map 4.1 reveals that the place of destination of male construction workers of Malda district. As closer look on map 4.1, the highest percents migrants go to Delhi NCR for work in construction sector which is followed by Kerala, Maharashtra Tamilnadu and Rajasthan. Delhi National Capital region is booming for construction sector of India. After globalization and liberalization of Indian economy, foreign multinational companies invest their money for build mult-compleies. Srivastava and Sudhradhar study on Construction worker in Delhi ensure that a large number of construction workers who work in Delhi, are mostly come from Malda district of West Bengal.

Map 4.1: Place of Destination of Rural Male Out-Migrants of Construction Workers from Malda District



Source Field Survey, 2016

The second destination place of construction worker is Kerala. Though, Kerala is culturally different from Bengal and there is language problem, many people migrate to Kerala in construction sector because of higher wage rate and good payment system. Emigrants of Kerala invest their remittances for making high building that open the opportunities for construction workers. About 13 percent migrants reported that they work in Maharashtra like in Mumbai and Pune. Maharashtra is also rapidly urbanised state in India whereas infrastructure is also developing very rapidly that open the opportunities of employment in construction sector. The fourth destination place of construction workers is Tamilnadu because infrastructure development is taking place in Chennai Metropolitan region. Metropolitan cities like Jaipur in Rajasthan, Guwahati in Assam, Bangalore of Karnataka also are destination place of construction worker but the percents of sampled migrants are lower in number than former places. A very few number of migrants workers reported Gujarat, Sikkim, Andhra Pradesh, Bihar etc, as the place of destination.

4.8 Reason Associated with the Male Out-Migration from Malda District

Migration is very complex socio-economic process and reasons associated with migration are also diverse and complex. It generally takes place from the area of less economic opportunities' and retarded social development toward fast developing areas. 'It is process of spontaneous achievement of better balance of resources'. Many theories propounded different reasons of migration but most of the theories emphasized to economic reason behind the migration process. Reasons associated with migration are different by gender. Male migration related with the economic related reason whereas female migration is related with the marriage. Another point is that male is long distanced migration while females are more migrants for short distance. The wage difference between the place of origin and the place of destination is seemed to be the most prominent factor behind the migration process. According to Todaro Model, the probability of migration is positively associated with the wage differential between origin and destination, and negatively associated with cost of migration. According to Lewis model of migration, surplus labour from the agricultural sectors is absorbed in the urban secondary sectors of economy. The final decision to move does not depends merely upon the balance of positive and negative factors at the place of origin and destination. The balance in favour of the move must be enough to overcome the natural indolence and intervening obstacles (Lee, 1966). Bose (1961) has tried to explain the

phenomena of rural to urban migration based on the push-pull model. He argues that the increasing pressure of population on limited land, seasonal unemployment, poor wage and the gradual decay of traditional calling and village industries tend to push the rural people to the urban areas. In the rural areas appalling poverty, unbearable unemployment, low and uncertain wages, uneconomic land holding and poor facilities for education, recreation and other service work as push factors. By contrast, the pull of urban areas may include better employment opportunities, regular and higher wages, fixed working hours better amenities of living, facilities for education and socio-cultural activities (Chandana,1986).

The present study explains about the rural male out migration from Malda district of West Bengal, namely the construction workers migration from rural areas of Malda district. Male construction worker migrate to work in construction sectors in the metropolitan cities of India. This section of the chapter deals about the reason associated with male out-migration from Malda district. What are the factors play important roles to out migration, push factors at the place of origin or pull factors at the place of destination. One interesting point is that it also will be tried to understand the reasons for the non-migrants of the people from the same villages from where a large number of males out migrated to others state in construction sectors.

The different factors influence the migration process while reasons for migration become different according to the place of migrant. Reason associated with place of origin is different from the place of the destination. The factor influence to out migration from the place of origin is defined as push factor of migration. On the other hand, factors associated to the place of destination are defined as pulled factors of migration. The present study try to find out the factors associated at the place of origin as well as the place of destination. Sample migrants are asked about the factors of move out from the place of origin and factors associated with the place of destination and cited more than one factors for both the cases. Multiple response technique has been used to analysis the factors associated with the place of origin and the place of destination of migrants. Respondents answer more than one at a time and multiple response technique has been used for making a table. Prefence order of response has been also emphasised to understand the prime reasons behind the migration process. The table 4.7 which is made by multiple response technique has five columns, to understand the priority reason of migration while last column indicates the total responses.

4.9 Push Factors Associated with Place of origin of Male Out-Migration:

To understand the reason associated with place of origin from Malda district to Others States, reasons are classified into two categories i.e push factors and others factors constitute with quarrelsome in home, political riot at local level etc. To make out the main responsible reason of rural male out migration multiple response technique has been used because migrant responded more than one reason for out-migration, priority rank of factors has been prepared to understand the prime factors for out migration. The column of table show the priority rank of migrant's responses factors and last one represents total responses.

Many studies reveal that the main reason for male migration is economic rather than other factors. Lack of employment opportunities is considered as an important factor for out migration of people. About 66 percentage people migrated due economic related reason in India (NSSO, 2007-08). Employment becomes the important cause of male interstate long distance migration in India whereas employment related migration has been increased (Srivastava, 2011). Lack of employment opportunities forces the people to out-migration. As closer look the table 4.7, 203 total respondents reported that is 67.67 percentages to total responses answered that lack of employment at local level is important reason for out-migration. It is the prime reasons for rural male out migration from Malda district. Malda is one of the socio-economically backward district of West Bengal and there is no industrial development to absorb the large number of population for employment. The push factors like, low agricultural productivity, high population pressure and low land man ratio are important reasons for unemployment in rural areas while people migrate to others states for employment. Mehta (1991) finds out that poverty, unemployment and lack of occupation diversification in rural areas lead to rural male out migration. Low economic development and inequality in village development are important reasons for rural out migration form Bihar (Kishore and Kiran, 2003)

The wage rate is considered as the catalyst force for migration. The wage difference between the place of origin and the place of destination is seemed to be the most prominent factor behind the migration process. The factor like low wage rate is the second important reason for out-migration from Malda district. There is a huge gap of wage rate between the place of origin and place destination. The migrants reported that they get more than twice wage rate at the place of destination .Todaro (1970) postulated

that main reason for migration is wage gap between the place of origin and destination. They are well known about wage rate in different place of West Bengal as well as other parts of the India. They get higher wage rate from others state than the native state. They try to maximize the family income through the migration process. Table 4.7 reveals that 166 respondents and 55.53 responses are come out for low wage rate as push factors of migration. Srivastava and Sudhradhar (2016) study on construction in NCR region finds out that wage differentiation between the place of origin and place of destination is important reasons for out migration from rural areas.

Land is considered as important assets for livelihood for rural people of India. There are many literatures available which incorporates relationship between migration and land ownership. ‘Having little access to land in a predominantly agrarian society leaves the land-less with few alternatives to migration. In some Latin American countries access to land is so limited that nearly all poor young people view migration as their main and perhaps only livelihood option’ (Acharya, 2003). Connell et al. (1976) stated land availability at the village level is the primary economic force for driving out migration. Landlessness and small size of landholding is considered as third important push factor of migration from the place of origin. As closer look the table 4.7, 124 respondents which are 41.33 percentages of total responses proclaimed that landlessness and small size of landholding is important reason for out-migration. According to Census of India 2011, population density of Malda is 1071 per square kilometres that higher than west Bengal.

Table 4.7: Push Factors Associated with Place of origin of Male Out-Migration:

Reasons	Priority Order								Total Responses	
	1		2		3		Others			
	No.	Per	No.	Per	No.	Per	No.	Per	No.	Per
Lack of Empty Opport.	156	52	41	13.7	6	2	0	0	203	67.67
Low wage rate	101	33.7	60	20	5	1.67	0	0	166	55.33
Small size of land	22	7.33	34	11.3	42	14	26	8.67	124	41.33
Poor Economic Cond.	21	7	30	10	24	8	31	10.33	106	35.33
Debt	0	0	25	8.33	32	10.7	12	4	69	23.00
Others	0	0	0	0	0	0	18	6	18	6.00
Total	300	100	190	63.3	109	36.3	87	29	686	228.67

Source: Field Survey, 2016 *data is calculated by multiple response technique

Higher rate of population density, heavy population pressure result into the fragmentation of land. There are certain factors which affect the migration rate significantly. These factors are low wage rate in agricultural sectors, drought in rural areas, lack of livelihoods strategy, lack of sustenance source of income etc. (Desshingkar, 2004). The factor like low agricultural wage, low agricultural land and landlessness and small size of landholding are important push factor for out-migration from rural areas.

Poor economic condition of migrant at the place of origin plays important role to out-migration. Many studies findings show that poverty is also pushing factor of rural out-migration. A large number of rural people out migrated from the western part of Orissa because of its unequal land distribution, high level poverty, among landless and marginal farmer and low level of human capital (Deshingkar and Akhter, 2009). A large number of sample respondents from study area are from the families of below poverty level economic background. Table 4.7 provides information that 106 and 35.53 of total responses of sample migrants from poor economic conditions pushed them to out migration from the native land. Another study stated that poverty induced rural to urban migration as result urban poverty also increasing for that. On the other hand, rural poverty reduced because of out migration from rural areas during the post reform periods.

Debt is another important reason for out-migration from rural areas. Recruitment process of migration of construction is interesting where sub contractor/middlemen contact with local rural people for construction sectors. Sub-contractors make advance payment to workers as well as they borrow money from contactors while worker are obligated to contactors for work under his project. The construction workers become the debt bonded labour. Table 4.7 provides the information that 69 responses and 23 percentage respondents proclaim that debt is one of push factors of out-migration. Debt is 5th important reason for out-migration. At time of survey, migrants take debt for different purposes such as marriage daughter and sister, medical expenses, investment in agriculture field and construction new house. Seasonal migrants locked in debt cycle of migration process; where earning for migration is used for repay debt at home and destination areas. Failure of agriculture enforces the small cultivator to out migration from rural areas that is also one type of debt induced forced migration.

Other reason constitute with political conflict at local level, quarrelsome in home and natural disaster like river collapse. River collapse is important reason for migration from southern part of Malda district. Ganga River ravages the land of Malda district. The Ganga swept away the houses and eroded valuable land as well as land is submerged under the river. Other factor associated with out migration is percentage is very low.

4.10 Pull Factors Associated with Place of Destination:

Push and pull model of migration explain with place of migrants origin and destination. Push factors related with place of origin whereas pull factors of associated with migration related with place of destination. In this part, it is tried to find out reason associated of migration at place of destination. The attracting factors of migration to place destination is called 'pull factors' of migration. Many studies find out that employment opportunity, higher wage rate, better working conditions and good payment systems are important pull factors of migration. The pull factors like charm working condition in the cities, new economy jobs and possibilities of getting in the city influence to their decision of migration (Ramesh, 2012). The factors like employment opportunities, better wage rate are the important for migration (Mitra and Murayama, 2008).

Higher wage rate is the most important factors for associated with place of destination. A large portion of migrants reported that higher wage rate is the important factors for out migration of construction workers to others state in India. They get higher wage almost double than at local level of construction. About 235 responses and 78.33 percentages of a sampled migrant cited that they migrated due to higher wage rate in others states in India (table 4.8). Many studies show that the higher wage rate is an important pull factor of male out migration from rural Malda. Harris-Todaro Model (1970) also stated that wage difference between place of origin and destination is an important reason for migration. Vinayakam and Sekhar (2013) in his study on rural to urban Migration in Indian Metropolis City: Case Study Chennai City” finds out that better employment, higher wage, more income are important pull factors of migration in Chennai city. Srivastava and Kumar (2003) also stated that economic reason is main reason for male migration from one state to another states. A large number of migrants move to urban areas to search of better employment and higher wage rate. (Rogaly et al, 2001) study

shows that the rice production areas of West Bengal local labour migrate because wage difference between the place of destination and origin areas.

Table 4.8 Pull Factors Associated with Place of Destination:

Pull Factors	Priority Order								Total Response	
	1		2		3		Others		No	Per
	No	Per	No	Per	No	Per	No	Per		
Higher wage Rate	190	63.3	45	15	0	0	0	0	235	78.33
Better of Emp. Opport.	102	34	110	36.7	0	1.67	0	0	217	72.33
Good Payment System	8	2.67	32	10.7	5	7	26	8.67	68	22.67
Presence of Relat, Friends	0	0	0	0	21	8.67	31	10.3	36	12.00
Total	300	100	187	62.3	26	17.33	12	4	556	185.3

Source: Field Survey, 2016*data is calculated by multiple response technique

The factor like better employment opportunities in construction sector is second important pull factor of migration. A large number of migrants migrate for searching of better employment. Ravenstein (1885) first postulated the ‘law of Migration’ which propounded that migrants move from areas of low opportunities to areas of high opportunities but distance is regulated the choice. As closer look to table 4.8, 217 responses to total that are 72.33 respondents migrate because of better employment opportunities at place of destination. Bhagat (2008) also shows that employment related reason of migration is important reason of male out-migration whereas employment opportunities are important reasons for migration NSSO (2007-08). With the employment opportunities, availability of regular work at place of destination is also important determining factors for migration.

Apart from the economic reason, payment system and presence of relatives and friends also important pull factor of migration to place of destination. Payment system in informal sector is an important issue for migrant worker because they do not get the payment timely as well as they get lower wage than the market rate. Better payment system has greater role to attract the migrants for employment. Better payment system is considered as important pull factors for migration. As far as informal sector is concerned regarding the wage payments system, it is very difficult to get wage at proper time. So, good payment system is also pull factors for migration. As closer look table 4.8, 22.67 percentages migrants reported that good payment of contractor and company is pulling factors of migration to destination.

Most of the literature and theorist show that economic is an important reason for migration but there are many factors that influence the migration process. Recruitment of rural labour process social network have greater role whereas contactor is the main actor for that process. Good relation with contactors and presence of friends and relatives are important pulling factor of migrants to move in the place of destination. Table 4.8 reveals that 12 percentage migrants migrated to go place of destination because of presence of friends and relatives there.

4.11 Reason Associated with Non-Migration

This section deals about reason associated with non-migration whereas a large number of people migrate from same area to others states to work in construction sectors but many people are not interested to migrate anywhere. The respondents reported that there are many reasons behind such type of decision. Sample respondents reply one or more at same time for that multiple responses technique has been used.

Table 4.9 provides the information of regarding the reasons behind the not-migration of some people from rural areas. As closer look table 4.9, it can be easily determined that homesickness is the prime factor because the highest 53.33 percents respondents acknowledged that homesickness as reason for non migration. Wolpert (1975) in his behaviour model interpreted that homesickness of non-migrants. He explained in the light of 'mover-stayer framework which described that "the perceived state of the environment is the action space within which individuals select to remain, on the other hand, from which to withdraw in exchange for a modified environment". The sample individuals of the study informed that they feel 'uncomfortable and loneliness in the environment other than their birth place and make a decision not to migrate from their well known settled environment'. Many of non-migrants respondents report that they tried to go out from home but not stayed more than 10 days. They took the decision at the place of home land.

The non-migrant engaged in agriculture is second most important reasons for not to migration because they are satisfied at home to engage in agriculture works. They have the sufficient agriculture land for survival to the family. As closer look the table 4.9, it presents the clear picture, 44.67 percents respondents cited engaged in agriculture is reason behind not to go outside the home for work purpose. Many studies also show that

many small land holders have sold their land to larger landholder while former are compelled to move out and later stayed at the native place.

Table 4.9 Reason Associated with Non-Migration

Reason Associated with non-migration	Priority Order								Total Responses	
	1		2		3		Others		No	Per
	No	Per	No	Per	No	Per	No	Per		
Homesickness	56	37.3	24	16	0	0	0	0	80	53.33
Engaged in Agri.	38	25.3	21	14	4	2.67	0	4	67	44.67
Satisfaction at Home	28	18.7	15	10	2	1.33	4	2.67	47	31.33
Health Related Prob.	12	8	8	5.33	10	6.67	2	1.33	30	20.00
Family problems	11	7.33	0	0	5	3.33	0	0	19	12.67
Social Stigma	5	3.33	2	1.33	4	2.67	3	2	13	8.67
Total	150	100	70	46.7	25	16.7	15	10	260	173.3

Source: Field Survey, 2016 *data is calculated by multiple response technique

‘Satisfaction’ at home is considered as the third motivating factor for not migration from native place. Table 4.9 reveals that 47 responses and 31.33 percents respondents replied that they are happy in work or income at native place. The decision of not to migration to other place is due to some complex human behaviour, either the desire level of the sample individual may not be so high and they are satisfied with their basic needs or they try to adjust to the changing condition by any others means but not to migrate anywhere availability for work.

The fourth reasons for not migration are ‘health related problem’. Many non-migrants informed that he is interested to go for work from native place but health related problem retarded them. Table 4.9 depicted that 20 percents respondents of sample replied that they cannot migrate to outside due to health related problem. Working capacity and stamina is decreased with increasing age. Average mean age of non-migrant is higher than the migrants that are why they are not capable to take decision of migration.

Family problem is another reason for not migration of the people because they reported that lack adult male member in family lead to insecurity at home. This reason accounts 12.67 percent respondents reason cited by the nearly 19 respondents (table 4.9).Sample respondents also point out that taking care of child wife and study of son/ daughter become the main obstacle to out migration from the native place. Many studies indicate that family fondness is also an important reason for not migration.

A very small proportion of samples respondents i.e. 8.67 percentage have mentioned that “social stigma of being a migrant worker” as one of the main reason for not migration to any other places (table 4.9). Mostly, they are the larger land holder and cultivator.

