

**Out-Migration and Quality of Life: A Comparative Study of Migrant and
Non-Migrant Households of Rural Bihar**

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DECLARATION

This is to certify that the thesis entitled "Out-Migration and Quality of Life: A Comparative Study of Migrant and Non-Migrant Households of Rural Bihar" submitted by me in fulfilment of the requirements for the award of the degree of Doctor of Philosophy of Jawaharlal Nehru University, is my original research work. The thesis has not been submitted for any other degree of this University or any other University.

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CERTIFICATE

It is hereby recommended that this thesis may be placed before the examiners for evaluation.

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Dedicated to

my

Beloved Mother

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Abbreviations

NSSO	National Sample Survey Organisation
PDS	Public Distribution System
BPL	Below Poverty Line
APL	Above Poverty Line
AAY	Antyodaya Anna Yojana
MGNREGA	Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act
SHGs	Self-Help Group
PMFBY	Pradhan Mantri Fasal Bima Yojana
ICDS	Integrated Child Development Scheme
PMGJDY	Pradhan Mantri Gram Jan Dhan Yojana
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization
OBC	Other Backward Caste
SC	Scheduled Castes
ST	Scheduled Tribes
HH	Household
MH	Migrating Household
NMH	Non-Migrating Household
WHO	World Health Organisation

UN	United Nation
QOL	Quality of Life
UPR	Usual Place of Residence
CI	Composite Index
HDI	Human Development Index
RRHH	Remittance Receiving Household
HCE	Household Consumer Expenditure
DBT	Direct Bank Transfer

Chapter 1

Introduction

The word 'Migration' has been originated from 'migrane', a Latin word, which means 'to change one's residence'. It is defined differently by different institutions (UN, NSSO, Census, etc.). Census of India (2001) defined it as "A person is considered as a migrant by place of last residence, if the place in which he is enumerated during the census is other than his place of immediate last residence."¹ Whereas, National Sample Survey Organisation (NSSO, 2008) describe it as "A household member whose last Usual Place of Residence (UPR) any time in the past was different from the present place of enumeration was considered as a migrant member in a household."² Furthermore, according to Population Studies "migration implies a permanent or at least a semi-permanent change in the place of residence of an individual from one location to another".³ The United Nation (UN) expressed it "as a form of geographical or spatial mobility between one geographical unit and another. It involves a change in residence from the place of origin or departure to the place of destination or arrival."⁴ So by the above definitions and many others, one can say that it is simply "change in the place of residence of the people" either permanently or temporarily.

Migration existed since human existence. Migration plays an imperative role in the development of economic condition and also in the transformation of the society. For the rural population of India, migration has become a vital strategy for their livelihood as generally they don't get proper opportunities to earn income at their place of origin. Therefore, to improve their quality of life they migrate to places having better opportunities, resources, salary, work, etc. Migration is not new, it existed since long, but it has been seen an unprecedented surge in out-migration among the rural population in recent times.

Migration is, obviously, change and it "can transform the person who migrate, the region to which they migrate and even the region from where they migrate". The strength of migration

¹ Census of India (2001), Registrar General and Census Commission of India, Government of India, New Delhi.

² Ibid. p.22

³ Singh, J. P. (1980) "Population Mobility In India: Studies And Prospects", *Sociological Bulletin*, Indian Sociological Society, Vol. 29, No. 1, pp. 33-62

⁴ National Sample Survey Organisation (2010) "Migration in India: 2007-08", NSSO 64th Round, Report No. 533 (64/10.2/2), Ministry of Statistics and Programme Implementation, Government of India, New Delhi.

is to stimulate change in the origin and destination regions which are determined by three factors: i) the total number engaged; ii) the period of the movement; and iii) its composition of caste/class. In the first case, it can easily be understood that migration on a small scale will have little effect to bring about change, hardly going beyond the lives of the people involved and their close relatives. Whereas, migration on a large scale can affect both, the place from where they migrate and the place to which they migrate.

Generally, migration is viewed as a result of unequal development of place of origin and place of destination. However, one can find conflicts of opinion concerning the result of migration at the place of origin (de Haan, 2000). The developmentalists debate that “in return for flow of migrants, counter-flow of capital (like remittances and investment) and knowledge are produced at the place of origin, which again can be invested and as a result bring about development and modernization.” According to Pessimist, in the capitalist system, out-migration from the origin is viewed as a part of a larger practice of exhausting away of available resources from an under-developing to developing areas. Generally, the main motive behind out-migration is to acquire an improved quality of life not only for one-self but also for their family members.

Quality of life (QOL) is not a new term. Actually, it nothing but a new name for an age old concept. It is a “subjective name for the ‘wellbeing’ of people and the environment in which they live. For any individual, QOL expresses that set of ‘wants’ which after being supplied, when taken together, makes the individual happy or satisfied. However, human wants rarely reach a state of complete satisfaction, except possibly for a very short time: as one want is satisfied, another pops up to take its place. As a result, the concept of quality of life varies not only from person to person, but also from place to place and from time to time. Therefore, the quality-of- life concept is multidimensional. Its conceptual heterogeneity can have an infinite number of combinations even if it is referred to at a particular point of time for a particular group in a particular area, simply because of the differences in values among individuals.” (Ben-chieh Liu)

Since the 1960s, “the quality of life has been the subject of extensive theoretical and empirical research. Some of the most important contributors in this regard have been David Smith, Sen (1984, 1993, 1996), Nussbaum (1988, 2000), Griffin (1986) Cummins et al. (1994), Cummins (1996), Qizilbash (1996), Narayan et al. (2000) and Alkire (2002). The meaning of quality of life has evolved to human capabilities and emphasis on human rights development (Sumner

2003) rather than being limited to only income related poverty. It is recognized that income per capita cannot alone reflect quality of life and that growth in per capita income may fail to translate into general increases in human well-being (Qizilbash 1996).”

Quality of life is a relative term. It is found that “there is no universally accepted definition of Quality of life and neither there are universally accepted indicators of quality of life.” There is always a “problem of defining the quality of life in terms of quantifiable categories to map variations of human life conditions. After having gone through literatures related to QOL, there are two major components of QOL; subjective (psychological) and objective (economic, social, political, environmental)” (Ben-chieh Liu, 1975).

QOL covers “not only the economic opportunities available to the people but also their ability to take advantage of these opportunities and the existence of living conditions which permit a healthy and productive life. Eradication of poverty and provision of basic minimum services are integral elements of this strategy to improve the quality of life. It should be noted that social indicators cannot improve merely through increased investment but in addition, it also require a significant change in social attitudes and behavioural responses of the people. In order to achieve these objectives, there is no alternative to social mobilisation and community participation.”

QOL has been analysed as function of physical, social, and economic dimensions. Physical dimension includes those things which can be observed tangibly such as types of latrine, drinking water source, house types, etc. Social dimensions are related to education attainment, health, awareness, attitudes, etc. Economic dimension include the income, occupation, and work.

1.1 Statement of the Problem

Unequal regional development leads to migration. Lack of opportunities at the place of origin often force migrants to leave their native land. Hence, in order to acquire a better and improved life they migrate to the urban areas. Keeping in mind the above said reasons, one can conclude that facilities like better employment prospects, improved infrastructure, and higher wages available in developed regions attract migrants whereas the absence of the same in the developing or under-developed regions push migrants outside. Though, it has been the most common practice yet in past few decades new patterns have emerged which are challenging the old paradigms. It is not only the poor who is out-migrating from the rural areas but rich people are also nearly equally susceptible to the same. The rich people are out-migrating to

acquire enhanced as well as higher comforts of life whereas poor people are forced to out-migrate due to their economic hardships in order to eke out existence. Most of the people, who are out-migrating from the rural areas to the urban centres like big cities and towns, often end up working in unorganised sectors, that also on nominal wages and without any kind of protection of labour legislation. Moreover, they are often found living in slums of cities and towns which is mostly devoid of basic necessities of life such as proper housing, health and hygiene, etc.

In India, there is co-existence of permanent shift and circulatory movement of the people and labour force, between under-developed or undeveloped/backward and developed regions and also between rural and urban regions. This is mainly, because, most of the people of the rural areas depend on agriculture, which is seasonal in nature. For few months they do agriculture related work and for the remaining months they do non-agricultural work. As it is hard to find non-agricultural work in rural areas, and even if they are able to find work, the wages are so low that they are compelled to move out to urban centres.

Both rural and urban areas can be positively as well as negatively impacted by rural to urban migration. In case of rural areas, it can affect rural income, either it reduces the rural income as the males who are younger show a greater tendency for migration hence reducing agricultural productivity or increasing rural income through the remittances sent by the migrants. In terms of urban areas, it can lead to greater unemployment and reduction of wages in the urban labour markets or can positively affect the urban economy which depends on the types of migrants involved.⁵

Migration are of many types like internal migration and International migration, in-migration and out-migration. Internal migration “refers to migration within a particular country but international migration refers to the migration across the country”. International migration can be of two types i) Immigration- “From the perspective of the country of arrival, the act of moving into a country other than one’s country of nationality or usual residence, so that the country of destination effectively becomes his or her new country of usual residence.” ii) Emigration- “From the perspective of the country of departure, the act of moving from one’s country of nationality or usual residence to another country, so that the country of destination

⁵ Chachra, S. (1993) “Government Policies and Rural-Urban Migration” *Indian Anthropologist*, Indian Anthropological Association, Vol. 23, No. 1, p. 75

effectively becomes his or her new country of usual residence.”⁶ Internal migration also are of two types; i) in-migration ii) out-migration. In-migration is a type of migration where a person/s move into a new place to live, whereas in out-migration, person/s move out of a place to another place. According to NSSO (2008) “Any former member of a household who left the household, any time in the past, for a stay outside the village/ town was considered as out-migrant provided he/ she was alive on the date of the survey.” In-migration is mainly found in the better and developed regions whereas out-migration is found in the under-developed or developing regions. Better-off regions, urban centres, towns, cities, metropolitan cities act like a magnet and pull people, whereas rural areas or regions lacking in resources, have lesser or no work opportunities, economic backwardness, pushes people out.

Out-Migration can be found in every nook and corner of India but out-migration from Bihar is the highest (in terms of absolute number) in India and it placed second after U.P. in terms of net migrants migrating out-side the state (Census, 2001). Bihar has a very complex population structure. It is the third largest state in terms of population (after Uttar Pradesh and Maharashtra, Census-2011) and also the densest state of India. It has the lowest literacy rate, ranked lowest in Human development and there is also high incidence of poverty. The “lower agricultural output, skewed distribution of land and higher incidence of landlessness, higher dependency on agriculture and lack of industrialization and several socio-economic and institutional barriers are the evidences of the backwardness of Bihar. The stagnation in all sectors of economy in the past led to lower per capita income and higher incidence of poverty in the state. The lack of infrastructure, institutional barriers and poor governance in the state has developed a milieu of underdevelopment. This situation is considered as the leading factor of heavy outmigration from the state of Bihar” (Sharma 1995, Sharma 2005).

It is also important to note that “the violent reaction of the political class and host community towards Bihari migrants has accelerated the debate on various issues related to out-migration from the state”. “Bihari migrants are facing increasing hostility from political class but the ongoing policy of urban planning, which is flipped towards the richer section of urban residents, which is also increasing difficulty in survival for poor migrants. In this scenario, it is important to understand the actual pattern of out-migration and its importance for the community of origin.”

⁶ <https://www.iom.int/key-migration-terms>

So, it is necessary to scrutinise the various factors such as economic, social, and political, etc. behind the out-migration of people from the rural Bihar and its impacts on the migrant people as an individual, migrant's families and also the effects on the society and economy of village as a whole.

The main aim of migration is to enhance their quality of life by improving the quality of food, education, health condition, clothing, shelter and their way of living. They move out to places which are very far from their home, leaving the love and affection of the family members to live in a completely alien environment which they often don't like. But despite these difficulties they do so in order to fulfil the need of their family and to bring better amenities and assets to their beloved family.

1.2 Rationale of the Study

There are many studies related to out-migration in general and from Bihar in particular, in terms of its pattern, characteristics, and determinants. There are also ample studies on the reasons of out-migration and a few study on various socio-economic impacts of male out-migration. But there is hardly any study on the comparative analysis of migrant's and non-migrant's households in terms of their Quality of life. Till recently, rarely any study of this type on rural areas of Gopalgunj was done. That's why the present research aims to study and bring out the various aspects of the rural areas of Gopalgunj and has also endeavoured to answer questions like, why there is difference between their QOL, what are the reasons for the extent of the differences, is there any role of out-migration in enhancing Quality of life, etc. Census and NSSO do not give data of out-migration from districts to other states. To overcome this, the present research aimed to trace the out-migration from the selected district to the other states of India through primary survey. The questions as to where they have gone, for how long have they been at the place of destination, what were they doing before migration, whether they arrive at the present destination directly or they had been to some other places before reaching there, how they keep contact with the people at the origin, what are the magnitudes of rural male out-migrants, etc., have also been examined in this research. An attempt has also been made to analyse various aspects of remittances and its role in improving their quality of life. The findings from this study may help in better understanding the numerous aspects of out-migration and quality of life, which may further help to draw a better policy related to that.

1.3 Study Area

Social phenomena such as migration, socio-economic development, etc. always take place in a geographical settings which evolve with time. These geographical settings often affect the social phenomenon of that particular geographical region and vice-versa. The region's changing spatial context, physical condition, past history, physical resources, socio-cultural, political and economic set-up contribute to the evolvement of a particular social phenomenon and also shaped the development pattern of that particular region. In the context of Bihar, it is bestowed with specific distinctive characteristics; it has specific relative advantage in comparison to other states of India. Geographically, Bihar is well located, physically pretty sound, historically significantly glorified, socially very important and politically immense importance. However, despite being privileged economically, with vast enrichments and great potentialities in terms of its human and physical resource base, it has lagged behind in terms of development which trigger various socio-economic phenomenon such as out-migration. Therefore, understanding the geography of Bihar is an essential for any kind of analysis and discussion.

As shown on the Map. No.1, Bihar is a state which is entirely land-locked and extends from 24°20' 10"N to 27° 31' 15"N latitude and between 83° 19' 50"E to 88° 17' 40"E longitudes. It surrounded by "Nepal in the north, Jharkhand in the south, Uttar Pradesh and Madhya Pradesh in the west and West Bengal in the east." Bihar covers an area of about 94163 km² (36,357 sq. miles) which is 2.86 % of India's total area and ranked 12th in terms of area amongst other Indian states. It is roughly quadrilateral in shape. Extension of Bihar state from North to South is 605 km whereas its extension from East to West is about 483 km. It lies between "sub-humid Uttar Pradesh and Humid West Bengal which provides it an intermediate location in terms of climate, culture and economy". Bihar's climate is of "sub-tropical humid in nature, with hot summers and cold winters". Bihar is mainly a very fertile plain area which is mostly drained by the mighty river Ganga and its tributaries such as Gandhak, Ghagra, Kosi, etc. The Ganga River splits the Bihar state unequally into two parts, the North Bihar Plain and South-Bihar Plain.

In terms of population, Bihar ranked 3rd most populous state of India. The population density of Bihar is 1106 per sq. km (census, 2011), which is the highest amongst all the states of India. For the administrative purposes, the Bihar has nine divisions and total thirty eight districts.

It is predominantly an agrarian society as most Bihar's population (i.e. 89 %) resides in the rural regions. It has been found that during 2001-2010, Bihar's urban population although increased at a faster rate, its urbanisation level hardly increased, showing augmentation of pressure not only on rural land but also on rural resources. In terms of urbanisation rate, it ranked the second lowest in India.

Poor governance and economic stagnation are not new to Bihar, it existed since long, in recurrent phase. It continuously remained as one of the slowest economic regions of India prior to 2007 (Basu, 2013; Sharma, 2013). The weak economic growth of Bihar, is not only because of its internal problems of poor and weak governance but also various biased economic policies initiated by the federal government. One such example is the Green Revolution, which helped Punjab and Haryana to become economically strong states, surpassed Bihar even though it had conducive environment for it. Increasing population pressure and slow pace of economic growth has had regressive effect on the living standards of the people. Incidences of poverty as well as deprivation remain high in the most part of the state whereas living standards was consistently seen to be low.

There is high population pressure on land in Bihar and in addition to this, it remained economically a laggard region during the last two centuries. This has led substantial dependence on remittances amongst the communities of rural Bihar. Due to continued scarcity of profitable opportunities at the origin appears to have started a "Migration Culture" in the Bihar's rural areas. During the British rule, the worsening of economic condition of Bihar began, which also continued for most part of post-independence. Flawed economic policies came up at the time of British rule, "complete lack of political interest of the federal government relating to the developmental requirements of the state for most part of post-independence, and a large number of inherent problems comprising the virtual non-existence of governance, law and order during 1990 to 2005, have weakened the Bihar's economic development (Mukherji & Mukherji, 2012)." Till recently, Bihar was bypassed by the market reforms which were introduced since early 1990. Even though historically, the phenomena of out-migration from Bihar is quite widespread, many studies at village level point out that "the occurrence of out-migration from Bihar augmented further in 1990s (Karan, 2003; Sharma, 2005), a time which is actually referred as the watershed of Indian Economy."

1.4 Conceptual Framework

A critical look at the root cause of out-migration, most of the literature pointed out that migration was often viewed as a result of unequal development of place of origin and destination. Unequal regional development leads to migration. Lack of opportunities at the place of origin often force migrants to leave their native land. Hence, in order to acquire a better and improved life they migrate to the urban areas. Keeping in mind the above reasons, one can conclude that facilities like better employment prospects, improved infrastructure, and higher wages available in developed regions attract migrants whereas the absence of the same in the developing or under-developed regions push migrants out-side.

The lack of industrial development in rural areas, poor infrastructure, limited market place, rural poverty, low agricultural income & productivity and under-employment induce the rural population to out migrate to other areas which offer better employment opportunities and wages. “Moreover, the pressure of population resulting in the higher land man ratio has been hypothesized as an important cause in increasing rural out migration. People respond to their perception of market forces and changing economic opportunities, thereby, helping to maintain a balance between geographical distribution of population and the available resources.” As population grows, unless the rural non crop husbandry sector or the cottage or small scale industries expand so as to take in the surplus, proliferating population must travel to other places of destination to find gainful employment.

Both rural and urban areas can be positively as well as negatively impacted by the rural to urban migration. In case of rural areas, it can affect rural income, either it reduces the rural income as the males who are younger show a greater tendency for migration hence reducing agricultural productivity or increasing rural income through the remittances sent by the migrants. In terms of urban areas, it can lead to greater incidence of unemployment and reduction of wages in the urban labour markets or can positively affect the urban economy, which depends on the types of migrants involved.⁷

Though out-migration takes place at individual level but resolution to move out has not always been a personal resolution but the household resolution. The resolution of out-migration is affected by number of socio-economic aspects at the personal and household level. At the level of individual age, sex, status of marriage, level of educational attainment, etc. affects the

⁷ Chachra, S. (1993) “Government Policies and Rural-Urban Migration” *Indian Anthropologist*, Indian Anthropological Association, Vol. 23, No. 1, p. 75

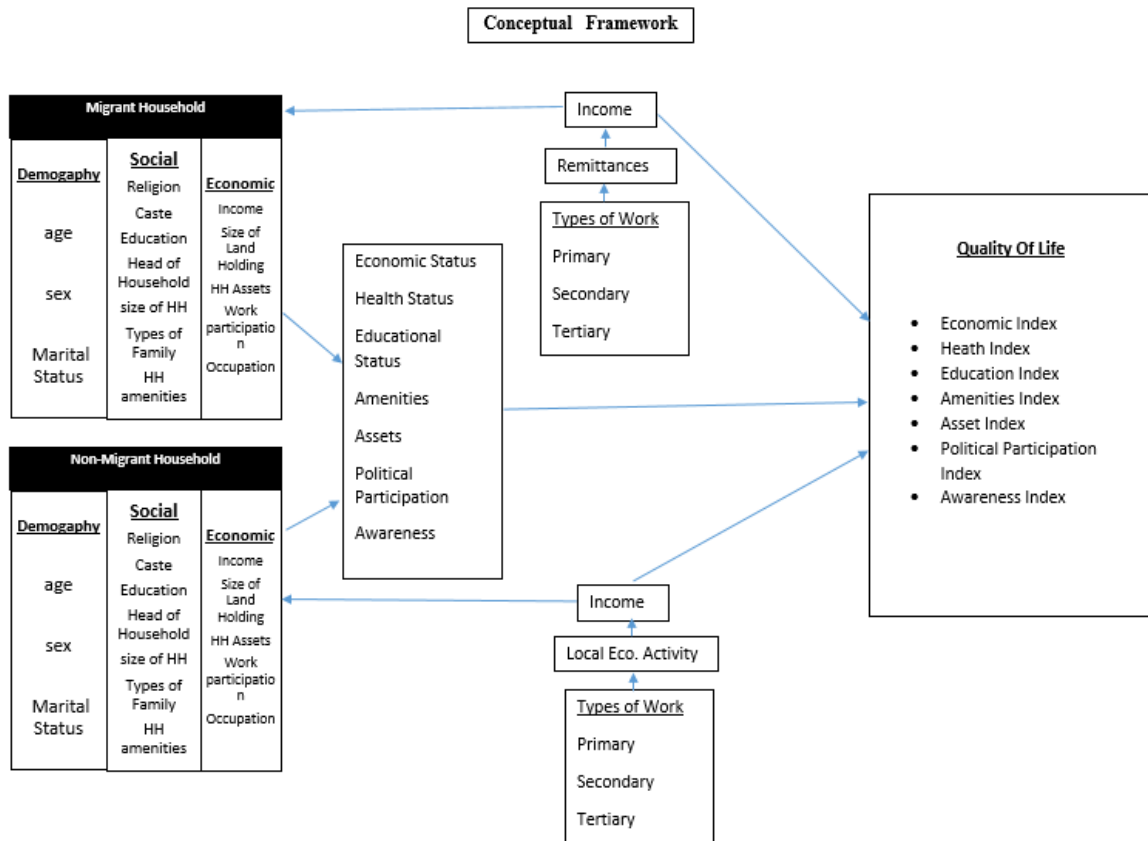
decision to move out where as at household level aspects like household size, types of family, number of dependents in the house, income of the household, health status, earning members in the house, etc. affect the same.

Generally, the main motive behind out-migration is to achieve a better quality of life not only for one-self but also for their family members. “The quality-of-life concept is multidimensional. Its conceptual heterogeneity can have an infinite number of combinations even if it is referred to a particular point in time for a particular group in a particular area, simply because of the differences in values among individuals.” (Ben-chieh Liu)

“The meaning of quality of life has evolved from income and poverty to human capabilities with an emphasis on development as human right (Sumner 2003). It is recognized that income per capita cannot alone reflect quality of life and that growth in per capita income may fail to translate into general increases in human well-being (Qizilbash 1996). Quality of life is a relative term. There is no commonly accepted definition for the term QOL and neither there is universally accepted indicators of Quality of life. There is always a problem of defining the quality of life in terms of quantifiable categories to measure variation of human life conditions.” After having gone through literatures related to QOL, there are two major components of QOL; subjective (psychological) and objective (economic, social, political, environmental) (Ben-chieh Liu, 1975)”.

QOL has been analysed as a “function of physical, social, political, and economic dimensions. Physical dimension includes things which can be observed physically such as types of latrine, source of drinking water, types of houses, etc.” Social dimensions are those related to education attainment, health, awareness, attitudes, etc. Economic dimension include the income, occupation, and work, etc. Political dimension includes the political participation at different level such as voting, taking part in election for political representation, political awareness, and etc. Awareness at individual and household level is also very important aspects for measuring quality of life. “It should be noted that social indicators cannot be improved merely through increased investment but in addition, it requires a significant change in social attitudes and behavioural responses of the people.” To make people aware about their social, economic and political rights as well as privileges available to them through government and their various schemes and programmes, is also very important. The only way to acquire these objectives is through the social mobilisation and community participation.

Fig. 1. 1 Conceptual Framework



1.5 Objectives

Generally, it is assumed by the researchers that remittances, knowledge and expertise carried by the out-migrated people from their place of destination bring about economic, social and cultural changes in their family in particular and village in general. These also improve their quality of life and also raise their aspirations. Nevertheless, there are no sufficient grounds to prove whether moving out from the rural regions is beneficial for the place of origin as a whole or it is just another form of depleting the valuable of human resources of the rural areas. Therefore, the objectives of the present study is to analyse the different angles of out-migration and its relation to the quality of life, so that it helps us to understand the reasons of out-migration from Bihar in general and Gopalgunj in particular. The important objectives of this research are as follows:

1. To ascertain the causes of out-migration across social as well as geographical spaces.

2. To identify the role of external factors (pull factors) and internal factors (push factor) for the out-migration from Bihar.
3. To study various characteristics of out-migrants in terms of age, sex, caste, religion and educational levels.
4. To study the remittances, its uses by the migrant households and its impacts.
5. To scrutinize and compare migrant households with non-migrant households on the basis of various social and economic conditions.
6. To compare migrant households and non-migrant households in terms of quality of life.

Keeping in view the above objectives, there are various questions which come out, that should be answered. So some of the possible questions which should be answered are the following:

1.6 Research Questions

1. Which factor (push or pull) is dominant for out-migration from Bihar?
2. What is the primary use of remittances by the migrant Households?
3. Is Quality of life of migrant's households better than the non-migrant's?

Just as a body needs spine to support its structure, similarly research cannot be justified without proper database. Database is the starting point from where the research starts, which is required throughout its process till its conclusion. So some of the important database which are used in this research are mentioned below:

1.7 Database and Methodology

The present study aims to scrutinize the out-migration in terms of quality of life and analyse its various aspects using a research approach which is a mixed method as it assimilates both qualitative as well as quantitative methods. To fulfil this purpose, an endeavour has been made to construct suitable indices using appropriate indicators to determine quality of life and compare it between migrant and non-migrant of Bihar. This study has been done at two level, macro and micro level. Macro level has been done at state level using secondary data whereas micro level was done using primary data conducted during October 2018 to February 2019. Further, in order to carry out analysis, particular tools as well as techniques have been applied to elucidate migration and quality of life. A single variable is not enough to reveal QOL appropriately hence composite index method has been computed to measure quality of life. There are various methods available to construct composite index. However, the method used for the same in this study has been explained elaborately in the following sections.

1.7.1 The Research Design and Methodology

1.7.1.1 Secondary Database

National Sample Survey Organisation (NSSO) is the main source of the secondary data used in the present research followed by Census. Along with this, other secondary sources that have provided valuable data for the analysis are Human Development Report, Statistical abstract of Bihar, Economic Survey of Bihar. The survey of literature helped in selecting the appropriate data, its availability at macro and micro level, its uses and choice of variables needed for the research.

Due to inaccessibility/unavailability of the latest data related to migration, i.e. Census data for migration is available only till 2001 while NSS data available till 2007-08, so the present research is mainly based on NSSO data, 2007-08. The NSS data used in the present research has been extracted from the 64th round survey of NSS on Employment and Unemployment and Migration Particulars (Schedule 10.2) during July, 2007 to June, 2008.

1.7.1.2 Primary Database

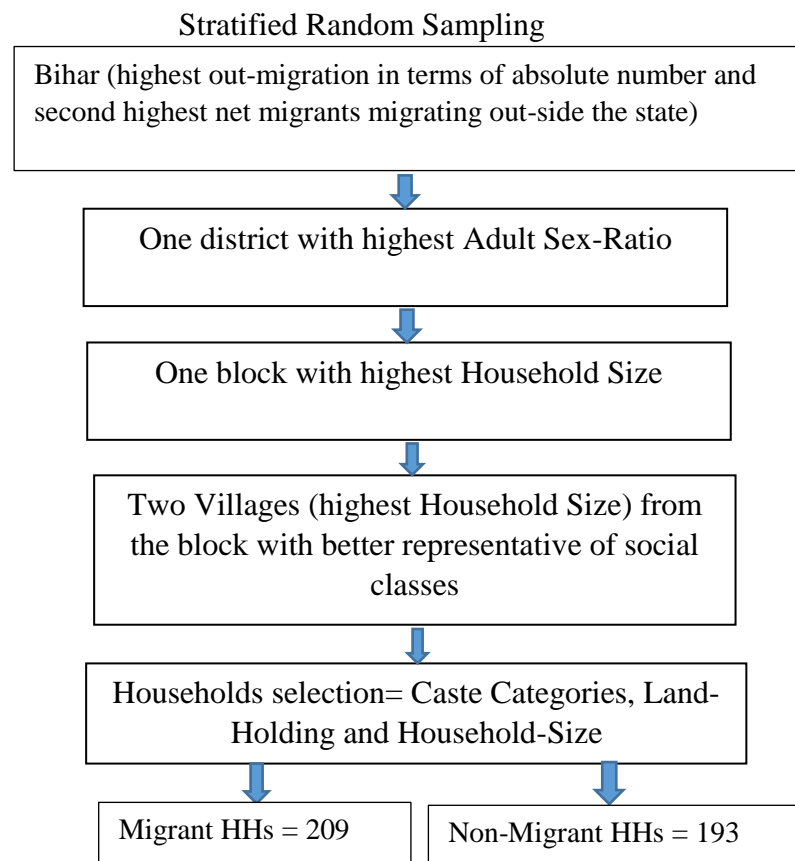
An essential and basic step in every research is the collection of the primary data. Though, secondary data of out-migration helps us to get an idea about the out-migration but it is not sufficient, also it is not available at the district level/village level. Hence, to analyse out-migration and related aspects at the micro level, one has to go for primary survey as it helps to delve deeper and get an idea of ground reality. It also provides the required surface and bridge the connecting links via field survey. Therefore, the present study collected primary data, keeping in mind the above stated objectives, on various social, economic, political and demographic facets of out-migration and quality of life.

1.7.2 Selection of the Sites and Survey Method

The methodology used for any research is a blueprint of the entire research. Lack of proper methodology and ambiguity in the objective behind conducting research would lead to many deficiencies in the collection of data. In the social science research, most of the problems are multifaceted so it is better to use mixed research approach than using single approach (such as either quantitative or qualitative). Hence, the present study used the mixed method research approach in understanding the out-migration, its various aspects and quality of life.

Census does not have a separate data on out-migration. “In-migrants in one state” is considered as the “out-migrants from other states”. Out-migration from Bihar is the highest (in terms of absolute number) in India but it placed second after U.P. in terms of net migrants migrating out-side the state (Census, 2001).The present study will focus on the out-migration of rural male from Bihar to various states of India. Stratified random sampling has been applied for sample selection. Firstly, the district having the highest adult sex-ratio (a proxy variable of out-migration) was selected using census data, as there was no data available at district level out-migration to another states. Then one block was taken out on the basis of highest Household number and one village (highest Household number) was selected with better representation of social groups. As the data of migration is available only at the level of district, for further lower level of out-migration information, a district head office was also consulted in order to select block and villages with significantly high out-migration. Household was selected on the basis of three criteria - caste categories, Land-holding size and household-size. A total sample of 402 households have been selected, 209 migrant HHs and 193 non-migrant HHs. The whole process of the sampling has been summarised in the flow chart given below:

Fig. 1. 2 Sample Design



1.7.3 Analytical Tools

Analysis of the data begins with data coding, which has been done by using SPSS software for the present study. After this one can apply one or more analysis techniques according to one's aims and objectives. One of the most important objective of the present research is to analyse and compare the quality of life of migrant and non-migrant households. For fulfilling this objective, composite index has been computed. Composite Index is calculated by combining numerous variables or indicators all together or it can also computed by combining various composite Index together to form one single composite Index. Firstly, different composite index calculated for various categories such as health, education, Income, etc. and then combining all these index, one final composite index has been made for the scrutiny of overall QOL for both kinds of the households. Before computing composite index, it is very important to select variables appropriately and convert it into respective indicators. In another imperative step, the values of the selected indicators have been made Scale Free. There are various methods of making indicators Scale Free such as Range Equalisation Method, Conversion to a Discrete Scale (Ranking Method), Standardisation ($Z\text{ Score} = \frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}$; x = Value of the variable, μ = Mean, σ = Standard Deviation), Division by standard deviation, Division by mean, Division by 'ideal value'⁸, etc. Making the indicators unit free and to have a desirable range are the main aim of the scaling. For the present study, Division by mean method of scale free has been used to make indicators scale free.