After examining the various factor related with male out migration and not migration of people from same village, pull factors like higher wage rate, better employment opportunities and good payment system play important role whereas push factor like lack of job opportunities, low wage rate, higher population density, low man and land ratio, lack of agricultural land at native place play important role to male out-migration from Malda to others states. Many people are not interested to out migration from same migrants village. The associated reason with not migration is homesickness, satisfaction of job, better care of family member and children education and health problem etc.

Chapter-5

Urbanisation and industrialisation process influence to emerge a large number of urban centres in different part of India. Construction work is rapidly growing in both processes while factory building, roads, government building, ancillary building etc. are constructed and erected while it influences to expand this sector and increasing the employment opportunities in this. A large number of people are required for different works. It is one of the largest informal sectors of economy and it has great contribution on GDP of India. Many times, it is considered as unorganised sector of economy where lack of work records, lack of the direct link to the employee and employer, irregular employment and vulnerability. Construction industry is the one of the largest employer of the migrant workers in India. It is rapid growing sector of economy in term employment opportunities. The highest percentage short duration migrants are engaged in construction sector, followed by agriculture related sector and manufacturing (Srivastava, 2011). Construction sector is an important rapidly increasing sector of economy in term of both GDP and people employed in this sector. According to NSSO (2007-08) 5.57 percentage workers are engaged in construction sector. A large number of people out migrate from their village to escape from poverty, lack of land and landlessness to urban areas for employment. Lack of any skilled of rural people enforced them to construction sector because it is easy to entry construction sector where there is no need of skilled for work and any one can joint as helper in this sector. The people engaged in this sector for different works in construction site, is called construction worker. It is important part for infrastructural and industrial development of the country. Many studies reveal that the living and working conditions of construction worker is very pathetic and deplorable. It is very important issue to know about living and working conditions of migrant's construction workers. This chapter deals about the working and living conditions of construction workers, health, social security, financial security, wage rate, wage payment system and process of labour recruitment in construction sector from Malda district who work different working site in different part of country. They are found across of different states boundary in India. There is two section of this chapter, first one deals about the working conditions whereas second one deals about the living conditions. Most of the studies show that the working and living conditions are hazardous, deplorable and polluted. On the other hand, they are deprived from the different services of the Company.

5.1 Working and Living Conditions of Construction Workers

The working condition of migrant's construction worker at the place of destination is another important aspect of migration studies. Many studies reveal that working and living conditions of migrant's worker is very poor. Mosse et al. (2005) tried to explore the living condition of construction workers while they noticed that living condition of workers are polluted, dangerous and hazardous without proper housing facility, lack of water and sanitary facilities. Picherit (2012) described the working site of construction worker in India whereas he pointed out that very dangerous, higher risk of accident, no proper safety measures and social and health benefit scheme for construction workers. In addition, urban migrant workers appear a lot of problems of accessing the government programme which are available in rural areas at place of origin such as, health care facility, education and food from public distribution system. Solanki (2011) explored that "tenure of work of construction sector is unpredictable and there is no work security of income of construction workers. Labours of informal sector face a lot of problem regarding the payment system". Mukherjee et.al (2009) stated that "unequal wage rate between local labourer and migrant's worker is an important issue for construction workers". Many findings also show that construction labours are removed from their job without being paid for their work.

5.2 Arrangement of Work by Migrant Construction Workers

Construction sector is the largest informal economy of India. A large number of people are engaged in this sector for their livelihood. A large number of construction works are confined within the cities. Many people are required for different works. Arrangements of work by migrants in construction sector are very important issue because works availability and regularity are depended on under whom they work. Recruitment agents and sub contactor pay advance cash to migrants for migration cost and this type of relationship becomes very exploitative for migrants worker. Mosses et al. (2005) have interestingly illustrated the three different processes of recruitment of rural migrant for construction sector. The first process is that 'migrant travels individually to cities and towns and recruited from informal labour market as daily labourer'. Second way of labour recruitment is through direct contact with contactor and travel with groups. "Third mechanism of labour recruitment is through the middleman or sub-contractor from local

level”. This mechanism middleman is known as ‘mukkadams’, ‘jamadars’, ‘sardars’ etc in different part of India in different name.

Table 5.1: Arrangement of Work by Migrant Construction Workers

Under whom Work is done	No. of Cases	Percentages
Individual	35	11.7
Contactora	233	77.7
Company	32	10.7
Total	300	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2016

Table 5.1 reveals the information of work arrangement of construction workers of Malda to other states. As far as work arrangement is concerned, 77.7 percentage workers work under contactor. Contractor plays important role for work arrangements. Contactor recruited the worker through two processes, Firstly, contractor recruited worker from rural areas through contractor agents and secondly, many workers enter labour market in construction sector by relatives, friends and co-villagers of worker who were doing work for long time. Interestingly, 10.7 percentages of sample work under big companies. The respondents reported that under the big companies, they enjoy the accommodation as well as regular job availability but they complained that they little bit get lower wage rate than individual arrangements of works. As closer look to table 5.1, 11.7 sample migrant workers do work under individual arrangement. They have explained the individual arranges of their work. Interestingly, they reported that they assemble at chock or market at early morning for work. Contractor or individual of prompter of builder come at chock and picked up them for work on daily basis. If contactor or local people satisfied with their work, they continue work for 4-5 days. They are asked why they do not work under the contactor or big companies. They answered that low wage rate, conflict of contractor at working sites and exploitative behaviour of contactor are main important reason not to work under contactor in construction sector. Many studies reveal that the recruitment practices by contactor is very problematic that can be compelled the migrants entrenched in debt. Internal migration of construction worker is debt bounded as bonded labourer in rural India (Breman, 1996). Debt bonded labour enforced the come in fixed particular period whereas the workers are compelled to work for longer time than the normal working time but they are not given the extra money for overtime work.

5.3 Nature of Work of Migrant Construction Workers

Construction industry is classified into two broad categories - Building works-involving different projects like houses building, offices, shops, schools, factories, hospitals, power plants station etc. Civil engineering projects like roads, bridges, tunnels dams, canal and docks etc. Company and contractor have recruited different personal skilled, unskilled and semiskilled labourers for different works. Contractor supervises the works and provides all materials, services, labour and equipments for works.

Table 5.2: Nature of Work of Migrant Construction Workers

Nature of Work	No. of Cases	Percentage
Building of private house	116	38.7
Public and Commercial Building	170	56.7
Construction /road tunnels/bridge/dams	14	4.7
Total	300	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2016

Construction work is also classified into two main categories, organised and unorganised sector. Under the organised sector work recognised as work under the big company and licensed contractor for work whereas in unorganised sector consists with small contractors do work individual building construction. As far as nature of migrants work in construction sectors is concerned, the highest (56.7) percentages of sampled migrant workers engaged in constructing of building, offices, school, hospital, factories and multiplexes etc. Sampled workers mostly work under the contractor of big company in the big construction sites. About more than one-third migrant workers engaged in private building of private of houses while 4.7 percentage construction workers engaged in construction of road, dams, bridges, tunnels etc. Mostly sampled construction workers engaged in organised sector of construction.

5.4 Availability of Working Days in Month:

The work availability at the destination is very important issue for migrant's workers because they do not get work at lean season. Availability of work also influenced the migrants to choose the place of destination of migrant whereas social network play very important role to get information of work. Availability of work at the place of destination is important factors for migration. Table 5.3 provides the information of working day in

month of sampled migrant’s construction workers. About 72.2 percentage of workers reported that they get work (20-24) days in month whereas 26.8 percentages of construction workers get the work (25-30) days in month. Only more than one percentages of worker reported that they get below 20 days work in month. Average day of work availability is 25 days in a month. Arrangement of work is very important for availability of work for construction workers.

Table 5.3: Availability of Working Days in Month

Working Days in Month	No. of Cases	Percentages
Below 20 Days	4	1.0
20-24 Days	216	72.2
25-30 Days	80	26.8
Total	300	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2016

Labour recruitment processes are very important for availability of work. If the worker recruited in construction sector through middleman/Jamalder for working under the big contractor or company that confirm the work availability in destination. On the other hand, when worker do not work under any contractor, they arrange work individually from labour chock. It increases the greater chance for low availability of work because they are depended on local daily labour market for their working opportunities. Srivastava (2011) study explored that “the construction labour who works in organised sector under the company and big contractor, availability of work is higher than those who engaged in unorganised sector for work in construction sector under the small contractor or working under the private house”.

5.5 Working Hours of Construction Workers

Working hour is important issue for worker because generally, worker engaged construction sector do work for 8 hours in a day. Working hours depends on various factors like recruitment process of worker, under whom they are working. Many studies show that unorganised individual project labour work for mostly 8 hours per day whereas the organised worker do work for long time and get less wage than unorganised workers. Breman (1996) found out that debt bounded labour does work for long time but they do not get extra overtime wage. Many sampled migrant construction workers complained that they are recruited by sub-contractor from local level by advanced payment for

particular limited time period. These labours are forced for long time work in construction site without the extra charge for overtime work. They are crucially exploited by the sub contractor and contractor. They are physically tortured and abused by the supervisor at working place. As far as working hours of construction workers are concerned, more than two-third workers work for eight hours in a day. The remaining workers work for more than eight hours to extending 12 hours in a day.

Table 5.4 Working Hours of Construction Workers

Working Hours	No. of Cases	Percentage
8 Hours	215	71.7
10 Hours	46	15.3
12 Hours	39	13.0
Total	300	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2016

Table 5.4 presents the working hours of construction workers. About 72.7 percentage workers work eight hours in a day whereas 15.3 percentage migrants work for ten hours in a day. In addition, about 13 percentages of migrant workers work twelve hours in a day. A few migrants complained that they do not get wage for overtime of work whereas most of migrants' workers get wage for overtime works. The wage rate for skilled and unskilled worker is 80 and 50 rupees per hour respectively. Many migrants' workers reported that they work overtime because they want to earn more money for sending home as remittance and saving purposes. Srivastava and Sutradhar (2016) findings show that organised workers who work in construction of commercial building, factories, hospitals and school etc work for long time than the unorganised workers engaged

5.6 Safety Products Offered by Employer to Construction Workers

Working condition of construction worker is important issue for the migration study because working conditions of construction industry is more dangerous, risk to injury and hazardous than the other industry. Construction laborer work in high building for moving with building materials in high building but many times, it becomes very dangerous for workers and increases the chance of causality. Safety security provided by employer in construction sector is important. This part of chapter is concerned about the safety products by the employer.

Table 5.5: Safety Products Offered by Employer to Construction Workers

Response	Contractor		Company		Individual	
	No.	Percents	No.	Percents	No.	Percents
Yes	195	83.69	28	84.85	5	14.29
No	38	16.31	5	15.15	30	85.71
Total	233	100.00	33	100.00	35	100.00

Source: Field Survey, 2016

As far as safety and security is concerned, safety products availability and use of safety products such as safety belts and gloves are common for construction site. Organized construction sector gives more safety products for workers than unorganized sectors. On the basis of arrangement of work of construction worker is concerned, there is three main categories, contractor, company and Individual. As closer look table 5.5, 83.69 percentages of construction workers who work under contractor, reported that they have safety products provided by contractor while 16.31 complained that they do not get proper safety equipments bag properly. On the other hand, 84.85 percentages of construction workers informed that company provided safety products in construction site whereas 15.15 percentage workers who work under company complained that they do not get full safety products in construction sites. In addition, migrant's construction workers who arrange the works himself from the chock, they mainly work in private house where there is no needs such type of safety products. Interesting fact is that contractor and company provides safety products in construction sites but all the sample migrants' "workers complained that more sophisticated safety equipments like dust mask, muffs, goggles are almost absence for both organized and unorganized sector in construction sites". Srivastava and Sutradhar (2016) study also finds out that "safety products like helmet and belts are common but others sophisticated equipments are absent for big company and contractor of construction sector".

5.7 Facility of Services to Construction Worker by Employer

Working conditions of construction workers is very poor while this industry is known as "three d, danger, difficult and dirty". The construction workers are more vulnerable than the workers of other sectors while they are more sufferers from occupation health hazards. Social security is very important for construction workers but they are not so much conscious about their facility of services. On the other hand, contractor and company are not interested to implementation of many acts or welfare scheme for

construction workers. Table 5.6 indicates the facility of services provided by employer to the migrant construction workers. As far as facility services of construction worker provided by employer is concerned, only 8.33 percents workers reported that they get injury compensation while 86.67 percents do not get any injury compensation from employer and 5 percents are not aware about the injury compensation.

Table 5.6: Facility of Services to Construction Workers by Employer

Facility of Services	Yes		No		Don't Know	
	Count	Percentage	Count	Percentage	Count	Percentage
Injury Compensation	25	8.33	260	86.67	15	5.00
Health Benefit	00	0.00	280	93.33	20	6.67
Retirement Benefit	00	0.00	290	96.67	10	3.33
First Aid Facility in Site	30	10.00	250	83.33	20	6.67
Any Other Social Security	0.00	0.00	(300)	100.00	00	0.00

Source: Field Survey, 2016

On the other hand, migrants construction workers are asked about the health benefit provided by the contactor is concerned, 93.33 percents workers reported that they do not get any health benefit fund from contactor while 6.67 percentages workers are not know about the health benefit fund. There is not any retirements benefit scheme for construction workers because most of the worker does the work under the unorganised and informal market of economy. First aid is important issue for construction site as causality rate is higher in this sector. As closer look table 5.15, only 10 percents migrants reported that there is availability of first aid facility at construction site. However, awareness of acts and scheme of construction provision is very low. Many studies show that construction workers are deprived from their welfare service in construction sites. Working condition and available of different facilities for worker is important interesting study for construction worker because the working environment is different from other industry. The working condition is hazaderous and inadequate for construction workers. The Building and other construction act (1996) is historical act for construction workers but it is poorly implemented. It mains aim to provide the safety, social and health care security of the construction workers under this act. Other provisions of this act are pension for worker to above 60 years age and expenses the treatment of major ailments and education for children. The act directs the state governments for to make employers liable for the provision of basic facilities. Awareness among the construction worker is very low. Most of the workers replied that do not know about the act.

5.1 Working Condition of Migrant of Construction Workers



5.8 Drinking Water Facility at Working Place

Many studies revealed that working conditions of construction worker is pathetic. Water supply is important factor for consideration of working conditions and facility availability for work. The source of drinking water is considered as indicator to know about the quality of working condition of construction worker.

Table 5.7: Drinking Water Facility at Working Place

Drinking Water Facility	No. of Cases	Percentages
Tap Water	74	24.7
Tanker	161	53.7
Tube well	53	17.7
No Facility	12	4.0
Total	300	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2016

As far as drinking water is concerned, tanker is main sources for water supply to construction works while 53.7 percentages workers reported that tanker water is source of drinking water at working place. Tap water is second important source of drinking water after tanker while 17.7 migrants reported that tube well is main source of water at working sites. Interestingly, 4 percent migrants complained that they are not getting water and they go out the construction sites to fetch water from somewhere (Table 5.7). Thus it can be assessed that some construction worker faced scarcity of drinking water while some worker complained that there is no source of drinking water at working site. Thus, working conditions of migrant's construction worker is poor.

5.9. Sanitation Facility at Working Place

Sanitation is broad term while sanitation means latrine facility, bathroom facility, garbage disposal facility, drainage facility etc. Now here, only the latrine facility at working place will be discussed. Many studies highlighted that sanitation facility at working place is very poor. As far as sanitation facility of sampled construction worker is concerned, many studies highlighted that sanitation facility at working place is very poor. Table 5.8 indicates that more than half workers reported that they do not have proper sanitation in construction site and they 53.7 percentages use open defecation whereas 28.7 percentages sampled workers use public toilet for sanitation purpose.

As closer look table 5.6, 11 percentages construction workers use sanitary latrine while 7 percentage workers use mobile toilets stationed at construction sites (table 5.6).

Table: 5.8 Sanitation Facilities at Working Place:

Latrine Facility	No. of Cases	Percentages
Open Defecation	161	53.7
Public Toilet	85	28.3
Mobile Toilets	21	7.0
Latrine	33	11.0
Total	300	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2016

Many studies show that the sanitation facility at construction site is also very poor and hazardous conditions. A large number of migrant construction worker complained that there is no latrine facility while they usually go to field near the construction site for their sanitation work.

5.10 Wage Rate Difference Between the place of Origin and Destination by Skill Status of Migrants Workers:

Wage rate is considered as very important influencing factor to determine the place of destination of the migrants. It is very significant to know about wage rate of workers at different place of destination in migration study. Low wage rate at the place of origin is the main important push factor of migration from rural areas of Malda.

Table 5.9: Wage Rate Difference Between the place of Origin and Destination by Skill Status of Migrants Workers

Place of Destination	Skilled		Unskilled	
	Average (in R.s)	Difference	Average (in R.s)	Difference
Delhi	450	250	320	120
Kerala	700	450	500	300
Maharashtra	550	300	375	175
Tamilnadu	600	370	450	250
Rajasthan	400	250	300	100
Assam	400	150	250	50
Haryana	450	200	275	75
Average	507	281	352	152
Home District	250		200	

Source: Field Survey, 2016

On the other hand, place of destination is also determined by the availability of work and process of labour recruitments by the middleman. As closer look the table 5.9, it is easily asses the wage differentiation with the place of destination and origin by skilled status. Table 5.9 indicates that there is huge difference of wage rate between place of origin and destination. Average wage rate of skilled worker is more than double whereas unskilled labour is R.s 152 with the place of origin and destination. It is easily depicted from the table 5.9, the highest wage rate of skilled worker is observed in the Kerala state which is followed by the state Tamilnadu, Maharashtra, Delhi, Haryana and Assam. On the other hand the highest wage rate of unskilled worker is found Kerala, following by Tamilnadu, Delhi and Haryana. Many studies show that average wage rate difference is observed from one working sites to another sites. The highest wage rate difference has been found southern state like Kerala and Tamilnadu and northern state like Delhi, Rajasthan and Haryana while in case of unskilled workers similar wage rate has been depicted from the above table.

5.11. Distribution of Migrants by Work Experience

Duration of migration is an important issue for migration study because it helps to make clear picture about the experiences of migrants. One important fact is that migrants get experience through working for long time in construction sites. Changes the occupation in this field is also important point for that study.

Table 5.10: Distribution of Migrants by Work Experience

Duration Period in (Years)	No of Cases	Percents
Less Than 2 Years	12	4.00
(3 -6)	86	28.67
(7- 10)	112	37.33
(11-14)	72	24.00
14 +	18	6.00
Total	300	100

Source: Field Survey, 2016

Migration experience period has been classified into five categories. Table 5.10 indicates percents of migrant by experience periods. As closer look the table 5.10, it is noticed that the highest percentages of migrants duration period is (7-10) years which is followed by the (3-6), (11-14) and more than 14 years. Only 4 percents migrants reported that they

have been the duration of migration is less than 2 years. They just enter the construction industry as a helper to mason. The occupational change and working mobility is not done through the formal education whereas it is acquainted through working experience day to day work in the construction sites. Most of the workers enter in to the construction sector as unskilled labour. On other hand, chances for acquisition skill are very limited because the skill has been learned from the job. The experience period is very important for determining the skill as well as to analysis of income of construction workers.

5.12. Skill Status of Construction Workers

Skill is defined as ability to do the work with some speciality while worker may be skilled, semiskilled and unskilled. The migrant workers enter into the construction sector without any training from formal institution but skill is necessary for construction workers.

Table: 5.11: Skill Statuses of Construction Workers:

Skill Status of Workers	No. of Cases	Percentage
Skilled	151	50.3
Semi-skilled	26	8.6
Unskilled	123	41.0
Total	300	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2016

Educational level does not play important role for acquiring of skill of migrant construction workers. The most of the construction workers reported that they do not get any training from formal educational institution for working in construction sector rather they acquired skill from their colleagues, relatives, friends etc. “Social network also plays important role to acquire the skill for construction sectors” (Fernandez and Paul, 2011), They acquired their skill from day to day work with their colleagues. They become unskilled to skilled through working process in this sector. ‘The skilled worker is those who developed the skill of masonry, carpeting and plastering and painting etc. through the job training by their friends, relatives and co-villagers’. Semi-skilled are those who are transitional stage, they are transferred from the unskilled to skilled but completely not developed. Unskilled refers to those who do not acquire any skilled, help to the skilled worker to do their work through bringing the building material and make raw material for building construction. As closer look table 5.11, it is observed that more

than half construction workers are skilled whereas semi-skilled and unskilled percentage is 8.6 and 41 percents in respectively. A majority portion of workers engaged in construction sector for long time while they also reported that they achieved skill by work day to day with their relatives, friends and co-villagers without any formal institutional training.

5.13 Occupational Profile of Migrants Construction workers

Different occupation profile of sampled migrants is also found because some many skilled workers are essential to do work in construction workers such as painter, plate setters, electrician, sanitary carpenters and supervisor etc.

Table 5.12: Occupation Types of Construction Workers

Occupation Types of Construction Workers	No. of Cases	Percentages
Mason	140	46.7
Helper to mason	107	35.7
Supervisor	11	3.7
Tile setter	24	8.0
Painter	14	4.7
Sintering Carpenter	4	1.3
Total	300	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2016

The table 5.12 reveals the occupational profile of sampled construction workers whereas masons constitute largest proportion of construction with 46.7 percentages. Mason constitutes with workers engaged in fitting, stone dressing and plastering etc. Casual labour of construction workers who help to mason for different work is called helper to mason. Helper to mason constitute of second largest occupational groups of construction workers with 35.7 percentages. About 8 percent migrants reported that they work as tile setter while 4.7 percentages worker informed that they work as painter in construction sector. On the other hand, 3.7 percentages worker work as supervisor in construction site. A very few percentage sampled migrants worker engaged in construction sector as plumber. Fourth of fifth of sampled construction workers constitute with mason and helper to mason by occupational profile of migrants workers. Most of the works are done by mason while to do some additional works different type of skilled worker is reacquired.

5.13. Daily Income of Construction Workers

Wage is also important variables to study construction workers. Daily income of construction workers are influenced by the various factor such as the whom under they work, availability of working days in month, daily working hours and the construction sector is organised and unorganised. Table 5.12 reveals that the daily income of construction of Malda district to the place destination. The average daily income of construction worker is 481.25 with standard deviation of 66.886.As closer look table 5.12, the highest percent migrants get income range of R.s 401-500 which is followed by range R.s (501-600), more than R.s 500 and R.s below 400. While another 39.67 percents worker reported that they get daily wage between R.s 501 to 600. On the other hand, 8.33 percents reported that they earn daily income more than R.s 500 whereas 5.66 percents informed that they earn daily income below 400 per day. The migrant's construction workers get almost double wage rate than wage rate of place of origin.

Table 5.12: Daily Income of Construction Workers

Daily Income	No. of Cases	Percentage
Below 400	17	5.66
401-500	141	47.00
501-600	117	39.67
More than 600	25	8.33
Total	300	100.00

Source: Field Survey, 2016

According Todaro (1969), wage differentiation is important reason for migration from rural to urban areas. An interesting fact is that many migrants construction workers complained that the worker who do the work under the company and big contractor, get lower wage than the construction workers who work through arrangement of work himself. The migrant workers, who work under the individual arrangement, get higher wage rate than the workers doing under contractor or big company. Big company and contractor recruit the construction workers through the middleman while middlemen get some recruitment charge from the company and contractor that is why the construction workers get low wage. There is a great difference between the wage rate of construction worker place of origin and destination. Many workers informed that they work in overtime means extra work to earn the extra money that influence the daily income of the

migrants. Wage rate of construction workers depend on the arrangement of work and the process of recruitment of labourers.

5.13 (a) Daily Income of Construction Work by Skill Status

Status of skill of worker is important determining factor of wage of construction workers. Wage differential refers to differences in wage rates due to the location of working place, working conditions, hours of work, type of product manufactured and other factors. It may be the difference in wages between workers with different skills of working in the same industry or workers with similar skills working in different industries or regions (Solanki and Zankhariah, 2014).Wage rate is different with differentiation of status of skill.

Table 5.12 (a) Daily Income of Construction Work by Skill Status

Daily Income in (R.s)	Skilled		Semi-Skilled		Unskilled	
	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent
below 400	0	0.00	6	23.04	11	8.94
401-500	16	10.60	15	57.69	110	89.43
501-600	110	72.85	5	19.25	2	1.62
More than 600	25	16.56	0	0.00	0	0.00
Total	151	100.00	26	100.00	1233	100.00

Source: Field Survey, 2016

Table 5.12 (a) provides the information of daily income by status of skill of construction workers. Place of destination is also very play important role to determine daily income of workers. Average income of skilled worker is 530.79 with standard deviation of 47.648 whereas semi-skilled and unskilled workers average wage rate is 472.70 and 412.85 with standard deviation of 34.744 and 27.987 respectively. As closer look table 5.12(a), 73 percents skilled workers get income of R.s 501 to 600 whereas 16.65 percentages of skilled labours earn more than 600 per day. In addition 10.60 percents skilled construction workers have daily income R.s (401-500).The highest percentage of semiskilled construction worker earn daily R.s (4001-500) which is followed by R.s (501-600) and below R.s 400. About 60.32 percents semi skilled workers get daily income within R.s (401 to 500) per day while 1.62 percents semiskilled construction workers reported that they get R.s (501-600) per day. About 89.43 unskilled construction

workers daily income between R.S 401-500 per day whereas 11.11 percents reported that they earned R.s 501 to 600 per day. Many studies reveal that there is great difference of wage rate between skilled and unskilled construction workers. There is average wage rate gap between skilled and unskilled worker is R.s 120. Migrant's workers also reported that southern states likely Kerala, Tamilnadu and mega polis cities Delhi and Mumbai give higher wage rate than other states. Wage rate varies within the categories of construction worker that is depends the factor like arrangement of work or whom under the migrants construction worker do the work. The construction worker who arranges work himself from the chock and direct go to site to manager to construction site, they get the higher income compare to the construction workers are recruited by middleman from rural areas.

5.14. Payment System of Migrant Construction Workers

Wage payment system is also important to study of workers in informal sector of economy. The payment of migrant's construction worker depends on the many factors like the recruitment mechanism of labour and under whom they work. Payment system also becomes different because it depends on the basis of work under which they work the organised and unorganised sector. Many studies also find out that advance payment system is prevailed in labour recruitment process of labour through the middleman and sub-contractors.

Table 5.13: Wage Payment of Migrant Construction Workers

Frequency of Payment	No. of Cases	Percentage
Monthly	175	58.33
Daily	55	18.33
Weekly	15	5.00
Advance Payment	55	18.33
Total	300	100.00

Source: Field Survey, 2016

Table 5.13 reveals wage payment of migrant's workers in construction sectors. Wage payment frequency is categorized in different payment ways. The predominant payment mode is monthly after ending the months. More than half migrant workers are paid after ending month because most of the workers do work under contractor and they pay workers monthly rather than daily. More than one-fifth worker get payment weekly basis

while 5.3 percentages sampled worker reported that they get wage bi-weekly. Another 18.3 percentages worker get payments daily basis because they mainly work under individual arrangements of work. One interesting fact is that 18.73 percentage workers reported that take advanced payment at home before entering job at place of destination. It is an exploitive process for migrant study to recruitment of labour at the place of origin. A large number of workers are necessary for construction worker but it is very difficult to recruit the labour for work directly middleman or sub-contractor play important role for recruitments of labour. Middleman recruits the construction labour at advance payment at the place of origin. The migrants are enforced to work for longer than the normal time of work. Contractors make agreement with workers for limited periods of works and they work there for certain period of time. Many workers complained that contactor exploit workers while they are forced to work twelve hours in a day. Mode of payment is also considered as important for construction workers of informal economy. Cash payment is important feature of informal economy system while construction sector is not exceptional case. As far as mode of payment is concerned, 95.7 percentages reported that they get payment by hard cash where as only 4.3 respondents informed that they get payment in bank account from the contactor.

5.15 Distribution of Migrants by Travel Arrangements

It is very important to know about the distance between the working place and place of living of migrant's worker and how they maintained their link with the both places. Working places changes time to time and changes contactors or employers in construction sector. Working place change due to changes of contactor while however, migrant construction workers also change their living place. Most of the cases, migrant live in temporary structure house in construction site whereas many migrant workers live in rented house from the place of working place. Presents part of chapter deals about the distance between living and working place of construction worker, mode of transportation, who has borne the transportation cost etc.

Table 5.14 provides information that half of migrant's worker live in construction sites and distance between working place and living place is less than 1 k.m while 41 percents migrants reported that the distance between working site and place of living is between 2-5 k.m. Only, 9.33 percents migrants reported that distance between working place and living place is above 5 k.m. Migrants changed their place of living with changing the

place of working. Majority of construction workers live in near the construction site. There are some advantages for contactors and construction worker living to near the construction sites because construction worker easily can present timely on construction site for their work while contactors save transportation cost of the workers. Table 5.14 reveals mode of transportations of workers from the place of working and living place of migrants. Prominent mode of transportation of worker is by walking i.e. 52.7 percents because they are staying the working sites. The second mode of transportation of worker is bus while 34.7 percents workers go to working place by bus. Less than 10 percents migrants worker go working place by auto whereas very less number of migrants reported that company provides transportation facility to migrants worker.

Table 5.14: Distribution of Migrant Construction Workers by Travel Arrangement:

Distance between Working and Living Place	No. of Cases	Percentage
Less than 1 k.m	149	49.67
2-5 k.m	123	41.00
Above 5k.m	28	9.33
Total	300	100.00
Mode of Transportation		
Bus	104	34.7
Auto	28	9.3
Walking	158	52.7
Transportation provided by contactor	10	3.3
Total	300	100.0
Cost of Transportation		
Yes	142	47.3
No	158	52.7
Total	300	100.0
Travel Cost Borne by		
Individual	45	31.69
Contactor	91	64.08
Company	6	4.23
Total	142	100

Source: Field Survey, 2016

As closer look table 5.14, more than half migrants reported that they do not give transportation cost to go working place because most of the workers live in construction sites and they go to working place by walking rather than other mode of transportation. On the other hand, about 47.3 percents migrants informed that they give transportation

cost for going to living place from the working place. It is also very important to know about the cost of transpiration who borne transportation cost to construction workers. Table reveals 5.14 that 32 percents workers borne their cost of transportations own self because they work under individual arrangements of work whereas 64.4 percents migrant's workers reported that transportation cost borne by contactor to go construction site for works.

5.16. Living Conditions of Migrant Construction Worker:

Living condition of migrant construction worker is very important to study construction workers. Most of the studies reveal that living conditions of construction worker is appalling conditions. This section deals about the accommodation facilities, building materials of room, drinking water facility, sanitation facility, sources of cocking fuels etc.

Table 5.15: Living Arrangement of Migrant Construction Worker and Quality of Room

Living Arrangement	No. of Cases	Percentage
Rented house	111	37.0
Construction site	152	50.7
Contractor Provided House	37	12.3
Total	300	100.0
Building Materials		
Pucca	72	24.0
Semi-Pucca	111	37.0
Kaccha	117	39.0
Total	300	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2016

As far as housing facility of migrant concerned, most of the migrants' construction workers live in temporary made tent. It has been observed from table 5.15 that more than 50 percent sampled migrant worker live construction sites whereas 37 percent workers live in rented house. Construction workers reported that 12.3 percents workers live in house provided by contactors and company. Nature of room or materials used for room construction is important to understand quality of room of construction workers. Table 5.15 reveals the information of room of construction workers whereas 39 percents workers reported that they live in kaccha houses construction with shed with the plastics,

makeshift and tin whereas 37 percents worker live in semi-pucca houses which is made with temporary wall and shaded by tin in construction sites and some rented houses. In addition, 24 percents worker live in pucca houses, most of which are rented house.

5.17: Migrant Construction Workers according to Room and Room Rent Sharing

Basis:

Room density and sharing room by migrant is also important for understanding living conditions of workers. Mostly, the migrants live in very congested place and room density is also very high. As closer look table 5.16, the highest percents sampled migrant construction workers live with sharing room of 6-10 persons while one third migrant worker reported that they live in room sharing with 11-15 persons.

Table 5.16: Migrant Construction Workers according to Room and Room Rent Sharing Basis

Room Sharing by Worker	No. of Cases	Percentage
1-5	24	8.00
6-10	166	55.33
11-15	101	33.67
15+	9	3.00
Total	300	100.00
Room Rent in R.s	No. of Cases	Percentage
Below 500	6	5.41
500	59	53.15
600	38	34.23
700+	8	7.21
Total	111	100.00

Source: Field Survey, 2016

In addition, 8 percents migrants worker reported that they live with sharing with 15 persons while 3 percents migrants share room with above 15 persons. Average density of room construction worker is 11 workers per room that is very high. Room rent depends on the nature, size and basic facility provided by owner of house. As far as room rent is concerned, 111 migrants worker live rented house out of 300 sampled migrants' construction workers. Table 5.16 reveals that more than half migrant workers paid room rent 500 pr persons per month whereas more than one third sampled migrants reported that they paid 600 as room rent per worker for per month. Contactor provides the accommodation near the construction site to make temporary tent.

5.18. Sanitation and Drinking Water Facility in Living Place of Migrant Construction Workers

Sanitation and drinking water facility at the place of living is important indicator to understand health of worker and basic amenities available of migrant's construction workers. Many studies reveals that sanitation conditions at living place of construction worker is very poor. Table 5.17 reveals that majority of construction are living without sanitation facility at place of living. As closer look, table 5.17 only 38.3 percents workers reported that they do not have sanitation facility and resort to defecation in open space whereas 34.3 percents construction worker used community toilets for sanitary work and migrants complained that they wait for long time in queue in community toilets. Another point is that only 27.3 percents migrants' construction workers use sanitary toilets.

Table 5.17: Sanitation and Drinking Water Facility in Living Place of Migrant Construction Workers:

Sanitation Facility	No. of Cases	Percentage
Community Toilet	103	34.3
Open Defecation	115	38.3
Sanitary Latrine	82	27.3
Total	300	100.0
Drinking Water	No. of Cases	Percentage
Tap water	108	36.0
Bore Well	97	32.3
Tanker	95	31.7
Total	300	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2016

In addition with sanitary facility, drinking water facility of construction is also important because there is close relationship drinking water quality and health. As far as drinking water facility is concerned, 36.0 percents migrants have tap water is main source of drinking water. Bore well is second important source of drinking water as main source for drinking water. Table 5.18 reveals that 32.3 percents construction worker use water from bore well. Water tanker is second source of drinking water while in different sites tanker is provided by contactor and company. Many studies explored the living construction workers while most of studies described that the living condition of construction worker is very pathetic and deplorable.

5.19. Migrant Construction Workers and their Source of Fuel and Light

All sampled migrants reported that they prepared food themselves. They made mainly two times food at the place of living before going to work as well as after return from work at evening time. In addition, some also said that contactor appoint cook at construction site for preparing food. As far as cooking fuel is concerned, 42.3 percents migrant reported that they use fuel wood as cooking fuel while 35.7 percents reported that they use kerosene oil as cooking fuel.