For the present study, seven dimensions for assessing quality of Life has been used, namely, Economic, Education, Health, amenities, Assets, political participation and awareness. A reasonable economic condition not only ensures access to basic necessities of life but also provides access to other dimensions of life such as education, health, household amenities (sanitation, portable drinking water and electricity), assets, political participation and awareness about their surrounding socio-economic environment/facilities/resources. Similarly, health and education enable a person to acquire better occupation which resulted in better income. Health is of immense importance to households not only for ensuring a healthy life, but better health warrants a better healthy life and thus higher capability to earn better income. A better amenities directly improves the health and better health's benefits already explained above. Political participation reveals individual's access to their political rights. Political

⁸ Kundu, A. et al. (2002) "Indexing Human Development in India: Indicators, Scaling and Composition", Working Paper Series No. 83, National Council of Applied Economic Research, pp. 18-20.

participation results in feeling of contentment with one's life as taking part in political activities gives them feeling of autonomy, competence and also relatedness. Along with this, it also give them a sense that they are part of the system and the society. This feeling of satisfaction by political participation improves one's quality of life. Awareness about surrounding environment and various socio-economic opportunities, facilities and resources are equally important for leading a better quality of life because awareness about these leads to their accesses to the available resources/facilities and thus improves their overall quality of life. Thus it can be said that the aggregate of the above mentioned seven dimensions would provide a reasonable picture of the quality of the migrant and non-migrant households.

Economic index has been calculated using six variables which are converted into respective indicators. Then these indicators are divided by their respective means to make them normalised or standardised. After that, the standardised values are summed up to get a composite score, then this score is divided by the total numbers of indicators to get the final Economic index. In the same manner, Health Index (using thirteen variables), Education index (using five variables), Amenities index (using ten variables), Asset index (using nineteen variables), Political Participation index (using seven variables) and Awareness index (using eighteen variables) have been calculated. Negative indicators were converted into the positive one in order to ensure the alignment of indicators in one direction i.e. positive.

1.8 Organisation of the Chapters

The present research has been structured into nine chapters including the summary of main conclusion. They are as follows:

The first chapter is an introductory chapter. This chapter includes the statement of the problem, rationale of the study, conceptual framework, study area, objectives, research questions, brief description of database and methodology and organisation of material. This chapter also present the relevance of the present research, in order to understand and formulate clear ideas and also framework.

Chapter two contains survey of literature and theories of migration

Chapter three demonstrates in detail about the database and methodology used which includes the data sources, research strategy, sampling design, conceptual framework, and analytical tools used in the present study.

Chapter four includes state level analysis of migration in India by using a secondary source that is NSSO 64th Round (July 2007- June 2008) Migration in India and Census of India, 2001.

In this chapter, migration streams, migration trends in India, rate of out-migration, reasons of out migration and various aspects of remittances, etc. have been presented.

Chapter five describe the personality of the study area with respect to the problems related to the out-migration. Here the physical, economical as well as social conditions of Bihar and Gopalgunj have been discussed. This section also tries to understand the socio-economic and demographic profile of Bihar. This chapter also discusses the history of the out-migration from Bihar and how it has changed since then. The present scenario has also been discussed.

The sixth chapter examines the micro level study based on primary survey of villages of Gopalgunj, a district in Bihar, during 2018. This chapter discusses the demographic, social and economic profile of rural out-migrants. Migration pattern includes place of origin, causes of migration, the area of origin, duration of migration, and migrant's levels of education has also been studied. It also tries to analyse the condition of migrants before and after the migration in terms of their social and economic conditions.

The seventh chapter is dedicated to the detailed comparative analysis of socio-economic conditions of migrant and non-migrant households using the primary data.

The eighth Chapter is mainly devoted to examine and analyse the inter-relationship between out-migration and quality of life. This chapter also tries to evaluate the various determinants and levels of the QOL between the migrant households and non-migrant households of rural Bihar.

The ninth Chapter summarises and concludes the present study, thereby providing scope for further research. This section also includes policy recommendations.

Chapter 2

Survey of Literature and Theories of Migration

2.1 Survey of Literature

2.1.1 Migration

Uneven regional development and inequitable investment on men and materials lead to out-migration for economic reasons from rural areas and underdeveloped regions. The lack of industrial development in rural areas, poor infrastructure, limited market place, rural poverty, low agricultural income & productivity and under-employment induce the rural population to out migrate to other areas which offer better employment opportunities and wages. Moreover, the population pressure resultant in the higher land man ratio has been hypothesized as an important cause in increasing rural out migration. "People respond to their perception of market forces and changing economic opportunities, thereby, helping to maintain a balance between geographical distribution of population and the available resources." As population grows, unless the rural non crop husbandry sector or the cottage or small scale industries expand so as to take in surplus, proliferating population must travel to other places of destination to find gainful employment. India is a country where disparities in respect of economic development exist not only between its states but also within the districts and there is not enough decentralization of economic opportunities, the study of out-migration by rural male has its own importance. The study of human mobility behaviour has gained great importance in recent times, when the need of integrated rural development has been recognized and consequently special attention is paid to several aspects of socio-economic development including the establishment of panchayat raj, growth centres and industries of small scale in rural regions. Migration plays as one of the important factor in the development of economy and manpower planning. Migration has been obtained a significant importance in the terms of agriculture commercialisation. With abundant access to new technology, the big landowners have become wealthier, whereas small scale farmers were left behind as they could not afford latest technology due to their high cost and high risk. Because the subsequent surge in production along with output brings down price, the farmers of small scale, using out-dated types of production and receiving lower price, experience decline in income. These factors have led to rural out-migration of people. The establishment of schools in rural areas has also stimulated out-migration by providing education and awareness of other opportunities to rural youths

especially those belonging to the middle class. Some out-migrate to pursue their further education while others out-migrate because they get dissatisfied with the prospect of rural life. Thus, one can say that “both the rich and the poor are almost equally prone to out-migration from rural areas. The rich out-migrate out of desire for better and greater comforts of life, while the poor out-migrate out of economic compulsion to eke out their living”.

2.1.1. (a) Determinants of Migration

J. P. Singh (1980)⁹ presented the sociological view of population mobility in India by “showing a thematic record of outcomes of survey reports and research studies on internal migration in India. This paper aims to explain and tries to clear the generalizations, models and theories of migration mostly developed out of the Western experiences.” It is evident that there is shift in the Indian economy and this has caused a major shift in the nature of employment which in terms has resulted into mobility in the workforce across time and space. Scholars have tried to analyse these changes.

Ravi Srivastava (2003)¹⁰ in this paper, studied the internal and international migration, and found that these have significant “impacts on economic growth and poverty reduction in various parts of the country”. He tried to study various aspects of internal and international migration and suggested many changes in government policy. The study recommends that policy intervention should focus on improving the synergy among migration and development. He also observed that unequal regional development result in internal migration.

R. B. Bhagat (2009)¹¹ through his study found that “there is significant positive relationship among percentage of workforce, per capita income, and share of state gross domestic product in the non-agricultural sector with both in-migration and out-migration rate”. In other words one can say that higher in-migration and out-migration rates is related to “higher income and

⁹ Singh, J. P. (1980) “Population Mobility In India: Studies And Prospects”, *Sociological Bulletin*, Vol. 29, No. 1, pp. 33-62

¹⁰ Srivastava, R. and S.K. Sasikumar (2003) “An Overview of Migration in India, its Impacts and Key Issues”, Paper presented at Regional Conference on Migration, Development and Pro-Poor Policy Choices in Asia, at Dhaka.

¹¹ Bhagat, R.B. (2009) “Internal Migration in India: Are the Underclass More Mobile?” a paper presented in the 26th IUSSP General Population Conference held at Marrakech, Morocco, 27 Sep-2 Oct 2009.

also with transformation of agricultural sector to the non-agricultural sector” in the economy. Whereas the state level analysis revealed that poverty is not strongly associated to increased out-migration. He also found that “neither per capita monthly expenditure nor social categories of households showed that migrants mostly came from deprived sections of Indian society”. Further, he mentioned that “after the liberalization of the economy in 1991, the relatively better off sections of the population is migrating more than the backward sections”. It is largely better off sections are better equipped to meet the demands of emerging job opportunities.

Sandhya Rani Mahapatro (2010)¹² tries to scrutinise the significance of economic factors on female migration. The impact of globalisation process has been seen on the patterns of female migration. According to the author “the major drive for female migration has been changed from social reasons to economic reasons”. To explore the determinants of female migration, Census data and OLS regression method has been used to carried out a district level analysis. The multivariate analysis used by this study revealed a relationships between all economic variables (unemployment, female work participation rate, irrigation) and female migration rate in the envisaged direction. The study finds that migration rate of female are closely inter-connected with migration rate of male. It reveals that females accompany males as associational migrants but it also found that economic factor also play some role. Lastly, it concluded that females migrate along with family as well as for employment purposes.

Vinoj Abraham (2009)¹³ showed that during 1990s there was a phase of unemployment growth and after this stage, there was increase in employment growth in rural India. This growth in employment occurred mainly because of the “widespread distress in agricultural sector with low productivity, price instability and stagnation leading to indebtedness”. He found that when the income level fell below sustenance, population who is non-working is compelled to barge into the labour market in order to supplement household income. This study revealed that working population forced by the decline of agricultural sector go for sectoral and regional mobility, and this mobility is further enhanced due to non-working population.

¹² Mahapatro, S.R. (2012) “The Changing Pattern of Internal Migration in India Issues and Challenges”, Institute for Social and Economic Change (ISEC), Vol. 3, pp. 1-18.

¹³ Abraham, V. (2009) “Employment growth in rural India: distress-driven”, Special article, *Economic and Political Weekly*, Vol. XLIV, No. 16

Amitabh Kundu and S. Gupta (1996)¹⁴ examine the “dynamics of migration and urbanisation in the perspective of the changing structure of economic development”. They observed a strong relationship between migration, urbanisation and regional disparity. Their study of migration pattern revealed that population mobility (both in-migration in developed states and out-migration from backward states) has slowed down over the decades since independence. According to them the possible reason for that is the developmental programmes initiated by the state governments in the post-independence period. As a result of this, people are now able to find job, means of livelihood, education, health facilities and other facilities at their own place. The most important finding by these researchers is that, despite a significant increase in regional disparity, migration has gone down.

2.1.1. (b) Pattern of Migration

Y. Haberkfeld, R. K. Menaria, B. B. Sahoo and R.N. Vyas (1999)¹⁵ first explain the labour’s seasonal migration from the rural areas in India, and then analyse its determinants and social as well as economic outcomes. Their findings suggest that seasonal migration is wide-spread among rural labourers. It has found that seasonal migration has great impact on the social and economic well-being of residents of the less developed regions. Authors pointed out that one or more members from the family are sent by most of the households to work for several months of a year. One interesting thing found in this study is that, those households which send its family member to find work were generally found having higher levels of income than those not sending.

Manju Singh and Seema Shandilya’s (2012)¹⁶ paper attempted to examine the trends, streams, reasons of internal migration in India in purview of New Economics Policy of 1991 based on the philosophy of liberalization, globalisation and privatisation. The forces unleashed by the new economic policy, is found to be the reason behind the increase in migration rate during 1990s. Rural to rural migration has been found to be dominant as India’s economy is

¹⁴ Kundu, A. and S. Gupta (1996) “Migration, Urbanisation and Regional Inequality”, *Economic and Political Weekly*, Vol. 31, No.52, pp. 3391-98.

¹⁵ Haberkfeld, Y. et al. (1999) “Seasonal Migration of Rural Labor in India”, *Population Research and Policy Review*, Vol. 18, No. 5, pp. 473-489.

¹⁶ Singh, M. and S. Shandilya (2012) “Internal Migration in India”, *Journal of Business Management & Social Sciences Research (JBM&SSR)*, Vol. 1, No.3., ISSN No: 2319-5614.

predominantly agricultural based. The most common 'reasons of migration' among male is 'employment' whereas it is 'marriage' among female.

R. B. Bhagat and R. Lusome (2006)¹⁷ According to their finding "internal migration is an important factor affecting social and economic development". They found that the proportion of migrants has increased by double from 1971 to 2001, mainly as a result of socio-economic changes which had taken place in last three decades. They also noticed that composition of internal migrants differs in terms of "sex as well as the streams of migration". They also observed that during the 1990s, migration in Indian population had increased significantly.

K. S. Chhikara and Ananad S. Kodan (2012)¹⁸ revealed that "the stream of migration of women is neither good for the social structure, particularly for rural areas, nor favourable to the optimum development of urban areas of the country". It was found that "rate of migration of women from rural to rural and urban to rural areas had declined, whereas rural to urban migration was increasing remarkably over the study period". That's why this paper suggests that government at both levels, must concentrate on development of rural areas through initiating schemes such as alleviation of poverty and empowerment of women in order to improve the sex ratio and to save the rural culture and social culture on one hand and an optimum development of urban regions of the country on the other hand.

Priya Deshingkar and A. Shaheen (2009)¹⁹ tried to understand the "role of migration in the strategies of livelihood and economic growth in India". They found that there is dearth of political commitment to better the conditions of migrants in terms of their living as well as working. Their analysis revealed that circular migration is the most common practice of economic mobility among the poor people, particularly among the lower castes and tribes. They observed that it is the faulty implementation of protective legislation and loopholes in the law not the migration that led to high cost of human migration. Their detailed analysis shows that migration is an important mitigation mechanism to move out of poverty.

¹⁷ Bhagat, R.B. and R. Lusome (2006) "Trends and Pattern of Internal Migration in India, 1971-2001", Paper presented at the Annual Conference of Indian Association for the Study of Population (IASP) during 7-9 June, 2006, Thiruvananthapuram.

¹⁸ Chhikara, K.S. (2012) "Migration of Rural Women in India: Trends, Streams and Motivation", *Greener Journal of Social Sciences*, Vol. 2, No. 4, pp. 127-133, ISSN: 2276-7800.

¹⁹ Deshingkar, P. and A. Shaheen (2009) "Migration and Human Development in India", Human Development Research Paper, United Nations Development Program.

Amitabh Kundu (1997)²⁰ tries to examine the structure and trends of employment during 1990s along with its possible impacts on the rate of urbanisation. This paper also examines the changes in the strategy for urban development. He found that, in general, privatisation of land and civic services push their costs, mainly in big cities. This led to consistent slowdown in the in-migration of the people, particularly of the poor people. He also observed that in the initial 1980s, migrants belonging to the class-I cities were much better-off in comparison to the non-poor in terms of economic and occupation. In 1990s, the in-migration of poor in urban areas further declined as access to basic amenities was becoming less because of “the reduction in the public expenditure (particularly capital expenditure) on the urban development and social sectors”.

Munsi, K. and M. R. Rosenzweig (2009)²¹ in their study revealed that “there is persistence of low spatial and marital mobility in case of rural India, despite increasing growth rate and widening inequality in recent years. It is primarily because of the existence of sub-caste networks that offer mutual insurance to their members”. They concluded with the fact that the provisions of these networks are lost by those households which marry outside or move outside this custom and this reduces the chances of migration due to unavailability of comparable quality of alternative sources of insurance or finance.

2.1.1. (c) Impacts of Out-Migration

Tapan Piplai and Niloy Majumdar (2002)²² tries to examine “the type and features of inter-state migration particularly the way it has affected the economic and social condition of a region”. They also attempt to see the migration’s effects not only on the migrants but also on the residents. It used census data of 1961 along with the data collection through surveys in urban areas over time. It found that with the growth of local talents, resources and the residents' readiness to utilize the new opportunities as much as possible, there is a corresponding increase in the conflicts and social tensions between migrants and non-migrants. It is particularly correct

²⁰ Kundu, A. (1997) “Trends and Structure of Employment in the 1990s: Implications for Urban Growth”, *Economic and Political Weekly*, Vol. 32, No. 24, pp. 1399-1405.

²¹ Munsi, k. and M. R. Rosenzweig (2009) “Why is mobility in india so low? Social insurance, inequality, and growth”, Working Paper No. 14850, National Bureau of Economic Research, Inc.

²² Piplai, T. and N. Majumdar (1960-2002) “Internal Migration in India: Some Socio-Economic Implications”, *The Indian Journal of Statistics*, Vol. 31, No. ¾, pp. 509-522.

when growth of economy is not adequate to absorb all present financial, material and human resources.

Sonalde Desai and Manjistha Banerji (2008)²³ study analyse the effect of migration of husband on the lives of left behind wives utilising the data from the survey of Human Development 2005. This study focus primarily on the two dimensions of left behind wive's lives: autonomy of women and their authority over their own lives; and labour force participation of women.

This study concludes that “household structure is the key factor through which husbands' absence affects women. Women who are not residing in extended families faced both higher levels of responsibilities as well as greater autonomy, while those who live in extended households do not experience these”.

Babu P. Remesh (2012)²⁴ article is based on the study of the youth migrants from North Eastern region to urban regions. A case study of Delhi region (viz. Vijaya Nagar, Munirka, Moti Bagh and Kotla Mubarakpur) has been done to see the ground reality using a snow ball technique of selecting 402 sample. It is found that migration from NER to urban centres is mostly due to “the backwardness of these regions in terms of economic development, facilities for higher education and availability of employment opportunities along with increasing social tensions”. These migrants frequently faced various types of harassments – ranging from verbal abuse to racial discrimination and physical attacks. It is mainly due to wrong perceptions about them, cultural differences and also because of absence of supportive systems.

B. B. Bhattacharya and S. Sakthivel's (2004)²⁵ study reveals that regional disparity in the post-reform period is growing. Deregulation of private investment leading to faster growth in inducing more investment, which in turn is further accentuating regional disparity. It is also found that during 1990's, there was negative relationship between population growth and income growth. Backward states with higher growth of population were not able to attract both public and private investment due to a variety of reasons, like poor infrastructure, poor income

²³ Desai, S. (2014) “Negotiated Identities : Male Migration and Left-Behind Wives in India”, *Journal of population Research*, Vol. 25, No. 3, pp.337–355.

²⁴ Babu, P. Ramesh (2012) “Migration from North-East to Urban Centres: A Study of Delhi Region”, NLI Research studies series No. 094/2012, V.V. Giri National Labour Institute, U.P.

²⁵ Bhattacharya, B. B. and S. Sakthivel (2004) “Regional Growth and Disparity in India: Comparison of Pre- and Post-Reform Decades”, *Economic and Political Weekly*, Vol. 39, No. 10, pp. 1071-1077.

and also poor governance. Migration can only to some extent diminish this problem as large-scale migration with wide diversities in religion, caste, language and education levels can create socio-political problems in the destination region, which is already evident in some states and region. However, the authors pointed out that the solution does not lie in impeding growth in fast-growing and market friendly states, but in hastening reforms in backward states to achieve balanced regional growth.

R. B. Bhagat and Soumya Mohanty (1986)²⁶ studies the urbanization process in India with special mention to “regional inequality and the contribution of the components of urban growth like increase in natural resources emergence of new towns, and the net contribution of rural to urban migration”. It was found that, during 1990s, the rate of growth of urban population had become slow despite the augmented rate of migration from rural to urban because of the noticeable “decrease in gradual increase in urban areas so in this way it has led to a visible slowdown in the speed of India’s urbanization”.

2.1.1. (d) Out-Migration from Bihar

Anand A. Yang (1979)²⁷ paper studies the migrating characteristics of peasants in district of Bihar in the 19th and early 20th centuries with major focus on seasonal migration. This study tries to analyses the adaptations that migrating peasants made in their own lives, in their communities of origin, and in their communities of destination. Author noticed that Seasonal migration for peasants was not only to enhance their resources, but this movement by low caste peasants having low income was to earn additional income in order to meet the demands of money-lenders and landholders. The Saran peasants were found to have both valuable skill and sophistication in adapting seasonal migration according to their needs and abilities. Wherever they moved wherever they went, and what they did, all gave evidence to their capability to work under some amount of risk and uncertainty in order to create a safe investment.

²⁶ Bhagat, R.B., and S. Mohanty (1986) “Emerging Pattern of Urbanization and the Contribution of Migration in Urban Growth in India” *Asian Population Studies*, Vol. 5, No. 1.

²⁷ Yang, A.A. (1979) “Peasants on the Move: A Study of Internal Migration in India”, *The Journal of Interdisciplinary History*, Vol. 10, No. 1.

Chattopadhyay, M, Bhattacharya, G (1987)²⁸ found that “retarded development of Bihar, progressively pushed out a large number of labourers” to join the growing industry, trade and commerce of the core region to pursue low paying jobs, which the indigenous Bengali population did not want to do. However, the sole object of migration from Bihar to Bengal in pre-independence period was to earn their living and to save some money for remittances for meeting the wants of their families left at home.

Singh (1981)²⁹ According to them, as far as U.P. is concerned, apart from the industrial complexes of Kanpur, Agra, Meerut etc., the vast tracts of land, which were converted into cultivable productive farms under Green Revolution attracted a large number of agricultural labourers from Bihar. After successful implementation of Green Revolution, Punjab and Haryana also received a bulk of migrants from Bihar as permanent or seasonal workers. Again, the construction and manual works in Delhi on a large scale also invited a huge number of migrant people from the Bihar state. The most permanent migrants were of high caste people but the circumstances compelled them to work as agricultural and construction workers, which was against their caste status.

Gupta and Bhakoo, (1980)³⁰ Out-migrants came to Punjab, Haryana and Delhi just to hide their status as labourers. Among the seasonal migrants, most of them are of low castes and tribals of chotanagpur.

Sinha et al. (1985)³¹ examine the rural to urban migration and urbanisation in Bihar. They found that the location of manufacturing industries and expansion of services in large towns may be enumerated as important factors, increasingly drawing migrants from rural areas and smaller urban centres to bigger towns and cities.

²⁸ Chattopadhyay, M. and G. Bhattacharya (1987) “Growth of Indian agriculture: A reappraisal” *Indian Journal of Agricultural Economics*, Vol. 42, No.1.

²⁹ Singh, M. (1981) “Uneven Development in Agriculture and Labour Migration: A Case of Bihar and Punjab”, Indian Institute of Advance Studies, Shimla.

³⁰ Gupta, A.K. and A.K. Bhakoo (1980) “Rural to Rural Migration and Characteristics of Migrant in Punjab”, *Social Change*.

³¹ Sinha, V.N.P., S. Sinha & S.B. Sahi (1985), "Rural-Urban Migration and Urbanization in Bihar", *Asian Profile*, Vol. 13, No. 5, pp. 55-61.

Sharma et al. (1995)³² on the basis of primary data from six agriculturally poor districts of Bihar concluded that the wages are very low even in the prosperous region of Bihar. Temporary rural marginal workers migrate within the state from the agriculturally backward districts of the Northern Bihar to the relatively prosperous region of Central Bihar.

2.1.2. Quality of Life

S. McCall (1975)³³ in his paper tried to bring out several issues related to definition of quality of life. He started by explaining the meaning of quality and life separately and then went on to explain different types of happiness and its relation with quality of life. He explains three types of happiness: 1. General happiness requisites or requirement (same for every persons, as it don't vary for different person) 2. Idiosyncratic happiness requisites (vary from person to person) 3. Happiness itself (being happy in its actual state). He also brings out the differences between human needs, desires and wants. He defines quality of life as "attaining of the essential conditions for happiness all over the society, and pointed that these conditions are essential but not sufficient". According to him, these essential conditions are the means to "satisfaction of human needs not for human desires". At the end of his paper, he emphasized that "maximizing need satisfaction (in against to want satisfaction)" definitely lead to equitable distribution of goods which are necessary. This shows that a society with high QOL will be the societies characterised by equality and justice.

E. M. Gerson (1976)³⁴ attempted to revive some technical effort to resolve many definitional, analytical, and measurement problems. This paper propose a list of considerations which may serve as a facilitator for further research. He compared the traditional approach: the Individualist approach "(position and activities of individuals)" along with the transcendentalist approach "(the overall order of society)" to define quality of life and then emphasized that there is need for a new approach as both these approaches are inadequate. Both these are said to be "inadequate because they presume the logical separation of individual and society. Therefore he proposed third approach, which conceives individuals and society generating each other via

³² Gosh, P.P. and A.N. Sharma (1995) "Seasonal Migration of Rural Labour in Bihar", Labour and Development, Vol. I, No. I, pp. 118-135.

³³ McCall, S. (1975) "Quality of Life" *Social Indicators Research*, Vol. 2, No. 2, pp. 229-248

³⁴ Gerson, E. M. (1976) "On Quality of Life" *American Sociological Review*, Vol. 41, No. 5, pp. 793-806

a continuing process of negotiation which leads to a “quality of life” defined in terms of the outcomes of these negotiation; at a single point in time these are called the sovereignties of individuals and settings”. He conceptualised sovereignties as “patterns of commitment made by individuals among settings, and conversely. It is suggested that these patterns of commitment be measured as the joint allocation of money, skill and sentiment by individuals and settings”.

M. R. Narayana (2009)³⁵ have done a “focused analysis on measurement of indicators and variables in the construction of education index in India's national and sub national HDRs. This analysis is intended to (a) compare the unique similarities and essential difference of India's measurement of education index with that of UNDP-HDRs and (b) relate the education index in HDRs to quality of life (QOL) indices.” The results show “non-comparability of measurement of the education indicators and variables. This implies that vertical and horizontal comparability of HDI may not be plausible for India. Implications of these analyses are highlighted for measurement of quality of life indices with special reference to physical quality of life index. Policy lessons are derived for future measurement of education index for India in particular, and other developing countries in general.”

M. B. Brinkerhoff et al. (1997)³⁶ has studied various issues related to the linkages between “efforts of development and quality of life”. It also enquire about both social indicators and development through the data collected for the evaluation of the community development project of the region in the Northern India called Garhwal region. The author further tried to investigate the relationship between the “basic minimum needs and Quality of life”, innovation of methodology for determining BMNs and QOL, and selected correlates related to BMNs and social indicators of QOL for the villagers of Garhwal. Some variables like literacy, education, work and leisure have strong associations with BMNs.

Ben-chieh Liu (1975)³⁷ explained the conceptual development of Quality of life and how to measure it. His effort can be said as “an exploratory effort to develop an analytical framework

³⁵ Narayana, M. R. (2009) “Education, Human Development and Quality of Life: Measurement Issues and Implications for India” *Social Indicators Research*, Vol. 90, No. 2, pp. 279-293.

³⁶ Brinkerhoff, M. B. et al. (1997) “Basic Minimum Needs, Quality of Life and Selected Correlates: Explorations in Villages in Northern India” *Social Indicators Research*, Vol. 42, No. 3, pp. 245-281.

³⁷ Ben-chieh Liu (1975) “Quality of Life: Concept, Measure and Results”, *The American Journal of Economics and Sociology*, Vol. 34, No. 1, pp.1-13.

to guide future empirical work, and to establish a set of quality-indicators”. According to the author, there are “two major components of QOL; subjective (psychological and objective (economic, social, political, environmental)”. Subjective component is difficult to measure as it is mainly qualitative in nature whereas objective component can be measured because of its quantitative nature. This paper has suggested that QOL varies from region to region within each state. He emphasized that QOL measures should be developed in such way that it can be suitable for those regions which are smaller than the state. Though, he was able to point out the problems of the society where it actually existed but he was unable to explain how the problems of the society can be solved.

G. A. Pacheco et al. (2013)³⁸ constructed two unique objective non-economic QOL indices; demographic QOL and geographical QOL index for 16 OECD countries. There is also an attempt to study the relationship among the constructed QOL indices and pattern of migration of the selected group of OECD countries. The author also discusses in length the various literatures related to the concept of QOL and its relation to migration. He developed an immigration model on the basis of gravitational factors. It found that there is no significant link among the selected 6 non-economic quality of life measures and flow of immigration for 16 OECD countries from 1991 to 2000. This study found that the factors like “population size, relative income, stock of immigrants from the origin country already living in the OECD destination country, historical colonial ties and geographical factors played a significant role in increasing the flow of immigration to the OECD countries”.

Chang-tseh Hsieh and Ben-chieh Liu (1983)³⁹ tried to scrutinise the interrelationship among interregional migration and regional differences in QOL. Effect of the interregional variation of several facets of QOL i.e. economic, environmental, political, social, health and education were incorporated in the model. It was found that economic factors don’t play an important role in accelerating interregional migration, which was generally consider. Rather, in long-run acquirement of improved quality of social life was found to be the most essential factor for

³⁸ Pacheco, G. A. et al. (2013) “Do Non-Economic Quality of Life Factors Drive Immigration?”, *Social Indicators Research*, Vol. 110, No. 1, pp. 1-15.

³⁹ Hsieh, C. and B. Liu (1983) “The Pursuance of better Quality of Life: In the Long Run, Better Quality of Social Life is the Most Important Factor in Migration”, *the American Journal of Economics and Sociology*, Vol. 42, NO. 4, pp. 431-440.

making decision to migrate. Whereas in short-run the dominant factor was found to be the acquirement of better environmental quality.

J.A Ziegler and C. R. Britton (1981)⁴⁰ paper focussed to test the applicability of the already existing ‘quality of life’ definitions by utilizing the migration patterns which is based on the demographic characteristics of age, sex, and race. It is found that the existing QOL measure, like Wilson’s and Smith’s, is not able to measure QOL as perceived by the general migrants. These indicators are found to be more appropriate for black migrants than the non-black migrants and the several socio-economic indicators of QOL are also found to be more suitable for black migrants than the non-black migrants. This study came up with the result that QOL measures are more apt for blacks than non-blacks and for younger person than older, if people migrate “to become better off in terms of some subjective sense”. This paper concluded that QOL was perceived differently by different population groups.

Ligia Noronha and S. Nairy (2005)⁴¹ attempted to analyse QOL in a mining region of Goa in 17 villages across three ‘clusters’, differentiated by age of mining. They have done comparative study of mining and non-mining villages. The assessment of the QOL by them is limited to certain domains – biophysical, social, political, economic, biomedical and spiritual. They have tried to find answers to – whether the local people’s quality of life influenced by mining or not? They found variation among mining and non-mining regions in relation to objective conditions but in terms of satisfaction levels, there was no such significant differences found, except for the domain of environment. The mining region has a lower overall average score in objective QOL indicators relative to the non-mining villages; but performance varies across domains. It does marginally better than the non-mining villages in the social, political and biomedical, but less well in all other domains.

Stephanié Rossouw and Wim Naudé (2008)⁴² have tried to build “objective indicators of the non-economic QOL for 354 sub-national magisterial districts in South Africa”. They further attempted to correlate the variations in the selected indicators over the time. This study also

⁴⁰ Ziegler, J. A. and C. R. Britton (1981) “A Comparative Analysis Of Socioeconomic Variations In Measuring The quality Of Life” *Social Science Quarterly*, Vol. 62, No. 2, pp. 303-312.

⁴¹ Noronha, L. and S. Nairy (2005) “Assessing Quality of Life in a Mining Region”, *Economic and Political Weekly*, pp. 72-78.

⁴² Rossouw, S. and W. Naudé (2008) “The Non-Economic Quality of Life on a Sub-National Level in South Africa, *Social Indicators Research*, Vol. 86, No. 3, pp. 433-452.

discuss “the methodological issues in the construction of objective indicators of non-economic quality of life. They used the methodology of McGillivray (2005) to extract the proportion of our indices that are not explained by per capita income so as to obtain a ranking of the various magisterial districts in terms of non-economic quality of life without the influence of per capita income. It was found that a number of places with low incomes were able to achieve higher than expected outcomes in terms of the non-economic quality of life, whereas some of the relatively lower income areas had improved their non-economic ranking between 1996 and 2004. The geographical/environmental quality of life in South Africa is found to be better in non-urban areas, where fewer of the country's population were residing.”