Table 5.18: Migrant Construction Workers and their Source of Fuel and Light

Source of Cooking Fuel	Number	Percentage
Fuel wood	127	42.3
LPG	40	13.3
Kerosene	107	35.7
Diesel	26	8.7
Source of Light		
Electricity	281	93.7
Gas light	19	6.3
Total	300	100

Source: Field Survey, 2016

Another, 13.3 percents use LPG as cooking fuel while 8.7 percents migrants reported that they use diesel as cooking fuel. Migrants who working in south India reported that they use diesel as fuel for cooking while I asked question about use of diesel, explained that non availability of Kerosene in market and availability of diesel from pump compel them to use diesel as cooking fuel. Migrants are living in construction site use fuel wood as cooking fuel whereas kerosene, LPG and diesel are used as cooking fuel by migrants residing in rented house. As far as source of lighting is concerned, 93.7 percents migrants construction worker reported that they have electricity in dwelling place while 6.3 percent also informed that gas light is used as source of light at place of living

5.20: Health Problem of Migrants Construction Workers:

Migrant health issue received a considerable recognition and the 61st World Health Assembly acknowledged the health of migrant is important public matter. Working and living conditions of migrants construction is appalling and very poor. There is very close relationship between living conditions and health problem of construction workers.

Majority of the migrants construction workers live in poor sanitation, lack of safe drinking water facility, high density of room, overcrowding conditions. Migrant's workers do the work in harsh and it make like condition of health hazardous. Migrants suffer from the various diseases because of presence of dust particles and polluted working and living conditions (Srivastava and Sudhradhar, 2016). Most of the construction workers suffer from the body and leg pain, breathing, eye sight problems and injury.

Table 5.19: Health Problem of Migrants Construction Workers:

Health Problem	No. of Cases	Percentage
Fever	54	18.24
Headache	49	16.55
Pain leg/hand	46	15.54
Cold/Cough	34	11.49
Stomach Pain	37	12.50
Malaria	21	7.09
Injury	25	8.33
Respiratory Problem	15	5.07
Skin Problem	13	4.39
Others	2	0.68

Source: Field Survey, 2016

Table 5.19 reveals the information regarding health problem of migrant's construction workers. The health data has been collected with the reference period of 1 month before the survey. It indicates that half of sampled construction worker suffer from fever headache and pain in leg and Hand. Migrants of construction worker reported that 18.24 percents worker suffer from fever. Many studies show that fever is very common health problem of migrants' worker whereas 16.55 percents migrants informed that they are suffering from headache. Another 15.54 percents of constriction workers suffer from pain in leg and hand because they have to do hard work during working hours in day time and there is no scope for rest during their work. About 12.50 migrants informed stomach problem because construction workers exposed to chemical, parasitic and infective agents at both working and living place. As far as health problem concerned of migrants construction workers, 8.33 percents construction worker are suffering from injury problems. It may be fact because of construction workers involve work that is highly unsafe like working excess height, cantering, wielding, cutting etc. Unhygienic

and dirty environment of living place of migrants is breeding ground of mosquitoes resulting they are suppurated by malaria. In addition, many workers who are involved in painting, cutting of plate for construction building, suffering from respiratory and skin problems. Physical injury is very casual phenomena at working sites. The migrant construction worker is vulnerable because of crowded and unhygienic living conditions (Kumar, 2012).

5.21. Migrant Construction Workers and Place of Treatment

The factors like quality of room, hygienic conditions, congested of room, lack of sanitation and drinking water facilities at place of living affect on health of migrants. On the other hand, accessibility of health facility is concerned, situation is very abysmal.

Table 5.20: Migrant Construction Workers and Place of Treatment:

Place of Treatment	No. of Cases	Percentage
Private Hospital	97	32.3
Govt. Hospital	55	18.3
Private clinic	108	36.0
Go to medical shop	40	13.3
Total	300	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2016

As closer look table 5.20, distribution of migrants by place of treatment, more than one third migrants go to private clinic for their treatment and migrants also reported that many doctor who visit construction site for giving treatment facility to migrant, is also belong to same district of migrants. About 32.3 percent migrants reported that they prefer to go to private hospital for treatment purpose while 18.3 percent migrants go o government hospital for treatment. Lengthy process of treatment and language barrier may be reason for ignoring the government. Another 13.3 percents migrant go to medical shop for medicines without consulting with doctors. Migrants more prefer to go private clinic and private hospital rather than govt. hospital. In addition, migrants told another interesting story about their treatment. Many not qualified doctors also migrated from the origin place of migrants and he also stays nearer the construction sites or near to the living place of migrant workers. Migrants construction workers usually call to the doctor for treatment otherwise migrants also prefer to go the private clinic for treatment.

5.22. Problem Faced by Construction Workers

A large number of rural people involved in construction sector where there is no need of any skill for getting work. After absorbing to this sector, they face work related problem because there is assurance of employment in construction sector. Most of the construction workers are illiterate and they are not conscious about their rights and laws given by the Indian constitution. They face different types of problems at the place of destination. Multiple response technique is used to assess the problems are being faced by the migrant construction workers at the place of destination as respondents give answer more than one responses at same time. Total sample is 300 while total response is 439.

Table 5.21: Problem Faced by Construction Workers at Place of Destination

Problem Faced by Workers	Responses	Percentage
Lack of opportunity of work	95	31.67
Frequently change of working place	45	15.00
Wage related problem	105	35.00
Quarrelsome at working place	21	7.00
Language Problem	90	30.00
Long Working Hours	71	23.67
Lack of Information of services	12	4.00
Total	439	146.33

Source: Field Survey, 2016, Multiple Response Table

Most of the migrant responded 35 percents to total respondents informed that they face problem of wage related. Many of them complained that they get lower wage rate than market rate. On the other hand, migrants also informed that late wage payment is another important wage related problem. Many contactors do not payment in proper time whereas migrants also proclaimed that the long hours working overtime is also not paid by contactors.

Second, important problem faced by construction worker is lack of employment opportunities in construction sectors. About 31.64 percentages of construction workers reported that they face problem of regular employment opportunity at the place of destination. Many studies reveal that rainy season is slack season for construction activities as well as in summer lack of water also create of low demand of construction workers at construction sites in different part of India. There is guarantee for works

regularly as result many migrants' construction workers face of problem of lack of employment opportunities. Wage rate differentiation is important reason for male out migration of construction workers. Many sampled migrants go to southern states for work because of good working conditions and higher wage whereas they informed regarding the language problem with the local people and construction sites. As closer look table 5.21, about 30 percentages migrant's responded face the language problem at the place of destination. Fourth important issue for migrant construction worker is long working hours. About 23.67 percentages of migrant's construction workers complained that they are exploited by the contactors through long working hours without any overtime wage. There are no fixed hours for construction sector while contactors forced to works for long hours. Many bondage labours complained that they are enforced to do work in 12 hours in a day without any overtime duty. Frequently change of working place an issue for construction workers. Many construction workers change the contactor or contactor dismissed from the worker as result the workers change the living place and working place. Frequent change of construction site create problem for construction workers. About 7 percents construction workers also reported that they fall out with their colleague in construction site and with the local labour due to some problem in construction sites. Many workers also reported that change the construction site, with changing the society and environment, they get difficulty for getting information for basic social services at the place of destination.

Chapter-6

Migration and remittance are an important discourse in migration. Remittance is important feature of migration study and it helps to maintain the link with the family member at place of origin. Migration has become essential part of the current global economy. Remittances are generally defined as ‘the portion of migrants earnings sent from the place of the destination to the place of origin’. According to National Sample Survey Organization (2007-08), ‘remittances are transfer of either kind or cash to household by their former member who migrated from household for work’. According to Ratha (2010), remittance sent by migrants is important ‘intangible link between migration and development as well as socio-economic and cultural implications of origin and destination’. According to Sjastad 1962), remittance is the output of the investment of migration process. There are different views about the impact of remittances at the place of origin of migrants. It makes out two contrasting views concerning the assumed benefits and shortcomings of migration. One view thinks that the overall impact of out migration on migrant sending area is negative and suggests for formulation effective to promote the employment opportunities and development in order to make limitation of population movement. Another view considers migration can positively impact on development at local, regional and national level. Supporters of this view think that migration to be a household strategy in which social and economic link between the migrants and their household is maintained. Both internal and international migration can have major development and poverty implication for individuals and their families for origin and destination as well as for national economies. ‘Remittances impact on family members, community; local economies; and national economies of origin. Migrant’s remittances formulate multiplier effects in rural economies and contribute to economic development. Remittances help to improve the living conditions, reduce poverty, economic growth at place of origin of migrants’ (Adams, 2005). In this present study deals about remittances sending by migrants construction workers who do work in different part of India. The present study main objectives of this chapter are to find out the size of remittance sending by the migrants, factors associated with the size of remittance (skill status, daily income, age, marital status) In addition size, channel, periodicity and uses of remittances are discussed

6.1 Size of Remittance

Size of remittances is as also important indicator to measure the link between the migrants and their family at place of origin. Size of remittance depends on the various factor of migrants such as skill status, earning wage daily, which type of work migrant is engaged and availability work at place of the destination. Many studies developed different postulation about the relationship between the migrants and the member of origin that is place from here migrants move out.

Table 6.1: Distribution Size of Remittances Sent by Migrants:

Size of Remittances per Month (in R.s)	No. of Case	Percents
Below 5000	3	1.00
5000-6000	80	26.67
6001-7000	70	23.33
7001-8000	130	43.33
8001-9000	17	5.67
Total	300	100.00

Source Field Survey, 2016

Table 6.1 reveals the information about monthly amount of remittances sent by migrants. All out migrants sent remittances to their family at place of origin. Amount sending varies from below Rs. 5000 to 9000 per month. Average sending remittances by migrant is Rs. 7043.33 with standard deviation of Rs.936.864. As far as size of sending remittance is concerned; about 43.33 percents migrants reported that they send remittance with amount of Rs. 7001 to Rs. 8000 per month while about 26.67 percents migrants sent remittance with amount of Rs. 5000 to Rs. 6000 per month. One-fourth migrants reported that they sent remittances with amount of Rs. 6001 to Rs. 7000. Interestingly; about 5.67 percents migrant sent remittances with Rs. 8001 to Rs. 9000 per month whereas very few percents migrants worker sent remittances below Rs 5000 per month. Remittances sending by migrants also depend on the relationship with migrant to place of origin. All the migrants reported that they send remittances to place of destination because male out migrated and left family to place of origin. Many studies show that size of remittance depends on the various factors of migrants. The migrants migrated from the rural areas for employment related reason while their family is left behind at the place of origin. Remittance becomes the important source of household income at the place of source areas whereas all the migrants reported that they remit the some portion of money to the household for different purposes.

6.2. Characteristics of Migrants and Size of Remittances

Remittance is considered as compensation of out-migration from any areas. Many studies reveal that remittance has positive impact to sending areas of migrants. Size of remittance is determined by different factor of migrants. Many studies attempt to find out the association between background characteristics like age, educational level, skill level, marital status, Income and duration of migrants to place of destination etc. Parida and Madheswaran (2011) study on ‘determinants of migration’ show that “individual characteristic of migrants like age, marital status and income influence on decision of migration and remittances”. Sahu and Das (2008) found that duration of stay at place of destination, age, and income has very significant and positive effect on size of remittances of migrants. Banarjee (1983) study on ‘Delhi behaviour of migrants to sending remittance’ stated that education and size of remittance has the positive relationship but size of landholding does not play important role to decide size of remittance by the migrants. Characteristics of migrants have the greater role to determine size of remittance. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) is defined “a collection of statistical models and their associated estimation procedures (such as the "variation" among and between groups) used to analyze the differences among group means in a sample”. The distribution used for the hypothesis test is known as F distribution test. F statistics is a ratio of two quantities that are expected to be roughly equal under the null hypothesis which produces F statistics. It is the variation between sample means/variation within sample. Therefore, to understand the behaviour of male out-migrants from Malda district to other States and demographic and socio-economic characteristics of migrants have been discussed. F test of ANOVA has been done to understand categorical means value of remittances sending by the migrants at the place of origin. Amount of remittance sending by migrants per month is dependent variable whereas daily income, age, educational level, marital status, status of skill is the independent variables. R square value indicates the fitness of model to the study while F test is variation between sample means/variations within the means. Every variable has the different value in the model summary. R square has total variation in the dependent variable; size of remittances can be explained by the independent variables. Significant value indicates importance of variable to the model summary whereas the regression table 6.3 reveals the cause effect relation between dependent and independent variables.

Characteristics of Migrants and Size of Remittance

Table 6.2: ANOVA Test Model Summary

Age	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	F	Sig	R Square
Below 20	5850	10	1131.616	6.101	0.000	0.515
20-24	6384.06	69	985.725			
25-29	6892.86	84	963.401			
30-34	7067.8	59	935.219			
35-39	7088.24	34	949.247			
40-45	7400	25	935.414			
45+	7133.33	19	1025.856			
Total	6858.33	300	1020.245			
Marital Status	Mean	N	Std. Deviation			
Married	6995.61	228	995.575	18.189	0.001	0.401
Unmarried	6423.61	72	981.016			
Total	6858.33	300	1020.245			
Educational level	Mean	N	Std. Deviation			
Illiterate	6539.22	102	1061.678	3.342	0.006	0.391
Primary	7015.31	98	926.289			
Upper Primary	6987.18	78	1053.671			
Secondary	7100	15	870.14			
Higher Secondary	7333.33	8	516.398			
Total	6858.33	300	1020.245			
Status of skill	Mean	N	Std. Deviation			
Skilled	7559.6	151	668.15	139.493	0	0.535
Semi-skilled	6253.97	26	807.59			
Unskilled	6069.77	133	790.245			
Total	6858.33	300	1020.245			
Remittance Size	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	F	Sig	R Square
Below 400	6130.33	17	820.976	31.552	0	0.529
401-500	6425.25	141	840.875			
501-600	7558.67	134	902.653			
600+	7769.32	25	896.845			
Total	6858.33	300	1020.245			

Source: Field Survey, 2016

Table 6.3: Regression Summery

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	7355.8	387.83		18.966	0.000
Age	84.377	32.458	0.131	2.6	0.000
Marital Status	-82.94	118.53	-0.035	-0.7	0.485
Educational level	49.502	44.357	0.049	1.116	0.265
Status of skill	601.52	82.664	0.509	7.277	0.000
Daily Income	99.66	55.098	0.125	1.809	0.000

Source: Field Survey,2016

Dependent Variable: The Amount of remittances sent at last per month Predictors: (Constant), Daily income , Educational level, Marital Status, Age, Status of skill R Square .516

6.2(a) Age and Remittance Size

Age is a very important demographic factor to both on decision of migration and determination of size of remittance. It has been depicted from table 6.2; age is important significant factor with size of remittance. It has been seen that there is positive relationship between age and sending remittance by the migrant that means remittance size is increased with increasing the certain age. It increases the efficiency of skill in active age groups. It is generally observed that beyond certain age limit, both the working ability, stamina energy and the work availability is decreased which results in comparatively low earnings. The low income of the migrants at the place of origin negatively affects the remittance size. On the other hand, many very young migrants either share less burden or responsibility than their counterparts towards meeting the family compulsion or spend more for their own. It may due to that young are new in job market and less experienced which regulated them to remit. World Bank (2006) study shows that “age is important demographic factor to determine size of remittances and there is positive correlation up to some age”. Sisenglath (2009) study on ‘migrant worker remittances and their impact on local economic development’ also found out that migrants aged 26-36 years sent the largest amount of remittance.

6.2(b) Marital Status and Size of Remittance

The model summary reveals that marital status of the migrant is also important factors to influence the size of remittances of the migrant. It is generally think that “the married persons are more responsibility about their family and children and have greater responsibility towards them than their counterpart and they would send a greater amount of money at least when their family do not stay with them in their working place”. Table 6.2 indicates that marital status and size of remittance have significant factors for determining the size of remittance for construction workers whereas R square value is (0.401) that means 40 percent model expressed the relationship between remittance and marital status. As far as size of remittance by marital status is concerned, average remittance sending by married migrant is 6996 with standard deviation of 995.95 while unmarried sending average is 6423 with standard deviation of 981. It is evident from the table 6.2 that, the means remittance size of married migrants is greater than the mean whereas the remittance size of unmarried migrants is lower than the average mean. Though, it has to be noted that, the difference in remittance size between married and unmarried migrants is significantly high. Makina (2012) study on ‘Migration and Characteristics of Remittance Sender in South Africa’ found out that marital status play important role to determine size of remittance. Married person send larger proportion remittance than other within the categories.

6.2 (c) Education and Remittance Size

It can be easily understandable from the ANOVAs summery model table 6.2 that, there is no significant different of size of remittance across the sub-groups. This distribution of size of remittance by educational level suggest that educational are less important role to control the size of remittance because of all worker are involved in same type of work. Though many literature show that there is positive relationship between size of remittance and educational attainment of migrants.

Model summery and regression table 6.2 indicate that the variable educational level of migrants is insignificant to explain size of remittance sending by the migrants. It may be because of the fact that, all the migrants are employed in the same occupation i.e. either they work as mason or construction labourer and this blue collar jobs are independent of migrants’ educational level in all perspective. Occupational uniformity leads to less job diversification by migrants’ education level which further leads to less diversification of

income prospects according to migrants' education category group. As income level of the migrants is one of the most important factors in remittance size, the less income variation among educational subgroups of the migrant results in very less variation of remittance size across migrants' educational subgroups.

6.2(d) Status of Skill and Size of remittance

Many studies ascertained that status of skill is most important influencing factor to decide the size of remittance of migrants. There is positive relationship between status of skill and size of remittance. On the basis of skill, construction worker is categorized into three categories skilled, semi skilled and unskilled. The wage rate is also varied with changing the skilled status of migrants. R square values indicate that there is strong relationship between size of remittance and skilled of construction workers. Skilled worker is called as mason get higher wage rate than labour or helper. The table 6.2 reveals that the mean remittance size of a mason is Rs. 7,560 which is much higher than the average mean whereas the remittance size of a construction labourer is Rs. 6058 which is much lower than the average mean. The R value is significantly high (0.536) which reveals that the migrant's work type is the most important factor to make decision the migrant's remittance size. Scholars like Lucas and Stark (1985) stated that there is a positive relationship between the predicted wage of the migrant and the amount remitted.

6.2 (e) Size of Remittance by Daily Income of Migrants

Income of migrants perform important role to influence the size of remittance and impact to make decision of sending remittance by migrants. Daily income of the migrant depends on the number of working days availability and hours. Sander (2003) finds out that factors like migrant's profile, cost of living and salary level have determined the size of remittances. Many existing literature reveal that there is positive relationship between income and size of remittances. Remittance size increased with increasing income of remitters. Piracha and Saratoga (2012) study on "determinants of remittance: evidence from Moldova" found out that there is positive correlation between size of remittance and income level of migrants". The table 6.2 (e) indicates that average remittance increased with increasing the daily income of remitters. The highest remittances are sent by migrants whose daily income is highest. "The factors like income and employments opportunity have great importance to determine size of remittance of migrants" (World Bank, 2006).

6.4 Periodicity of Remittances

Periodicity of sending remittance is also an issue of migration in modern time because it reveals the frequency of remittance in a year. It also helps to know about the channel of sending remittance though this concept is not important for modern time because of online money transaction and digital India.

Table 6.4: Migrant Construction Workers by Periodicity of Remittances

Periodicity of Remittances	No. of Cases	Percent
BI-weekly	15	5.00
Monthly	196	65.33
Bi-monthly	81	27.00
Quarterly	8	2.67
Total	300	100.00

Source Field Survey, 2016

Frequency or periodicity of sending remittances also depend on the factors like payment system, distance between place of origin and destination and channel through sending remittance. Table 6.3 provides information of periodicity of remittances by migrant's construction worker of Malda to other states. As far as periodicity of remittances is concerned, almost two-third migrants sent remittances on monthly basis. More than one-fourth migrants send remittance bi-monthly may be because of low saving of money for remittance. About 5 percents migrants sent remittance bi-weekly while very low percents migrants informed that they send remittance quarterly. It is because of migrants bring their remittances by hand carrying or monthly low saving for sending money to place of origin.

6.4 Channel of Sending Remittances by Migrants

The channel is defined as means through which, migrants sent remittances by migrants to place of origin. There are two types of channel of sending remittance by migrants, formal and informal channel. The formal channel consists with bank transfer, post office, bank cheque and online electronic transfer system whereas informal channel of sending remittance are hawla system, carrying cash by hand, sending remittances through friends relatives and contactor etc. Most of the cases, the channel of sending remittance is location and time specific. Channel of remittances sending also depends on the distance between working place as well as availability of facility to the place origin. But in

modern time, development of technology of electronic system for transferring money encourages migrants to sent remittances through electronic system

Table 6.5 Channel of Sending Remittances by Migrants

Chanel of Sending Remittances	No. of Cases	Percent
Bank	71	23.67
Post Office	111	37.00
Friends and Relatives	90	30.00
Contactora	22	7.33
Hand Carrying	6	2.00
Total	300	100.00

Source Field Survey, 2016

Table 6.4 gives the information of channel of sending remittances to their family by the migrants. A greater percentages of migrant send remittances through post office because of safe method transfer of money as well as there is lack of banking facility at place of origin of migrants. On the other hand, post office has higher transaction cost, delay to delivery remittances. The second important channel for sending remittances is by the way of friends/ relatives and 30 percents migrants informed that they send remittances by friends and relatives to the place of destination. Though, there is chance of losing money through this channel, it is easy way to reach remittances door step to migrants to place of origin. Third channel of sending remittance is bank which the formal channel of sending remittance is safest method for transfer, low transaction cost. On the other hand, lack of banking facility to rural areas, lack of computerizing of banking system, banks are located far away from village and women cannot travel alone for bank are the major disadvantages of banking system transferring of remittance by migrants. Contactora also play important role to reach the remittances to migrants household at place of origin. Contactora sends remittances to his agent at place of origin and he distributes the remittances to migrants household. As closer look, table-6.4, 2 percents migrants reported that they carry remittances himself during visiting of house. It is informal channel of remittance sending method. The advantage of this method directly reaches to house and less cost, while the possibility of robbery, pick pocketing are disadvantages of this method. Sending money through post office, bank and bank cheques is the most saver channel sending of remittance of the migrants.

6.5 Cost of Sending Remittances by Migrants

The cost of sending remittances to place of origin is also an important issue of migrants. The cost of sending remittance depends on the various factors like channel of remittances, availability of banking service at local level, distance between bank and house of recipients of remittance.

Table 6.6: Cost of Sending Remittances by Migrants

Cost of Sending Remittances per R.s 1000	No. of Cases	Percent
Zero	90	30.0
Rs. 10 per 1000	84	28.0
Rs. 50 per 1000	120	40.0
Rs. 25 per 1000	6	2.0
Total	300	100.0

Source Field Survey, 2016

Table 6.5 reveals the information of sending cost of remittances of migrants. It noted from table 6.5, majority, 40 percent remitters reported that they expend Rs.50 per thousand as cost of remittance while 30 percents respondents informed that there is no cost of sending remittance to place of origin of migrants. On other hand, 28 percents migrants informed that they give Rs.10 per Rs. 1000 as cost of remittances sending charge. A Large number of migrants informed that they expend higher rate of cost for sending remittances. Post office through money order which is important channel for sending remittance, has higher rate of costing charged is Rs.50 per Rs. 1000 thousand. In addition it can be said that lack of banking facilities and easy way to reach remittance to household door step are important reason to use post office as channel of sending remittances. There is no need of charge of remittance sending cost when remittances are sent through by friend, relatives and carrying cash by hand. There is some interesting story behind the charge of remittance sending cost of migrants. The fellow of construction workers who involved money transfer, take responsibility to reach the money from his own locality to migrants household. He takes some charge for reaching the money to door step of migrant house that depends on distance between his house and native place of migrants. There is linear relationship distance between fellow of migrants and house of migrants. Charge of sending remittance is increased with increasing the distance between two places.

6.6 Recipients of Remittance Sending by Migrants

Many studies show that remittance maintains the link between families at place of origin with migrants at place of destination. Recipient is important determinants of size of remittances sending by migrants. While, there is close relation with migrants try to send more money to recipients, size of remittances is decreased with increasing gap between recipients and sender of remittance.

Table 6.6: Recipients of Remittance Sending by Migrants

Recipients of Remittances	No. of Cases	Percent
Parents	119	39.7
Elder Brother	6	2.0
Wife	175	58.3
Total	300	100.0

Source Field Survey, 2016

Table 6.6 gives information of distribution of remittances sending by the migrants. More than half migrants reported that they sent remittances to their wife while about 39.7 percents migrants informed that they sent remittance to their parents at place of origin. In addition very few, only 2 percents migrants reported that elder brother receive remittances at place of origin. Type of family structure also play important role to determine recipients of remittances. In case of nuclear family, mostly migrant sent his remittance to his wife rather than to others whereas parents are recipients to joint family system. Migrants wife who lives with her father and mother in laws, complained to her husband for money to meet personal expenses (Jain, 2010).

6.7 Size of Remittance and Head of Household by Sex

Many studies indicate that head of household by sex is also an important determinant factor for size of remittances. Type of family structure nuclear family or joint family also influences size of remittance. Male people out migrated from place of origin whereas he left behind his wife children and relatives while female becomes head of family for nuclear household. Banarjee (1983) study stated that the migrants left their wife at place of origin, the remitter sent more remittances for wife while distance between place of origin and destination does not play important role for size of remittance.

Table 6.8 Size Remittance and Head of Household by Sex:

Size of Remittance	Male		Female		Total	
	No. of	Percents	No.	Percents	No.	Percents
Below Rs.5000	1	0.89	2	1.06	3	1.00
5000-6000	56	50.00	46	24.47	102	34.00
6001-7000	26	23.21	48	25.53	74	24.67
7001-8000	28	25.00	81	43.09	109	36.33
8001-9000	1	0.89	11	5.85	12	4.00
Total	112	100.00	188	100.00	300	100.00

Source Field Survey, 2016

Table 6.7 provides information of size of remittance by head of household by sex. Half of household headed by male get monthly remittances Rs 5000-6000 while 43.9 percents female headed household get remittances Rs.7001 to Rs.8000. There is a gap of Rs. 2000 per month of getting remittance between male headed and female headed household. In addition, 5.85 percents female headed household reported that they received remittances Rs 8001 to Rs 9000 per month while contrast result is found in male headed household. There is two different type of relationship between head of household and size of remittance. In case of male headed household, percents decreased with increasing size of remittance whereas percents of female headed household increased with increasing size of remittance. There are three factors for determining the recipients and the sender of remittance. Most of the migrants send remittance close to their relationship than the others. A greater family responsibility of nuclear family of the migrants is the leading factor for sending higher amount remittance to their nuclear family.

6.8 Use of Remittances

Remittance is an important source of income of migrant's household and it helps to make strong ties between migrants and their family at place of origin. It is very interesting to know about purposes to use of sending remittances by migrants household. Use of remittance data is collected of household survey and tries to understand utility purpose of remittance at household level. A migrant them self as respondent and head of household are also asked about use of remittances for different purposes. As migrants responded simultaneously more than one purposes of use of remittances, multiple responses technique has been used to know comprehensively purpose for use of remittances.

Table 6.8 indicates the information regarding use of remittances by migrant's household. It is observed from the multiple response tables 6.8 that 273 responses come for family expenditure that is 91 percents to total responses informed that remittances are used for family expenditure for basic needs of family. Connel etc. al observed that mainly remittances are used for every day household needs or consumption purposes. Delhi based studies show that remitter sending money mostly is used for household expenses (Banarjee, 1986). Parida and Maheswaran (2011) have shown using NSSO (2007-08) data both rural and household expenditure that almost all the household spend remittance for consumer purpose. Jason and Carr (2010) studies of remittance and consumption pattern of Guatemala shows that remittances are used for household consumption purposes, for food, clothing and other basic needs of household.

The migrants informed that repayment of debt is second most important purpose to use of remittance. Table 6.8 reveals that 101 and 33.67 percents to total respondents reported that repayment of debt is purpose using of remittances. According to NSSO (2007-08), 10 percents migrants spend their remittance for repayment of debt. Ghosh (2010) study also shows that repayment of debt is important purpose for spending remittance of household. Many times migrants borrowed money for purchasing agriculture input and marriage of sister and daughter etc. purposes.

Health expenditure is the third important purpose to use remittance at households. Table 6.8 reveals that 91 responses and 30.33 percents to total respondents informed that they spend their remittances for health purpose. Many studies reveal that health is priority sector for using of remittance. Education and health receive high priority in the spending remittance (Siddique, 2012). Parida and Madheswaran (2011) study on "Determinants of Migration and Remittance in India: Empirical Evidence" found out that 15.73 percents remittance is used for medical and health care purpose.

Education is also considered as important sector to use of remittances by migrants household. Table 6.8 provides information about use of remittances for different purposes. As closer look to table 6.8, 28.33 percents of total responded informed that migrants are interested to spend money from remittances for education of sister/brother/children. The migrants understand importance of education from place of destination and they are interest to expend their remittance for education purpose. Remittance increases the consumption level and investment of capital in education

farming activities of the household. New home construction is important primary reason for using remittance followed by starting small business, purchasing agricultural land etc. of migrant sending communities. Remittances are also used for health care, purchasing clothes, repay debts and improvement of consumption level of the household (Davis and Carr, 2010)

Table 6.9 Uses of Remittances

Use of Remittances	Priority Rank								Total Responses	
	1		2		3		Others			
	No	Per	No	Per	No	Per	No	Per	No	Per
Family Expenditure	213	71	60	25	0	0	0	0	273	91.00
Repay Debt	45	15	38	15.83	10	3.33	8	2.67	101	33.67
Medical Expenditure	42	14	34	14.17	15	5	0	0	91	30.33
Expenditure on Edu.	0	0	47	19.58	24	8	0	0	85	28.33
Expenditure for Agri.	0	0	35	14.58	39	13	11	3.67	85	28.33
Construction of House	0	0	22	9.17	15	5	32	10.7	69	23.00
Marriage of D/S	0	0	4	1.67	8	2.67	16	5.33	28	9.33
Total	300	100	240	100	114	38	67	22.3	732	244

Source Field Survey, 2016

Agriculture is prime economic activities in rural areas where a large number of people engaged in this sector but lack investment of funds in this sector reduced productivity of agriculture. It is observed from table 6.8 that 28.63 percents migrants household invest their remittances for increasing the agricultural productivity. De Haan (2010) studies of Bihar shows that a greater portion of remittances are spend for purchasing seeds, fertilizers and insecticide, pesticides etc. Though, most of the out migrants migrated from household of landless and no land, some migrants from of small size of landholding household while they try to invest their remittance for agriculture sector to increase household income.

Another important purpose to use of remittance is construction or repairing of house. Table 6.8 reveals that 23 percents to total respondents reported that they spend their remittance for construction of new house and repairing to old house. Construction of new house is also important factor associated male out migration of construction workers of Malda district. According to Zachariah et.al. (1999), “most of the emigrants of Kerala expend their remittance for construction of new house”. A large portion of remittance is

used for daily households needs followed by housing construction, purchasing land, health, education, purchasing durables goods, marriage and paying debt etc (Sisenglath, 2009).

A very small portion of migrants informed that they use remittance for marriage sister/ daughter. 3.13 (table 6.8) percents migrants reported that they spend remittance for purpose of marriage of daughter and sister. NSSO (2007-08) finds out that very small portion of remittance is used for marriage and ceremony purposes.

Remittance plays important as source of rural economy in India. Majority of migrants spend their money for their basic needs of family expenditure like food consumption clothing, Migrant often usually asked during survey *'if I do not send money, what will they eat'* Using remittance for repayment of debt indicate that migrants are pushed for out migration and distressed nature of migration. A significant percents of migrant reported that they use remittance for construction of new house and health care purposes. House construction is important primary reason for using remittance followed by starting small business, purchasing agricultural land etc. of migrant sending communities (Davis and Carr, 2010). As per as remittance is concerned the receive remittances expend on higher share their household budget on durable goods health care and housing and less on food. Remittances improved the household welfare of place of origin of migrants (Airola, 2007).

6.9 Remittance and Saving:

Remittance makes compensation for out migration from place of origin while it becomes important source of income at place of origin of migrants. Many studies found out that household gradually income increased due to remittance. Majority of remittance is used for consumption purpose of household. Many studies try to make link between of remittance and saving. While household has extra money after meeting of basic needs, they start of saving for future for extreme situation. Stark (1990) tried to make link between remittance and saving behaviour of migrants. Walker and Brown (1995) found for 'the Tongan and western Samoan migrant households that remittances were not used exclusively for consumption purposes and played an important role in contributing to both savings and investment in the migrant-sending countries'. International migrants send large some remittances to origin countries whereas these remittances are used for

saving purpose or to invest in productive activities. This section of chapter deals about saving habits of migrants and nature and mode of saving.

Table 6.10: Saving Habits and Mode of Saving of Migrants

Saving Habits	No. of Cases	Percents
Yes	247	82.3
No	53	17.7
Total	300	100.0
Mode of Saving		67.29
	No. of Responses	Percents
Banking Saving Account	216	87.45
Life Insurance	50	20.24
Cash in Hand	40	16.19
Micro-Finance Unit	15	6.07
Total	321	129.96

Source: Field Survey, 2016

Table 6.9 provides information of saving habits and mode of saving migrants. Table 6.8 reveals that 82.3 percents migrants reported that they have saving habits whereas 17.7 percents informed that they do not have saving habits. In addition, they inform that they are not able to accumulate extra money for saving after meets of basics needs. The factors like poor economic conditions, large family size and higher number of dependents member of family compelled them to spend money for consumption purposes. When migrants asked about mode and nature of saving of remittance, they answered more than one answered. Multiple response technique is used for Table 6.9 provides information of nature and mode of saving of migrants. As closer look of table 6.9: it is observed that bank account of saving is most important mode of saving of migrants while 87.45 percents to total respondents reported that they use bank saving account for saving purpose of remittance. Life insurance is the second important mode of saving of migrants. About 20.24 percents to total responses, respondents reported that life insurance is also the mode of saving of migrants. Majority of migrants use bank account and life insurance as mode saving because these are safe and secure mode of money saving. Interestingly 16.19 percents of migrants informed they save their money as cash in hand rather than saving to bank account. It may be because of accessibility of banking facilities in rural areas as well as lack of large some amount for deposit to bank or may be doing planning for spending money to any productive activities. About 6 percents migrants reported that they save money to micro-

finance unit at local level because of higher interest rate and easy availability of money for essential time. Respondents are asked why they save remittance for future. They answered that most of the cases respondents are main bread winner at their family; on the other hand, there is no guarantee for work for future at lean season of work. In addition, many respondents informed that they saved money for purpose of marriage of the daughter and sister.