2.2 Theories of Migration

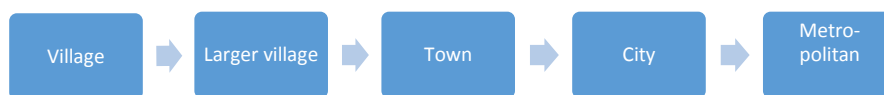
Migration is such a wide phenomena that a single theory cannot explain its complex nature. Therefore various complementary theories on migration have evolved over the years by different scholars.

There are several researchers who have studied both theoretical as well as empirical features of social and economic attributes, reasons, consequences and pattern of migration. These researches were mainly focused on migration in relation to age, sex, status of marriage, education, occupation, spatial patterns of movement and distance, migration models and behavioural aspects involved in decision-making for migration.

2.2.1 Ravenstein's Distance Decay Model

Though migration theories started with the quantitative Revolution in 1960's yet Ernest Ravenstein, an economic historian, was considered to be the first to give Theory on migration. He gave a theoretical explanations of migration by introducing his "laws of migration" in his two classical papers in 1885 and 1889. His contribution provide major impetus for the development of contemporary migration theories. Ravenstein has done an empirical research on the mode and extent of migration in the United Kingdom, using the census data of 1871 and 1881. His model on migration have made seven prepositions, in which five are explicit and two are implicit concerning distance and pattern of migration. The first five of these prepositions is considered as laws, while the last two are not considered. These laws of migration are as follows:

1. Migration and distance (a) “the rate of migration between two regions is inversely related to the distance between them”; (b) “Migrants if travelling long distances will likely by preference travel to one of the great centres of communication and industry”. One can simply say that people generally prefer to travel over shorter distances.
2. Migration by stages: This will create currents of migration as individuals tend to move first towards the nearby region and then to the rapidly growing cities in the nearest and far off regions. That is people first move to village then larger village then town then city
3. Stream and counter stream: Each main current of migration will lead to compensation counter-current. The main stream of migration will be usually from rural regions to urban regions and in response of this there will be counter or reverse streams from urban areas to rural areas.



4. Urban-Rural differences in propensity to migrate: People residing in rural regions tends to migrate more than the urban area’s people. This will result in predominance of rural – urban migration.
5. Predominance of Female among short-distance: Females are most likely to migrate more than the males in case of short distance migration.
6. Technology and migration: Migration of people increases over time with development and improvement of technology by means of locomotion and manufacturing and commerce.
7. Dominance of Economic motives: Economic motivation of migration is very important but socio- cultural also played important role in migration. ⁴³

Some of his laws have been criticized, for example, law that female migrates more than the male in case of short distance which does not appeared to be true in many parts of the world. Another law that migration proceeds through stages, that is, from village to large village, town, city, and metropolis does not always takes place in many countries of the world.

⁴³ Ravenstein, E. G. (1885), " The Laws of Migration", *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society*, Royal Statistical Society, pp 167-227 as cited in Everett S. Lee, *Demography*, Vol. 3, No. 1 (1966), pp. 47-57.

2.2.2 Gravity Model of J.Q. Stewart

By applying Newton's law of gravitation to people movement, John Q. Stewart attempted to give a mathematical formulation to the relationship between migration and distance in 1930's and 1940's.

He was the first to point out “the isomorphic relationship between movement of population and Newton's law of gravitation”⁴⁴. In this way this model was later named as Gravity Model. But it is believed that W.J. Reilley in 1909 had already proposed that the mobility of person between two settlements would be “directly proportional to the product of their population and inversely proportional to the square of the distance between them”⁴⁵. And he named this relationship as the index of migration, which can be expressed as:

$$MI = K * \frac{P_1 * P_2}{D^2}$$

Where,

MI is the migration index,

K is the proportionality constant,

P_1 is the population size of settlement 1,

P_2 is the population of settlement 2 and,

D is the distance between the two settlements.

According to this model, the ability of any region to pull migrants depends upon its size in terms of its economic base. This model was also criticized by number of scholars. According to Peterson it neglects age and sex of the migrants. According to Gale, migration is a combination of several factors but this model only includes population and distance. Taylor termed it as a crude physical analogy which is drawn from physical sciences which has very little application in social sciences.⁴⁶

⁴⁴ James, P. E. (1972) “All Possible World”, The Odyssey Press, Indianapolis.

⁴⁵ Reilley, W. J. (1929) “Methods for the study of retail relationships”, University of Texas Press, Austria.

⁴⁶ Taylor, P.J. (1977) “Quantitative Methods in Geography”, Hughton Mifflin Company, Bostan.

2.2.3 George K. Zipf's Least Effort Model

According to the “principle of least effort” given by George K. Zipf in 1940, the magnitude of migration is the function of distance between the two communities. This model studied the movement of goods, information and people within the social system. According to this theory, greater the distance between two communities greater is the effort one requires to overcome the hurdles, and in this way reduces the magnitude of migration. This model was tested on American cities. This model has been criticised by Andersson, according to him, the power of the distance should be raised to more than one and less than two if the magnitude of migration decreases increasingly with the increase in distance.⁴⁷

$$M_{ij} = k * \frac{P_i * p_j}{D_{ij}}$$

Where,

M_{ij} is magnitude of movement between any two communities ‘i’ and ‘j’

K is proportionality constant

P_i is the size of community ‘i’

p_j is the size of community ‘j’

D_{ij} is the distance between any two communities

2.2.4 Stouffer's Intervening Opportunity Model

Intervening opportunity model by S.A. Stouffer was an improvement on gravity model and the Principle of least effort model. According to him, migration is not only the function of linear distance between two places but the nature of space also plays an important role. He pointed “that linear distance is less important factor of migration than the nature of space.” The distance factor should not be considered only in geometric terms, but also in socio- economic terms. Hence distance is not as important as the number of available opportunities like better job, environment, infrastructure, etc. The basic hypothesis of this model is that “the number of persons moving from a given distance is directly proportional to the number of opportunities

⁴⁷ Op. Cit p. 24.

at that distance and inversely proportional to the number of intervening opportunities.”⁴⁸ This may be expressed as:

$$Y = k * \frac{x_1}{x}$$

Y “is the expected number of migrants from a place to a particular concentric zone or distance band around that place”

x_1 “is the number of opportunities within this band”

x “is the number of intervening opportunities between origin and midway into the band in question”

k “is the proportionality constant”

2.2.5 Lee’s Multi-Factor Model (Push-Pull and Intervening Obstacles)

Building on Ravenstein's theory, E. S. Lee, a sociologist, developed the Social Theory of Migration. Migration is defined by him as “a permanent or semi-permanent change of residence” plus he mentioned that “No matter how short or how long, how easy, or how difficult, every act of migration involves an origin, a destination and an intervening set of obstacles”⁴⁹. “In order to understand the process of migration, he gave a general frame work for analysing the ‘volume of migration’, the development of ‘streams’ and ‘counter streams’ and ‘the characteristics of migrants’”.

He summarized the factors, which influence the decision to migrate and the process of migration, into four general categories: “i) Factors related with the area of origin. ii) Factors associated with the area of destination. iii) Intervening obstacle. iv) Personal factors”⁵⁰

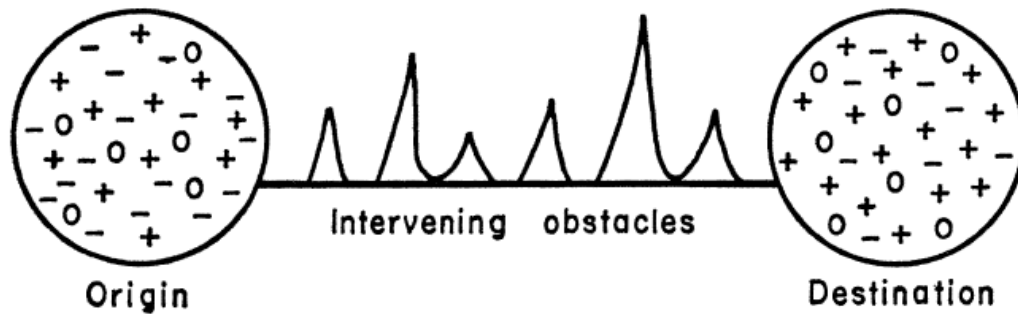
⁴⁸ Stauffer, S. A. (1940) “Intervening opportunities: Theory Relating to mobility and distance”, *American Sociological Review*, Vol. 5.

⁴⁹ Lee, E.S. (1966) “A Theory of Migration”, *Demography*, Vol. 3, No.1, p.50.

⁵⁰ *Ibid.*, pp.45-57

Fig 2. 1 Origin and Destination Factors and Intervening Obstacles in Migration

ORIGIN AND DESTINATION FACTORS AND INTERVENING OBSTACLES IN MIGRATION



Source: E.S. Lee, (1966) "A Theory of Migration" in *Demography*, No.1, p.50.

Lee gave a useful diagram, reproduced as figure-2.1, in order to explain three among the four categories presented above. According to him every origin and destination have three forces. The first one is positive forces (plus sign in the figure-2.1) which keep the person within the area or pull other people towards it. The second one is the negative forces (minus sign in the figure-2.1) which push and repel the individuals away from the area. The last one is the one which neither pull nor push individuals. He further mentioned that the effects of "these forces will differ with the different individual's personality as well as traits (such as age, sex, education, skills, etc.)".⁵¹

Lee stated that the "existence and nature of personal, family or ethnic contracts in destination areas could exert a significant influence on migration process". Lee included "intervening obstacles" in his theory, which include geographical distance as well as socio-cultural distance. It is assumed that if means of transport and communication improved, it will reduce geographical distance. But socio-cultural factor like difference in religion, language, food, values and customs may act as minor or major 'intervening obstacles' and it is likely to exert varying influence on different people.⁵²

There are also many theories of migration in which number of economists tried to formulate the problems of migration and has used econometric techniques for assessing the quantitative

⁵¹ Ibid., p. 50

⁵² Ibid. p. 51.

relevance of alternative explanatory variables. Even though the economic literature based on migration in the context of developing countries is an event of the very recent past, it still provided important vision into the migration process and determinants of internal migration.

2.2.6 The Neo-Classical Labour Supply-Demand or L.F.R. Model

The Neo-Classical model of migration describe “migration as part of economic development”. According to which “internal migration takes place because of geographical differences in the supply and demand of labour, mainly between the rural traditional agricultural sector and the urban modern manufacturing sector.”⁵³

The neo-classical theories on migration, which grew out of trade theory, have been developed by W. A. Lewis (1954), G. Ranis and J.C.H. Fei (1961), J. Harris, M.P. Todaro, Sjaastad and others. A theory developed by Lewis is considered as the first comprehensive model of development which deals with rural-urban labour, on which various neo-classical theories of migration are based, which was later extended by Ranis and Fei. The combined structure of these theories is well-recognised as L-F-R model. This L-F-R model assumes “migration as an equilibrium tool” through which the under-employed labour transferred from the traditional agricultural sector of the economy to the urban modern sector of the economy, which brings about equality between the two sectors. Rural labours are pulled to urban areas by the higher wages in the urban sector. “In these models migration continues until wage equalisation has occurred.” In case of rural sector, “the marginal productivity of the labour is zero or very low”, and labourers are paid remunerations which could help them only to sustain whereas in the modern industrial sector wages are higher than the average agricultural sector.⁵⁴

Some scholar like B. Dasgupta⁵⁵ has criticised L-F-R model on the basis that migration is not only due to unemployment and underemployment though they play the significant role in migration, another one is the “assumption of near zero marginal productivity in agriculture” which is found to be not only confirmed empirically in agricultural sector as in many

⁵³ Hagen, et al. (2008) “Why do people migrate? A review of the theoretical literature”, MPRA Paper No. 28197, Working Paper, Maastricht Graduate School of Governance, Maastricht University.

⁵⁴ Kumar, S.K.S. (2004), "Theories of Internal Migration: A Critique" in Gopal. K Iyer, (ed), Distressed Migrant Labour in India, Key Human Rights Issues, New Delhi: Kanishka Publishers, pp 34-42.

⁵⁵ Dasgupta, B. (1979), "Migration and Rural Employment", in *Land Reform: Land Settlements and Cooperatives*, No 1, Food and Agricultural Organisation, Rome as cited in Singh, Kamaljit, (1991), *Internal Migration in a Developing Economy*, National Book Organisation, New Delhi, p. 30.

developing countries it has been seen that the growth rate of the contemporary industrial sector is very low. Moreover, in several cases it is found that unemployment and under-employment of the rural sector shifted to the urban sector because of migration.

2.2.7 The Harris-Todaro Expectation Model (H- T model)

The most comprehensive and refined theory related to this approach is developed by M.P. Todaro (1976)⁵⁶ who analysed all reasons that induce migration. This model which is named as 'expectations', treated migration as a problem for urban region. Todara describes that people migrate in order to get a break up from social structures of rural areas, to find work in urban centres, because of the pressure on agricultural land, to break away from joint families, and to live in the modern settings of the cities. According to him, migration process either directly or indirectly get influenced by any social and economic policy that affects the real incomes of not only rural areas but also urban areas. He noted that the migration is such process which can change the “pattern of sectoral and geographic economic activity, income distribution and even growth of population”. He describe migration in terms of the expected income in the new places rather than the actual income which will be earned later on. The main flaw of Todaro’s model is its assumption that “all potential migrants have equal information about the urban labour market, wages in traditional sectors are always lower than wages in the modern sectors and the model does not emphasize the role of noneconomic factors”.

The Harris- Todaro model (H- T model) can be said as an extension of the basic Todaro model. According to the H- T model, the rural sector specialize in the production of agricultural goods whereas the urban sector specializes in the production manufacturing goods. It is presumed that the migrants from rural areas maintain their links with the rural sector. The income that the migrant earned working as urban worker, is assumed to accrue to the rural sector. The other important assumption that this model made is “as long as expected real income exceeds real rural agricultural product”, rural-urban migration would continue.⁵⁷

This model has been also criticized by many scholars on some points. Migration does not always takes place because of differences in expected income. Individuals also migrate because

⁵⁶ Todaro. M. (1969) “A model of Labour Migration and Urban Unemployment in Less Developed Countries”, *American Economic Review*, Vol. 59, No. 1.

⁵⁷ Harris, J. and M.P. Todaro (1970) " Migration, Unemployment and Development: A two Sector Analysis", *The American Economic Review*, Vol. 60. No. 1.

for many reasons they are not able to earn money even for bare subsistence. Moreover, H-T model do not considered the non-economic factors in decision making process for migration. Again, “they abstract from the structural aspects of the economy”. The differences in incomes between rural and urban people is not a cause in itself, but it can be an indication of inequalities among the rural and the urban regions in relation to unequal distribution of resources, land ownership, and inadequate technology, etc. G.S. Fields and others have improved the Harris-Todaro model by presenting the concept of 'informal' or 'murky' or 'traditional urban' sector.⁵⁸ In this concept it is assumed that the informal sector is recognized with free entry. It is believed that few people start working in this sector in order to just earn the subsistence while searching the job in the modern sector. Another, Joshi and Joshi⁵⁹ have marked out that the average incomes of informal sector, if not higher than, are nearly equal to rural incomes. If it is so, then the likelihood of the rural migrants being pulled by the opportunities available in the informal sector.

The human investment theory, developed by Sjaastad, by using the idea of “investment in human capital” he tried to study “the costs and benefits decisions of migration”. It suggested that individuals would migrate only when the profits is more than the costs involved. Advantages of migration are referred to “the present value of possible income gains resulting from the disparity in income between origin and destination”. Non-monetary benefits are also included in the model, such as those benefits arising from preference of location. Costs comprise “moving expenditure, opportunity costs of foregone earnings between works and psychic costs which is non-monetary, such as the disutility of leaving one’s home community and setting down in an unfamiliar environment”.⁶⁰

Thus it can be say that, the factors affecting the decision of an individual to migrate are various and complex. And these factors affect differently to different individuals with varied social, educational, political, cultural, economic, and demographic characteristics. The effect of these

⁵⁸ Fields, G.S. (1975) "Rural- Urban Migration. Urban Unemployment and Job-Search Activity in LDCs", *Journal of Development Economics*, Vol., North- Holland Publishing Co, Amsterdam, p. 165-187 as cited in Kamaljit Singh (1991), *Internal Migration in a Developing Economy*, New Delhi: National Book Organisation, pp. 22-26.

⁵⁹ Joshi, V. and H. Joshi (1976), *Surplus Labour and the City: A Study of Bombay*, New Delhi: Oxford University Press, pp. 165-166.

⁶⁰ Kumar, S.K.S. (2004), "Theories of Internal Migration: A Critique" in Gopal. K Iyer, (ed), *Distressed Migrant Labour in India*, Key Human Rights Issues, New Delhi: Kanishka Publishers, pp 34-42.

economic factors and non-economic factors can differ not only amongst countries and regions, but it can also vary within a particular region or area and populations.

Chapter 3

Database and Methodology

Unequal regional development leads to migration. Lack of opportunities at the place of origin often force migrants to leave their native land. Hence, in hope to acquire a better and improved life they migrate to the urban areas. Out-Migration can be found from every nook and corner of the India. However, out-migration from Bihar is the highest (in terms of absolute number) in India and it placed second after U.P. in terms of net migrants migrating out-side the state (Census, 2001). Bihar has a very complex population structure. Various socio-economic, political, infrastructural, governance, etc. conditions are contemplated as the leading cause of heavy out-migration from the Bihar state (Sharma 1995, Sharma 2005). Generally, the main motive behind out-migration, directly or indirectly, is to achieve a better quality of life not only for one-self but also for their family members.

The present study aims to scrutinize the out-migration in relation to the quality of life and analyse its various aspects using a research approach which is a mixed method as it assimilates both qualitative as well as quantitative methods. To fulfil this purpose, an endeavour has been made to construct suitable indices using appropriate indicators to determine quality of life and compare it between migrants and non-migrants of Bihar. This study has been done at two level, macro and micro level. Macro level has been done at state level using secondary data whereas micro level using primary data conducted during October 2018 to February 2019. Further, particular tools and techniques have been used for the analysis and to elucidate migration along with the quality of life. As single variable is not enough to reveal QOL appropriately hence composite index method has been computed to measure quality of life. There are various methods available to construct composite index. However, the method used for the same in this study has been explained elaborately in the following sections.

3.1 Data Base (Selection of Data)

The study has been carried out with the aid of secondary data gathered from resources and works which are either published or unpublished. Along with this, primary data was also collected by the researcher through intensive filed survey in Bihar.

3.1.1 Secondary Data Sources

The main secondary data source utilised in the present research is the National Sample Survey organisation (NSSO) followed by Census. Along with this, other secondary sources that have provided valuable data for the analysis are Human Development Report, Statistical abstract of Bihar, Economic Survey of Bihar. The survey of literature was a useful guide in selecting the appropriate data, its availability (at macro and micro level), its uses and choice of variables needed for the research.

Due to inaccessibility/unavailability of the latest data related to migration, i.e. Census data for migration is available only till 2001 while NSS data available till 2007-08, so the present research is mainly grounded on data of NSSO, 2007-08. The data of NSS utilised in the present study has been extracted from the “64th round survey of NSS on Employment & Unemployment and Migration Particulars (Schedule 10.2) during July, 2007 to June, 2008”. NSS data have been used to show the status of out-migration and related aspects at the state level of India. The present study could not show out-migration at district level as NSS data available at the level of NSS region not at the district level. NSS region is an inter-mediate entity between a district and a state. It can be two or more within one state. However, in case of some states and UTs, there is no sub-division because of its small size. NSS regions was formed by the combination of two or more districts of the state according to their similarity on the basis of agro-climatic conditions along with their social as well as economic characteristics.⁶¹

3.1.2 Primary Data

An essential and basic step in every research is the collection of the primary data. Though, secondary data of out-migration help to get idea about the out-migration but it is not sufficient, also it is not available at the district level/village level. Hence, to analyse out-migration and related aspects at the micro level, one have to have go for primary survey as it helps to delve deeper and to get an idea of ground reality. It also provides the required surface and bridge the connecting links via field survey. Therefore, the present study collected primary data, keeping in mind the stated objectives, on many social, economic and demographic facets of out-migration and quality of life.

⁶¹ Murthi, M., et al. (2001) “Linking Indian Census with National Sample Survey”, *Economic and Political Weekly*, Vol. 36, No. 9, p. 785.

3.2 Sample Strategy and Selection of Study Area

There is difference in method and methodology and it is imperative to note this distinction. Method refers to those tools as well as techniques which are used to gather information and evidences in social science research whereas methodology refers to the whole concerns of strategy of research. (Henn et. al, 2006).⁶² In simple language, one can say that it is a “practical “how” of any proposed piece of research”. Precisely, “it signifies how an investigator design his/her research systematically in order to warrant a result to be valid as well as reliable and also that should address the aims and objectives of the research. Research methodology involves particular procedures and techniques which are used to recognize, choose, process, and evaluate information about the selected topic. This section of a research paper permits the reader to critically analyse the validity along with reliability of that study. Broadly, two polar paradigms can be categorised which are used in the social sciences to carry out research. Both of these paradigms are based on the some specific cluster of assumptions and are divergent in views. The first one is, *Positivist/scientific paradigm*, similar to the techniques and methods used in the natural sciences, is associated with the quantitative methods for research whereas the second one is, *Interpretive paradigm*, associated with the qualitative methods for research which assumes that human and their actions/behaviour is important to understand and interpret. However, the above said division is not enough as there are various other paradigms like empiricism, relativism, realism and idealism, etc. which lie between the spectrum of these two paradigms. (Henn et. al, 2006).⁶³

Moreover, quantitative and qualitative approaches are often viewed as dichotomies in social science research. In contrast, many researchers pointed that they are not dichotomies/polar opposite but “they represent different ends on a continuum, a study tends to be more quantitative than qualitative or vice versa” Creswell (2009)⁶⁴. Therefore, now a days, an approach often referred as ‘mixed method’ has been used extensively in social sciences which neutralises these two dichotomies schools of thought. Creswell (2009)⁶⁵ also added that mixed method approach fall in the centre of the range as it comprises components of both quantitative

⁶² Henn, M. et al. (2006) “A Short Introduction to Social Research”, Vistaar Publication. New Delhi.

⁶³ Ibid. p. 14.

⁶⁴ Creswell, J. (2009) “*Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative and Mixed Method Approaches*”, Third Edition, Thousand Oaks, Sage Publications.

⁶⁵ Ibid. p. 74

as well as qualitative approaches. Another scholars, Tashakkori and Tedllie (2009)⁶⁶ also pointed out that, mixed method is a “multi-method approach” and referred it as “a type of research design in which qualitative and quantitative approaches are used in types of questions, research methods, data collection and analysis procedure and/or inferences”. As social sciences involve human beings, problems are found to be more complicated in nature and it is impossible to carry out study using only single approach that is why it is widely encouraged to use mixed method approach. Hence, the present study used mixed method approach for understanding the out-migration, quality of life and the related aspects.

Any social phenomenon such as migration, socio-economic development always take place in a geographical settings which evolve with time. These geographical settings often affect the social phenomenon of that particular geographical region and vice-versa. Regarding this, Bihar being the third largest state by population and densest state of India (Census, 2011), it is one of the poor and laggard state in India which is often questioned for their poor governance and lack of development. Geographically, Bihar is bisected by the mighty river Ganga into two major regions- South-Bihar and North-Bihar but for the administrative purpose it has been divided into 38 districts and have majorly three cultural regions- Magadh, Mithila and Bhojpur. Study area has been selected as out-migration from Bihar is the highest (in terms of absolute number) in India and it placed second after U.P. in terms of net migrants migrating out-side the state (Census, 2001). Moreover, plethora of literature, confirm history of out-migration from Bihar. For the selection of the sample, stratified random sampling has been used in the present study. Further, Adult Sex-Ratio for all the districts of Bihar has been calculated using data of Primary Census Abstract, 2011. Thereafter, one district with highest Adult Sex-Ratio was selected. Next, in the process of stratified selection, one block with highest Household number has been picked up. Furthermore, criteria of highest household number has been utilised for the selection of the villages. In the selection of the villages, proper representation of caste categories was also kept in mind.

Sampling Design and Sample Size for Field Survey

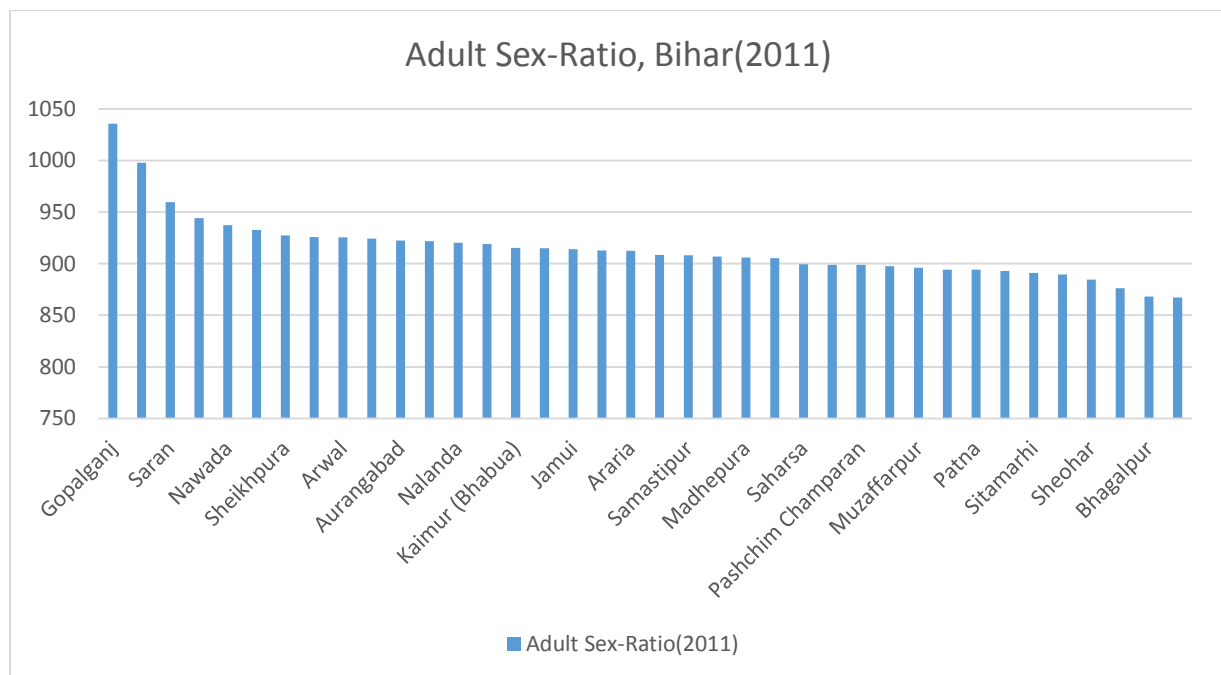
Sampling design is very important part of the research as it decides the research’s reliability and validity. That’s why it is very important to follow appropriate method/s of sampling. It

⁶⁶ Tashakkori, A. and C. Tedllie (2009) *Foundations of Mixed Method Research: Integrating quantitative and Qualitative approaches in the social and behavioural sciences*, Thousand Oaks, Sage Publications.

simply means from whom the researcher is going to collect data for his/her research. The methods through which one collects data is also crucial. These can be through interviews (that can be structured, semi-structured or unstructured), documents, records, and case studies, etc. depending on one's aims and objectives along with the practicalities and resource constraints.

Census do not give the data of out-migration separately. "In-migrants in one state is considered as the out-migrants from other states." Out-migration from Bihar is the highest (in terms of absolute number) in India and it placed second after U.P. in terms of net migrants migrating out-side the state (Census, 2001).The present study has focussed on the out-migration of male from rural Bihar to other states of India. Stratified random sampling has been applied for the sample selection. Firstly, the district having the highest adult sex-ratio (a proxy variable of out-migration) was selected using census data, as there was no data available at district level out-migration to another states.

Fig. 3. 1 Adult Sex-Ratio, Bihar (2011)



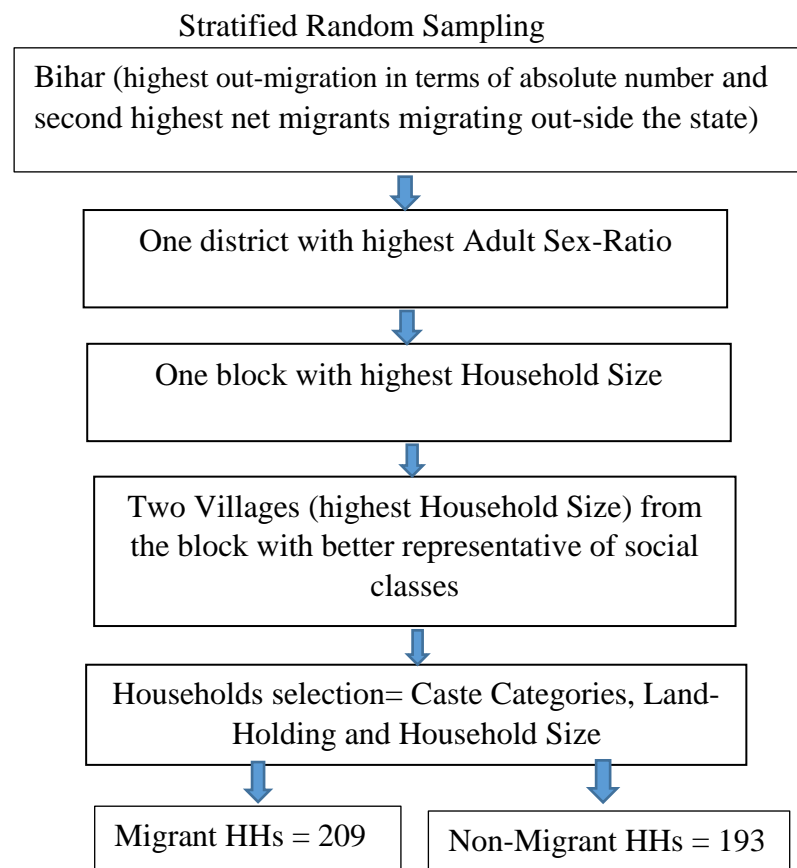
*Calculated by using Census 2011

For the further study, criteria of adult sex-ratio has been applied, which is calculated by using Census data, 2011, for the selection of the district. Therefore, Gopalganj district was selected for the micro study as it has the highest adult sex-ratio (proxy variable of out-migration) in Bihar. The Fig. 3.1 shows the descending order of the districts of Bihar in terms of Adult sex-ratio. Then one block was taken out on the basis of highest Household number and villages

(highest Household number) were selected with better representation of social groups. A district head office was also consulted in order to select block and villages with significantly high out-migration. Household has been selected on the basis of three criteria – caste categories, Land-holding size and household-size.

Keeping objectives in mind especially out-migration, data for the present research was collected from two kinds of Household, Migrant Households and Non-Migrant Households. The first kind of households are those HHs which have one or more than one out-migrant/s whereas the second kind of HHs are those which don't have any member migrated out-side. For the present study, only those migrant HHs having migrant/s migrated out-side the Bihar state has been selected. A total sample of 402 households have been selected, 209 migrant HHs and 193 non-migrant HHs.

Fig. 3. 2 Sample Design



Following definitions have been used for the identification of migrants for the present research:

- a. Migrating persons: “All those persons will be considered as migrants who have migrated for at least two months during the last one year outside the states at the time of survey. However, if a person has returned from destination and is not likely to migrate again in the same year he has also been considered as migrant (return migrant).”
- b. Short term migrant: “All persons migrating for a total of less than nine months during the last one year will be considered as short term migrant.”
- c. Long term migrant: “All persons migrating for a total of nine months and more during the last one year will be considered as Long term migrant.”
- d. Migrating Households: “On the basis of the definition of migrant mentioned in (a), all households reporting migration of at least one of the family member out-side state, will be defined as migrating households. Accordingly, all those households who do not report migration of any of the family member within or outside the state will be categorised as ‘non-migrating households’.”
- e. Households with migrants within the state has not been selected either as migrants or as non-migrants.
- f. Those migrants who mentioned to move out again to their place of origin or any other place are considered as Temporary Migrants whereas those migrants who didn’t show willingness to move out again to their place of origin or any other place are considered as Permanent Migrants. It is clear from the above that it is not the total duration of time elapsed since they migrated, decided their nature of movement but their intention to move out from their current place of residence sometimes in the future or to stay there permanently.