Chapter-7

Migration is livelihood strategy for poor people of rural areas. Rural people mostly migrate to urban areas mainly for employment related reason. Most of economy of the developing countries primarily dependent on agriculture while majority of people depends on their life for agricultural land. The high population growth rate leads to low man and land ratio. Lack of land, fragmentation of land, poor economic conditions and seasonal unemployment forced the people to move out from rural areas to city for better wage, employment opportunities in urban areas (Bose, 1961).

Many studies reveal that the out migration has effect to both the place of origin and place of destination. There is conflict among the economist, sociologist and demographer. One group of scholars believe that male out migration adversely affect on labour market at local level while out it slows down the agricultural productivity. On the other hand, another group holds that there is positive effect of male out migration on the place of origin by sending the remittance which helps to household income, improving standard of living and influence local market of economy. Impact of migration has multiple dimensional effects at the place of origin but it is depended on the various factors. The factor like process of migration has greater role to determine to impact of migration at place of origin. If the migration held as distress type of migration and migrants take advance payment for migration that migrants are under the debt cycle. Occupation and skill status of migrants also important factor of impact the place of origin because incomes of migrants depend on those factors. Impact of migration has been explored in different ways, which includes the uses of remittance in different purposes, assets portfolio etc. “Indirect way, migration impact on place of origin through the awareness change of attitudes, better perception of education and quality of life. Better exposure to place of destination of migrants also assertive the migrants better wage and better working conditions at the place of origin of migrants” (Srivstava, 1999).

The present section deals about the impact of migration at place of origin. Now two different groups of migrant and non-migrants have been compared to each others. Non-migrants households are considered to understand the better way impact of migration. Expenditure on education, health, consumption purpose in household, purchasing of assets of migrants and non-migrant’s household. Later section of this chapter deals about the impact of male out migration on women left behind at the place of origin.

7.1 Changes of Socio-economic Status of Migrant and Non-migrant households

It is very difficult to assess the impact of migration on quality of life of migrant households and changes socio-economic condition of non-migrant's households. A few questions are asked about living condition, basic amenities, assets distribution, health and consumption pattern to assess the quality of life of migrant and non-migrant's households. In terms of their overall socio-economic status change is observed for both migrant and non-migrants households but degree of change is different. However, socio-economic changes is concerned, it reflects the improvement for migrants and non-migrants relatives well being across time.

Table 7.1: Changes of Socio-economic Status of Migrant and Non-migrant households

Socio-Economic Status	Migrant Household		Non-Migrant Households	
	No. of Cases	Percent	No. of Cases	Percent
Present				
Poor	16	5.33	26	17.33
Better	212	70.67	96	64
Good	72	24	28	18.67
Total	300	100	150	100
5 year Ago				
Poor	182	60.67	80	53.33
Better	106	35.33	54	36
Good	12	4	16	10.67
Total	300	100	150	100

Source: Field Survey, 2016

Closer look the table 7.1, 60.67 percent migrants responded that before 5 year ago they are poor but due to migration socio-economic conditions have been improved. Non-migrants reported that 53.33 percent households living in poor conditions while after five years their livelihood has been improved but socio-economic changing rate is higher for migrant's households than non-migrant's households. On the other hand, 35.33 percent migrants reported that they were the better condition whereas this percentage is higher for non-migrants households but the higher changing rate is found for migrant's households than the non-migrant's households. In addition, it is also important to indicate that 10.67 percent non-migrants informed that they were good living conditions before 5 years while this percentage is low for migrant's households. Interesting finding is that the changing percentage is higher for migrant's households than the non-migrant's

households. Migration positively impact of socio-economic changes on households at source areas of migration. One important point is that non-migrant's households also change socio-economic status within this time period but the changing rate is higher for migrant's household rather than non-migrant's households.

7.2 Impact on Consumption Expenditures of Migrant and Non-Migrant Households

The impact of remittance is diverse whereas remittance is mainly used for basic needs of households. Many evidences of NSSO, (2007-08) data of micro level studies show that “mainly remittances are used for consumption expenditures of households. Mainly the migrant's households use the remittance for purchasing food items while some portion of migration has been used the remittances for other basic necessities”. During the survey of households of migrant and non-migrants households, expenditure data for foods non food, education and health data were collected. This expenditure data is collected to understand the impact of migration on migrant and non-migrant's households.

Table 7.2: Consumer Expenditure of Migrant and Non-Migrant Households

Expenditure	Migrant's Household	Non-Migrant's Household
Food	4200	3950
Non-Food	1692	1386
Education	1572	1321
Health	1378	1178
Total	8842	7835

Source: Field Survey, 2016

Table 7.2, provides the information of consumption expenditure of migrants and non-migrant households. It has been easily assessed that the migrant's households have higher average monthly expenditure than the non-migrant households. In addition, monthly family expenditure is classified into four main categories. Food is basic need of every human being; average monthly expenditure for food of migrant's household is higher than non-migrant's household. As closer look the table 7.2, average monthly expenditure for food is R.s 4200 while in case of non-migrant household, it is R.s 3950. A non-food category constitutes with others basic necessities for households whereas migrant's households have higher tendency for expenditure than their counterpart. Education is very important sector for using the remittances of migrants' households. Many respondents are asked about the expenditure on education while majority

respondents replied that they use their remittances for education of their sister, brother, daughter and son. Table 7.1 reveals that the migrant's households expend R.s 1572 per month for education purpose. On the other hand, average monthly expenditure for non-migrant household is R.s 1321. It indicates that migrants have their greater interest to use remittances for education whereas average expenditure is lower for non-migrant's households. NSSO data proved that health is important sector of remittances investment. Table 7.2 indicates that migrant's households have higher average monthly expenditure (R.s 1378) for health than the non-migrant households (R.s 1178). Migrant household overall higher monthly expenditure than the non-migrant's households because migrant worker get higher wage rate and they sent remittances to households. Higher income leads to higher expenditure of migrant households. This result is similar to the result of the study of construction workers of Delhi NCR and trace the households survey at the place of origin of migrants (Srivastava and Sudhradhar, 2016).

7.3 Impact on Education of Migrant and Non-Migrant Household

Migration positively impacts on the education of children/brother and sister at the place of origin. Only the male member of household out migrated while others member of the household left to the place of origin. Remittance is important source of income for migrant households. Major portion of remittances is used for consumption of food, health, repayment of loan/ debt and for education of children/ brother and sister. To understand the impact of migration on education, household average expenditure for education is important which is mentioned in previous section. Now, student status likely, never attended school, dropped out, currently enrolled in school and type of school have been considered for that purpose. An analysis of educational status of student in the source areas shows that there is not so much difference of migrants and non-migrants households. As far as education status of student is concerned, the children never attended school is higher for non-migrant's household (8.26 percents) than the migrant's households (6.11 percents) (Table 7.3). As closer look Table 7.3, different dropped out rate has been observed between the migrant and non-migrant's households. Migrant respondents reported that 12.94 percentage student of their household are dropped out whereas this percentage is 15.34 for non-migrant's household. It indicates that the dropped out rate is higher for non-migrant household than the migrant's household.

Table 7.3 Impact on Education on Migrant and Non-migrant Households:

Enrolled Students	Migrant Households		Non-Migrant Households	
	No. of Cases	Percent	No. of Cases	Percent
Never Attend School	34	6.11	21	8.26
Attend but Dropped	72	12.94	39	15.34
Currently Enrolled	450	80.93	194	76.37
Total	556	100	254	100
Nature of School	No. of Cases	Percent	No. of Cases	Percent
Public	405	72.88	203	80.00
Private	156	28.12	51	20.00
Total	556	100	100	100

Source: Field Survey, 2016

Interesting point is that currently enrolled students percentage is 80.93 for migrant's household while this percentage is 76.37 for non-migrant's household. However, the responses by both migrant and non-migrant's households attended of school percentage is high that indicates the migration has positive impact on education over all level. This positive impact on education because of changes of attitudes towards education and increasing the income from migration. Choice of school is an important indicator to evaluation of education status. Majority of students are enrolled in public school but only 28 percents and 20 percents in respectively of both migrant and non-migrant's household's children enrolled in private school but percents. The school choices of parents limited because of lack of private school in rural areas. On the other hand, 37.4 percentage remittances have been used for meet education and health purpose NSSO (2007-08).

7.4 Investment of Money by Migrant and Non-migrant Households:

Many people out migrated from the rural areas for sustenance to the society. They invest their remittance not only for consumption purposes but also invest to many productive works and creating durables goods in the households at the place of origin. To understand investment pattern of households' better way, non-migrant households are also considered in this study. The annual average value of investment and expenditure are calculated in following table. Table 7.4 provides the information regarding the expenditure and investment of average money annually. As far as purchasing of livestock's are concerned, purchasing power is almost same both the cases of migrant (R.s 5250) and non-migrant household (5548). There is a small difference between the

two types of households. On other hand, in case of purchasing agriculture input has presented the different result has been come out. The non-migrant's households spend more money for purchasing the agriculture input than the migrant's households. As closer look the table 7.4 average investment per year is R.s 7850 for non-migrant household while this value has been declined for migrant's households. This type of result comes out due to low agricultural land of migrant's household whereas many non-migrant's households use different type of agriculture input to increase the productivity for sustenance from agriculture whereas higher percents size of land holders have been noticed in non-migrant's households. Many time migrant's households take loan and debt for different purposes purchasing plot of land, marriage daughter and sister etc. Table 7.4 reveals that average value of payment of loan and debt is (R.s 8500) is higher for migrant household than the non-migrants households (R.s 7250). In addition, it has been also seen that investment for transport equipments capacity is higher for the migrant household than the non-migrant households. The migrant's average investment for purchasing of transport is R.s 6350 while this percent is lower for non-migrant's household (R.s 4150). The migrant has the greater tendency of purchasing transport equipments because they also earned more income.

Table 7.4: Investment of Money by Migrant and Non-migrant Households

Invest of Money (Annual Average in R.s)	Migrant	Non-Migrant
Livestock Purchasing	5250	5548
Purchasing Durable goods for Household	4050	3600
Purchasing Agriculture input	6400	7850
Payment Loan/Debt	8500	7250
Transport Equipments	6350	4150
House Repairing/Construction	13500	11450
Purchasing of Land plot	16500	12300
Total	60550	50348

Source: Field Survey, 2016

During the survey many migrants are asked about the expenditure of remittances while they replied about the spending of money for house repairing and construction purposes. The table 7.4 indicates that the migrants are interested to invest their money for house construction and repairing purpose. Table 7.4 reveals that the migrant households invest R.s 13500 per year for that purpose but this average expenditure has been declined for non-migrant household (R.s 11450). The migrant's household spends higher average

amount of money yearly for house repairing and construction purpose than non-migrant households. Many migrants reported that some portion of remittance is used for construction house and repairing purpose which have been mentioned in previous chapter. Purchasing of land plot is an important indicator for measurement the investment and economic condition of households. Table 7.4 gives the clear picture that the migrant's households have higher purchasing capacity of land plot than the non-migrant households. As far as annual purchasing of land plot is concerned, investment and expenditure of value of migrant households (R.s 16500) are higher than the non-migrant's households (R.s 12300). There is two most important reasons behind result, firstly remittance is important source of income for migrant households and second one is women of migrant's household take part in economic activities in absence of men. On the other hand, the rural non-migrant's households have less diversification of occupation that affects the total household income.

7.5 Impact on Local Labour Market:

Impact of migration in different ways in the society at the place of origin of the migrants. Male out migration impacts on the socio-economic development at the place of origin. One of the major channel through which migration impacts the source area is the labour market. This change has been noticed in the labour market in different ways.

Table 7.5 Occupational Status of Migrant and Non-Migrant Households by Sex at the Place of Origin

Type of Occupation	Migrant				Non-Migrant			
	Male		Female		Male		Female	
Daily Wage Worker (Agri.)	40	17.70	77	45.29	65	37.57	15	29.41
Daily Wage Worker	126	55.75	85	50.00	50	28.90	36	61.59
Cultivator	38	16.81	0	0.00	48	27.75	0	0
Maid Servants	0	0.00	8	4.71	0	0.00	4	6.15
Self Employed	22	9.73	0	0.00	10	5.78	0	0
Total	226	100	170	100	173	100	51	100

Source Field Survey, 2016

The table 7.5 provides the information of occupational pattern of household member of male and female who were present at the place of origin. Table 7.5 reveals that 35.57 percentage male workers engaged as agriculture labourer for not migrant's household whereas this percentage only 17.70 for the migrant household. On the other hand,

opposite results have been found out in case of female member of household. The higher (45.29) percentage of female engaged as agriculture labourer from migrant's household while 29.41 percents female engaged as agriculture labourer from the non-migrant's household. As closer look the table 7.5, 55.75 percents male involved as daily non agriculture worker but this percentage is 28.90 for non migrant's household. As far as cultivator occupation of male member of household is concerned, more than 27 percentage male from non-migrant's households engaged as cultivator but only 16.80 percents engaged in migrant's households. It may be because of larger size of landholder has been observed in non- migrant's household while agriculture is the main source of income. It has been easily depicted from the table 7.5, male member of migrant's household more engaged in self employed than non-migrant's household. Most of the female of the both households engaged as daily wage workers in beedi manufacturing process. Interesting point is that after the male out migration from rural areas female of migrant's household more engaged in agriculture to supervise the field and as agriculture labourer that indicates the feminization of rural agriculture. Many female of migrants' households participate in labour market as wage labour in agriculture field. Many studies also show that female play important role to agriculture field in the migrant's household. Secondly, most of the rural people engaged in agriculture as wage labourer and cultivator. There is less occupational diversification in rural areas. Migrant workers engaged in construction sector to diversify the occupation in the household. Many studies and my study also show that rural out migration influenced job market at rural areas because it helps to increase the wage rate and improving the working conditions in the job market at the place of origin.

7.6 Impact of Male out-migration on women left behind at the place of origin

Malda is one of the backward district in West Bengal in term of socio-economic development and population growth rate is also high. Lack of employment, low agricultural land and low man land ratio push the people of Malda move out from the place of origin. Most of the cases only male member of household is out migrated while the women are left behind at the place of origin. It is very important to know about impact of male out migration on women left behind at the place of source areas. Prolonged absent of men from the family has implications on family and community life. "The distance involved in migration, nature of work and size of city also influences the composition and the migrant population" (Premi, 1980). Little literature has been

available regarding the impact of male out migration on women left behind at source areas. Zachariah and Rajan (2001) has explored that male out migration increases the family income, changes life style, consumption pattern, housing amenities and health and nutritional status of the members of households. Male out migration adversely affect to women and children who stay behind at the place of destination. Household responsibility, workload of women increases significantly while agriculture becomes feminization (Croll and Huang, 1997). Desai and Banerjee (2008) in their study find out that structure of family play very important role to understand the impact of male out migration on women left behind.

In this section of chapter, impact of male out migration to the women left behind has been discussed. Many literatures reveals that nature of household type has a greater role to understand the impact of male out migration on women left behind at the place of origin. As far as, household type is concerned, the women of nuclear household face difficulty for sustenance while the women of joint family do not face such type of problem. How does absence of male impact on women work participation, women decision making power of household, freedom movement of women, what are problem are faced by the women of nuclear family. The study is based on the primary survey whereas 300 migrant households are selected for survey. There are 155 households are nuclear household among of them. To measure or understand the status of women of nuclear household the following technique which has been used, Desai and Banarjee (2008) used this technique to make the different indices.

$$\text{Index} = \frac{P-A}{P}$$

Where,

I= Index Value

P= Total number of observation of each category which is multiplied by the number of indicator have been taken ($P=N \times I$)

A= Sum total of the value scored by each indicator

7.6.1. Work Participation of Women:

Reason associated of migration is different by gender whereas men mainly migrated for economic related reason; on the other hand, female mainly migrated due to because of marriage. Mainly men of rural areas migrated to urban areas for increasing their income and to improve the living standarity. Remittance sending by the migrant is not sufficient for livelihoods of migrant's family. Secondly, women also interested to participate in work to increasing the household's income and to save some portion of income. Table 7.6.1 provides the information of women work participation in the absence of male in the households.

Table 7.6.1: Work Participation Index of Women

Age Group	Surveyed Women	Agri. Labour	Wage Labour	Maid Servant	Field Visit	A= X1+....X 4	P= N×I	P- A/P
Below 20	10	3	7	0	0	10	40	0.75
20-29	40	23	34	4	10	71	160	0.56
30-39	67	31	46	8	12	97	268	0.64
40-49	38	20	18	2	9	49	152	0.68
Total	155	77	105	14	31	227	620	0.63

Field Survey, 2016

As closer look table 7.6.1, a large number woman of nuclear family participates as wage labourer at local level job market. Southern part of rural Malda, majority of households engaged with beedi manufacturing industries. On the other hand, most number of the female member of nuclear migrant family takes part as agricultural labour during the sowing and harvesting season of agriculture. Majority women of northern Malda engaged with the agriculture sector as seasonal labour. Women of joint family of Migrant's household mostly are housewife. Jaitley (1987) study explored that remittance is not enough of for sustenance of family, no changes of the standarity of living that is why women participate in different type of work as sole breed earner in the migrant's family. Menon (1995) finds out that "income from migration does not mitigate the poverty, nor does it reduce problem face by women in the absence of male".

There is inverse relationship between the value of index and work participation of women, higher the value indicates lower the work participation rate. As closer look the table 7.6.1, it reveals that the lowest value is observed among the 20-29 age groups which indicates that the highest work participation has been observed among the age

group of (20-29) which is followed by the age group of women of (30-39), (40-49) and below 20 years. It indicates that value is increased with increasing the age group of women. It reveals that with increasing the age of women work participates rate has been decreased. Young age women have more stamina and energy for work. The main reason behind the low work participation rate of women is that increasing the family burden and house care responsibility.

7.6.2 Women Decision Making Power in Household

Male out migrate from rural areas due to employment related reason while women of nuclear family becomes the de facto head of family. Composition and structure of households play important role. Desai and Banarjee (2008) used the data from the large scale survey and argue that the experiences of women of male out migration are different in case of nuclear and joint family. Nuclear family women experiences more autonomy and decision making power than the joint family.

Table 7.6.2 Women Decision Making Power in Households

Age Group (Years)	Surveyed Women	Expend of Remittance	Children School	Crop Cultivat.	Money Lending	Decision Buy/Sale	A= X1+..X5	P= N×I	P-A/P
Below 20	10	2	1	2	2	0	7	50	0.86
20-29	40	14	33	24	18	5	94	200	0.53
30-39	67	27	59	45	32	21	184	335	0.45
40-49	38	15	27	23	25	28	118	190	0.38
Total	155	58	120	94	77	54	403	775	0.48

Source Field Survey, 2016

Decision making power of women in household is considered as an important indicator of women autonomy and empowerment. Table 7.6.2 reveals the decision making power index of women in nuclear household. Age group wise decision making index indicates that the women belonging to the age group of (40-49) has the lowest value. It indicates that the women of (40-49) has the highest decision making power which is followed by the women of (30-39), (40-49) and below 20 years age group. It is depicted from the table 7.6.2. that the women of (40-49) have the higher decision making power while the reverse seen is observed in case of women age group of (below 20 years).An interesting fact is that the value of index decreased with increasing the age group of women. Age of the women play important role to make decision of household. Paris etc.al (1995) study

shows that the prolonged absence of men from the household increases the decision making power of the women of household.

7.6.3 Satisfaction Index of Women

Migration becomes the integral part of livelihoods of rural people while they left behind the women in the place of origin. Women of household face different type of problems in the family. To understand the satisfaction level of women, satisfied index has been prepared. Four indicators are used to make satisfaction index where there is inverse relationship between value of index and satisfaction level. It helps to understand the influence of remittance to household level to the place of origin.

Table 7.6.3 Satisfaction Index of Women

Age Group	Surveyed Women	Improving consump.	Enough Remitt.	Betterment of Housing	Betterment of Child. Education	A= X1+...X5	P= N×I	P-A/P
Below 20	10	6	5	3	2	18	40	0.55
20-29	40	27	15	12	17	79	160	0.50
30-39	67	55	29	28	28	160	268	0.40
40-49	38	24	16	14	15	77	152	0.49
Total	155	102	65	54	58	327	620	0.47

Source: Field Survey, 2016,

Table 7.6.3 indicates the satisfaction level of the women of nuclear household of male migrants. The highest satisfaction has been observed among the age group of (30-39) which is followed by the age group of (20-29), (40-49) and (below 20 years). The women age group of (30-39) is more satisfied than the other age groups of women while this result comes out due to more satisfied to get enough remittance and may be they are satisfied with the betterment of education to their daughter and son. On the other hand, the lowest index value has been observed for the age group of below 20 years. Many literatures have pointed out that the new marrying age group of women is not satisfied in the out migration of husband and it also increase the chance of divorce and fragmentation of the family in the household. Male out migration of husband leads to increase the chances of divorce, harassment and abusing of women (Kakati, 2014). On the other hand, the women of migrant household confront of tensions, pressure, conflicts and anxieties. Apart from these loneliness and separation from spouse are also growing (Gulathi, 1983).

7.6.4 Problem Faced by Women Left Behind

The male out migration is influenced adversely affect to women left behind at the place of destination. Women face different type of problems at the household of absence of the male. Many responses come in same type to understand problem in precise way, multiple response techniques has been used for understanding the problems face by the women.

Table: 7.6.4 Problem Faced by Women Left Behind

Type of Problems	Priority Rank						Total Responses	
	1		2		Others		No	Per
	No	Per	No	Per	No	Per	No	Per
Workload	92	59.35	32	35.56	0	0.00	124	47.69
Social security	45	29.03	28	31.11	6	40.00	79	30.38
Monetary Problem	8	5.16	12	13.33	1	6.67	21	8.08
Pressure of Loan/Debt	10	8.70	10	11.11	1	6.67	21	8.08
Lack of Comm.		0.00	8	8.89	7	46.67	15	5.77
Total	155	100	90	100	15	100	260	100

Source: Field Survey, 2016 Table is calculated by Multiple Response Technique

Table 7.6.4 provides the information of problems faced by the women left behind at the place of origin. The table 7.6 shows that total 260 responses are come out form 155 respondents from nuclear households. About 47.69 percents women respondents reported that they face the workload problem in the absence of the male of households because many women of household participate to work as daily wage worker in agriculture field with meet the responsibility of household. Rural male out migration increased the work burden for the women left behind the household (Siddique, 2009 and Croll and Huang, 1997). Social security for women at household is important issue while many women live social insecurity in the absence adult male member in household. In addition, 30.38 percents women informed that they live with fare of insecurity absence of male at the households whereas it is the second important problem faced by the women of nuclear households. On the other hand, 8.08 percents women complained that they face monetary problem whereas borrow money for meet the household needs for consumption purpose and some time take money for health treatment also. Jaitley (1987) in her study noticed that remittance sent by the migrant is not enough for their sustenance for family and they are compelled to borrow money from others. Pressure of loan and debt is an important reason for rural male out migration from sampled rural areas. Male is forced to out

migrate while women face problem debt related because moneylender get pressure to women of households. About 8.08 percents female also proclaimed that they front on to the monetary problem while about 5.77 percent respondents also complained that are facing problem of lack of communication.

7.6.5 Purpose for Borrowing Money by the Women:

After the male out migration, the women get difficulty much time to maintain their family. The women of nuclear households borrow money for different purposes. The women do not get sufficient remittance from the migrants and delay sending remittance to family create problem in the household whereas compel to take money from different sources. They cited more than one purpose in same time simultaneously whereas the multiple response table 7.6.5 has been prepared. This table also indicates the priority order for the purposes.

Table 7.6.5 Purpose for Borrowing Money:

Purpose for Borrowing	Priority Order						Total Responses	
	1		2		Others			
	No	Per	No	Per	No	Per	No	Per
Consumption Purpose	88	72.73	20	20.41	0	0.00	108	44.26
Health Expenditure	33	27.27	30	30.61	2	8.00	65	26.64
Education D/S	0	0.00	28	28.57	14	56.00	42	17.21
Agriculture Input	0	0.00	15	15.31	7	28.00	22	9.02
Marriage of Daughter	0	0.00	5	5.10	2	8.00	7	2.87
Total	121	100	98	100	25	100	244	100

Source: Field Survey, 2016, Table is calculated by multiple response technique

Table 7.6.5 reveals the information for purpose of borrowing money while this table also gives the priority of order. It is clearly from the table 7.6.5, first priority of lending money is consumption purpose of family whereas 44.26 percent responses come for that purpose. Health is second priority reason to borrow money by the women of household. More than one fourth women informed that they have borrowed money for the expenditure of health. Many studies reveal that migrant's attitude has been changed and they try to invest their remittance for the purpose of education for daughter, sister and son. Though, the most of the migrant's households have small land holder but some larger land holder household try to invest money for agriculture. More than 9 percents

women responded that borrowing money has been used for buying the agriculture input like fertilizers, pesticides and insecticides etc. A few percents women also reported that money has been borrowed for the marriage of daughter and son. The paper on ‘Impact of Male Migration on Women South Rajasthan’ shows that the mainly the women have borrowed money for family consumption and health purposes.

7.6.6 Women’s Access to Credit

In the absence of male member of family, women face problem in getting credits. Women need money for different purposes likely for consumption and expense for health and education of children. Many studies so that the women face much difficult situation to borrow money because lender does not trust on the women.

Table 7.6.6: Women Access to Credit

From whom take Money	No. of Cases	Percents
Take money from Relatives and Friends	41	33.88
Take Money from Rural Money Lender	34	28.1
Take Money from Neighbours	21	17.36
Contactator	17	14.05
Self Help Group Loan	8	6.61
Total	121	100

Source: Field Survey, 2016

The most important sources of money is the relatives and friends of migrants if look the table 7.6.6, it is clearly observed that 33.88 women of the migrants reported that they borrow the money from the relatives and friend. They said that the relatives and friends mainly help emergency. On the other hand, 28.10 percents women informed that they borrow money from the money lender of village whereas they are not interested to take money from money lender because the higher rate of interest. In addition more than 17 percents women reported that they take money from neighbour at needy time. In previous chapter, already I have mentioned the recruitment process of labour through the sub-contractor and middleman whereas many times they lend the money to labourer before moving out from the place of origin. Self help group another important organization for the empowerment of the people of rural areas. Many times, the women also borrow money from their self help group in lower interest rate.

7.7 Not Economic Impact of Migration:

It is very difficult to assess the non impact of migration because very little literature has been found regarding this matter but through survey and group discussion has help to asses some non economic impact on the native place of migrants. Migrants reported that they have increased the bargaining power in local election at village level. It indicates that the political bargaining of migrants has been improved. The cultural influence of the place of destination is also noticeable to the migrants. Attitude and behaviour also has been changed whereas the migrants are more interested to study their daughter, son and younger brother and sister. They invest some portion of remittance for education purposes. On the other hand, the women were live in the veil of village culture that has been changed because of male out migration and influence the women autonomy and empowerment.

Summery and Recommendations

Migration is an indispensable part of human civilization and it has been one of the most dynamic processes of activities from the very beginning of human life. Migration which is defined as “a form of spatial mobility of population involving a permanent change of residence,” is a very complex social process by United Nations (1958). It is considered as a livelihood strategy for the poor people of rural areas. Rural people migrate towards the urban areas in order to upgrade the living standards and to reach better livelihood opportunities. There are many factors that motivate the people to out-migration. Economic reasons are considered as one most important reason for male out-migration. The factor like lack of employment opportunities in the rural areas motivate the people to migrate in urban areas. In rural areas, sluggish agricultural growth and limited development of the rural non-farm sector raise the incidence of rural poverty, unemployment and under employment. The highest productive activities are located in urban areas-people from rural areas move towards town or cities with hope to grab diversified livelihood opportunities. On the other hand, Migration primarily occurs due to disparity in regional development. Large country like India, regional disparity among the states prevailed, even within the state also. Hence, it is compelled to migration from one state to another state or within the state boundary (Sahu and Das, 2008). The Malda district economy is primarily rural where livelihood opportunities depend on the agriculture. There are some agriculture related industry such as mango pickle making industry, silk industry and jute industry. Rural poverty, lack of employment opportunities, seasonal unemployment, higher population pressure, low agricultural productivity, low industrial development, high population density and flood are important push factors of rural male labour migration from Malda district. The growth pull effect promises higher level of growth due to increasing public and private investment and wage differentials are influencing pull factors at the destination. Construction sector is considered as one of the fast growing sectors in Indian economy and it becomes one of the rapid blooming and expanding sector from last few decays. Many rural people are absorbed by the construction industry because it is easy to get work and no skill is needed to this sector for entry the work. Middleman and Sub-contractor play important role of labour recruitment from the rural areas because it is difficult to get work directly from the rural to urban areas in the construction industry.

Background characteristics of migration has a greater role to understand the profile of migrants self and household conditions. The profile of non migrants is also important because it helps to assess the inability to move anywhere. Age is very important factor to determine the capacity of work. Present study shows that migrant workers are young whereas average age of migrant is 27.94 years with the standard deviation of 8 years. On the other hand, Average age of non-migrant is 40 years with standard deviation of 10 years. The findings of this study also in accordance with 64th NSSO data (2007-08) on migration which showed the average age of the interstate out-migrants from rural Bengal was about 27 years. It is also important fact that 70.7 percents migrant belong the age groups of (20-34). As far as marital status of migrant and non-migrant are concerned, 76 percentage migrants are married while unmarried percentage is 24. In case of marital status of non-migrants, it is found that non-migrants are higher percentage married than the migrants and unmarried percentage is very low. Family size also play significant role to determine the migration decision. The larger size of household member have higher propensity of migration than non-migrant household. Larger family size share 26.3 percentage for migrants household whereas this percents is 21.3 for non-migrants households. The larger families have the opportunity to send at least one member as risk aversion strategy (Stark and Taylor, 1991). Household adult male member is considered as resource for household, especially adult male member plays significant role to decision of migration. The highest percentage of migrants households have two adult members while the highest for same is found in single adult male number for non-migrant household. About 20.3 percentages migrants households have three number of adult male member whereas this percentage is low for non-migrant household. Type of household has an important role to understand the migration process. Majority percentage of household is nuclear type for both migrant and non-migrants but interesting point is that nuclear type of family percentage is higher for non-migrant household rather than migrant household. The higher percentages (43.00) of migrant belong to joint family type while this percentage (36.67) is lower for non-migrant household. Percentage of extended joint family type is also high for migrant household as compare to non-migrant household. As far as educational level and migrants is concerned, illiterate people are more migrants than the others. More than one third migrants are illiterate and 32 and 26 percentages migrants have the basic primary and upper primary level of education in respectively. Lipton (1976) in his study finds that “the migrants who are very poor, landless and illiterates are found to be having more frequency of migration, which is due to the fact

that their poor socio-economic condition forces them to migrate". There is no any relationship between education and skill status of migrant. The highest percentage migrants from OBCs (77.3) followed by the scheduled caste constitutes the 15 percentage of total migrants. Many studies show that OBCs and SCs are vulnerable and more backward socio-economically that forced them to out migration. More than fourth fifth number migrants belong to Muslim community because Malda is one of the Muslim dominant district of West Bengal. Srivastava and Sudhradhar, (2016) study on construction worker in Delhi NCR finds out that a large number of Muslim people engaged in construction sector while they come from Malda from West Bengal.

Land is considered as important resources for rural society. Land is thought as assets for making the decision of migration. Low land and landlessness enforce the people to out-migration because income from agriculture is no sufficient for sustenance of household. Two third migrant is landless or below one bigha of land. There is no linear relationship between size of land holding and migration, percentage of migrant decrease with increasing the size of landholding. On the other hand, the highest percentage non-migrants belonged to the medium category size of landholding land (1-5). Monthly income of household also important for migrant and non-migrant households. The average income of migrant's household is 14500 per month with the standard deviation of 3330 whereas household income of non-migrant's household is 12000 per month with the standard deviation of 3234. Migrants' households have higher percentage income than the non-migrant household because of two reasons. Firstly, number of male member engaged in economic activities, secondly, the higher wage of migrants' construction worker than the local level. Another point can be mentioned that female member also engaged in economic activities of migrants household for sustenance the family at the place of origin. As far as monthly consumer expenditure of family is concerned, average monthly consumer expenditure of non-migrant household is Rs.7885 whereas this is Rs. 8742 for migrant's households. Occupational structure of household member is also different whereas the migrants household have the higher percentage member engaged in as mason and helper of mason of the household while the higher percentage people of non migrant's household engaged in agriculture activities because lack of diversification of livelihood, people engaged with agriculture and one more interesting fact that the migrant household women also participated as agriculture labour while this percentage is very low in non-migrant household. The higher percentage people engaged in beedi

manufacturing work in south Malda while in North Malda mostly people are engaged with agriculture related work. Nature of the house and basic amenities facilities are used as an indicator to measure the living quality of household. The migrant's household has the higher percentage pucca houses as compare to non-migrants households. The higher percentage migrant's household have basic amenities services than the non-migrant household. On the other hand, Fuel wood and crop residual are mainly used for fuel purposes. As far as assets distribution of migrant and non-migrant's households are concerned, the migrant's households have the higher number of assets and durables goods than the non-migrant household.

Social network plays important role to the migration process through providing the information of work and various kind of helps. There is multiplayer effect of social networks in migration process. Informal network help migrant's to accommodation, to find job and to finance to their travel. Two third migrant get information about the work from the contactors, friends and relatives at place of destination. Fernandez and Paul (2011) finds out that contactor has a great role to provide the information about the works. On the other hand, more than 50 percents migrant go to the place of destination accompany with friends and co-villagers. There is very close bond within the Indian village, every people know to each other though they are not genealogically but they have the personal relationship to each other. Friends and relative provide the accommodation to the place of destination. Social networks have great role to give information about of job at place of destination. About 73 percents migrants get information of work through contactor. Two third migrants get credits from 'Munshi' who is the appointed by contactors as accountant in construction sites, cut down the amount form their wage during monthly payments.

Migration is a complex socio-economic process while different factors play important role to decision and determine the migration process. Different theories have given different view regarding migration process. Household decision of migration depends on demographic structure of household i.e. household member, age-sex structure of household and household size because larger families have required certain individuals to migrate to diversify of labour of household. About 30.33 percents migrant reported that the migration decision is influenced by family whereas 26.67 percents migrant take decision migration individually. Many new migration studies shows that household is basic unit for migration decision. Bloom and Stark (1978) in 'New Economic Labour

Migration' theory propounded that family is basic unit for migration not only this it reduces the risk of income of household but also diversify the household income generating process.