Tools used in the survey for data collection

This study is primarily based on primary survey in which data has been collected from sample households through structured interview schedule that included numerous of close as well as open questions related to demographic details, family member’s details, education, health, occupation and various questions related to the aforementioned issues. Three types of schedule are used for data collection. i) Village schedule, ii) Household schedule and ii) Personal interview schedule. A great effort has been given to conduct interviews in local dialect/language, which is Bhojpuri/Hindi. It is found that interacting in local dialect make

people of that place more comfortable in answering and expressing their views as Local dialect make them feel that the interviewer belongs to their own community.

The Village schedule used to collect data regarding village characteristics like education facilities, medical services, transport facilities, distance from the nearest town, banking facilities, etc. It was administered to the head of the village. They were also asked about the various welfare and developmental programmes functional in the village.

The Household schedule used to collect data related to migration status, caste category, size of land-holding of the household as a whole in order to understand their socio-economic status. The information was furnished by the head of the household and in absence of him/her another member of the family who is adult was consulted.

The Individual schedule is the elaborated structured and semi-structured schedule developed for the collection of all significant information related to the study. This schedule obtained information related to the topics like background characteristics of the respondents, their occupation, health, education, awareness regarding various socio-economic and political programmes and policies of the government, etc. For this, questionnaire was prepared, keeping in mind the objectives of the present study, to collect information and interviews were conducted using this questionnaire.

Personal Interviews

Interview can be said as an oral method of collection of data. As Allport (1949)⁶⁷ rightly pointed out that “if you want to know how people feel, what they experience and what they remember, what their emotions and motives are like, and the reasons for acting as they do-why not ask them?” Though, in social science research, interview has always been encouraged and is the dominant approach, “it is the personal interview which facilitates a face to face as well as in depth conversations with the respondents”. Unstructured interview, unlike structured interview, is an in-depth and one to one interview which is open ended (Henn et. al, 2006)⁶⁸ and hence warrant reciprocity during the interviews (Bryman, 2001)⁶⁹. While interviewing respondents, respondent’s facial expressions, their emotions, experiences, silences and pauses all become the information for the research. Personal interview can also be called as face to

⁶⁷ Allport, G. (1949) “The Use of Personal Documents in Psychological Sciences”, Social Science Research Council, New York.

⁶⁸ Ibid. p. 74

⁶⁹ Bryman, A. (2001) “*Social Research Methods*”, Oxford University Press, New York.

face interview as in this interviewer asks questions from the respondent face to face using a structured, semi-structured or unstructured questionnaire (interview schedule). In order to understand the out-migration, its related aspects and quality of life of migrant and non-migrant HHs, questionnaire has been prepared and is used in conducting the personal interviews, keeping in mind the objectives of the present study.

Field Experiences

The results obtained through the house listing and categorization of the households, the sampling frames were made for the selected village and the desired numbers of respondents were systematically chosen for the study. Initially, village people were doubtful regarding the study and they assumed that the study is by the government. However, after explaining them clearly in details about the objectives of the study, most of them (except few) gave their full support in conducting the survey. People acquiring a prominent positions (such as village representatives, representatives of political parties, service providers, etc.) in the study area took an immense interest and also ensured smooth conduct of the survey. Almost all the selected respondents, except few, consented spontaneously to participate in the interviews. However, researcher faced few difficulties while collecting information from the respondents of higher classes in the society.

3.3 Analytical Methods

Analysis of the data begins with the data coding, which has been done by using SPSS software for the present study. Only after this one can apply one or more analysis techniques according to one's aims and objectives. The most important objective of this research was to analyse and compare the quality of life of migrant households and non-migrant households. For fulfilling this objective, composite index has been computed. Composite Index is calculated by combining numerous variables or indicators all together or it can also be computed by combining various composite Index together to form one single composite Index. Firstly, different composite index calculated for various categories such as health, education, Income, etc. and then combining all these index, one final composite index has been made for the scrutiny of overall QOL for both kinds of the households. Before computing composite index, it is very important to select variables appropriately and convert it into respective indicators. In another imperative step, the values of the selected indicators have been made Scale Free. There are various methods of making indicators Scale Free such as Range Equalisation Method, Conversion to a Discrete Scale (Ranking Method), Standardisation ($Z\ Score = \frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}$)

; x = Value of the variable, μ = Mean, σ = Standard Deviation), Division by standard deviation, Division by Mean, Division by 'ideal value'⁷⁰ etc. Making the indicators unit free and to have a desirable range are the main aim of the scaling. For the present study, Division by Mean method of scale free has been used to make indicators scale free.

For the present study, seven dimensions for assessing quality of life have been used, namely, Economic, Education, Health, Amenities, Assets, Political Participation and Awareness. A reasonable economic condition not only ensures access to basic necessities of life but also provides access to other dimensions of life such as education, health, household amenities (sanitation, portable drinking water and electricity), assets, political participation and awareness about their surrounding socio-economic environment/facilities/resources. Similarly, health and education enable a person to acquire better occupation which resulted in better income. Health is of immense importance to households not only for ensuring a healthy life, but better health warrants a better healthy life and thus higher capability to earn better income. Better amenities directly improve the health and also better health's benefits which is already explained above. Political participation reveals individual's access to their political rights. Political participation results in feeling of contentment with one's own life as taking part in political activities gives them feeling of autonomy, competence and also relatedness. Along with this, it also give them sense that they are part of the system and the society. This feeling of satisfaction by political participation improves one's quality of life. Awareness about surrounding environment and various socio-economic opportunities, facilities and resources is equally important for leading a better quality of life because awareness about these leads to their accesses to the available resources/facilities and thus improves their overall quality of life. Thus it can be said that the aggregate of the above mentioned seven dimensions would provide a reasonable picture of the quality of life of the migrant HHs and non-migrant HHs.

Economic Index has been calculated by using six variables which are converted into respective indicators. Then these indicators are divided by their respective means to make them normalised or standardised. After that, the standardised values are summed up to get a composite score, then this score is divided by the total numbers of indicators to get a final Economic index. In the same manner, Health Index (using thirteen variables), Education index (using five variables), Amenities index (using ten variables), Asset index (using nineteen variables), Political Participation index (using seven variables) and Awareness index (using

⁷⁰ Kundu, A. et al (2002) "Indexing Human Development in India: Indicators, Scaling and Composition", Working Paper Series No. 83, National Council of Applied Economic Research, pp. 18-20.

eighteen variables) were calculated. Negative indicators were converted into the positive one in order to ensure the alignment of indicators in one direction i.e. positive. The indicators selected for the calculation of these index have been shown in separate tables for each index below-

S. No. Selected Economic Indicators

1. Proportion of economically active person to total members of working age (15-65 years) of Household
2. Percentage of person among total working member of HH in service sector
3. Percentage of households having Land-holding 1 acre and more
4. Percentage of households having Agricultural Land holding 1 acre and more
5. Proportion of households with total income of the month above 45000
6. Proportion of the households with Per Capita Income of the month above 6000

S. No. Selected Health Indicators

1. Percentage of Institutional deliveries
2. Percentage of Vaccinated Child
3. Percentage of Households without infant mortality in the last one year.
4. Percentage of no Chronic disease patient
5. Percentage HHs who treat water before Drinking
6. Percentage of HHs who don't practice open defecation
7. Percentage of Safe Fuel of Cooking (LPG)
8. Percentage households with no family member involved in drinking alcohol
9. Percentage of Households without disabled person
10. Percentage of Households with rare visit to hospitals in the last one year
11. Percentage of Normal Delivery to the total deliveries in last one year
12. Percentage of Households without death due to health problems in last one year
13. Percentage no Stillbirth (Stillbirth among total deliveries)

S. No. **Selected Education Indicators**

1. Total Literacy Rate
2. Literacy Rate of Female
3. Literacy Rate of Adult
4. Graduation and above educational attainment to total literates
5. Female graduation and above educational attainment to total female literates

S. No. **Selected Amenities Indicators**

1. Percentage of Households having Separate Room for Married Couple
2. Proportion of Households having Kitchen
3. Proportion of Households using LPG
4. Proportion of Households who treat water before drinking
5. Percentage of Households who share a single room by less than three persons
6. Percentage of Households with Pucca House
7. Proportion of HHs having proper Toilet Facility (covered latrine room with tap)
8. Proportion of HHs having proper bathroom (fully covered with tap)
9. Proportion of HHs having permanent electricity
- 10 Proportion of HHs having Flush Toilet Facility

S. No. **Selected Asset Indicators**

1. Proportion of HHs having Telephone
2. Proportion of HHs having T.V.
3. Proportion of HHs having Gas Stove
4. Proportion of HHs having Cycle
5. Proportion of HHs having Sewing Machine
6. Proportion of HHs having Fan
7. Proportion of HHs having Scooter / Motor-Cycle

8. Proportion of HHs having Car
9. Proportion of HHs having Room-Heater
10. Proportion of the HHs having Geysers
11. Proportion of HHs having Mixer
12. Proportion of HHs having Iron
13. Proportion of HHs having Refrigerator
14. Proportion of the HHs having DVD Player
15. Proportion of the HHs having Generator
16. Proportion of the HHs having Computer/Laptop
17. Proportion of the HHs having Washing Machine
18. Proportion of the HHs having DTH
19. Proportion of the HHs having Inverter

S. No. Selected Political Participation Indicators

1. Proportion of HHs having Voter card
2. Proportion of registered voters
3. Proportion of HHs having any family member/s contested any election in the past
4. Proportion of HHs who cast vote for panchayat election
5. Proportion of HHs who vote a candidate as per their choice
6. Proportion of HHs who participate in Gram Sabha
7. Proportion of HHs whose female/s participate/s in Gram Sabha

S. No. Selected Awareness Indicators

1. Proportion of HHs having Bank Account
2. Proportion of HHs having ATM card
3. Proportion of HHs who have at least one member who Know how to use ATM card

4. Proportion of HHs doing online payment
5. Proportion of HHs who read newspaper daily
6. Proportion of HHs having internet connection (mobile data only)
7. Proportion of HHs using social media
8. Proportion of HHs using WhatsApp
9. Proportion of HHs having job card (MGNREGA)
10. Proportion of HHs having ration card
11. Proportion of HHs having Aadhaar card
12. Proportion of HHs who know about PDS (public distribution system)
13. Proportion of HHs who know about Self-Help Group (SHGs)
14. Proportion of HHs who know about Pension/Social Assistance Programmes
15. Proportion of HHs who know about Pradhan Mantri Fasal Bima Yojana (PMFBY)
16. Proportion of HHs who know about Integrated child Development Scheme (ICDS)
17. Proportion of HHs who know about Pradhan Mantri Gram Jan Dhan Yojana (PMGJDY)
18. Proportion of HHs who know about MGNREGA

The index of quality of life has been obtained by adding the seven aggregative indices of health, education, economic, political participation, asset, amenities, and awareness index.

S. No.	Index for the calculation of QOL (Quality of Life)
1.	Economic Index
2.	Health Index
3.	Education Index
4.	Amenities Index

5. Asset Index
6. Political Participation Index
7. Awareness Index

Some of the important formulas used for converting the variables into indicators are as follows:

1. Population density: The number of people per square kilometre.

$$\text{Density} = (\text{Total population} / \text{total area})$$

2. Percentage Rural population = $(\text{Total Rural population} / \text{Total population}) * 100$

3. Percentage Urban population = $(\text{Total Urban population} / \text{Total population}) * 100$

4. Percentage SC population = $(\text{Total SC population} / \text{Total population}) * 100$

5. Percentage ST population = $(\text{Total ST population} / \text{Total population}) * 100$

6. Literacy Rate: “Literacy rate of population is defined as the percentage of literates to the total population age 7 years and above.”

(a) Literacy Rate = $(\text{Number of Literate} / \text{Population aged 7+}) \times 100$

(b) Female Literacy Rate = $(\text{Number of Female Literate} / \text{Female Population aged 7+}) \times 100$

(c) Male Literacy Rate = $(\text{Number of Male Literate} / \text{Male Population aged 7+}) \times 100$

(d) Adult Literacy Rate: “Divide the number of literates aged 15 years and over by the corresponding age group population and multiply the result by 100.”⁷¹

7. Work Participation Rate: “Work participation rate is defined as the percentage of total workers (main and marginal) to total population.”

(a) Work participation rate = $[\text{Total Workers (Main + Marginal)} / \text{Total Population}] \times 100$

(b) Work participation rate in each major 4 sectors (i.e. Cultivation, Agricultural labourers, household industry workers, and other workers) = $(\text{total main worker in a particular sector} / \text{total main worker}) * 100$

⁷¹ UNESCO Institute for Statistics (2009) Education Indicators, Technical Guidelines, pp. 3

8. Sex Ratio: “Sex ratio has been defined as the number of females per 1000 males in the population. It is expressed as 'number of females per 1000 males'.”

$$(a) \text{ Sex-Ratio} = (\text{Number of females} / \text{Number of males}) \times 1000$$

(b) Child Sex Ratio (0-6 years): Child Sex-ratio (0-6 years) can be defined as “the number of females in age-group 0-6 years per 1000 males in the same age-group in the population. It is expressed as 'number of female children age (0-6) years per 1000 male children age (0-6) years’”.

$$\text{Child Sex-ratio (0-6 years)} = [\text{Number of female children (0-6)} / \text{Number of male children (0-6)}] \times 1000$$

$$(c) \text{ Adult Sex-Ratio} = (\text{Number of females} - \text{Number of female children (0-6)} / \text{Number of males} - \text{Number of male children (0-6)}) \times 1000$$

The methodology for this study is analytical, descriptive as well as theoretical. Tables, charts, diagrams and choropleth maps have been prepared to present the findings/ results in a more understandable way. Tabulation are done for the different indicators which are used for analysis. Simple percentages are calculated for different attributes. Statistical tools such as mean, standard deviation, range, etc. have also been applied. Apart from statistical methods, other techniques and methods like Geographical Information System have also been used especially Arc GIS software for the illustration of spatial variations through the various techniques of mapping, which summarize the findings to a great extent and also discretely elucidate ideas of the study area. Those facts and data which are not highlighted by using maps have been illustrated by using suitable cartographic representation in the form of different and appealing Figures, Tables, Charts and Diagrams.

There are basically two problems regarding methodology: Firstly, unavailability of appropriate data would lead to the loss of number of suitable indicators while measuring the concerned aspects. Secondly, in terms of the quality, the available data for the chosen indicators are different from each other, which create problems as well as make it difficult to use them together without standardising them. Therefore, Composite Index Method has been done for the same.

3.4 Ethical Consideration

The details of the participants involved in the survey are maintained under complete confidentiality. Each and every participants was assured that their identity and information divulged by them would be concealed and not revealed to any one at any cost. Adequate level of confidentiality of the data of the research has been ensured as only the researcher and the supervisor had access to the data and apart from them it was not discussed with any other person. Each interview was conducted only after taking a prior consent from the participants. Every participants were clearly told about the details and objective of the research so that they can contribute as a participant on the basis of informed decision. Respect and the dignity of the participants involved in the research had been prioritised. Any kind of deception or exaggeration regarding aims and objectives of the research has been avoided. Representation of the findings, extracted through the primary data, in a biased way had been avoided.

The above discussion, attempts to explore the database as well as methodological concepts which has been used in the present study in order to reveal the various aspects of out-migration and its inter-relationship with the QOL. In order to fulfil the aims and objectives of the present research, mixed method of research has been applied. Personal interviews were conducted in the field to collect the data for the research. Furthermore, to measure the quality of life of the migrants and non-migrants Households, composite index has been made. Various socio-economic indicators, listed in this chapter were used to present the QOL. These indicators are neither exhaustive nor can be said complete in themselves. There were many indicators that have not been included in the study. Negative indicators were converted into the positive one in order to ensure the alignment of indicators in one direction i.e. positive. The indicators have been selected on the basis of their availability, applicability and feasibility.

Chapter 4

Out-Migration: A State-Level Analysis

A complete immovable population cannot be found in any place of this world. The migration phenomenon is not a new phenomenon but it is as old as the civilisation of human. Geographical obstacles played an important role in giving scopes to migration phenomenon in early phases of history. Migration was restricted to a range because of the absence of means of transport at that time. But in present time, migration is influenced by urbanisation, industrialisation, technological progress, which is accelerated by the presence of easy means of transportation.⁷²

4.1 Migration in India

Uneven regional development and uneven investment on men as well as material lead to out-migration from rural areas and underdeveloped regions in developing countries for economic reasons. Lack of industrial development in rural areas, poor infrastructure, limited market place, rural poverty, low agricultural income & productivity and under-employment induce the rural population to out migrate to other areas which offer better employment opportunities and wages. Moreover, the population pressure resultant in the greater land-man ratio has been hypothesized as a vital cause in increasing rural out migration. “People respond to their perception of market forces and changing economic opportunities, thereby, helping to maintain a balance between geographical distribution of population and the available resources.” As population grows, unless the rural non crop husbandry sector or the cottage or small scale industries expand so as to take in the surplus, proliferating population are forced to travel to other places of destination to find gainful employment.

In a country like India where disparities with respect to economic development exist not only between states but also within the districts and there is not enough decentralization of economic opportunities, the study of out-migration of rural male has its own importance. The study of human mobility behaviour is important as the need of the time when the need of integrated rural development has been recognized and consequently special attention is paid to several

⁷² Srivastava, R. and S.K. Sasikumar (2003) “An overview of Migration in India, its impacts and Key Issues”, paper presented at Regional Conference on Migration, Development and Pro-Poor Policy Choices in Asia, at Dhaka.

aspects of socio-economic development including the establishment of Panchayat Raj, growth centres and small industries of small scale in rural regions.

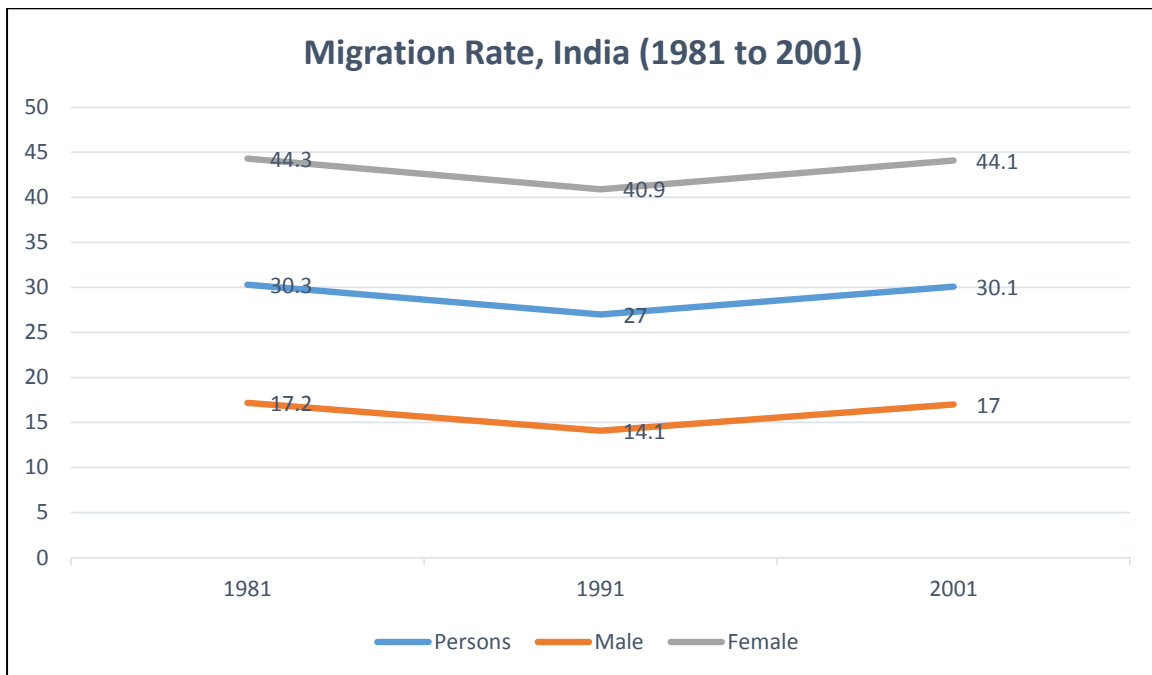
Migration is seen to be an important element in development of economy and manpower planning. In the context of agriculture commercialisation, migration acquired a special significance. “With better access to new technology, the large landowners have become richer while the small farmers who find new technology expensive and too risky are left behind. Because of the subsequent increase in productivity and output the price falls, the small farmers, using traditional forms of production and receiving lower price, experience decline in income.” These are the causes that have induced people’s out-migration from the rural regions. The establishment of schools in rural areas has also stimulated out-migration by providing education and awareness of other opportunities to rural youths especially those belonging to the middle class. Some out-migrate to pursue their further education while others out-migrate because they get dissatisfied with the prospect of rural life. Thus, both the “rich and the poor are almost equally prone to out- migration from rural areas”. The poor people move out because of the economic pressure to eke out their existence whereas rich people out-migrate to fulfil their desires of improved and higher “comforts of life.”

From the above observations, one can say that study of migration and its various aspects in context of India is important because it affects economic development along with social development of a country. This study is also useful in formulating policies either economic or others by different agents like government, economists, planners, sociologists, politicians and also demographers. So this chapter is dedicated to analyse the out-migration and its facets at the level of state. However, because of inaccessibility of the latest data related to migration, i.e. Census data for migration is available only till 2001 while NSS data is available till 2007-008, the present study is constrained by NSSO data, 2007-08.

4.2 Migration Trends in India

Migration is one of the most complex process to explain, especially in context of India. This is because it is effected by various factors such as socio-economic, political and cultural. Migration is a process which has profound effect on both the regions from which a person moves out and to which a person moves in.

Fig. 4. 1 Migration Rate, India (1981 to 2001)



Census of India, 1981, 1991, 2001

According to Census data, the trends of migration from 1981 to 2001 shows that rate of migration for all segments has peaked in 1981 to about 30.3 per cent, that decreased to 27 per cent in 1991, and again in 2001 augmented to 30.1 per cent. The “total number of migrants” increased by only 12 per cent between 1981 and 1991 while between 1991-2001, it has increased by 37 per cent.

Fig. 4. 2 Rural Migration Rate, India (1981 to 2001)

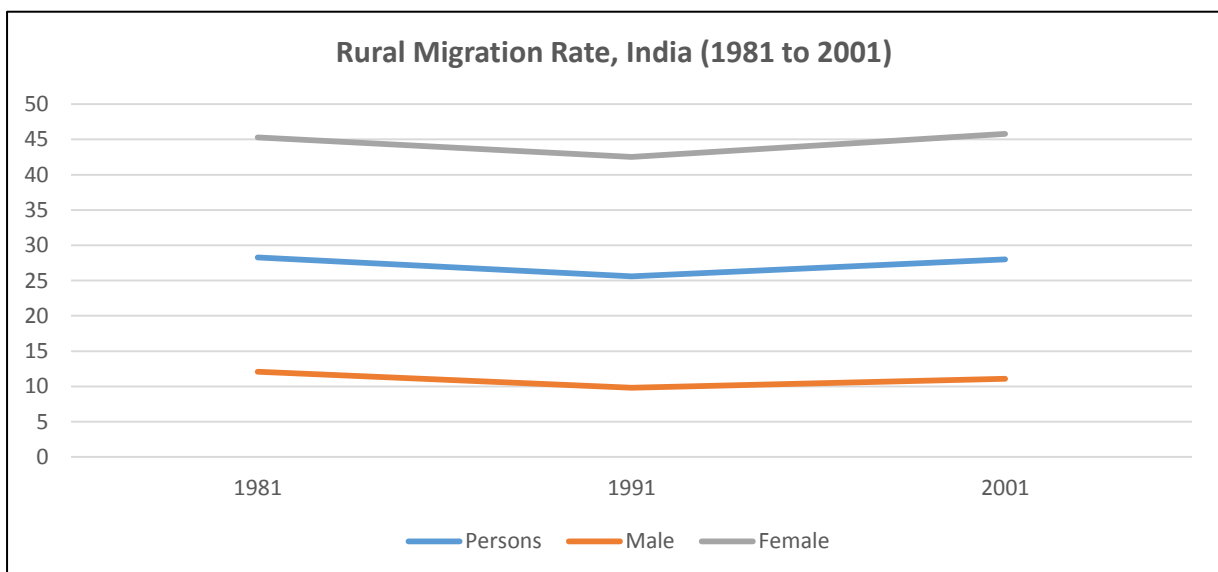
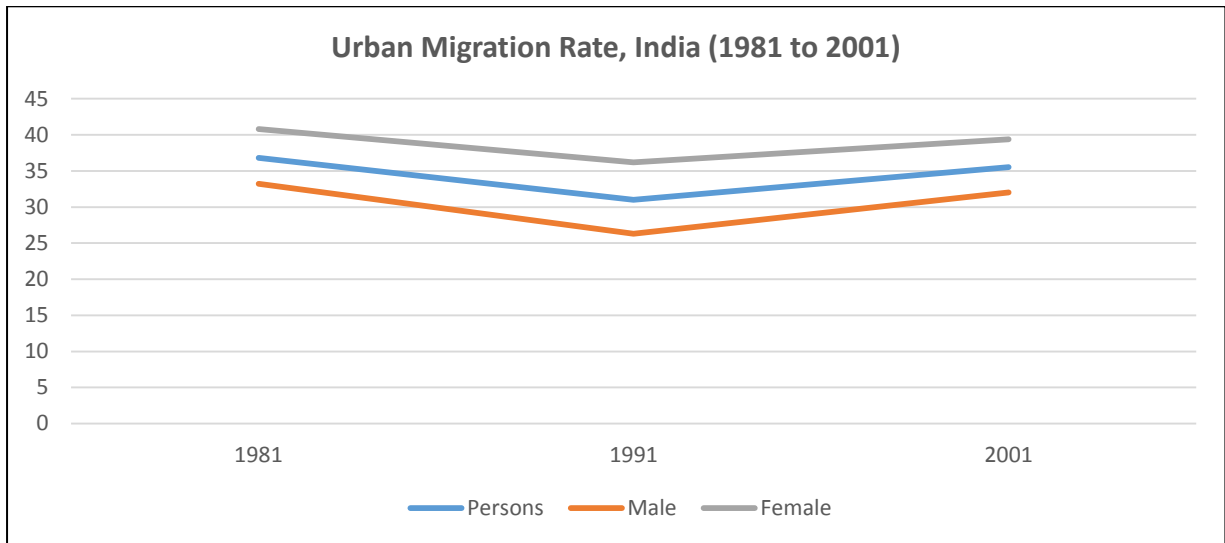


Fig. 4. 3 Urban Migration Rate, India (1981 to 2001)



4.3 Migration Streams

Table 4.1 represents the different migration streams, the percentage of migrants migrated intra-district (from the same district) or inter-district (from other districts), intra-state (within the state) or inter-state (from other states) using NSS 55th and NSS 64th survey data for all India.

Intra-state migration is highest for all categories of migration streams for both the round under study. Rural-rural migration is dominated by migration within the districts. For other streams too, except urban-urban stream, the intra-district migration is still the highest, showing that the propensity to move out by people are still constrained by the distance. Generally, People don't like to take the risk of long distance migration that's why most of the people prefer to migrate within the district. Inter-district migration is found to be the highest only for the urban-urban stream in NSS 55th round as well as in NSS 64th round. Inter-state migration for rural-urban stream has increased from 19.6 per cent (1999-2000) to 25.2 per cent in 2007-08 while it has decreased for rural-rural and urban-rural. Comparing both, it is clear that people from rural areas are now moving more to areas of urban in contrast to rural areas while people of urban areas are more prone to migrate to urban areas.

Table 4. 1 Percentage distribution of internal migrants in various migration streams

Last Usual Place of Residence				
Migration Stream	Within State			Between States
	Same District	Different District	Total	
55th Round (1999-2000)				
Rural to Rural	75.3	20.1	95.4	4.6
Rural to Urban	43.8	36.5	80.4	19.6
Urban-to-Rural	46.5	33.5	80	20.0
Urban-to-urban	36.6	43.5	80.1	19.9
64th round (2007-2008)				
Rural-to-Rural	72.4	23.2	95.6	4.4
Rural-to-Urban	41.2	33.6	74.8	25.2
Urban-to-Rural	48.8	33.8	82.5	17.5
Urban-to-urban	27.9	49.2	77.1	22.9

NSSO 55th round, 64th round

4.4 Out-Migration

Before explaining the rate of out-migration, it is important to explain the term out-migration. Internal migration can be classified into two types i) In-Migration ii) Out-Migration. When a person/s move into or come to live in an area or region is referred to as in-migration whereas when person/s move out of an area or region with purpose to settle down in another region is referred to as out-migration. NSSO defined Out-migration as “Any former member of the households who had left the household, any time in the past, for stay outside the village/town, was considered as out-migrant, provided he/she was alive as on the date of survey.”⁷³

⁷³ NSSO (2010) “Migration in India, 2007-2008”, Ministry of Statistics and Program Implementation, Government of India, Report no.533 (64/10.2/2)

4.4.1 Rate of Out-Migration

Rate of out-migration is the “number of out-migrants per thousand of persons.”⁷⁴ The all India scenario shows that male out-migration rate from rural areas is 9.2 per cent and 5.1 per cent from urban areas. It is higher in rural areas for both male (9.2 per cent) and female (16.6 per cent) than urban regions because in rural areas lack of resources and opportunities push people outside in search of the same. It is much greater for females in rural regions as well as in urban regions, about 16.6 percent for females of rural and 11 percent for the females of urban. Out-migration rate is found to be higher for females in both rural and urban areas because of the marriage system in India, where girls have to go to their husband’s house after marriage in most of the states of India except in few states.

Table 4. 2 Percentage of Out-Migrants, India (2007-08)

Category of Out-Migrants	Rural	Urban	Rural + Urban
Male	9.2	5.1	8.1
Female	16.6	11.0	15.2
Total	12.8	7.9	11.5

NSSO 64th round data, 2007-08

4.4.2 Out-Migrants in different places of Residence

Census of India collects two types of migration data – i) Migration by place of birth: “When a person is enumerated in Census at a place, i.e., village or town, different from her/his place of birth, she/he would be considered a migrant by place of birth.” (Census, 2001) whereas ii) Migration by place of last residence: “A person would be considered a migrant by place of last residence, if she/he had last resided at a place other than her/his place of enumeration.” (Census, 2001). However, NSS data on migration is based on the present place of residence.