Logistic regression has been done to understand the factors influencing the migration process. The result shows that age is important determining demographic factors for migration because working ability and stamina depends on age. The highest propensity of migration is observed among the age group of (20-29). The married persons are significantly higher propensity of migration than their counterpart. Migration tendency increases with the increasing the number of adult male member of the household. The highest male out migration is found among the illiterate people in comparison to primary upper primary, secondary and above higher secondary level. De Haan (1993) in his study found out that illiterate and less educated people have higher tendency of migration. Size of family plays important role to determine the migration process. The propensity of migration has been increased with increasing the household size. The larger family size inputs some extra economic pressure and increasing the poverty in the household as result there is chance of out migration from larger households (Sengupta, 2013). The economic factor like Size of landholding plays important role to decision of male out migration process in agrarian economy where as the people depend on land for their livelihood. Landless and land less than 1 bigha size of landholding people have higher propensity of male out migration as compare of household landholding size of (2-4) bigha and More than 5 bigha. Hill (1972) in his study found out that landless and poorer have a higher propensity of migration than bigger and richer household. Landless household member out migrate for livelihood because size of land is not sufficient for supporting their family. Construction sector is the second largest booming sector of economy while a large number of people engaged for work. The highest percentage migrants go to Delhi NCR for work in construction sector which is followed by Kerala, Maharashtra, Tamilnadu and Rajasthan. Delhi National Capital region is booming for construction sector of India. After globalization and liberalization of India economy, foreign multinational companies invest their money for build mult-compleies.

Reason associated with rural male out-migration is broadly classified into two broad categories, reasons associated with the place of origin and place of destination. The reason associated place of origin is called 'push factor'. The main push factors of rural out male migration from Malda district are lack of employment at local level, low wage

rate, smaller size of landholding, poor economic conditions, debt and other reason like river collapse etc. On the other hand, the factor associated with the place of destination is called pull factor while the main pull factors of migration are higher wage rate, better employment opportunities, good payment system and presence of relatives at the place of destination. Another aspect of this study shows that many people migrate from the village while many people are not interested to go outside the village for work. Decision to migration depends on the behaviour of individuals as reason for not to migration (Wolpert, 1975). Homesickness is major reason for decision to not migration whereas more one third sample mentioned that 'satisfy in present work' as a reason not to migration. Others reason associated with not migration are health problem, family problem and social stigma as a migrant.

Construction industry is the largest industry whereas large number of people is absorbed from rural areas. Studies show that the working and living conditions of workers is deplorable and hazardous. An arrangement of work by migration in construction sector is very important because works availability and regularity are depended on under whom they work. Mosses et al. (2005) explained the three processes of recruitment of rural migrant for construction sector. Three fourth workers get work at the place of destination by the contactor whereas another more than 11 percents sample migrant's workers do work under individual arrangements. Contractor plays important role for work arrangements of construction workers to the place of destination. The highest percentages of sampled migrant workers engaged in constructing of building, offices, school, hospital, factories and multiplexes etc. The construction workers mostly work under the contractor of big company in the big construction sites. The work availability at the destination is very important issue for migrant work because they do not get work at lane season. More than three fourth workers get work (20-24) days in month and another 26.8 percentages of construction workers get the work (25-30) days in month. Average days of work of construction worker are 25 days in a month. If the worker recruited in construction sector through middleman/Jamalder for working under the big contactor or company that confirm the work availability in destination.

The migrant workers do not get any training from institutional for working in construction sector rather they acquired skill from their colleagues, relatives, friends etc. Social network also plays important role to acquire the skill for construction sectors (Fernandez and Paul, 2011). More than half construction workers are skilled whereas

semi-skilled and unskilled percentage is 44.3 and 8.7 in respectively. More than two-third workers work for eight hours in a day. The remaining workers work for more than eight hours to extending 12 hours in a day. As far as safety and security is concerned, safety products availability and use of safety products such as safety belts, gloves and safety belts are common for construction site. This study finds out that 83.69 percentages of construction workers who work under contactor and they have safety products provided by contactor while 16.31 complained that they do not get proper safety equipments bag properly. Srivastava and Sudhradhar (2016) study also finds out that “safety products like helmet and belts are common but others sophisticated equipments are absent for big company and contactor of construction sector”. Working conditions of construction workers is very poor while this industry is known as three d, danger, difficult and dirty. Only 8.33 percents workers get injury compensation while 86.67 percents do not get any injury compensation from employer. On the other hand, migrants construction workers are asked about the health benefit provided by the contactor is concerned, 93.33 percents workers do not get any health benefit fund from contactor while 6.67 percentage workers are not aware about the health benefit fund.

There is a huge wage rate difference between the place of origin and destination. The highest wage rate of construction worker is observed in the Kerala state which is followed by the state Tamilnadu, Maharashtra, Delhi, Haryana and Assam. The wage rate at the place of destination is double than the place of origin. In addition, experience of migrant is concerned, the highest percentage of migrants have (7-10) years experience which is followed by the (2-6), (11-14) and more than 14 years. More than half workers are skilled construction workers. The average daily income of construction worker is 481.25 with standard deviation of 66.886. The daily income is different on the basis of skilled and occupation of workers. Average daily income of skilled workers is 530.79 with standard deviation of 47.648 whereas semi-skilled and unskilled workers average daily income is 472.70 and 412.85 with standard deviation of 34.744 and 27.987 respectively. Payment system also becomes different because it depends on the basis of work arrangement on which they work. Many studies also find out that advance payment system has been prevailed in labour recruitment process of labour through the middleman and sub-contractors. The predominant payment mode is monthly after ending the months. More than half migrant workers are paid after ending month because most of the workers do work under contractor and they pay workers monthly rather than daily.

Another 18.3 percentages worker get payments daily basis because they mainly work under individual arrangements of work. One interesting fact is that 18.73 percentage workers take advanced payment at home before entering job at place of destination.

Most of the migrants' construction workers live in temporary made tent. It has been observed that more than 50 percent sampled migrant worker live construction sites whereas 37 percent workers live in rented house. On the other hand, 12.3 percents workers live in house provided by contactors and company. 39 percents workers live in kaccha houses construction with shed with the plastics, makeshift and tin where 37 percents worker live in semi-pucca houses which is made with temporary wall and shaded by tin in construction sites and some rented houses. In addition, 24 percents worker live in pucca houses, most of which are rented house. The highest percents sampled migrant construction workers live with sharing room of 6-10 persons while one third migrant worker reported that they live in room sharing with 11-15 persons. In addition, 8 percents migrant workers live with sharing with 15 persons while 3 percents migrants share room with above 15 persons. Average density of room construction worker is 11 workers per room that is very high. Study shows that 111 migrant workers in live rented house out of 300 sampled migrants' construction workers while more than half migrant workers paid room rent 500 pr persons per month whereas more than one third sampled migrants reported that they paid 600 as room rent per worker for per month. The majority of construction workers are living without sanitation facility at place of living while only 38.3 percents workers do not have sanitation facility and resort to defecation in open space. In addition, 34.3 percents construction worker used community toilets for sanitary work and migrant complained that they wait for long time in queue in community toilets. Another point is that only 27.3 percents migrants' construction workers use sanitary toilets. In addition with sanitary facility, drinking water facility of construction is also important because there is close relationship drinking water quality and health. Only 36.0 percents migrants have tap water is main source of drinking water. Bore well is second important source of drinking water as main source for drinking water whereas 32.3 percents construction worker use water from bore well. Water tanker is second source of drinking water while in different sites tanker is provided by contactor and company. 42.3 percent migrants use fuel wood as cocking fuel while 35.7 percents use kerosene oil as cocking fuel. Another, 13.3 percents use LPG as

cooking fuel but 8.7 percent migrants use diesel as cooking fuel. Electricity is the main source of lighting for living place in the place of destination.

There is very close relationship between living conditions and health problem of construction workers. Majority of the migrants construction workers live in poor sanitation, lack of safe drinking water facility, high density of room, overcrowding conditions. Fever and headache are very common among the migrant's workers. Many studies show that fever is very common health problem of migrant's workers. One fifth percent construction workers suffer from pain in leg and hand because they have to do hard work during working hours in day time and there is no scope for rest during their work while 12.50 workers suffer from stomach problem because construction workers exposed to chemical, parasitic and infective agents at both working and living place. 8.33 percents construction worker are suffering from injury problems. In addition, many workers who are involved in painting, cutting of plate for construction building, suffering from respiratory and skin problems. Physical injury is very casual phenomena at working sites. Migrant workers have faced different type of problem at the place of destination. Major problem are being faced by the migrants are lack of employment, wage rate related problems and exploitation by the contactors while migrants who migrate in south India, face a language problem.

Remittance is important feature of migration study and it helps to maintain the link with the family member at place of origin. Migration has become essential part of the current global economy. Remittances are generally defined as 'the portion of migrants earnings sent from the place of the destination to the place of origin'. Remittances help to improve the living conditions, reduce poverty, economic growth at place of origin of migrants' (Adams, 2005). Average sending remittances by migrant is Rs. 6885.33 with standard deviation of Rs.936.864. Parida and Madheswaran (2011) study on 'determinants of migration' show that "individual characteristic of migrants like age, marital status and income influence on decision of migration and remittances". F test of ANOVA has been done to understand categorical means value of remittances sending by the migrants at the place of origin. Amount of remittance sending by migrants per month is dependent variable whereas daily income, age, educational level, marital status, status of skill is the independent variables. R square value indicates the fitness of model to the study while F test is variation between sample means/variations within the means. Age is a very important demographic factor to both on decision of migration and determination of size

of remittance. There is positive relationship between age and sending remittance by the migrant that means remittance size is increased with increasing the certain age. It increases the efficiency of skill in active age groups. It is generally observed that beyond certain age limit, both the working ability, stamina energy and the work availability is decreased which is the result of low earnings. The marital status of the migrant is also important factors to influence the size of remittances of the migrant. It is generally think that the married persons are more responsibility about their family and children and have greater responsibility towards them than their counterpart and they would send a greater amount of money at least when their family do not stay with them in their working place. Many studies ascertained that status of skill is most important influencing factor to decide the size of remittance of migrants. The daily income has been different with changing the skilled status of migrants .R square values indicate that there is strong relationship between size of remittance and skilled of construction workers. Remittance size of a mason is Rs. 7,560 which is much higher than the average mean whereas the remittance size of a construction labourer is Rs. 6058 which is much lower than the average mean. Many existing literature reveal that there is positive relationship between income and size of remittances. Remittance size increased with increasing income of remitters. Piracha and Saratoga (2012) study on “determinants of remittance: evidence from Moldova’ found out that there is positive correlation between size of remittance and income level of migrants”. “The factors like income and employments opportunity have great importance to determine size of remittance of migrants” (World Bank, 2006). As far as periodicity of remittances is concerned, almost two-third migrants sent remittances on monthly basis. More than one-fourth migrants send remittance bi-monthly may be because of low saving of money for remittance. About 5 percents migrants sent remittance bi-weekly while very low percents migrants informed that they send remittance quarterly. Most of the cases, the channel of sending remittance is location and time specific. A greater percentages of migrant send remittances through post office because of safe method transfer of money as well as there is lack of banking facility at place of origin of migrants. On the other hand, post office has higher transaction cost, delay to delivery remittances. The second important channel for sending remittances is by the way of friends/ relatives and 30 percents migrants informed that they send remittances by friends and relatives to the place of destination. Though, there is chance of losing money through this channel, it is easy way to reach remittances door step to migrants to place of origin. Third channel of sending remittance is bank which the formal channel of sending remittance is safest method for

transfer, low transaction cost. The 40 percents remitters reported that they expend Rs.50 per thousand as cost of remittance while 30 percents respondents informed that there is no cost of sending remittance to place of origin of migrants. On other hand, 28 percents migrants informed that they give Rs.10 per Rs. 1000 as cost of remittances sending charge. Remittance is an important source of income of migrant's household and it helps to make strong ties between migrants and their family at place of origin. Multiple responses technique has been used to know comprehensively use of remittances for different purposes. Household consumption is the main purpose and first priority for using of remittance while 91.3 percent migrant use remittances for family expenditure for basic needs of family. Connel etc. al observed that mainly remittances are used for every day household needs or consumption purposes. Delhi based studies show that remitter sending money mostly is used for household expenses (Banarjee, 1986). On the other hand, 33.67 percents use their remittance for repayment of debate. According to NSSO (2007-08), 10 percents migrants spend their remittance for repayment of debt. Ghosh (2010) study also shows that repayment of debate is important purpose for spending remittance of household. In addition, 30.33 percent migrants spend their remittances for health purpose. Many studies reveal that health is priority sector for using of remittance. Education and health receive high priority in the spending remittance (Siddique, 2012). About 28.33 percent migrants are interested to spend money from remittances for education of sister/ brother/children whereas 28.63 percent migrant's household invest their remittances for increasing the agricultural productivity. De Haan (2010) studies of Bihar shows that a greater portion of remittances are spend for purchasing seeds, fertilizers and insecticide, pesticides etc. On the other hand, 27 percents use their remittance for construction of new house and repairing to old house. Majority of remittance is used for consumption purpose of household. Many studies try to make link between of remittance and saving. More than one mode of saving has been cited by the migrants whereas the multiple response technique has been used. The bank account of saving is most important mode of saving of migrants while 87.45 percents use bank saving account for saving purpose of remittance. Life insurance is the second important mode of saving of migrants. A few percent of migrants save their money as cash in hand rather than saving to bank account.

Impact of migration has been explored in different ways, which includes the uses of remittance in different purposes, household consumption, investment of money in productive activities, assets portfolio etc. Indirect way, migration impact on place of origin through the awareness change of attitudes, better perception of education and quality of life. Better exposure to place of destination of migrants also assertive the migrants better wage and better working conditions at the place of origin of migrants (Srivstava, 1999). Changes of socio-economic conditions of migrant and non-migrant's household of before five years and present condition has been considered but changes rate is higher for migrant's household than the non-migrant's household. It indicates migration positively impact on migrant's household. In addition, the monthly average consumptions expenditure is higher for migrant's households as compare to non-migrant's households. Education status of the children of migrant and non-migrant's household both has been influenced by the migration. The enrolled student percentage is higher for migrant household while this percentage is lower for non-migrant household. On the other hand, dropped out percentage is higher for non-migrant's household but opposite result has been observed for migrant's household. To understand the impact of migration, the investments of money annually for different purposes have been also considered for both households. Average annual money investment for purchasing of durables goods, assets creation, house construction and repairing are higher for migrant's household than non-migrant's household. On the other hand, investment for agriculture and purchasing of livestock's average expenditure is higher for non-migrant's household than the migrant's households. In addition local labour market is influenced by the migration of rural male. It helps to improve the working conditions at local level and increasing the wage rate at the place of origin. An interesting point is that many women of migrant household participate to as agriculture wage labourer at the place of origin in the absence of male which leads to feminisation of agriculture at rural areas.

Many literatures reveals that nature of household type has a greater role to understand the impact of male out migration on women left behind at the place of origin. The women of nuclear household face difficulty for sustenance at the place of origin while joint family women do not face such type of problem. The male out-migration impacts on women work participation, women decision making power of household, freedom movement of women, what are problem are faced by the women of nuclear family. Index has been prepared to understand the work participation, decision making power and

satisfaction level of women of nuclear household. The highest work participation has been observed among the age group of (20-29) is followed by the age group of women of (30-39), (40-49) and below 20 years. It reveals that with increasing the age of women work participates rate has been decreased. Decision making power of women in household is considered as an important indicator of women autonomy and empowerment. The decision making power index of women in nuclear household. The women of (40-49) has the highest decision making power which is followed by the women of (30-39), (40-49) and below 20 years age group. Paris etc.al (1995) study pointed out that the prolonged absence of men from the household increase the decision making power of the women of household. The highest satisfaction has been observed among the age group of (30-39) which is followed by the age group of (20-29), (40-49) and (below 20 years). The women age group of (30-39) is more satisfied than the other age groups of women while this result comes out due to more satisfied to get enough remittance and may be they are satisfied with the betterment of education to their daughter and son. The women of nuclear household face the different type of problem in the absence of male migrant. The problems like increasing work load, the family responsibilities, insecurity and lack of communication are faced by the women in nuclear household. Rural male out migration increased the work burden for the women left behind the household (Siddique, 2009). Many times, women of nuclear household borrow money for family consumption, health, purchasing agriculture input and marriage of daughter etc. They get difficulty to get the borrowing money. They mostly borrow the money from the relatives, friends, rural money lender, neighbours and contactors.

Recommendations:

Migration becomes the livelihood strategy for rural people of India. Most of the rural male of out migrants from study area engaged in construction sector in different states of India and it is the fastest and booming industry. Migrants' workers face different type of problems at the place of destination.

- It is important to implementation of different policy and scheme of central and state government for welfare of the migrant's construction workers. Workers should be conscious about the different scheme and benefit available for health and social welfare etc.

- Wage payment is important for migrant's problems of workers. Many complained that they get lower wage than local workers and contactors many time payment delays and low wage also payment by the contactors. Governments and Employment welfare board would supervise this type of problems and take a strict action against the contractors.
- Working and Living conditions of construction worker is deplorable and pathetic. They do not get the proper facilities in living and working place though the risk of injury is more than the any other industry. Governments should take strict action to implement the construction board act in 1996 for compensation and health services.
- Many times the workers are living in polluted and apathetic condition of environment as a result the workers suffer from the different type of diseases. Migrants become more vulnerable on health. These do not have the health insurance policy. They would come under the coverage of Rashtriya Swastha Bhima Yozna and other government scheme.
- Construction worker is mainly recruited through the sub-contractors and get charges from the both the company and labourer. Make some policy and method so that workers can direct contact with the company and get work easily that helps to increase the income construction workers.
- The building of construction worker welfare acts as an important historical act which provides the social security of construction workers. Though, the migrant workers change one place to another because of changing working place, make difficulty to get facility at the working place. The registration system should be easier to get the facilities of shelter and health check camp and clinic.
- Injury and accident cases are more frequently observed in the construction sites. To make strict legislation separately for this sector to get the compensation at the construction sites.
- Skill plays important role to determine the daily income of the workers that helps to eradication of poverty. The scope of up gradation of skill is limited and government and National skill development cooperation initiated to support for skill building in the construction sector.

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