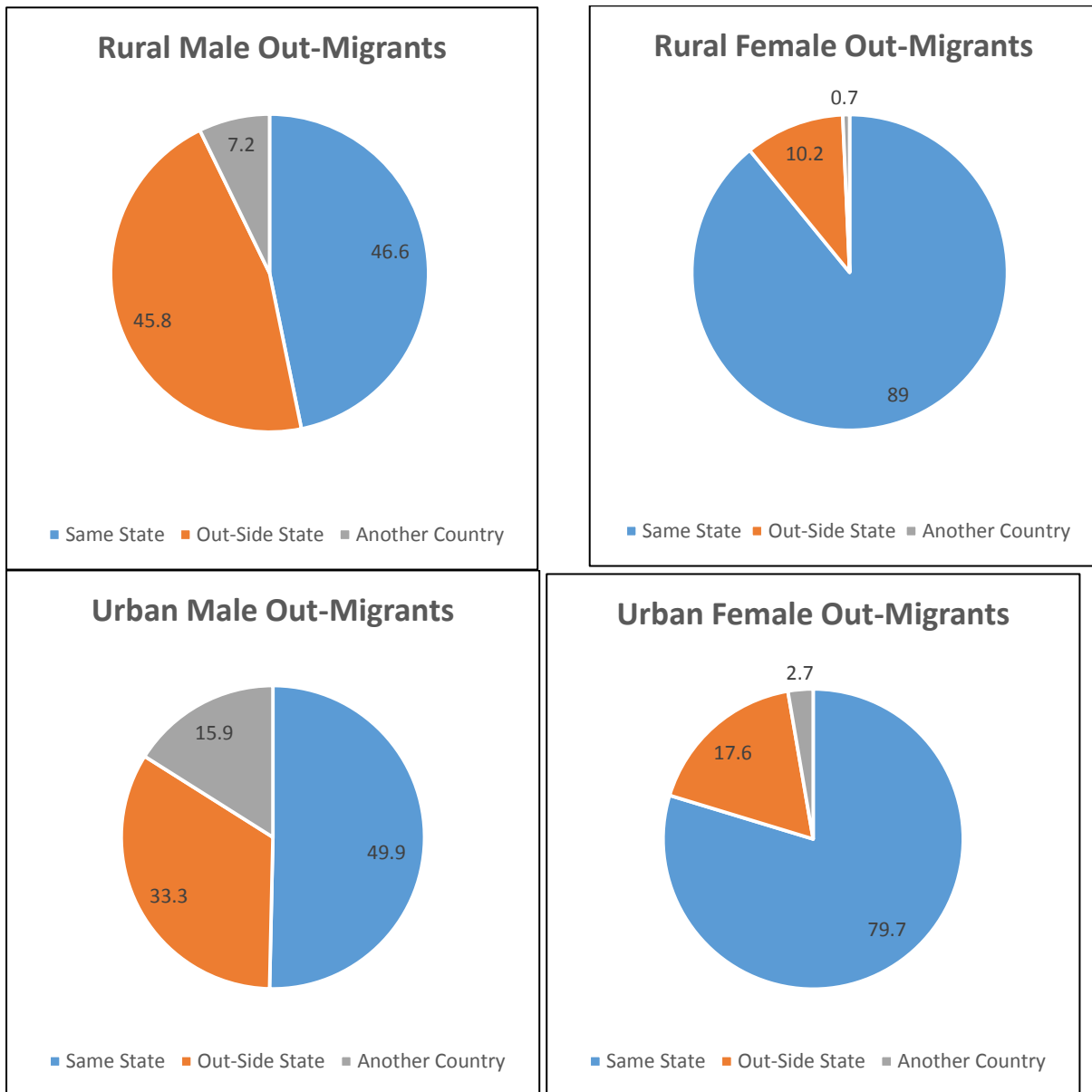
Female out-migration is mainly found within the state, both for rural (89 per cent) and urban areas (79.7 per cent). This also found to be true in terms of District i.e. out migration of female is predominantly found to be within the same district for both rural areas (61 per cent) as well as for urban areas (43 per cent). As it has already been seen that majority of female out migration is due to marriage and most of the Indian family don’t want their daughter to get

⁷⁴ Ibid., p.100

married to a very far off places. So the propensity of female migrating outside the state is very less not only in rural areas but also in urban areas.

The present place of residence for male out-migrants is more diverse for rural as well as urban regions, in comparison to those of female out-migrants. The rural male out-migrants is seen to be almost equally distributed within the state (46.6 per cent) and out-side state (45.8 per cent) whereas male out-migrants of urban areas is slightly higher within the state (49.9 per cent) than outside state (33.3 per cent). Another important noticeable feature of out-migration of male is that they are also moving out to another country in considerable number. About 7.2 and 15.9 per cent of rural and urban male respectively are moving out to another country. With the improvement in technology, infrastructure advanced communication system and transport networks, it becomes easier for people to move across the country border. Like with the better internet facilities, people are getting information related to work or education or others opportunities outside their country very easily, which help them to decide to move out.

Fig. 4. 4 Percentage distribution of Out-Migrants in different Places of Residence

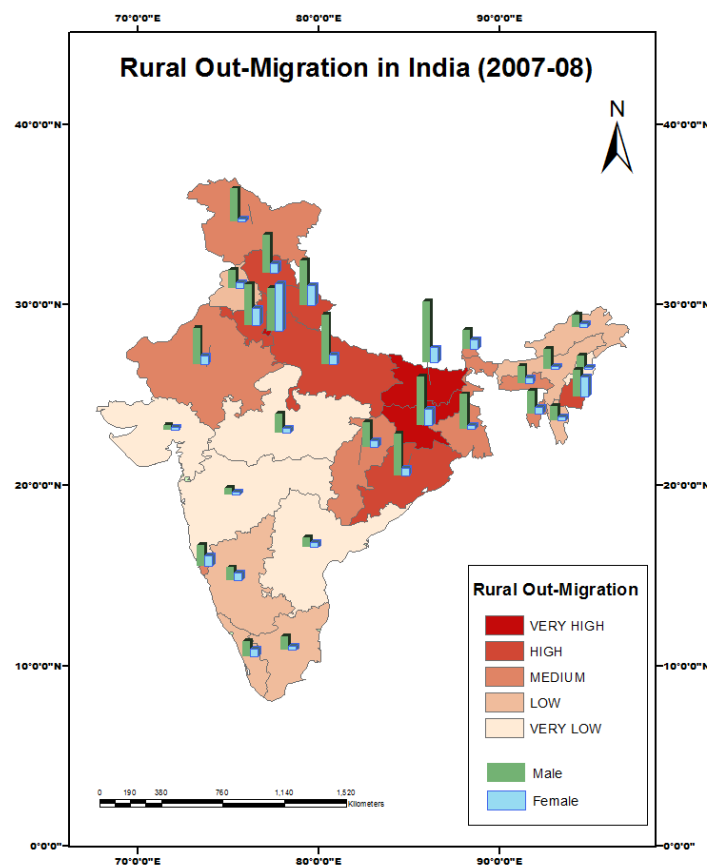


4.4.3 Rural Out-Migration

India is a country where most of its population resides in villages, that's why it is important to study these people and related aspects in more detail. Migration from the rural areas is still found to be dominant in most of the states of India. The recent trend reveals that migration from rural areas to urban areas has increased. This is because, urban areas are the place where these rural people get diverse work opportunities and higher wages, which is not so in rural areas.

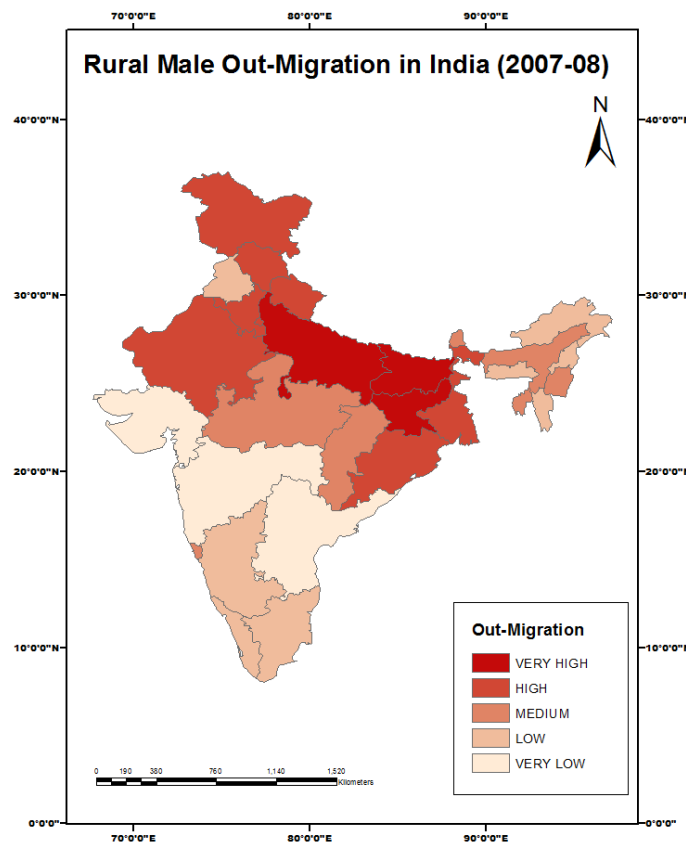
Very high proportion of out-migration is from **Bihar (62.3 %)** followed by **Jharkhand (53.5 %)**. This is attributed to socio-economic and political backwardness of these states. Economic stagnation for long time, drought- prone or flood prone, seasonal unemployment, subsistence crisis along with rising incidence of near landlessness forced the people from these backward states to move to the states/areas which are either agricultural prosperous or where developmental projects such construction, etc. is happening. This type of forced **mobility of rural people** is a kind of **survival strategy**, which actually don't save them from exploitation, but only **change the exploitation's agent and mechanisms**. These migrants generally work in **unorganised sector** under extremely stressful conditions with no security, safety and can easily be removed by the employer through the middlemen and the contractors, from whom they often take loan. States with **high percentage of out-migration** are **Uttarakhand (43.6 per cent), Uttar Pradesh (35.9 per cent), Orissa**, etc. Those states which have low or very low out-migration are basically those which are urbanised and industrialised like Karnataka, Punjab, Maharashtra, Andhra Pradesh, Gujarat, etc.

Map 4. 1 Rural Out-Migration in India (2007-08)



The same scenario has been seen in the case of male out-migration i.e. highest in Bihar (85.2 %) followed by Uttar Pradesh (70 %), Jharkhand (68.6 %). They mainly move out in search of better work opportunity, resources, facilities and better wages as their state lacked the same. These state backwardness can be attributed to long term economic stagnation, feeble institutions, bad infrastructure, political instability, poor governance, low human capital and social conflicts entrenched in sectarian politics established on caste, class and ethnic decision (Rasul and Eklabya, 2014). These states have high population, low literacy rate, low educational level attainment, low urbanisation, and high poverty and mainly rely on agriculture. Most of them are illiterate that is why they are usually unskilled, employed in unorganised sector under no safety and security. They live in dismal condition and far from their home only for themselves and for their family survival. In case of male, it is their voluntary decision to migrate but in case of female they are bound by the custom of marriage in which they are compelled to leave their own home and migrate to their husband's place of living.

Map 4. 2 Rural Male Out-Migration in India (2007-08)



4.4.4 Reasons of Out-Migration

The reasons behind out-migration of males and females shows distinct pattern. The major reason of out-migration in case of female is marriage, not in rural areas but also in urban areas at all India level, which is about 84 per cent for both rural and urban areas. The reason is employment related because of which most of the male out-migrants migrate from rural as well as urban areas, which accounts for about 80 % for the rural areas and 71 % for the urban areas.

From the above it is clear that most of the males are out-migrating for employment and females out-migrating due to marriage as the main reason. However it has also been seen that significantly larger proportion of male out-migrants have migrated out for study purpose from both rural and urban areas in comparison to female out-migrants. About 8 % males from rural areas and 14 per cent from urban areas out-migrated for the purpose of study whereas the share of females from rural is 2 % and 3 % from urban for the same.

Inter-state migration for employment by men in India is still largely attributed to underdevelopment, poverty, unbalanced regional development, rural neglect, social inequalities, regional disparities, rural stagnation.

The state level analysis also show the same scenario at the all India level. Overall out-migration for employment related reasons in Very High category is found to be from Manipur (62.9 %) followed by Arunachal Pradesh (60.7 %), Mizoram (59.2 %), Jharkhand (57.6 %) and Bihar (56.5 %). Rest of the states of the North Eastern Region (NER) such as Tripura, Meghalaya and Assam fall under the high out-migrating category. NER suffered from many serious problems ranging from under-development, social, economical to political. **Out-migration from the NER is mainly triggered by under-developed economy, unemployment problems, very weak industrial development and socio-political unrest. Rapid development of education has elevated the aspiration of the people there to look out for the formal, permanent or higher salaried job which are limitedly found in NER.** The unavailability of their aspired job in their state compel them to move out to those places, mostly cities, where they can get the same along with diverse job opportunity.⁷⁵

⁷⁵ Marchang, R. (2017) "Out-Migration from North Eastern Region to cities: Unemployment, Employability and Job aspiration", *Journal of Economics & Social Development*, Vol. XIII, No. 2

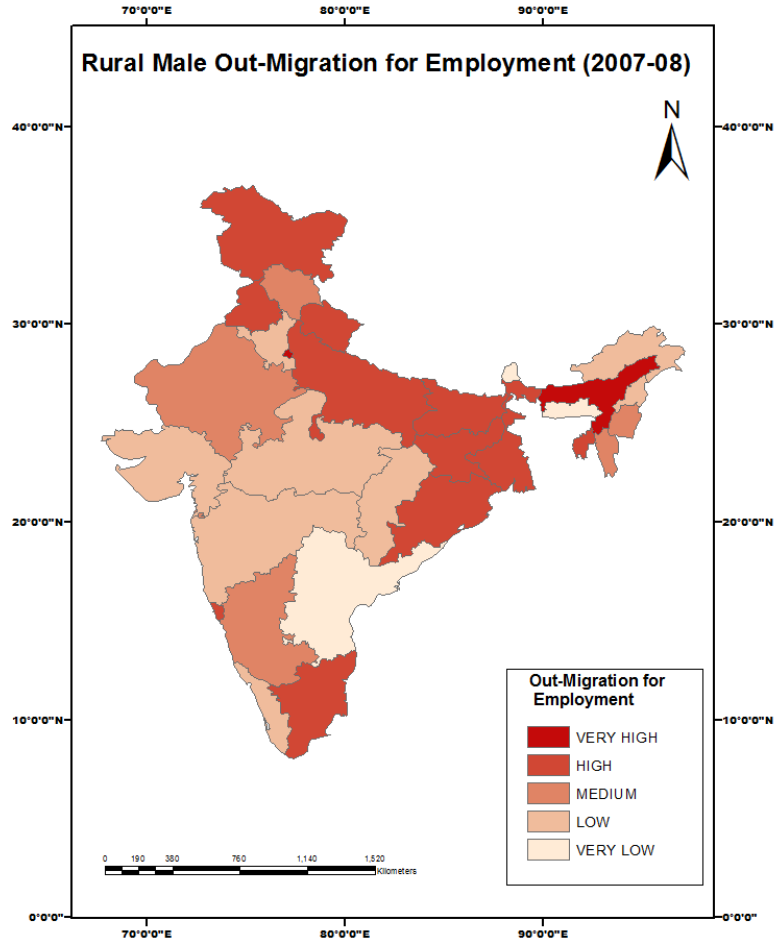
Table 4. 3 Distribution (per 1000) Rural Male Out-Migrants by Reasons for Out-Migration

Distribution (per 1000) Rural Male Out-Migrants by Reasons for Out-Migration						
State	Employment	Studies	Forced Migration	Marriage	Movement of parents/ Earning Member	Others
Andhra Pradesh	621	239	1	12	94	31
Arunachal Pradesh	745	177	0	15	6	27
Assam	949	14	1	8	25	3
Bihar	881	25	0	6	58	22
Chhattisgarh	718	80	0	11	158	26
Delhi	1000	0	0	0	0	0
Goa	832	122	0	0	25	0
Gujarat	733	103	1	21	128	11
Haryana	704	65	0	38	165	26
Himachal Pradesh	778	130	0	6	39	32
Jammu & Kashmir	905	6	4	7	40	35
Jharkhand	826	89	0	0	64	11
Karnataka	763	132	17	5	49	28
Kerala	735	53	2	25	61	124
Madhya Pradesh	702	129	1	21	100	18
Maharashtra	731	114	3	13	104	22
Manipur	771	180	1	4	12	28
Meghalaya	516	350	4	103	0	17
Mizoram	795	174	0	27	0	4
Nagaland	741	237	0	12	0	11
Orissa	872	45	0	6	58	15
Punjab	831	59	0	20	48	39
Rajasthan	802	81	1	6	84	21
Sikkim	611	346	0	11	9	22

Tamil Nadu	844	93	0	18	34	11
Tripura	902	27	1	25	21	18
Uttarakhand	844	50	0	6	84	11
Uttar Pradesh	825	44	0	6	97	17
West Bengal	894	32	0	16	18	39
Chandigarh	1000	0	0	0	0	0
Dadra & Nagar Haveli	758	0	0	0	241	0
Daman & Diu	791	159	0	0	50	0
Puducherry	509	200	66	224	0	0
Lakshadweep	684	109	0	0	86	121
A & N Islands	463	196	0	14	133	182
India	799	78	1	11	76	30

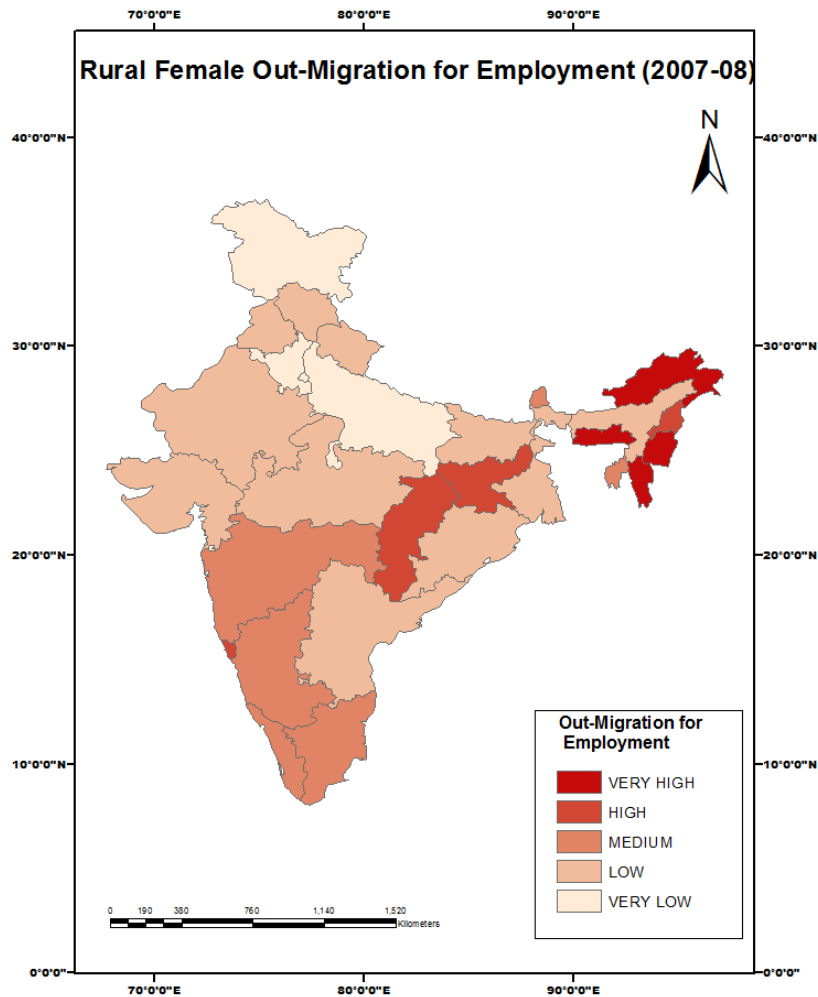
Migration can be induced by both poverty (mostly prevail in underdeveloped or developing region) and prosperity (mostly prevail in developed regions). The example of poverty induced migration, seems to be true in case of Bihar and Uttar Pradesh, where males are migrating for employment in large proportion due to the poverty, lack of employment opportunities, low infrastructure facilities, resources unavailability, underdevelopment, low wages etc. to those places where the same is present. These states large percentage of population depends on agriculture for their livelihood and there is lack of availability of sufficient secondary and tertiary sectors to absorb labour force of rural areas. Recent trends shows that people migration increased to the urban centres particularly administrative capitals (Delhi, Mumbai, etc.) and some other urban areas, equipped with all these facilities adequately which is generally not found in other parts of the region due to lack of attention paid in these areas. West Bengal, which was earlier known for receiving heavy migrants has shown a declining trend. Now people out-migration has increased from West Bengal because it is facing a declining trend of industrial development and job opportunities. Highest number of sick industries in India is found to be in West Bengal.

Map 4. 3 Rural Male Out-Migration for Employment (2007-08)



However example of prosperity induced male migration seems to be true in case of Delhi, Chandigarh, Goa, Maharashtra, etc. where one can see fast rate of economic development, contributing to the better infrastructure, transportation, communication, industrialisation and urbanisation along with better and diverse job prospects and higher wages. These are the states where prosperity induces both in-migration and also out-migration.

Map 4. 4 Rural Female Out-Migration for Employment (2007-08)



Female out-migration for employment related reason is found to be highest from the North eastern region (NER). Amongst NER, highest female out-migration is from Meghalaya (39.2 per cent) followed by Manipur (27 %), Arunachal Pradesh (26.2 %) and Mizoram (22.4 %). Meghalaya is known for its matrilineal system, in which property names and wealth transferred from mother to the daughter rather than father to son, which is followed in most of the states of the India. This property right makes its women more powerful and that's why get higher liberty than most of the other states of India, which are patrilineal in nature. The women here are more involved in economic activities than other states. This can be the reason for the high

female out-migration from this state. This freedom and liberty can also be the reason because of which they are out-migrating to other states for employment reason.

The condition of women is found to be much better in NER in comparison to other states of India. They have better sex-ratio, female literacy rate, enrolment rate of girls, female work participation rate, decision making power, political participation, high mean age at marriage, involvement in household decision, and percentage of women having bank or savings account in comparison to most of the states of India.⁷⁶ This better status of women also promotes their inter-state mobility for taking better and diverse employment opportunities which otherwise is not available in their own states because of their backwardness.

Female out-migration for employment, other than NER, is seen to be high in those states that are better in relation of social and economic development such as Goa (17.4 %), Chandigarh (15.7 %), Jharkhand (13.7 %), and Chhattisgarh (11 %). Other states having medium level of female out-migration are Karnataka (5.2 %), Sikkim (5.2 %), and T.N. (5 %), etc. Those states having very low female out-migration for employment are those which are backward in terms of development like J & K, Uttar Pradesh except Haryana, which is a developed state in terms of economy only but the status of women there is very low, this constrained their movement out-side states for employment.

4.5 Remittances

NSSO defined remittances as “transfers, either in cash or in kind, to the households by their former members who had migrated out”⁷⁷

“India is the largest receiver of remittances from abroad. However, it is not considered to be a remittance dependent economy.” The picture on the state level revealed that there are certain states where remittances are concentrated. Punjab, Goa and Kerala are well known for high level of international remittances inflow whereas U.P. along with Bihar are recognised for high level of domestic remittance inflow.⁷⁸

⁷⁶ Das, I. (2013) “Status of women: North Eastern Region of India versus India”, *International Journal of Scientific and Research Publications*, Vol.3, No.1.

⁷⁷ NSSO (2010) “Migration in India, 2007-2008”, Ministry of Statistics and Programme Implementation, Government of India, 64th Round Report, Report no.533 (64/10.2/2)

⁷⁸ Tumbe, C. (2011) “Remittances in India : Facts & Issues” Working paper no.331, p.17

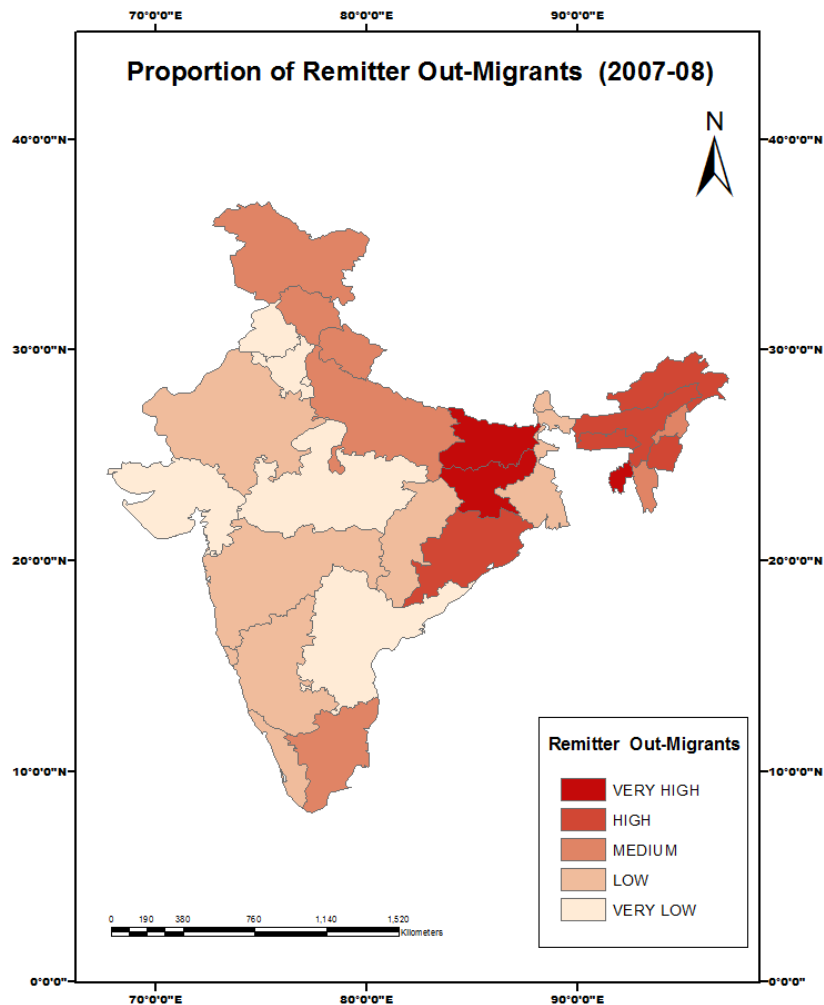
4.5.1 Proportion of Remitter Out-Migrants

Proportion of remitter out-migrants represents “percentage of out-migrants who had sent remittances during the last 365 days.”⁷⁹ It has been noted already that the male out-migrate majorly because of employment related reasons, which directly validate their higher involvement in economic activities whereas female out-migrants involvement in economic activities is found to be low which can largely be elucidated by the fact that females predominantly migrated because of marriage and not for employment related reasons. It is clear from the above that it is the male out-migrants who usually send remittances in comparison to female out-migrants. Even in case where female out-migrants send remittances, the proportion is higher for male out-migrants and also they send higher remittances than the female out-migrants.

Higher remittances is sent by the out-migrants residing abroad in comparison to the out-migrants residing within India, in case of both male and female. However, the proportion of female sending remittances is found to be significantly low during the last 365 days. Amongst the male out-migrants who resides in India, about 58 per cent of those who out-migrated from the rural areas and 41 per cent of those who out-migrated from the urban areas send remittances. This shows that the habit of remitting remittances by the male out-migrants migrating out from the urban areas is less prevalent than those from the rural areas. In case of female out-migrants, only about 1 per cent of those who out-migrated from the rural areas and 2 per cent of those who out-migrated from the urban areas send remittances. It can be concluded from the above that though higher proportion of out-migrants are involved in economic activities but the out-migrant’s proportion in remittances is not that high which it should be.

⁷⁹ NSSO (2010) “Migration in India, 2007-2008”, Ministry of Statistics and Programme Implementation, Government of India, 64th Round Report, Report no.533 (64/10.2/2), p. 14.

Map 4. 5 Proportion of Rural (Male+Female) Remitter Out-Migrants, India



From the Map 4.5, it is observed that highest remittance is from Bihar (52.3 %) followed by Jharkhand (49.6 %) and Tripura (43.7 %). Higher percentage of remitter from Bihar may be due to the poor economic status of the out-migrant's household, due to which it is obligatory for them to send remittances to their home. As Bihar is one of the poorest state having high population, where a large percentage of people migrate to earn livelihood and to at least fulfil their two square of meal. Many times, if money is not sent by the remitter, there may be some households where family members have to suffer from hunger. These remittances really boost the QOL of the remitters and their household members. Bihar also have become one of the important destination of remittances from abroad. It is noticeable that proportion of remitter is comparatively higher from the states which are less developed and having low literacy level, weak economy, poor infrastructure, etc. Mostly out-migrants from these backward states are

labour class belonging to poor family, which don't possess skills to get higher paid employment due to their low level of literacy and educational attainment. Their only aim to out-migrate is to earn livelihood for themselves and their family and that's why most of the time they send remittances back home. Whereas those states which are comparatively developed such as Gujarat, Haryana, Maharashtra, Kerala, etc. migrants seen to be coming from the family having better economic conditions, that's why they don't have to send remittance back home, whatever they earn are mainly utilise for themselves. Another reason is that, quite high proportion of out-migrants from these developed states migrated for the study purpose, and that's why they don't send money to their family.

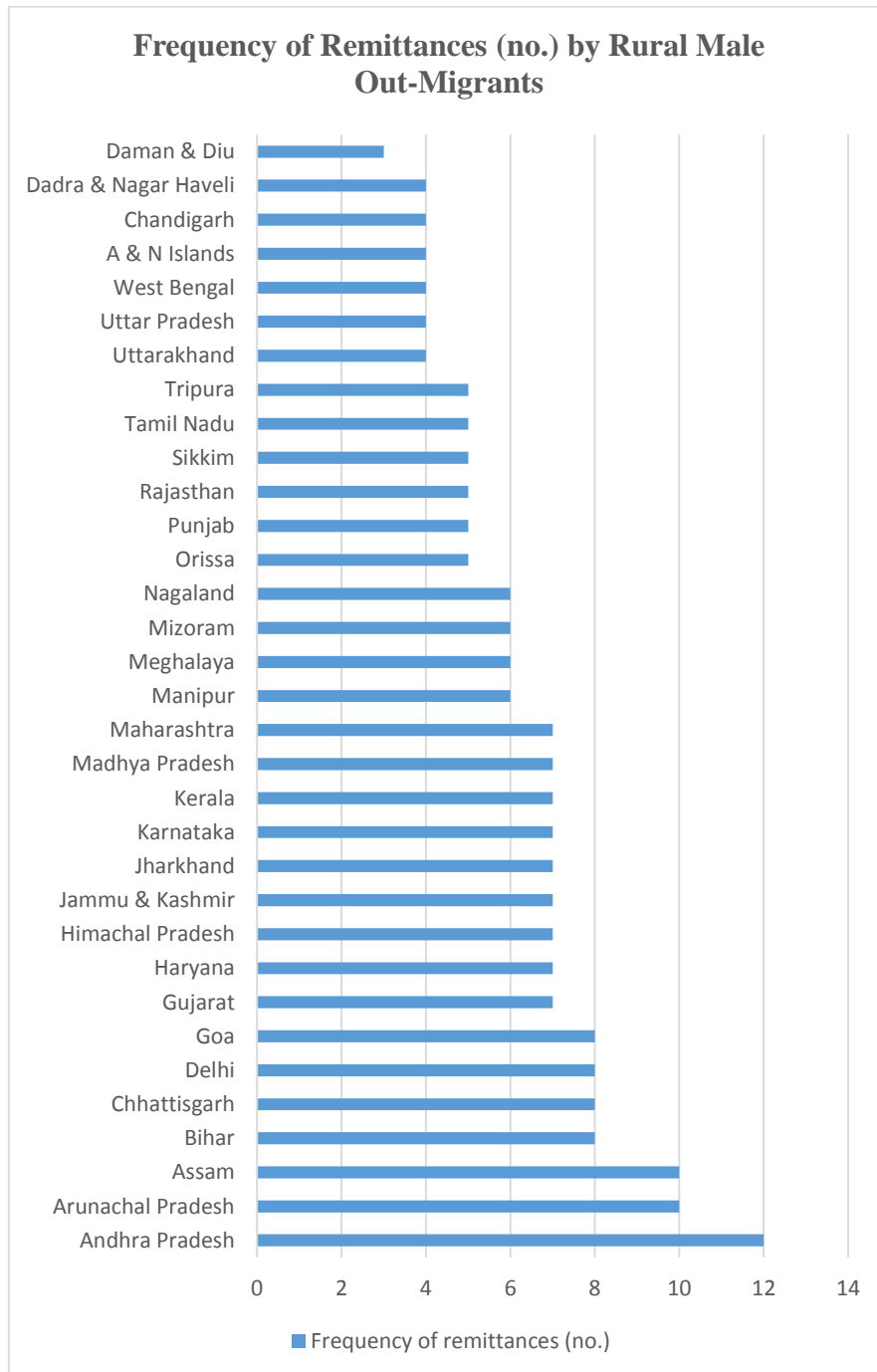
4.5.2 Frequency of Remittances

These aspects related to out-migration is very important to study in details as it is argued by many famous authors and scholars that remittances actually brings benefits and prosperity to remitter's family. This argument is also validated by the **Human Development Report 2009** named **“Overcoming barriers: Human mobility and development”**, where they pointed out that **“moving generally brings benefits, most directly in the form of remittances sent to immediate family members”**. Therefore appropriate analysis of the economic advantages, obtained by the migrant's household by the out-migrants in the form of remittances is necessary along with the study of the frequency and proportion of remittances remitted by the migrants who moved out. According to NSSO **“The frequency of remittance is the average number of times the household had received remittance from the out-migrants during the last 365 days and the amount of remittance is the average amount of remittance received by the households, during the last 365 days, from its out-migrants- summed across the frequency.”**⁸⁰ **Regularity of the remittances can be known by the frequency with which it is received by the household.** On an average the frequency of remittances sent by the males out-migrating from the rural areas is about 5, irrespective of their residence in India or abroad whereas the same for female is 4 remittances for residing in India and 3 remittances for residing outside. The frequency of remittances from the urban areas is seen to be slightly higher than rural, in case of both male and female out-migrants. On an average, it is 6 remittances by the male out-migrants irrespective of residence in India or abroad while by the female it is 5 remittances for Indian resident and 3 remittances for those residing abroad.

⁸⁰ Ibid.,p.106

It is revealed by the State level analysis that males migrating out from the rural regions of Andhra Pradesh sent the higher frequency of remittance i.e. 12 followed by Arunachal Pradesh (10), Assam (10), Bihar (8). Whereas lowest frequency of the same is seen from Daman and Diu (3) Dadra and Nagar Haveli (4), Chandigarh (4), Andaman and Nicobar Islands (4) West Bengal (4), U.P. (4) and Uttarakhand (4).

Fig. 4. 5 Frequency of Remittances (no.) by Rural Male Out-Migrants (during last one year)



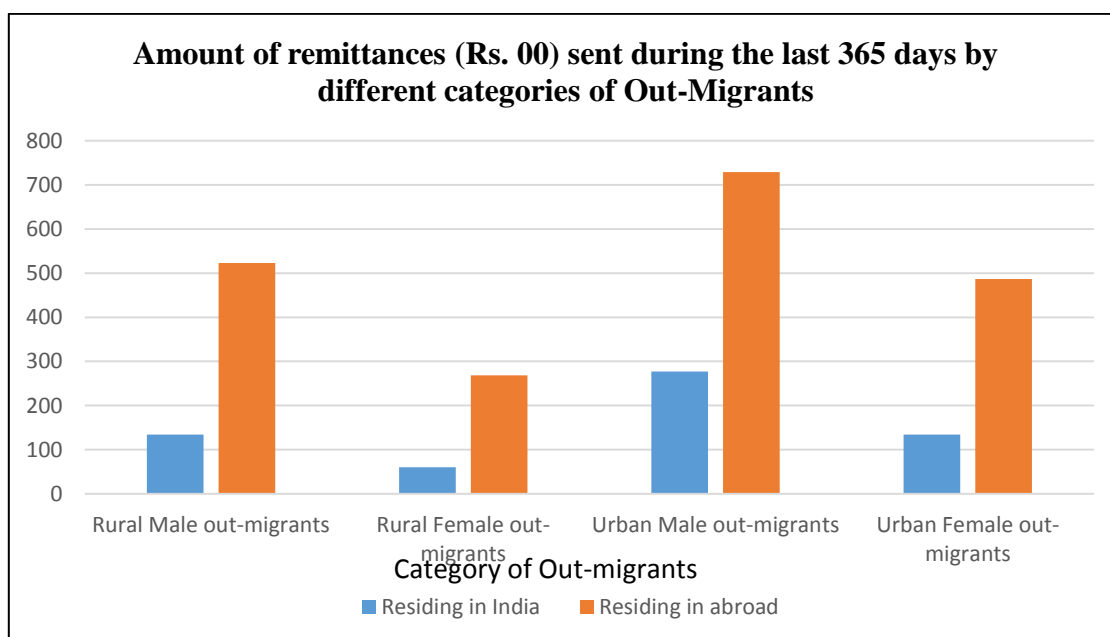
Source: NSSO 2007-08

4.5.3 Amount of Remittances

Out-migrants living abroad, send higher amount of remittances in comparison to those residing within India. Rural male out-migrants who resides abroad send the amount of remittances which is four times the amount of remittances remitted by the rural male out-migrants living in India during the last 365 days. On an average it is about Rs.52, 000 by abroad resident and about Rs.13, 000 by Indian resident. Another point to note is that, urban out-migrants send higher amount of remittances than those of rural areas. Urban male out-migrants having resident in India, sent an average remittances of Rs. 28000 which is more than the double amount of money sent by a rural male out-migrant residing in India. Female out-migrants migrated both from rural and urban areas sent lesser amount than their counterparts irrespective of their residence in India or abroad. In case of rural areas, the amount of remittances sent by the rural female out-migrants is about half the amount sent by their male counterparts, irrespective of their residence in rural or urban. The same scenario is also seen in the case of urban female out-migrants living in India.

Comparison of states in context of average amount of remittances remitted by rural male out-migrants is highest from Andhra Pradesh (Rs.1132) followed by Arunachal Pradesh (Rs.820), Assam (Rs.494), Bihar (Rs.416), Chhattisgarh (Rs.377) whereas it is lowest from Daman & Diu (Rs.67) Dadra & Nagar Haveli (Rs.87), Chandigarh (Rs.90), A & N Islands (Rs.95), West Bengal (Rs.96), Uttar Pradesh (Rs.104) and Uttarakhand (Rs.108).

Fig. 4. 6 Amount of Remittances (Rs. 00) sent during the last 365 days by different categories of Out-Migrants



4.5.4 Uses of Remittances

NSSO 64th Round Survey on Employment, Unemployment and Migration in 2007-08, for the first time gave detailed information on remittances at household level. A report titled as “Migration in India, 2007-2008”, published by them subsequently, elaborating detailed information related to migration and remittances across many social and economic variables.

“Nearly 80% of the domestic remittances went to households in rural areas.”⁸¹ Most of the common use of remittances is on basic necessities like food, clothing and shelter. After fulfilling these, rest is invested in health, education and housing. It is vital in uplifting millions of family out of poverty. Remittances often seen to lead to improved health, education, standard of living, housing and levels of entrepreneurship.⁸² Remittances can help people to take themselves out of poverty and to develop the origin’s socio-economic infrastructure. It helps them not only to change their own life but also the lives of those back home. Savings can occur from remittances which can be reinvested locally and which can act as an engine of development for the local area. It can function as a buffer at the time of crisis and help to face unpredictable problems.

According to all India level data, above 90 % of remittance receiving households of both rural and urban, used the remittances for some or other forms of “household consumer expenditure”. This includes item like food items, education, Household durables, marriage, health care and ‘other items’. The sequence of expenditure on various components of HCE (household consumer expenditure) by remittance receiving household (RRHH) is almost same for both rural and urban. Amongst all the components of HCE, a very large percentage of the households i.e. 76 % in the rural areas and 71 % in the urban areas had stated use on ‘food items’. After this, the second most important expenditure is on ‘health care’ (rural-38 %, urban-36 %) followed by education (rural-31%, urban 34%) and then household durables (rural-20.3%, urban-18.9%). The next important expenditure is on debt repayment for rural areas (10.3 %) whereas it is saving/investment for urban areas (12.6 %).

⁸¹ Tumbe, C. (2011) “Remittances in India: Facts & Issues” Working Paper no. 331, *Indian Institute of Management, Bangalore*, paper presented at the 52nd Annual Conference of the Indian Society of Labour Economics, 17-18 December, 2010, Dharwad.

⁸² International Fund for Agricultural Development (2015) “The use of remittances and financial inclusion”, International Fund for Agriculture Development and the World Bank Group to the G20 Global Partnership for Financial Inclusion.

Same scenario can be seen in entire India at the state level for rural and urban areas also, i.e. maximum remittances expenditure is on 'food items' by most of the states whereas some distinctive variation at regional level can be seen. Most of the states of the North East have utilised higher percentage of remittances on 'education' whereas the same for 'health care' is by Tripura (55.3 %), Himachal Pradesh (50.1 %), Madhya Pradesh (50 %), etc. For Marriage, highest expenditure is by Chandigarh (55.3 %), Orissa (55.3 %), and Chhattisgarh (55.3 %). Major part of remittances usage on Debt Repayment is by Tamil Nadu (29.9 %), Andhra Pradesh (24.3 %), and Kerala (24.2 %). This is may be due to the debt taken for going to Gulf or other foreign countries. The higher usage of remittances on saving or investment is found from Goa and most UTs.

Earlier, the domestic remittances were done in post-office and banks in formal institution whereas returning relatives, friends in informal channel. The "post office money order" was the most prevalent formal channel for sending remittances which was also considered as the utmost expensive mode of sending remittances. But now in the present times, remittances are being also remitted through online, but the ratio is still higher at bank branches.

Table 4. 4 Proportion of Rural HHs (per 1000) using Remittance for specific purpose (HH expenditure) for each state/UTs

Proportion of Rural HHs (per 1000) using Remittance for specific purpose for each state/UTs												
States	Food	Education	HH durable	Marriage & ceremonies	Health care	Others item on HH consumer expd	For improving housing condition (major repairs, purchase of land and buildings, etc.)	Debt. Repayment	Financing working capital	Initiating new entrepreneurial activity	Saving/investment	Others
Andhra Pradesh	729	142	53	30	377	275	105	243	28	11	78	23
Arunachal Pradesh	655	568	326	44	319	344	72	35	0	0	7	154
Assam	725	212	305	55	401	399	106	35	6	1	46	63
Bihar	757	232	301	45	372	500	96	59	15	2	43	109
Chhattisgarh	609	289	166	88	349	532	88	22	30	2	16	71
Delhi	1000	614	222	0	113	122	0	0	0	0	0	0
Goa	814	240	226	0	354	203	0	62	0	0	546	0
Gujarat	749	109	211	37	404	468	88	53	8	5	79	103
Haryana	714	552	295	43	431	361	57	28	28	0	80	59
Himachal Pradesh	896	369	91	79	501	562	35	14	0	1	46	41
Jammu & Kashmir	809	582	325	61	207	635	114	18	0	0	65	30
Jharkhand	784	431	276	23	389	480	75	53	1	0	18	27

Karnataka	757	151	223	75	386	400	90	176	30	10	35	32
Kerala	776	328	74	42	416	355	71	242	0	6	82	30
Madhya Pradesh	706	279	207	52	500	337	101	54	2	3	27	49
Maharashtra	734	183	146	32	454	491	75	36	24	2	49	39
Manipur	672	548	236	35	176	625	64	55	11	5	82	142
Meghalaya	844	558	246	0	497	451	24	0	4	0	40	44
Mizoram	963	565	452	0	288	358	54	5	0	0	35	21
Nagaland	571	356	313	20	149	548	16	38	9	0	27	247
Orissa	741	207	185	113	210	472	160	143	12	2	49	96
Punjab	660	325	270	64	212	345	110	176	24	6	133	56
Rajasthan	787	312	197	53	84	481	96	150	2	4	82	85
Sikkim	675	371	145	15	89	355	173	33	0	0	222	56
Tamil Nadu	809	186	79	35	353	420	47	299	6	2	88	22
Tripura	842	373	128	15	553	522	11	23	6	3	3	73
Uttarakhand	883	394	146	23	313	560	80	6	0	0	81	56
Uttar Pradesh	722	455	235	48	485	472	81	60	11	1	36	40

West Bengal	817	259	197	16	360	463	127	68	4	1	52	28
A & N Islands	875	369	309	31	203	462	120	3	0	0	191	0
Chandigarh	244	489	0	489	244	733	0	0	0	0	267	0
Dadra & Nagar Haveli	791	378	413	75	32	32	35	64	0	0	0	38
Daman & Diu	720	403	264	0	163	435	76	139	0	0	395	0
Lakshadweep	882	316	0	0	159	761	0	276	0	0	36	32
Puducherry	915	587	357	22	304	586	43	17	34	0	21	0
India	756	305	203	48	377	455	91	103	11	3	54	56

Conclusions

India is a country which is the largest receiver of remittances from abroad and also is the 2nd highest domestic remittance market in the developing countries. There isn't sufficient study related to the domestic remittance, this may be attributed to the unavailability of appropriate data on the subject. The picture on the level of state revealed that there are certain states where remittances are concentrated. States like Punjab, Goa and Kerala are well recognised for the high inflow of international remittances whereas U.P. and Bihar are well recognised for the high inflow of domestic remittances. Dependency on remittance have grown since 1993 in above states with some new state coming into the picture like Orissa. Uttar Pradesh and Bihar, are also stepping slowly into receiving the highest international remittances from abroad especially from West Asian countries.

Chapter 5

Introduction to the Study Area

The present research based on the Bihar state in general and Gopalgunj district in particular.

Any social phenomenon such as migration, socio-economic development always take place in a geographical settings which evolve with time. These geographical settings often affect the social phenomenon of that particular geographical region and vice-versa. The region's changing spatial context, physical condition, past history, physical resources, socio-cultural, political and economic set-up contribute to the evolvement of a particular social phenomenon and also shape the pattern of development of that particular region. In the context of Bihar, it is bestowed with specific distinctive characteristics; it has specific relative advantage in comparison to other states of India. Geographically, Bihar is well located, physically sound, historically significantly glorified, socially very important and politically immense importance. Economically, however, in spite of being privileged with vast enrichments and great potentialities, it has lagged behind in terms of development which trigger various socio-economic phenomenon such out-migration. Therefore, understanding the geography of Bihar is essential for any kind of analysis and discussion.

5.1 Brief Profile of State

Bihar is a state which is entirely land-locked and is located in the eastern part of the country. It is surrounded by “Nepal in the north, Jharkhand in the south, Madhya Pradesh in the west and West Bengal in the east”. The mighty River Ganga flows in the state from west to east and splits it unequally into two parts, the North Bihar Plain and South Bihar Plain.

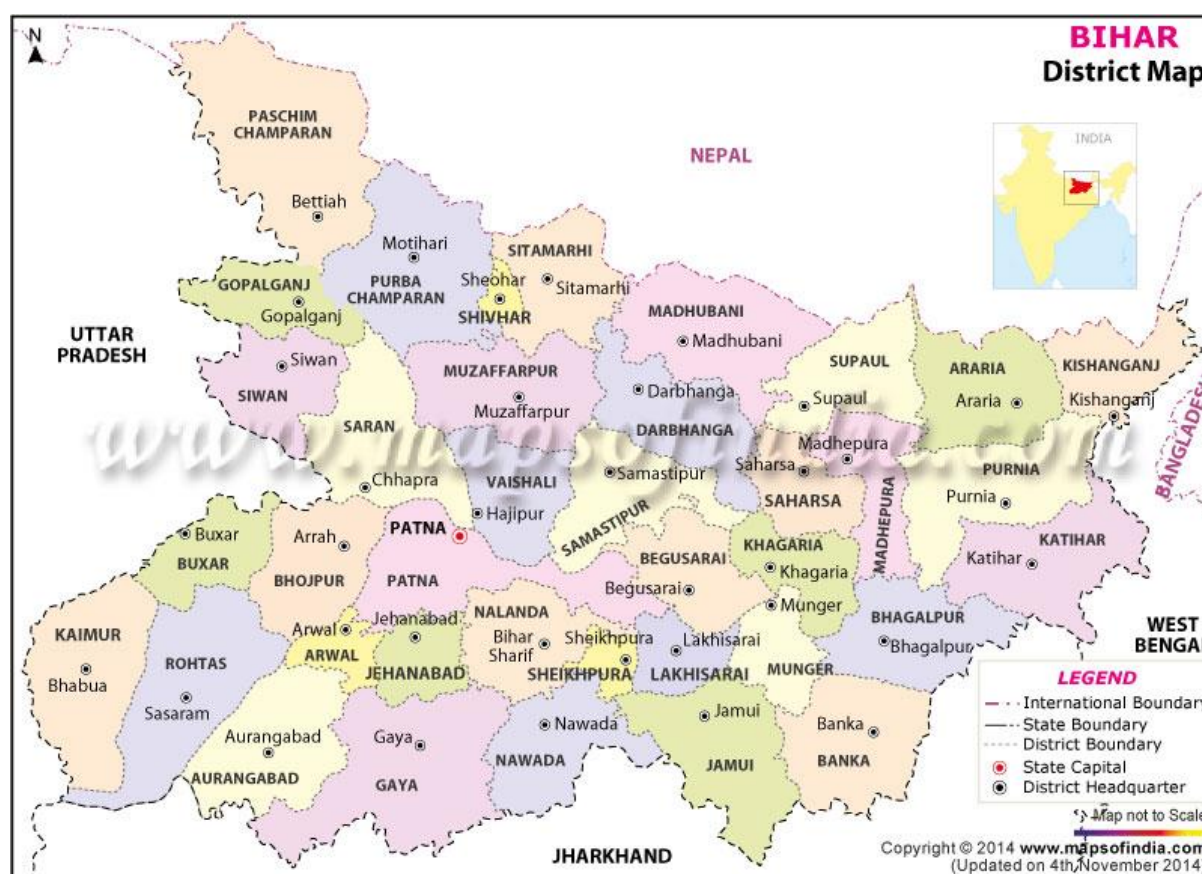
The old Bihar state was bifurcated into two states in the year 2000, namely Bihar and Jharkhand. . Bihar covers an area of about 94,163 km² (36,357 sq. miles) which is 2.86 % of India's total area. For the administrative purposes, Bihar state is divided into 9 divisions and 38 districts. There are 12 Municipal Corporations, 49 Nagar Parishads, and 80 Nagar Panchayats in Bihar.

Table 5. 1 Administrative Divisions, Bihar

Details	2001	2011
No. of Divisions	9	9
No. of Districts	37	38
No. of Sub-Districts	101	101
No. of Towns	130	199
No. of Villages	45,098	44,875

Source: Census 2001, 2011.

Map 5. 1 Administrative Boundary of Bihar



Source: www.mapsofindia.com

5.1.1 Brief History of Bihar

The state Bihar got its name as ‘Bihar’ from a Sanskrit and Pali word ‘Vihara’, meaning “abode”. Buddha got enlightenment in Bodhgaya, a city in central Bihar, which gave birth to the great religion called Buddhism. It is only after flourishing in the state of Bihar, Buddhism

disperse to other places of the world, mostly to the East and South-East Asia. That's why this State was "dotted with the abodes of Buddhist monks" called as Buddhist viharas during ancient and medieval periods. In this way, from "Vihara" it transformed into "Bihar", and this state got its name.

Bihar, a unique state which is endowed with a very rich history and has a glorious past. It was not only the centre of power but also a centre of learning and culture. Bihar gets mention in the Vedas, Puranas, epics, etc. and according to mythological stories, Sita, wife of Lord Rama, was a princess of the state of Bihar. Her father, Janak, was the King of Videha, which is the ancient kingdom in north-central Bihar including the present-day districts of Muzaffarpur, Sitamarhi, Samastipur, Madhubani and Darbhanga. Punaura, the birthplace of Mata Sita, also located in the west of the Sitamarhi, Bihar. The author of Hindu epic 'Ramayana' named Maharishi Valmiki said to have dwelled in a place presently recognised as Valmikinagar, which is a small town in West Champaran district of Bihar. Bihar is the place where the main activities of Buddha and 24 Jain Tirthankars found. Bihar often called as a birth place of Buddhism as Gautama Buddha attained enlightenment here in the place named "Bodh Gaya" and also "delivered his first sermon" which is termed as "Dharma Chakra Pravartana" and also announced his "Parinirvana". The documentation of history of Bihar began by the advent of Buddhist and Jain as before this, its past history's major events and happening were not documented. It is from these texts people got to know about the existence of the sixteen Mahajanapadas (Monarchies and Republics) which flourished during the 6th century BC. Vardhman Mahavir, founder of Jainism, born in Kundagram, Hajipur, Vaishali district of Bihar. Vaishali is also "one of the first known republic existed even before the birth of Mahavira". According to the Jain text, he was the 24th Trithankara. He attained nirvana (death) in Pawapuri which again also located in Bihar. Shri Guru Gobind Singh, the 10th and the last Sikh's Guru, also born in the state of Bihar and has attained sainthood (became a Guru) of Sikhism. In his memory, a majestic Gurudwara named Harmandir, also called Patna Sahib, has also been built in Patna.

"The ancient kingdoms of Magadh and of Licchavis, around about 7-8th century B.C., produced rulers and nobles who devised a system of administration that truly is progenitor of modern science of statecraft. Kautilya, the authored of Arthashastra, who author treatise in the science of statecraft, economic policy and military strategy, lived in Bihar. Also known as Chanakya, he was the teacher, guardian and adviser of the Magadh king, Chandragupta Maurya. As an emissary of Chandragupta Maurya, Chanakya travelled far and wide in pursuit

of promoting the interests of the State and dealing with the Greek invaders, settled in the northwest of India, along the Indus valley. He not only succeeded in preventing the further onslaught of the Greeks but brought an amicable co-existence between the Greeks and the Mauryan Empire. Megasthenes, an emissary of Alexander's General, Seleucus Nicator, lived in Pataliputra (ancient name of Patna, the Mauryan capital) around 302 B.C. He left behind a chronicle of life in and around Patliputra. This is the first recorded account by a foreign traveller in India. It describes in vivid terms the grandeur of life in Patliputra, a city established by King Ajatshatru, in around 5th Century B.C., at the confluence of the rivers Sone and Ganga.”⁸³

Ashoka (also known as Priyadarshi or Priyadassi), around 270 B.C., is the most important king of Maurya dynasty. He was the first who “formulate firm tenets for the governance. He had these tenets, popularly known as Edicts of Ashok, inscribed on stone pillars which were erected across his kingdom. The pillars were crowned with the statue of one or more lions sitting on top of a pedestal which was inscribed with symbols of wheels. The lion symbolises strength, the wheel symbolises the eternal (endless) nature of truth (dharma), hence the name Dharma (or Dhamma) Chakra. This figure of lions, atop a pedestal, with inscription of a wheel, was adopted as the Official Seal of the independent Republic of India (1947). Also, Ashok's dharma chakra was incorporated into the national flag of India, the Indian Tricolor. Remains of a few of these pillars still exist in places such as Lauriya-Nandan Garh in the district of West Champaran and at Vaishali, in Vaishali district. Ashok, a contemporary of Ptolemy and Euclid, was a great conqueror. His empire extended from what is now the North West Frontier Province (in Pakistan) in the west, to the eastern boundaries of present India in the north, and certainly, up to the Vindhyan Range in the south. Ashok was responsible also for the widespread proselytization of people into Buddhism.”

“The glorious history of Bihar lasted till around the middle of the 7th or 8th century A.D. during the Gupta Period with the conquest of northern India by invaders from the middle-east. In medieval times, Bihar's prestige as the political and cultural centre of India faded considerably. The state suffered immensely due to Hunnic and later Muslim invasions, and the old traditions of culture and learning was almost lost by the end of 12th century. The Muhammad Bin Bakhtiar Khilji in 12th century C.E. destroyed many of the viharas (Buddhist sanghas) and the famed universities of Nalanda (the world's first university of higher learning was established during the Gupta period) and Vikramshila. Thousands of Buddhist monks were massacred.

⁸³ <https://state.bihar.gov.in/main/SectionInformation.html?editForm&rowId=1>

Some of the remarkable period in Bihar in medieval times was the rise of Sher Shah, or Sher Khan Sur, an Afghan in the 15th century. Based in Sasaram, which is now headquarter town of Rohtas, Sher Shah was a jagirdar of the Mughal King Babur and was successful in defeating his son Humayun once at Chausa and then at Kannauj (in the present state of Uttar Pradesh) Through his conquest Sher Shah became the ruler of a territory which extended all the way to the Punjab. He was noted as a ferocious warrior and a noble administrator. Several acts of land reform are attributed to him. The remains of a grand mausoleum that he built for himself can be seen in Sasaram (Sher Shah's maqbara.)⁸⁴

Over the centuries, there were no much change found in the culture and lifestyle of the Bihari people. It was during the Indian independence struggle against the British rule, resurgence in the history of Bihar came into effect. “During most of British India, Bihar was a part of the Presidency of Bengal, and was governed from Calcutta. A prominent figure that emerged from Bihar during India’s struggle of Independence was Dr. Rajendra Prasad who later became the first President of free India. Dr. Prasad was native of Jiradei in the district of Saran. Bihar and Orissa separated from Bengal Presidency in 1912 as a single province and later Orissa became a separate province under the Government of India Act of 1935 and thus Bihar became an administrative unit of British India. At the time of Independence in 1947, the State of Bihar, with the same geographic boundary, formed a part of the Republic of India, until 1956. At that time, in 1956, an area in the south-east, predominantly the district of Purulia, was separated and incorporated into West Bengal as part of the Linguistic Reorganization of Indian States.” In 2000, Bihar again divided in two separate state, northern part remain as Bihar whereas the southern part, containing most of the Chota Nagpur plateau named as Jharkhand.

Bihar is a state which consistently played an imperative and active role in the successive stages of Indian independence. Many people from Bihar contributed in the struggle of India’s independence. “Bihar's contribution in the struggle of freedom dates back to 1957. Babu Kunwar Singh led the Indian Rebellion of 1857 in Bihar. He was nearly eighty and in failing health when he was called upon to take up arms. He gave a good fight and harried British forces for nearly a year and remained invincible until the end. He was an expert in the art of guerilla warfare. His tactics left the British puzzled. Singh assumed command of the soldiers who had revolted at Danapur on 25 July. Two days later he occupied Arrah, the district headquarters. Major Vincent Eyre relieved the town on 3 August, defeated Singh's force and destroyed

⁸⁴ <https://state.bihar.gov.in/main/SectionInformation.html?editForm&rowId=1>

Jagdishpur. In his last battle, fought on 23 April 1858, near Jagdispur, the troops under the control of the East India Company were completely routed. On 22 and 23 April, being injured he fought bravely against the British Army and with the help of his army drove away the British Army, brought down the Union Jack from Jagdishpur Fort and hoisted his flag. He returned to his palace on 23 April 1858 and soon died on 26 April 1858.”

It was Bihar, from where Mahatma Gandhi launched his movement of civil-disobedience, which eventually led to independence of India. “In 1917, at the persistent request of a farmer named Raj Kumar Shukla from the district of Champaran, Gandhi ji took a train ride to Motihari. Here he got to know the plight of the indigo farmers suffering under the oppressive rule of the British. Alarmed at the tumultuous reception of Gandhi ji in Champaran, the British authorities served notice on him to leave the Province of Bihar. Gandhi ji refused to comply, stating the right of an Indian to freely travel anywhere in his own country. For this act of defiance he was detained in the district jail at Motihari. From his jail cell, with the help of his friend from South Africa days, C. F. Andrews, Gandhi ji managed to send letters to journalists and the Viceroy of India describing what he saw in Champaran, and made formal demands for the emancipation of these people. When produced in court, the Magistrate ordered his release on the condition of furnishing bail bond. Gandhi ji refused to furnish the bail. Instead, he indicated his preference to remain in jail. Alarmed at the huge response he was receiving from the people of Champaran, the magistrate set him free, without any precondition. This was the first instance of the success of civil-disobedience as a tool to win freedom. After this incident, British for the first time, noticed Gandhi ji as a national leader and realized the power of civil disobedience. What Raj Kumar Shukla had started and the massive response people of Champaran gave to Gandhiji, catapulted India’s struggle for free India. Therefore, in 1917, a series of events ignited in a remote corner of Bihar led to the massive movement for independence across the country till India gained freedom in 1947. Therefore, many people from Bihar became leading participants in India's struggle for independence.”⁸⁵

Another important personality belonging to Bihar who rose to leadership was Jay Prakash Narayan, often called as JP affectionately. He contributed substantially to modern Indian history till his death took place in 1979. He was the person who led a movement that resultant in huge victory of a non-congress government i.e. the Janata Party, at Delhi, for the first time.

⁸⁵ <https://state.bihar.gov.in/main/SectionInformation.html?editForm&rowId=1>

It is in the year 2005, “the people of Bihar handed over the reins of power to Nitish Government with full hope and confidence. Shri Kumar is known for his endeavour to establish the rule of law and to move on the path of justice with development. By including all segments of the society together, he laid the foundation of the programme of Good Governance, transparency and all-inclusive growth. He formulated programmes of Good Governance first for the period 2005-2010 and then for 2010-2015. Within a period of only a few years Shri Kumar has revamped many public organisations and systems. On one hand he succeeded in establishing effective law and order and rule of law while on the other hand he achieved greater height in the development of Human Resource along with good infrastructure. Reservation to women in PRIs and ULBs, steps towards women empowerment, Right to Public Service Act, Bihar Public Grievance Redressal System, Campaign against Child Marriage and Dowry System, enforcement of Prohibition, Agriculture Road Map, Start up Policy, Seven Resolves, unprecedented progress in Power and Road sector are some of the initiatives which have brought paramount change in socio-economic and administrative scenario.”⁸⁶

Bihar is well known not only for its rich history but also for its geographical locations, natural resources as well as beauty and mythological importance. The following sections throw light on Bihar’s geographic, physiographic profile, climate, soil, Drainage, etc.

5.1.2 Geographic and Physiographic Profile

5.1.2.1 Location

Bihar is a state which is completely land-locked and is located in the eastern part of the country. It extended from 24°20' 10"N to 27° 31' 15"N latitude and between 83° 19' 50"E to 88° 17' 40" E longitudes. Bihar covers an area of about 94,163 km² (36,357 sq. miles) which is 2.86 % of India’s total area and ranked 12th in terms of area amongst all states and UTs of India. It is roughly quadrilateral in shape. Its north to south extension is about 605 km whereas east to west extension is about 483 km. The closest outlet to the sea is through the Kolkata port. It lies between sub-humid Uttar Pradesh and humid West Bengal which provides it an intermediate position in terms of climate, culture and economy.

⁸⁶ Ibid

5.1.2.2 *Physiography*

Bihar is a state which lies in-between Himalaya Mountain in the North and Chota Nagpur plateau in the South. The state of Bihar can be divided into three physiographic regions:

1) Hilly areas (Shiwalik Ranges and Terai Region)

The extension of Shiwalik Ranges as well as its Terai Region are seen in North-western part of Western Champaran in Bihar. A range of low hills which is about 30 km long can be found in this region. Beneath these hills, an elongated moist Terai region have been extended southward and eastward. This kind of land is mostly covered by the forest, marshy land and braided river channels. Sub-terai belt of marshy land can be found when one goes further south. It covers an area of 932 sq. km. This region epitomise Tertiary Rock system. This region can be further subdivided into three parts:

i) Ramnagar Doon ii) Someshwar Ranges iii) Harha Valley

2) Plain areas (The Ganga Plains)

Most of the part of the Bihar state is plain, except few regions in the extreme northwest and extreme south, which is formed by the deposition of sediments by the River Ganga, Gandak, Ghagra, etc. and their tributaries. The River Ganga divides Bihar state into two physiographic regions-the North Bihar Plains and the South Bihar Plains. These two regions together form a part of the middle Gangetic Plain.

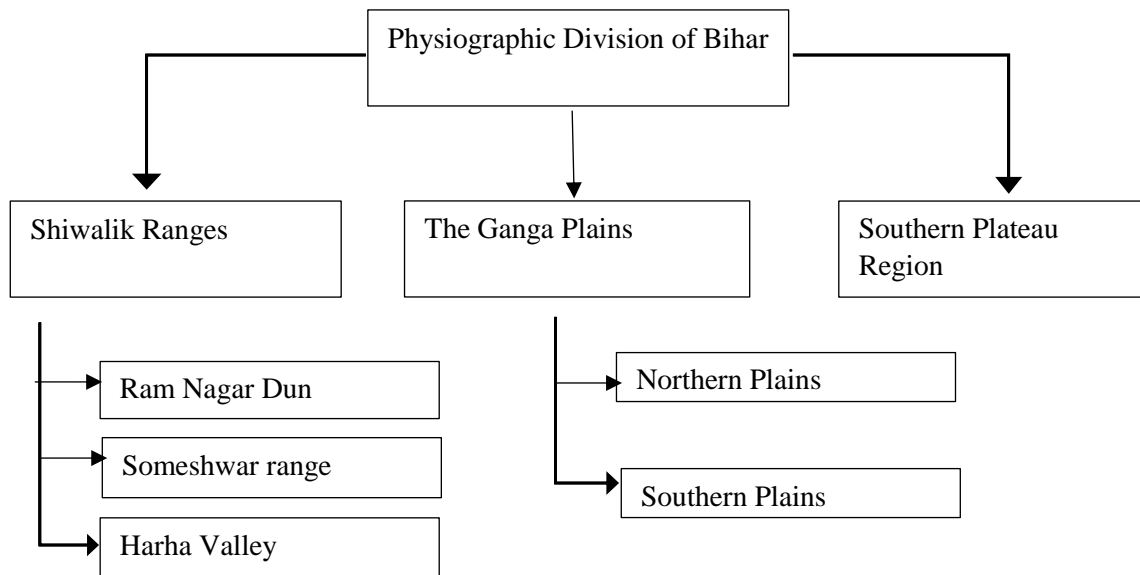
i)The North Bihar plain formed by the Rivers like Ghagra, Gandak, Bagmati, Kamala balan, Kosi, and Mahananda, etc. which drains down from the Himalayas of Nepal. Many of these rivers, especially the Kosi River which is often called as the “Sorrow of Bihar”, regularly bring flood in this region due to the notorious nature of changing their course frequently. The soil of this region constitutes of mostly new alluvium. The North Bihar plain consist of Ghaghar Plains, Gandak Plains, Bagmati Plains, Kamla Plains, Kosi Plain Mahananda Plains.

ii) South Bihar Plain is found to be more varied than the North Bihar Plain as it is also marked by many hills rising from the alluvium. The important rivers of South Bihar plain are Son, Punpun and Falgu. Except Son, all southern rives are small. The soil of this region constitutes of mostly old alluvium. South Bihar Plain consists of Sahabad Plains, Central South Bihar Plains, Tal Region, Kiul Plains, Chandan Plains.

3) Southern Plateau Region (outliers of Chotanagpur plateau)

This region lies in the extreme south of the South Bihar Plain. Geologically, this region is found to be composed up of hard rocks of Genesis, Schist and Granite. Many conical hills made up of batholiths are found in this region such as Pretshila, Ramshila and Jhethian hills, etc. The western part of this region represents the extension of Chhotanagpur Plateau and include districts like Kaimur, Rohtas, Aurangabad, Gaya, Nawada and few parts of Jamui. However, its eastern part is the extension of Rajmahal Hills (oldest part in Bihar) and spread in Bhagalpur, Munger, Banka and some parts of Jamui.

Fig. 5. 1 Physiographic Division of Bihar



5.1.2.3 Drainage

Bihar is bounded by the Himalaya from the north and plateau from the south. These are the sources of all the rivers flowing here. Though, Bihar is entirely a landlocked state, it is very abundant in water resources whether ground water or the surface water resources. The most important source of surface water in Bihar is its river system other than the rain water. The Ganga river play a very prominent role in the river system of Bihar as it provides water for the recharge of the ground water, for the purpose of drinking, day to day use by the habitants, irrigation, industrial and other commercial uses. “The river known as the Ganges is officially and popularly known by its Hindu name, Ganga. It is a snow fed and major river of the Indian

subcontinent. The river has its source at Gaumakh in the southern Himalayan Glaciers on the Indian side of the Tibetan border. It crosses the cities: Gangotri Haridwar, Kanpur, Allahabad, Varanasi, Ghazipur in UP and enter in the boundary of Bihar at Chausa, near Buxar after its confluence with Karmanasa. It is joined by the three great effluents - the Ghaghra, the Gandak, and the Son and their tributaries in Patna district. Further Punpun joins it at Fatuha in Patna district, Koshi joins it at khagaria district while the Harohar and the Kiul join it near Surajgarha, District - Lakhisarai. It passes through the cities& towns- Patna, Barh, Mokama, Begusarai, Munger, Khagaria, Bhagalpur, Kahalgaon, Pirpainti, in Bihar and exit to Saheb ganj in Jharkhand and then to West Bengal, where the river begins with the branching away. One branch of the river goes on to form the River Hooghly in West Bengal. Close to the border with Bangladesh, the other enters to Bangladesh and the branch of the Ganges is known as Padma and ultimately all meet to the sea (Bay of Bengal). The Ganges river basin is one of the most fertile and densely populated in the world. There are two major dams on the Ganga. One at Haridwar in UP and the other dam is at Farakka in West Bengal.”⁸⁷

Along with the river Ganges, other important rivers like Ghaghar, Gandhak, Burhi Gandhak, Kosi, Mahananda (joins Ganga from the north) and Karmanasa, Sone, Punpun, Phalgu, Sakri and Kiul (joins Ganga from the south) also make contribution towards the water availability in Bihar not only for the agricultural purposes but also for the non-agricultural purposes. “Bihar’s agriculture is mainly rain fed, drawing its water resources from south-west monsoons and only around 57 percent of the cultivated area in the state is irrigated. Erratic rainfall and frequent occurrence of droughts and floods pose stress on crop production cycles and yields. In the Agriculture Road Map-III, the efforts of the state government have been outlined towards facilitating water availability in rainfall deficit regions and addressing the issues of water logging in rainfall surplus regions of Bihar. Along with specific schemes to boost climate-resilience agriculture and access to credit, the availability of irrigated water and setting up of irrigation structures has helped in ensuring agricultural production in the state.”⁸⁸

5.1.2.4 Climate

Bihar falls under a sub-tropical temperate zone and its climate is of sub-tropical humid in nature, with hot summers and cold winters. Temperature seems to vary from a maximum of 43°C found to be in summer to a minimum of approx. 5°C found in the winters. It is a huge

⁸⁷ http://bhenvi.nic.in/water_resources.html

⁸⁸ Economy Survey of Bihar (2018-19), Finance Department, Government of Bihar.

extension of fertile plain, majorly drained by the mighty Ganga River and its tributaries (Gandak, Ghagra, Kosi, etc.). Bihar encounters four seasons every year. It experiences “the winter season from December to February followed by the pre-monsoon or hot weather season from March to May. The period from June to September constitutes the southwest monsoon season. The period of October and November is the post monsoon season.”⁸⁹

According to the Koppen’s Climate classification, which is broadly based temperature and rainfall, “the state mainly comes under the climate type: subtropical monsoon, mild and dry winter, hot summer (Cwa) except the districts viz. Jamui, Banka, Munger, Lakhisarai, Khagaria, Shekhpura and some parts of Bhagalpur, Saharsa and Begusarai located in the extreme southeastern part of the state which come under the type: Tropical Savanna, Hot, seasonally dry (usually winter) (Aw).”⁹⁰

The distribution of monsoon rainfall found in the state is significantly affected by the presence of the Himalaya Mountains in the north. Medium to heavy rainfall received by the Bihar state during the monsoon. On an average Bihar has 1052.60 mms rainfall.

Most of the rainfall in the state is because of the South-West Monsoon which records for nearly 85 per cent of the over-all rainfall occurring in Bihar. The rest 15 per cent of rainfall comes from the sources like winter rain, hot weather rain and North-West Monsoon. The average normal rainfall in Bihar is found to be more or less sufficient for all kinds of its agricultural operations. Though, the rainfall varies on year to year basis and causes situations like drought or flood in the state. This situation, sometimes leads to extensive damage to the production of the crops and the overall income of the Bihar state.⁹¹

5.1.2.5 Soils

The two most important natural resources of Bihar are the soils and the vegetation. The nature of the soils and vegetation determine most of the economic activities, directly or indirectly, of the State. Thus, one can say that the foundation of its agricultural and industrial development formed by its soil and vegetation.

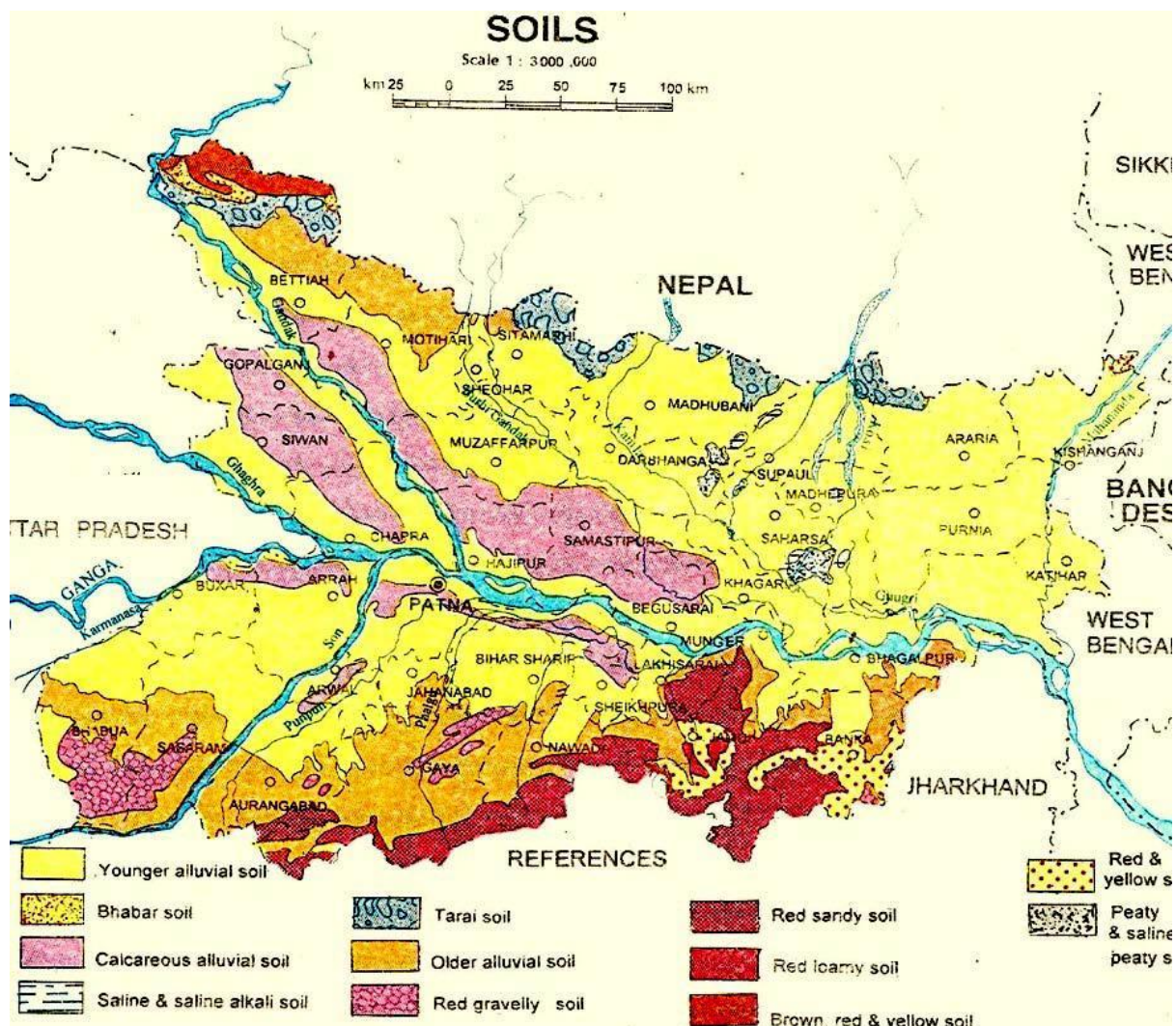
⁸⁹ Indian Meteorological Department (2011) “Climate of Bihar”, Additional Director General of Meteorology (Research), Pune.

⁹⁰ Ibid. p.4

⁹¹ *The Energy and Resources Institute (TERI)* (2013) “Environmental Assessment and Environmental Management Framework for the state of Bihar”, Inception Report, New Delhi.

“The soil covering most of Bihar is thick alluvium which shrouds the Siwalik and older tertiary rocks. The soil is mostly fresh loam replaced every year by intermittent deposition of silt, clay and sand by different rivers. It lacks phosphoric acid, nitrogen and humus but potash and lime are generally present in large amounts. There are three important types of soil in Bihar: 1) Piedmont Swamp Soil - found in north-western section of west Champaran district. 2) Terai Soil - found in northern section of the state along Nepal border. 3) Gangetic Alluvium - covering the Bihar plains.”

Map 5. 2 Types of Soil in Bihar



Source: Inception Report (2013) for study on “Environmental Assessment and Environmental Management Framework for the state of Bihar”, The Energy and Resources Institute (TERI), New Delhi.

5.1.2.6 Land Use

Land is a very important natural resource for any kind of developmental activity. Rational use of land is very essential for its implications on supply of food, growth of economy and management of ecosystem. Total geographical area of Bihar is about 9.4 million hectares which is 2.86 % of India's total area whereas Bihar's share in over-all population of India is about 8.6 %. If one goes through the land use data of Bihar from 2012-13 to 2016-17, "the data reveals that the land use pattern has remained nearly unchanged over the last few years. The area under forests as a proportion of total area has remained constant at 6.6 percent over the last 5 years at 6.22 lakh hectares. This pattern continues for areas such as barren and unculturable land (4.6 percent), land under tree crops (2.6 percent), fallow land (1.3 percent), culturable waste land (0.5 percent), area under permanent pastures (0.2 percent), and water bodies (3.8 percent) over the five-year period. Gross cropped area (GCA) stood at 76.54 lakh hectares in 2016-17. The cropping intensity in the state has increased marginally from 1.44 in 2012-13 to 1.45 in 2016-17. The slight increase in total unculturable land between 2012-13 and 2016-17 was on account of increase in area under current fallows, which increased to 8.68 lakh hectare in 2016-17 from 7.67 lakh hectare in 2012-13. There has been a marginal decrease in net sown area (NSA) which represents the actual cultivated area during the agricultural year. The NSA decreased from 54.02 lakh hectares in 2012-13 to 52.93 lakh hectares in 2016-17. Overall, about 56.55 percent of the land was under cultivation in Bihar during 2016-17."⁹²

⁹² Finance Department of Bihar (2018-19) "Economy Survey of Bihar", Government of Bihar.

Table 5. 1 Land Utilisation pattern in Bihar (2012-13 to 2016-17)

Land Use	(Area in '000 hectares)				
	2012-13	2013-14	2014-15	2015-16	2016-17
Geographical Area	9359.57 (100)	9359.57 (100)	9359.57 (100)	9359.57 (100)	9359.57 (100)
1. Forests	621.64 (6.64)	621.64 (6.64)	621.64 (6.64)	621.64 (6.64)	621.64 (6.64)
2. Barren & Unculturable Land	431.72 (4.61)	431.72 (4.61)	431.72 (4.61)	431.72 (4.61)	431.72 (4.61)
3. Land put to Non-agricultural use	1708.37 (18.25)	1712.29 (18.29)	1712.1 (18.29)	1713.02 (18.3)	1718.59 (18.36)
Land Area	1352.89 (14.45)	1356.8 (14.5)	1359.77 (14.53)	1360.65 (14.54)	1366.15 (14.6)
Water Area	355.48 (3.8)	355.49 (3.8)	352.33 (3.76)	352.37 (3.76)	352.44 (3.77)
4. Culturable Waste	45.02 (0.48)	44.89 (0.48)	44.67 (0.48)	44.46 (0.48)	44.41 (0.47)
5. Permanent Pastures	15.6 (0.17)	15.47 (0.17)	15.33 (0.16)	15.23 (0.16)	15.14 (0.16)
6. Land under Tree Crops	246.34 (2.63)	247.36 (2.64)	247.81 (2.65)	247.95 (2.65)	248.05 (2.65)
7. Fallow Land (excl. Current Fallow)	121.78 (1.3)	120.49 (1.29)	119.41 (1.28)	119.24 (1.27)	119.08 (1.27)
8. Current Fallow	766.7 (8.19)	913.49 (9.76)	888.59 (9.49)	961.42 (10.27)	868.01 (9.27)
Total Unculturable Land (1 to 8)	3957.17 (42.28)	4107.32 (43.88)	4081.27 (43.61)	4154.68 (44.39)	4066.64 (43.45)
Net Sown Area	5402.39 (57.72)	5252.25 (56.12)	5278.32 (56.39)	5204.89 (55.61)	5292.93 (56.55)
Gross Sown Area	7777.52	7580.14	7672.95	7572.41	7654.36
Cropping Intensity	1.44	1.44	1.45	1.45	1.45

Note : The figures in parentheses denote percentage share in total geographical area
Source : Directorate of Economics and Statistics, GOB

5.1.3 Landholdings in Bihar

Bihar is not only the third populous state of India but it is also the densest state having 1106 per sq. km density of population (Census, 2011). Along with the above said and fragmentation of landholdings has increased the “demand for the land for alternative uses other than agriculture” in the recent years. If one observe the distribution of land holdings data of Bihar for the two years, 2010-11 and 2015-16 (provisional data), “About 91.2 percent of Bihar’s farm households are marginal (holdings of less than 1 hectare), accounting for 57.7 percent of total land area in 2015-16. The average land holding size is very small in Bihar at 0.39 hectare in 2015-16. Merely 3 percent of the farm households have semi-medium and medium size land holdings in 2015-16 in the state. As regards the number of holdings, it has increased only for the category of marginal, in all the other categories recording a decrease. This indicates a slight increase in the inequality of landholdings in Bihar over the period of five years. Such inequality in land holding and fragmentation of land are serious deterrents for agricultural growth in Bihar.”⁹³

⁹³ Ibid. pp. 82-83.

Table 5. 2 Distribution of Landholdings in Bihar

Size Class	Number of Operational Holdings ('000)			Area of Operational Holdings ('000 hectares)			Average Size of Operational Holdings (Hectares)	
	2015-16	2010-11	Percentage Change	2015-16	2010-11	Percentage Change	2015-16	2010-11
Marginal	14971	14744	1.54	3728	3669	1.61	0.25	0.25
Small	944	948	-0.45	1178	1186	-0.64	1.25	1.25
Semi-Medium	414	415	-0.16	1076	1073	0.26	2.60	2.59
Medium	81	81	-0.09	431	415	3.75	5.29	5.09
Large	3	3	-1.28	45	45	-1.12	14.48	14.45
All	16413	16191	1.37	6457	6388	-1.09	0.39	0.39

Note : Percentage variation is based on absolute figures, Data for 2015-16 are Phase-I (Provisional Results)

Source : Agriculture Census, 2015-16

5.1.4 Demography

Natural endowments play a very important role and are indispensable but it does not always guarantee development. “It is the people who bring about socio-economic transformation of an area. Humans are the pivotal factor as well as the sole beneficiary of development Process.” In this context, Bihar with a population of 10.42 crore (54, 278, 157 males, 49, 821, 295 females), which is approx. 8.6 per cent of overall population of India, ranked as 3rd most populous state of India. Major proportion of Bihar’s population (i.e. 58 %) is below 25 years of age which is the highest amongst other states of India. It is the densest state having 1106 per sq. km density of population. It is predominantly an agrarian society as most of the Bihar’s population (i.e. 89 %) resides in the rural regions. It is found that during 2001-2010, Bihar’s urban population although increased at a faster rate, its urbanisation level hardly increased, showing augmentation of pressure not only on rural land but also on rural resources. In terms of urbanisation rate, it ranked the second lowest in India.

Bihar lagged far behind than most of the other Indian states in terms of demographic transition, it is also impacted by its high population growth rate. Considered in the world perspective, if the state of Bihar assumed as a country, it would be the 12th largest country in the world in terms of the population size (United Nation, 2013c, pp. 51-55). Its decadal population growth rate has increased by 25 percent (Census 2001-2011). However, it “represents a meagre decline from the decadal population growth rate 28.6 percent during 1991-2001, Bihar has still higher population increase than national average of 17.6 percent”.

Table 5. 3 Population Size, Growth and Distribution

Place	Tot. Pop. (2011)		Urban Pop. (%)		Decadal Pop. Growth rate 2001-11	
	Rural	Urban	2001	2011	Rural	Urban
Bihar	92341436	11758016	10.46	11.29	24.25	35.43
India	833087662	377105760	27.82	31.16	12.20	31.80

Source: Registrar General of India (2001c, 2011b)

Further, if one focus on the composition of religion, majority of Bihar's population is Hindu which is about 82.7 % whereas Muslims are in minority and their proportion is 16.9 % among total population. The remaining 0.4 % of population belongs to Christians, Buddhists, Jain and Sikhs.

Bihar has a very rigid caste system which affects and influence the daily life of its population and also its politics. As per Census 2011, population of Scheduled Caste in Bihar is 15.91 %. These are overwhelmingly rural with most of its population living in rural areas. Large percentage of SCs found in Gaya district followed by Nawada. There are about 23 Scheduled Castes in Bihar and almost all of them enumerated in Census. The proportion of Scheduled Tribe found in Bihar is about 1.28 % (census 2011) and the same for OBCs is 62.6 % (NSSO Report No. 563: Employment and Unemployment Situation among Social). A total 29 Scheduled Tribes are found in Bihar and most of them resides in rural areas. These are mostly found in Katihar district followed by Jamui whereas they are found in least proportion in Sheohar district.

As per Census 2011, 918 females per 1000 males is the sex-ratio of Bihar whereas it was 921 females per 1000 males in 2001, this decrease is not a good indication. However, in case of child sex-ratio, it has increased from 908 (2001) to 933 (2011) females per 1000 males. The highest sex-ratio found in Gopalgunj district followed by Siwan and Saran whereas it is lowest in Bagalpur and Munger.

5.1.5 Education

A decent quality of education acts like a building block of development and prosperity of any country. Education is the utmost powerful tool which have the capacity to bring a positive changes in the person's economic conditions, health status and social environment. Accessibility, equity and quality of educational institution constitutes educational needs. Education facilitates upward socio-economic mobility. Education is a key to eradicate poverty

and it has potential to transform the lives of the people. It provides knowledge to the people about their rights, various laws, rules and regulations. Education is a human right and it should be provided to all irrespective of caste, class, race and religion.

There are three main pillars of the Indian education, these are – Elementary [Primary (Grades I-V), Upper Primary (Grades VI-VIII)], Secondary [Secondary (Grades IX-X), Higher Secondary (Grades XI-XII) and Higher (the academic stream and the vocational stream)]. A progress in education of any country or state can be measured “taking into consideration of both the educational inputs and the outputs”. “Educational inputs include number of educational institutions and financial expenditure whereas outputs include assessing literacy rate, enrolment ratio and dropout rates.”

5.1.5.1 Literacy Rate

Literacy rate is one of the paramount indicators of social development. It is referred as “the percentage of literates to the total population age 7 years and above”. Bihar is the state which has lowest literacy rate since many decades. If one compare the Hindi heartland states in terms of decadal variation in literacy rate, it is noticed that the literacy rate of Bihar remained lower throughout except in the year 1961 when its literacy rate became highest amongst the states of Hindi heartland. “All states of Hindi heartland have shown higher literacy rates in past decades as compared to Bihar. Fortunately, during the last decade the literacy rate of the state has improved significantly, from 47.0 percent in 2001 to 61.8 percent in 2011. This implies an increase of 14.8 percentage points. It is worthy to note that this decadal increase is not only the highest among all decadal growth rates in Bihar since 1961, it is also the highest among all the states for the decade 2001-11.”⁹⁴

⁹⁴ Ibid. p. 334

Table 5. 4 Literacy Rate Trends in Hindi Heartland States (1961-2011)

Hindi Heartland States	1961	1971	1981	1991	2001	2011
Bihar	21.95	23.17	32.32	37.49	47.00	61.80
Chhattisgarh	18.14	24.08	32.63	42.91	64.66	70.30
Haryana	–	25.71	37.13	55.85	67.91	75.60
Jharkhand	21.14	23.87	35.03	41.39	53.56	66.40
Madhya Pradesh	21.41	27.27	38.63	44.67	63.74	69.30
Rajasthan	18.12	22.57	30.11	38.55	60.41	66.10
Uttar Pradesh	20.87	23.99	32.65	40.71	56.27	67.70
Uttarakhand	18.05	33.26	46.06	57.75	71.62	78.80
India	28.30	34.45	43.57	52.21	64.84	74.04

Source: Census of India

The educational progress of any state depends on the development of its three pillars- elementary, secondary and higher education sectors. For the state like Bihar, which is a socially disadvantaged state, education is very important. In this regard, elementary education sector should be given highest importance as this provides students to the secondary sector and secondary sector provides students to the higher education sector. There are about 42,825 primary schools, and 30,156 upper primary school, totalling 72,981 elementary schools in Bihar. There are two vital indices i.e. enrolment ratio and dropout rate which reveal the status of the educational sectors. The availability of educational infrastructural facilities such as schools, teachers, etc. affects these two indicators. This is predominantly imperative for Bihar where major proportion of the families live in the rural regions and rely completely on government schools.

5.1.5.2 Enrolment Ratio

Enrolment Ratio is one of the imperative indicators used in determining educational development. The two major kinds of enrolment ratio are- Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER) and Net Enrolment Ratio (NER). GER defined as “Total enrolment in a specific level of education, regardless of age, expressed as a percentage of the eligible official school-age population corresponding to the same level of education in a given school-year. It is calculated by dividing the number of pupils (or students) enrolled in a given level of education regardless of age by the population of the age-group which corresponds to the given level of education and

multiplying the result by 100.” Whereas NER “is the number of boys and girls of the age of a particular level of education that are enrolled in that level of education, expressed as a percentage of the total population in that age group.” “During 2012-13 to 2016-17, total enrolment in elementary classes has increased at an annual rate of 2.3 percent from 214.87 lakh in 2012-13 to 235.64 lakh in 2016-17. The enrolment in upper primary classes has also been growing at an annual rate of 5.0 percent from 60.36 lakh in 2012- 13 to 73.33 lakh in 2016-17. The annual growth rate of enrolment at primary level over this period was 1.1 percent. The total enrolment in primary level was 162.32 lakh in 2016-17, increasing from 154.51 lakh in 2012-13. As regards to the total enrolment for boys and girls, the enrolment of girl students is increasing at a faster rate than for the boys. A similar trend of higher rate of increase for enrolment of girl students is also observed for students belonging to disadvantaged categories like SC and ST. Overall, the gender gap in elementary education is decreasing gradually, as the growth rate of enrolment of girls was 2.3 percent during 2012-13 to 2016-17, compared to 2.2 percent for the boys.”⁹⁵

⁹⁵ Ibid. p. 335

Table 5. 5 Total Enrolment in Primary and Upper Primary Levels (2012-13 to 2016-17)

(Number in lakh)

Level/Type of Students		2012-13	2013-14	2014-15	2015-16	2016-17	CAGR
Primary							
Boys	Combined	79.74	83.34	83.72	84.4	83.97	1.2
	SC	14.5	15.81	15.58	16.01	15.98	2.1
	ST	1.59	1.64	1.7	1.81	1.83	3.9
Girls	Combined	74.77	77.86	77.63	78.96	78.35	1.1
	SC	13.21	14.47	14.39	14.8	14.89	2.7
	ST	1.33	1.36	1.4	1.5	1.48	3.2
All	Combined	154.51	161.2	161.35	163.36	162.32	1.1
	SC	27.71	30.29	29.97	30.81	30.87	2.4
	ST	2.92	3.01	3.11	3.31	3.31	3.5
Upper Primary							
Boys	Combined	31.34	33.66	34.77	37.08	37.83	4.8
	SC	4.81	5.59	6.12	6.47	6.75	8.6
	ST	0.55	0.58	0.61	0.72	0.74	8.4
Girls	Combined	29.02	31.75	33.14	35.23	35.5	5.2
	SC	4.23	5.11	5.47	5.92	6.31	9.9
	ST	0.46	0.48	0.53	0.64	0.64	9.9
All	Combined	60.36	65.41	67.91	72.31	73.33	5.0
	SC	9.04	10.71	11.59	12.39	13.06	9.2
	ST	1.01	1.07	1.15	1.36	1.37	8.9
Total							
Boys	Combined	111.08	117	118.49	121.48	121.8	2.2
	SC	19.31	21.4	21.7	22.48	22.73	3.8
	ST	2.14	2.22	2.31	2.53	2.57	5.1
Girls	Combined	103.79	109.61	110.77	114.19	113.85	2.3
	SC	17.44	19.58	19.86	20.72	21.2	4.6
	ST	1.79	1.84	1.93	2.14	2.12	5.0
All	Combined	214.87	226.62	229.26	235.68	235.64	2.3
	SC	36.75	41.01	41.56	43.2	43.93	4.2
	ST	3.93	4.08	4.26	4.67	4.68	5.0

Source : Department of Education, GOB

5.1.5.3 Dropout Rate

Only having high enrolment is not sufficient as “The success with respect to high enrolment becomes meaningful only when the enrolled children are retained in the school.” There are various factors behind dropout, which are generally classified into these categories- social, economic, cultural, pedagogical practices, administrative procedures and infrastructure. All these factors have been operative in case of Bihar but in varying degrees.

Measuring dropout rate at various levels of education is also very important. “The dropout rates at primary, upper primary and secondary levels during 2012-13 to 2016-17 in Bihar have continuously declined over the period. At the primary level, dropout rate recorded a decrease of 9.5 percentage points between 2012-13 (31.7 percent) and 2016-17 (22.2 percent). At the upper primary level, this decrease was 3.8 percentage points, from 46.7 percent in 2012-13 to 42.9 percent in 2016-17. This implies that even now about half of the students leave school before entering the secondary classes. The dropout rates at secondary level was 56.6 percent in 2016-17, implying a decrease of 6.2 percentage point from 62.8 percent in 2012-13. It is heartening to note that, at all levels of education (primary, upper primary and secondary), the dropout rate of girl students is lower than that of the boys. As the goals of elementary education have almost been achieved, universalisation of secondary education should now be promoted in Bihar. This will generate human capital to accelerate growth and social development in the state.”

Table 5. 6 Dropout Rates at Various Levels of Education (2012-13 to 2016-17)

Year		2012-13	2013-14	2014-15	2015-16	2016-17
Primary	Girls	26.3	23.6	24.0	24.2	22.4
	Boys	36.0	33.6	29.2	25.6	22.0
	Combined	31.7	29.1	26.8	25.0	22.2
Upper Primary	Girls	38.7	34.7	38.9	36.3	38.1
	Boys	52.4	52.4	49.9	47.0	46.8
	Combined	46.7	46.5	45.1	42.2	42.9
Secondary	Girls	59.5	57.6	53.9	52.5	53.1
	Boys	65.2	64.7	61.2	61.5	59.4
	Combined	62.8	61.8	58.2	57.7	56.6

Source : Department of Education, GOB

5.1.6 Economy

Bihar has recorded a rate of growth of about 10.5 % in 2019-20 fiscal year while the same for India is 4.2 per cent. This shows that, during this period, the economic growth rate of Bihar is higher than the India’s economic growth rate. “The Gross state domestic product of Bihar is found to be Rs. 6, 11,804 crore at the current prices and Rs. 4,14,977 crore at the constant (2011-12) prices 2019-20. Amongst the three main sectors (primary, secondary and tertiary), the tertiary sector has registered a remarkable increase in its share from 57.3 per cent in 2013-14 to 60.2 per cent in 2019-20. Road transport (from 4.4 to 5.9 per cent) and other services (from 10.5 to 13.8 per cent) are the two sub-sectors of the tertiary sector which had augmented

their share in Gross state Value Added (GSVA) between 2013-14 and 2019-20.⁹⁶ Highest growth rate has been registered by the tertiary sector (12.8 per cent) followed by primary sector (9.8 per cent) and secondary sector (4.2 per cent) in 2016-17.” “From a medium-term perspective, the sectors that are seen to grow at a faster rate and contribute most to the overall economy of Bihar are — mining and quarrying (60.0 per cent), manufacturing (17.5 per cent), TSCS (transport, storage, communications and services related to broadcasting) (11.4 per cent). All these sectors have recorded a double-digit growth rate. Among the subsectors, air transport is seen to have grown at a very high rate of 35.2 per cent. The latest estimates of Per Capita Income for the districts in Bihar relate to 2011-12. As per these estimates, three most prosperous districts in Bihar are — Patna, Munger and Begusarai. At the other end, three most economically disadvantaged districts are — Madhepura, Supaul and Sheohar.”⁹⁷

Agriculture and allied sector’s overall contribution to state’s GSDP is 18.7 %. The state has recorded “a substantial record production of food grains at 163.80 lakh tonnes in 2019-20. Borrowing by the state government as a share of the GSDP increased from 3.6 per cent in 2018-19 to 4.8 per cent in 2019-20, the survey said. It added that gross fiscal deficit was 2.0 per cent of the GSDP in 2019-20 which is lower than 2.7 per cent in 2018-19. Talking about labour and employment, the survey said that distribution of workers by status of employment suggests that 57.6 per cent of male workers in Bihar were self-employed while the proportion of regular wage/salaried male workers in Bihar was just 9.7 per cent, the lowest among all the states in India. Noting that Credit Deposit (CD) ratio is quite low in Bihar, the survey said that CD ratio of scheduled commercial banks in Bihar has increased from 34 per cent in 2018-19 to 36.1 in 2019-20 which is lower than the national average of 76.5 per cent. The low ratio indicates that banks are not making full use of their resources for promoting economic activity in the region from where it has mobilised deposits, it added.”⁹⁸

Poor governance and economic stagnation are not new to Bihar, it existed since long, however in recurrent phase. It continuously remained as one of the slowest economic regions of India prior to 2007 (Basu, 2013; Sharma, 2013). The weak economic growth of Bihar, is not only because of internal problems of poor and weak governance but also various biased economic policies initiated by the federal government. One such example is the Green Revolution, which

⁹⁶ <https://economictimes.indiatimes.com/news/economy/indicators/bihar-clocks-10-5-growth-rate-in-fy-2019-20-economic-survey/articleshow/81111339.cms>

⁹⁷ Finance Department of Bihar (2018-19) “Economy Survey of Bihar”, Government of Bihar.

⁹⁸ <https://economictimes.indiatimes.com/news/economy/indicators/bihar-clocks-10-5-growth-rate-in-fy-2019-20-economic-survey/articleshow/81111339.cms>

helped Punjab and Haryana to become economically strong states, surpassed Bihar even though it had conducive environment for it. Increasing population pressure and slow pace of economic growth has had regressive effect on the living standards of the people. Incidence of poverty as well as deprivation remain high in the most part of the state whereas living standards consistently seen to be low. The per capita income (per capita NSDP at constant (2011-12) prices) of Bihar in 2017-18 is about Rs. 28,485, which is the lowest in India (Economic Survey of Bihar, 2018-2019).

Table 5. 7 Per Capita Net State Domestic Product (NSDP) at (2011-12) Prices of Major Indian States

State	2011-12	2012-13	2013-14	2014-15	2015-16	2016-17	2017-18
Andhra Pradesh	69000	68865	72254	79174	87217	96374	106545
Bihar	21750	22201	22776	23223	23987	25950	28485
Chhattisgarh	55177	56777	61409	61146	63791	68321	71581
Gujarat	87481	96683	102589	111370	120683	131853	NA
Haryana	106085	111648	119522	124302	133591	143211	NA
Jharkhand	41254	44176	43779	48781	44524	49174	50562
Karnataka	90263	94417	101919	105697	116832	124093	134118
Kerala	97912	103551	107846	112444	119665	128550	NA
Madhya Pradesh	38551	41287	42778	44336	47646	53047	NA
Maharashtra	99564	103904	109398	114750	122588	133141	140997
Odisha	48370	50714	54109	54211	58165	63674	67522
Punjab	85577	88915	93238	95807	100141	105386	109946
Rajasthan	57192	58441	61053	64522	68048	72072	76146
Tamil Nadu	92984	96890	101559	106189	114581	117806	126179
Uttar Pradesh	32002	32908	34044	34583	36923	38934	40815
India	63462	65538	68572	72805	77826	82229	86668
PCI of Bihar as percentage of PCI of India	34.3	33.9	33.2	31.9	30.8	31.6	32.9

Source : Central Statistical Organisation, Government of India

About 33.74 % Bihar's population lived below the poverty line whereas in case of India it is 21.92 % (Planning Commission, 2011-12). Literacy rate of Bihar is also the lowest (64 %, 2011) in India having 36 % of its population completely illiterate; in comparison to Kerala (94 %), the best performing state (Registrar General of India, 2011i, p. 110). All these conditions become worse if one see the rural Bihar whether poverty, deprivation, literacy or standard of living and one should not forget that the most of its population resides in the rural areas.

Table 5. 8 Poverty Ratios in Bihar and India

	Bihar			India		
	Rural	Urban	Total	Rural	Urban	Total
Poverty Ratio						
2004-05	55.7	43.7	54.4	41.8	25.7	37.2
2011-12	34.1	31.2	33.7	25.7	13.7	21.9
Reduction in Poverty Ratio	21.6	12.5	20.7	16.1	12.0	15.3

Source : Planning Commission, Government of India

Unlike India, Bihar was not able to take the benefits of the economic policies introduced in the early 1990s, much because of the damage accumulated since decades of its slow economic growth. Soon after the liberalisation came into the effect, India's economy had shown an impressive growth and with the time became one of the rapid developing economies in the world. But this growth of the economy was not uniform all over the states. Some states were showing better growth while some were deteriorating, resulting in widening the gap between them. Economic growth at faster rate is often related to overall decline in poverty in India (Deaton & Dreze, 2002). However, it has not been always true in every case. Both, economic growth and poverty were not uniform across the states and were seen a diverse pattern regionally. There has been widening the regional inequalities, which resulted due to the new trajectory of growth in India. (Dasgupta, Maiti, Mukherjee, Sarkar, & Chakrabarti, 2000; Kurian, 2000; Rao, Shand, & Kaliranjan, 1999; Sachs, Bsjpai, & Ramaiah, 2002).

Economic growth mainly depends on the investment and use of resources efficiently. However, these in turn depends on various factors like infrastructure quality, human resource development, good governance, economic policy, environment and work culture. Those states having the above said indicators, were competent enough to allure more investments, hence they developed faster than those lacking in these, in the post reform period. Bihar lacked in these, and was not able to attract much investments and remained behind in economic growth compared to other states (Kumar, 2009). This is manifested by the evidence that, the Bihar's

per capita income during 1960s was 60 % of the Indian average, decreased to about 40 % in 1993-94 and further down to just 30 % in 2003-04 (Institute of Human Development, 2010, p. 1). In fact, Bihar's economy contracted in the first few years of the market reforms. Bihar's per capita income were found to grow at -0.2 % per year, whereas the same for Gujarat was 7.8 %. (Sachs et al., 2002, p.33).

5.1.7 Agriculture

Agriculture plays an important role in the overall growth of the Bihar state as nearly 88.7 per cent of the population of Bihar reside in the rural areas. "Two main features characterise agricultural sector in Bihar — First, around 74 percent of the workforce in Bihar depend on agricultural and allied activities for their livelihood (Census of India, 2011) and, second, the rich natural resources of the Gangetic plains offer substantial opportunities for high agricultural productivity to enhance the welfare of the rural population. In recent years, similar to other developing economies, Bihar's economic growth seems to be moving away from agriculture indicating a structural change. Still, agricultural sector contributes about 20 percent to the state's GSDP."

Over the last few years, the land use pattern was found to be almost constant. "The cropping intensity in the state has increased marginally from 1.44 in 2012-13 to 1.45 in 2016-17. Overall, about 56.55 percent of the land was under cultivation in Bihar during 2016-17. The cropping pattern, remained nearly unchanged over the years, reveals that Bihar is primarily a cereal economy, with more than 85 percent of its gross cropped area under cereals. Considering the fact that Bihar has achieved self-sufficiency in food grain production, specific schemes for cultivation of pulses and oilseeds in rice fallows areas have been undertaken in the state under the scheme of 'Targeting Rice Fallow Areas (TRFA)' in Eastern India. The productivity of cereals increased from 2595 kg per hectare in 2013-14 to 2839 kg per hectare in 2017-18. This has been made possible with sustained efforts by the state government through provision of quality seeds, tools and equipment through subsidy programmes and encouragement to adopt technologies to mitigate climatic risks."⁹⁹

For most of the population of Bihar, agriculture is still the primary source of their livelihood. This is because, its economy even now is very less exposed to the urban type of manufacturing

⁹⁹ Finance Department of Bihar (2018-19) "Economy Survey of Bihar", Government of Bihar.

and the service sectors and there is paucity of non-farm work in rural areas (Jha, 2006). This state is naturally gifted by soil which is highly fertile and has rich ground water resources. Numerous tributaries of Ganga River such as Kosi, Gandhak, Budhi Gandhak, Mahananda, and Ghaghara can be seen flowing through the different regions of the plains of Bihar, which makes it as one of the most fertile state of the India. Even after having all these, its actual agricultural potential has continued to be far from being adequately recognised and that has barred any significant decline in the state's destitution and deprivation condition. The above situation explains the condition in the best way, in the report of the Task Force on the agriculture of Bihar, which defines the plain of Bihar as a "rich state inhabited by poor people" (Government of India, 2008, p. 11). Agriculture productivity rate of Bihar is one of the lowest in the country (Government of India, 2008, pp. 18-19; Joshi, Tripathi, & Gautam, 2012).

Uneven pattern of landholding mainly due to high population pressures, inadequate irrigation facilities, and weak credit services provided to the farmers have obstructed the achievement of the agricultural potential of Bihar. In addition to this, large number of rivers of Bihar have also contributed to the recurrent floods in many parts of the Bihar, a perennial problem which badly hit not only the lives but also the livelihood of the people dependent on agriculture (Pritchard and Thielemans, 2014). The plain of Bihar is one of the most flood-prone region of the country, having 32 among 38 districts of the state categorised as flood-prone (Deshingkar et al., 2009). In 2008, one can find the most recent disastrous floods in Bihar by the Kosi river, often considered as the Hwang Ho of Bihar (Ahmad, 1961, p. 265), took away the life of about 500 people (in addition 3500 people were not found after the floods) and approximately 2, 73, 000 acres of agricultural land converted into a fallow land (Government of Bihar, 2008).

5.1.8 Health

Health and socio-economic developments are entwined so closely that it is difficult to attain progress in one without progress on the other.

5.1.8.1 Health Status

In terms of health outcomes, the state has attained substantial improvement in recent years but it is not adequate. "The Life Expectancy in Birth has increased substantially from 65.8 years in 2006-10 to 68.7 years in 2012-16, registering an increase of 2.9 years over a period of 6 years. In recent years, the number of institutional deliveries in Bihar has also increased remarkably, from 14.07 lakh in 2011-12 to 16.37 lakh in 2017-18, registering a growth of 16.3 percent. For

Crude Birth Rate (CBR), the figures are consistently higher for Bihar; in 2016, it was 26.8 for Bihar, compared to 20.4 for India, indicating a difference of 6.4. This high growth rate of population can be said to be an outcome of consistently high birth rate and a relatively faster declining death rate. When one compares the IMR, it emerges that the state figures have declined substantially in Bihar from 42 in 2013 to 38 in 2016, although the decline for India is even higher, from 40 in 2013 to 34 in 2016. As regards CMR, it again declined in Bihar from 11 in 2013 to 10 in 2016, whereas at national level this decline was 2, from 11 in 2013 to 9 in 2016. This is commendable. While comparing the TFR, it is noticed that there is a marginal decline in TFR in Bihar from 3.4 children in 2013 to 3.3 children per woman in 2016, a drop of 0.1 child per woman. However, for all-India, the TFR for 2013 and 2016 remains same at 2.3 children per woman. Giving a look at NMR, one could see that, between 2013 and 2016, the decline in Bihar is only 1, compared to 4 for India. The immunization coverage for children in the age bracket of 12-23 months has improved considerably by 29 percentage points between NFHS-3 (32.8 percent) and NFHS-4 (61.7 percent). It is observed that, in 2017-18, the coverage of BCG and Penta-1 is as high as 86 percent. For OPV 1, 2 and 3, Pentavalent and Measles, the achievement rate is again more than 80 percent.”¹⁰⁰

5.1.8.2 Health Infrastructure

Healthcare sector plays a crucial role in daily life of the people and that’s why it is one of the largest service sectors. This sector faces many challenges such as “reduce mortality rates, improve physical infrastructure, necessity to provide health insurance, ensuring availability of trained medical personnel and some more.” In the present times, “there are 37 district hospitals, 70 referral hospitals, 55 sub-divisional hospitals (SDH), 533 PHCs, 9949 Sub-Centres and 1379 APHCs. The last three types add up to 11,861 health centres. Thus, for per ten lakh of population, there are about 99 health centres in the state (Table 11.5). To meet the challenge of infrastructural deficiency in healthcare facilities, out of 533 PHCs, the target is to upgrade 399 six bedded PHCs to thirty-bedded Community Health Centres (CHC) and 167 of them are already functional. Out of 70 referral hospitals, 67 have both Outpatient Department (OPD) and Inpatient Department (IPD) facility, whereas the remaining three are having only OPD facility. Correspondingly, 55 SDHs have been sanctioned by the state government, out of which 46 are fully functional and 9 more are being opened in Teghra and Bakhri (Begusarai), Haveli

¹⁰⁰ Ibid. p. XXXii

Kharagpur (Munger), Benipatti (Madhubani), Marhourah (Saran), Belsand (Sitamarhi), Mahnar (Vaishali), Piro (Bhojpur) and Baisi (Purnea).”

Table 5. 9 Overall Status of Health Infrastructure of Bihar

(Figures in Number)

Year	District Hospital	Referral Hospital	Sub Divisional Hospital	Health Centres				Health centres per ten lakh population
				PHC	Sub Centre	APHC	Total	
2012	36	70	55	533	9696	1330	11559	109
2013	36	70	55	533	9696	1330	11559	106
2014	36	70	55	533	9729	1350	11612	104
2015	36	70	55	533	9729	1350	11612	102
2016	36	70	55	533	9729	1350	11612	100
2017	36	70	55	533	9949	1366	11848	99
2018	37	70	*55	**533	9949	1379	11861	99

Note : ** 399 PHC will be upgraded to 30 bedded CHC, 216 of which has been constructed and 167 are functional

* 46 SDH are fully functional and 9 more are being opened

Source : State Health Society, GOB

Responding to the demographic phenomena is one of the prominent challenges to the health sector prevailing in Bihar. “Since Bihar is home to diverse socio-cultural groups, the health needs of people also vary from region to region. Given the size of state’s population and the burden of disease, the challenge of attaining good health for people is a daunting one. To meet the overall health requirements of the state, the inter-district disparity in terms of availability of health institution should also be addressed. As on September 2018, three best districts in terms of health institutions per ten lakh population were — Jamui (1523), Sheikhpura (1512) and Sheohar (1416)”

There are many problems hindering in meeting the determined health goals in Bihar but the most important are “the problem of non-availability and uneven distribution of skilled health care providers is the central challenge towards meeting the health goals in Bihar. As regards the human resources, for health services, the infrastructure consists of — doctors, nurses, Auxiliary Nurse-Cum-Mid-wife (ANM), and Accredited Social Health Activist (ASHA). The availability of manpower is one of the important prerequisites for the efficient functioning of

the health infrastructure. As regards to doctors, there are now 3146 regular doctors in Bihar, against 7249 sanctioned posts, indicating a high vacancy ratio of 57 percent. In addition, there are also sanctioned posts for 2314 contractual doctors, of which only 533 posts have been filled up, representing again a high vacancy ratio of 77 percent. To overcome this infrastructural deficit, the recruitment process is going on for all the posts. However, the situation is better for contractual ASHA workers, where about 93 percent of the sanctioned posts (93,687) have been filled up in 2017-18, representing a vacancy ratio of only 7 percent. Infrastructure is the basic support for the delivery of public health activities. Unless the five pillars of this infrastructure (skilled workforce, integrated electronic information systems, public health organizations, resources and research) are strengthened, the outcomes will not be as per expectation. To cater to the demand of large and needy population of Bihar, particularly in rural areas, the public services should be expanded and strengthened.”

From the above discussion, one can say that Bihar’s high population, weak economy, dysfunctional education and health infrastructure is playing a major role in its backwardness.

5.1.9 Human Development

In recent years, though the economy of Bihar has shown some signs of revival, with economic growth during 2007-12, as one of the highest in comparison to all other Indian states (government of Bihar, 2014b), its effect on poverty and standard of living is hardly seen. Bihar is still one of the most backward state and mostly found as occupying the lowest rank on many important indicators of social as well as economic development.

Human development refers to a process to widen people’s choices. To measure the human development, UNDP came up with an Index called as Human Development Index (HDI). HDI is a measure to evaluate average performance of the state in terms of three dimensions like Education, health and standard of living. The indicators used for these three dimensions are Life expectancy at birth, Mean years of schooling and GNI per capita. Not all, but many states have showed improvement in HDI over the time. It has been noticed that there is hardly any change seen in the state’s ranking in terms of HDI throughout the period. Bihar, though have shown some improvements in HDI value, has constantly occupied either the lowest or the second lowest rank in HDI amongst all the major states. Between 2001 and 2007-08, some states even showed decline in their scores of HDI whereas Bihar HDI scores remained stagnant.

Table 5. 10 Trends in Human Development in India: A comparison of 15 major states

	1981		1991		2001		2007-08	
	HDI Value	HDI Rank	HDI Value	HDI Rank	HDI Value	HDI Rank	HDI Value	HDI Rank
Andhra Pradesh	0.298	9	0.377	9	0.416	10	0.473	9
Assam	0.272	10	0.348	10	0.386	14	0.444	10
Bihar	0.237	15	0.308	15	0.367	15	0.367	14
Gujarat	0.360	4	0.431	6	0.479	6	0.527	6
Haryana	0.360	5	0.443	5	0.509	5	0.552	5
Karnataka	0.346	6	0.412	7	0.478	7	0.519	7
Kerala	0.500	1	0.591	1	0.638	1	0.790	1
Madhya Pradesh	0.245	14	0.328	13	0.394	12	0.375	13
Maharashtra	0.363	3	0.452	4	0.523	4	0.572	3
Orissa	0.267	11	0.345	12	0.404	11	0.362	15
Punjab	0.411	2	0.475	2	0.537	2	0.605	2
Rajasthan	0.256	12	0.347	11	0.424	9	0.434	11
Tamil Nadu	0.343	7	0.466	3	0.531	3	0.570	4
Uttar Pradesh	0.255	13	0.314	14	0.388	13	0.380	12
West Bengal	0.305	8	0.404	8	0.472	8	0.492	8

Source: National Human Development Report (HDI), 2001, p. 25 (for 1981, 1991 and 2001) and India HDR 2011, p. 24 (for 2007-08)

It imperative to note that “The Per Capita Development Expenditure (PCDE) of Bihar has grown at an annual rate of 15.8 percent, compared to 13.7 percent for all-India, between 2011-12 and 2017-18. The expenditure on education in Bihar increased from Rs. 10,214 crore to Rs. 26,394 crore during the same period, registering an annual increase of 14.4 percent, higher than the all India average of 12.5 percent. Likewise, the rate of growth in health expenditure in Bihar during these seven years was also high at 22 percent.”¹⁰¹

Though Bihar has lowest literacy rate amongst all the states of India, “The literacy rate of Bihar has improved significantly in the last decade, from 47.0 percent in 2001 to 61.8 percent in

¹⁰¹ Ibid, p. XXXi

2011. This implies an increase of 14.8 percentage points. It is worthy to note that this decadal increase is not only the highest among all decadal growth rates in Bihar since 1961, it is also the highest among all states for the decade 2001-11. During 2012-13 to 2016-17, total enrolment in elementary classes has increased at an annual rate of 2.3 percent, from 214.87 lakh in 2012-13 to 235.64 lakh in 2016-17. At the primary level, the dropout rate recorded a decrease of 9.5 percentage points between 2012-13 (31.7 percent) and 2016-17 (22.2 percent). Overall, the gender gap in elementary education is decreasing gradually, as the growth rate of enrolment of girls was 2.3 percent during 2012-13 to 2016-17, compared to 2.2 percent for boys.”¹⁰²

Despite having highest percentage of young people (58% of people are below the age 25 years) than other states of India, it is not able to come out from its backwardness. This is all because these youths even now are neither getting proper education facilities nor proper job opportunities and that’s why they are not able to take their own state out of its backwardness. It is quite known that Bihari people are intelligent as well as hard working but because they are not getting better education and better work opportunities in their own state, they are moving out to other states and countries. Bihar has human resource but it is not able to convert it into human capital, an asset of development. Poverty can be seen everywhere in Bihar and it is not because of scarcity of resources but because of bad governance, under or non-utilization of resources, poor infrastructure, lack of opportunities for investment and unequal distribution of wealth. Along with economic inequalities, social inequalities is also rampant majorly along the lines of gender and caste.

There is high population pressure on land in Bihar and in addition to this, it remained an economically backward region during the last two centuries. This has led heavy reliance on remittances amongst the communities of rural Bihar. Actually, all because of the continued scarcity of profitable opportunities at the origin appears to have started a “Migration Culture” in the rural areas of Bihar. During the British rule, the worsening of economic condition of Bihar began, which was also continued throughout most of the period post-independence. Flawed economic policies came up at the time of British rule, complete lack of political interest of the federal government concerning to the developmental requirements of the state in most of post-independence, and a large number of internal problems comprising the virtual non-existence of governance and order during 1990 to 2005, have weakened the Bihar’s economic

¹⁰² Ibid p. XXXii

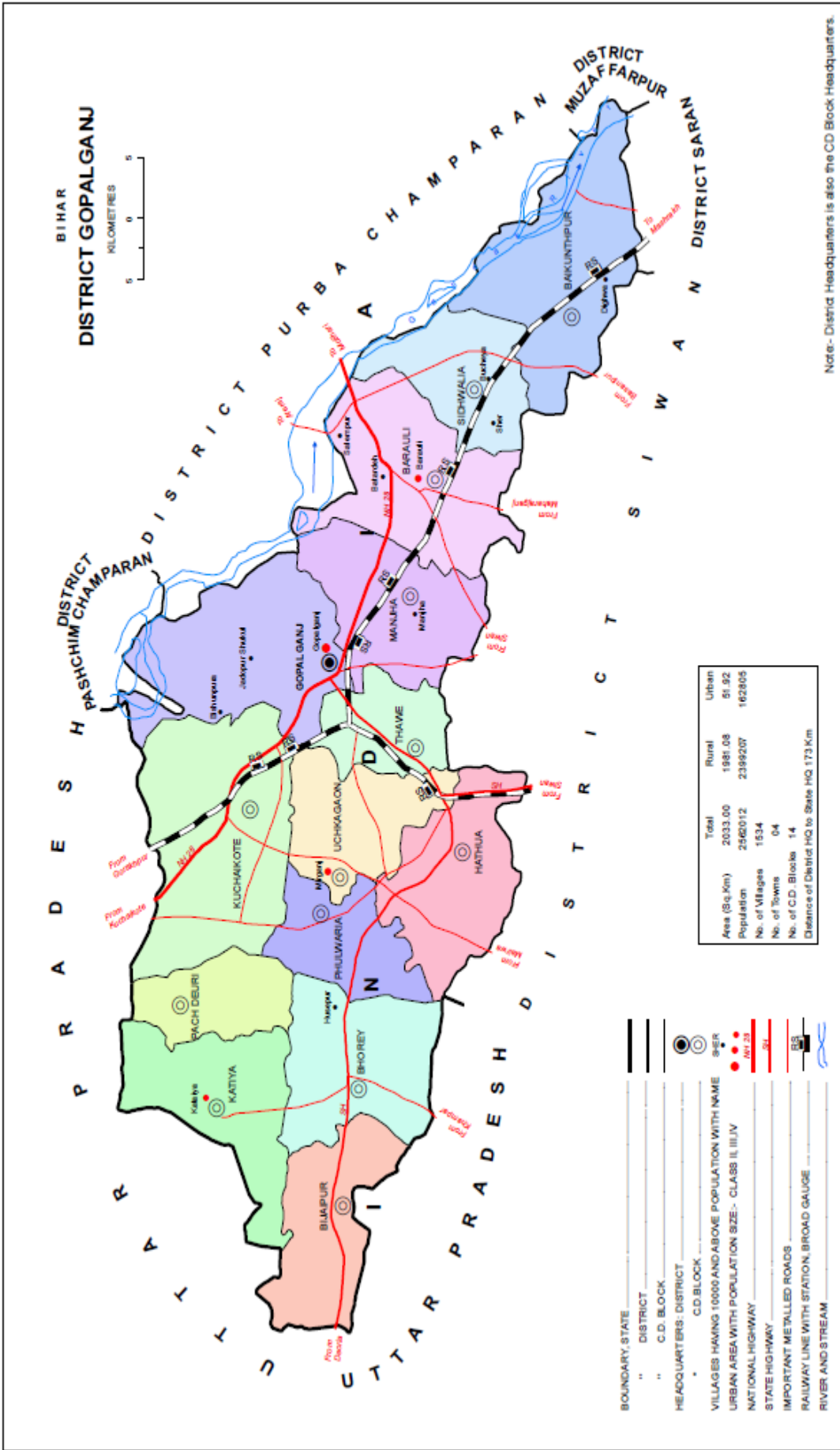
development (Mukherji & Mukherji, 2012). Till recently also, Bihar was bypassed by the market reforms which were introduced since early 1990. Even though historically, the phenomena of out-migration from Bihar quite widespread, many studies at village level point out that the occurrence of migration from Bihar augmented further in 1990s (Karan, 2003; Sharma, 2005), a time which actually referred as the watershed of Indian Economy.

The present study, thus try to study the out-migration from the rural Bihar outside the state. For this, district 'Gopalgunj' located in the western Bihar is selected on the basis of Adult Sex-Ratio. It was earlier a part of Saran district and that's why it is often said that the history of Gopalgunj belongs to the history of old Saran which included earlier, the present districts of Saran, Siwan and Goplagunj.

5.2 Brief Profile of Gopalgunj

Gopalgunj is often recognised as the "the land of sugarcane". Till 1875, it was just a tiny hamlet, which was made a subdivision of Saran district in the same year. It got an independent district status on 2nd October 1973. Gopalgunj is located on the west-northern corner of the Bihar. This district extends from 26 ° 12" to 26 ° 39" N latitudes and from 83 ° 54" to 84 ° 12 55" E longitudes. Gopalgunj covers an area of about 2,033 square kilometres. It constitutes of 2.2 % of the total areas of the Bihar state and ranked 26th in terms of area coverage among other districts. It is surrounded on the north eastern by Paschim and Purbi Champaran and south east by Siwan and Saran, its North West and South West is bounded by the state of Uttar Pradesh. It's plain is majorly an alluvial plain formed by the Gandak River and its five small tributaries, flowing in the southward direction, named as Jharahi, Khanwa, Daha, Gandhaki and Dhani. The plain of Gopalgunj is mostly fertile, as result of the deposition of the top quality of soil brought by the Gandhak River from the Nepal. The climate of Gopalgunj is generally humid in nature except during the summer season which is mainly dry.

Map 5.3 District Map of Gopalganj



Note- District Headquarters is also the CD Block Headquarters.

Source: District Census Handbook, Gopalganj (2011), Village and Town Directory, Directorate of Census Operations, Bihar, Series-11, Part XII-A.

The main occupation of most of the people of this district is Agriculture. The most important crops of this area is paddy. Apart from paddy, others crops grown here are wheat, sugar-cane, and maize besides vegetables and oil-seeds. Irrigation is mainly done wherever the means are available, either through the wells, tanks, streams, aharas (reservoirs made by making embankments across the drainage line).

Table 5. 11 Land use pattern of Gopalgunj, 2011

Total Forest Area(inHectares)	Total Irrigated Land Area (in Hectares)	Total Unirrigated Land Area (in Hectares)	Culturable Waste Land Area (in Hectares)	Barren & Un-cultivable Land Area (in Hectares)	Area under Non-Agricultural Uses (in Hectares)
196.8	111445.6	43462.4	3804.6	3444.8	21724.5

Source: District Census Handbook, Gopalgunj (2011), Village and Town Directory, Directorate of Census Operations, Bihar, Series-11, Part XII-A.

According to Census (2011), the total population of Gopalgunj district is about 25, 62,012. This district is sub-divided into fourteen Community Development Blocks which comprises 1534 villages and four towns. It comprises of 2.4 percent of the total population of the state and ranked 21st among other districts of the state in terms of population. The total female population is 12, 67, 666 and the same for male is 12, 94,346. The most populous C.D. Block of the district is Kuchaikote C.D. Block whereas the least populated is Pach Deuri C.D. Block. Hindu community constitutes of 82.72 percent (2, 119, 262 persons) of the population followed by the Muslims (17.02 percent or 436, 057 persons)

Table 5. 12 Percentage Distribution of Population by Major Religions in 2011

SL No.	Religion	STATE		DISTRICT	
		Population	Percentage	Population	Percentage
1	Hindu	86078686	82.69	2119262	82.72
2	Muslim	17557809	16.87	436057	17.02
3	Christian	129247	0.12	2463	0.10
4	Sikh	23779	0.02	271	0.01
5	Buddhist	25453	0.02	167	0.01
6	Jain	18914	0.02	133	0.01
7	Other religions*	13437	0.01	28	0.001
8	Religion not stated	252127	0.24	3631	0.14

Note- *Other religions and persuasions (incl. Unclassified Sect.)

Source- C-1 Table of Census of India 2011

In 2011, the percentage of urban population is found to be 6.4 in the district which was 6.1 percent in 2001. This shows a very nominal increase in urbanisation during 2001-2011. The highest percentage of urban population is found to be in the Gopalgunj district (30.7 percent) whereas the lowest is recorded in the Hathwa sub-district (3.2 percent). Hathwa sub-district is an urban area created newly after 2001 Census.

According to the 2011 Census, sex ratio of the Gopalgunj district is about 1021 females per 1,000 males. Moreover, the same is found to be 1025 for the rural areas and 969 for the urban areas of the district. The highest sex-ratio is recorded in Katiya sub-district (1092 females per 1,000 males) whereas the lowest of 967 is found in Thawe and Gopalgunj sub-district.

This district recorded lowest sex ratio in 1991 (968) while the highest sex ratio in 1901 (1199). The sex ratio of rural areas of the state and also the district is found to be comparatively higher than the respective urban areas since 1901 to 2011.

Table 5. 13 Sex Ratio of the State and District, 1901-2011

Census Year	State			District		
	Total	Rural	Urban	Total	Rural	Urban
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1901	1,061	1,064	1,003	1,199	1,200	1,177
1911	1,051	1,056	942	1,151	1,153	1,041
1921	1,020	1,027	886	1,066	1,066	0
1931	995	1,005	820	1,038	1,038	0
1941	1,002	1,012	842	1,082	1,082	0
1951	1,000	1,010	859	1,037	1,042	890
1961	1,005	1,020	832	1,098	1,106	835
1971	957	968	833	1,018	1,024	815
1981	948	959	852	1,006	1,011	903
1991	907	913	857	968	972	903
2001	919	926	868	1,001	1,006	928
2011	918	921	895	1021	1025	969

Note :- Sex ratio has been defined here as the number

of females per 1000 males

Source: Census of India

About 65.47 percent literacy rate has been registered in the Gopalgunj district. In case of rural and urban areas of the district, it is found to be 64.8 percent and 75.1 percent respectively. The female literacy rate of 54.81 percent and male literacy rate of 76.51 percent is reported which represent a gap 21.7 percent in the male-female literacy rate. The literacy rate of males is found to be much higher than that of females for the district as a whole. If one observe at the sub-district level, the highest literacy rate is noted in Phulwaria (69.76 %) while the lowest is in the Sidhwalia sub-district (59.73 percent). It is important to note that, in general, those sub-district with urban centres such as Gopalgunj, Uchkagaon, Hathwa, Katiya and Baraulil have literacy rate higher than other sub-district (except few). This may be due to the fact that the urban centres have better infrastructure as far as one concerned about the educational facilities.

The work participation rate (WPR) for main workers is 14.17 percent and for marginal is 14.25 percent in the district. In the district, the percentage of non-workers is observed about 71.58 percent. Male work participation rate is found to be 23.69 percent while the same for the females is 4.85 percent among the main workers. Gopalgunj sub-district reported highest

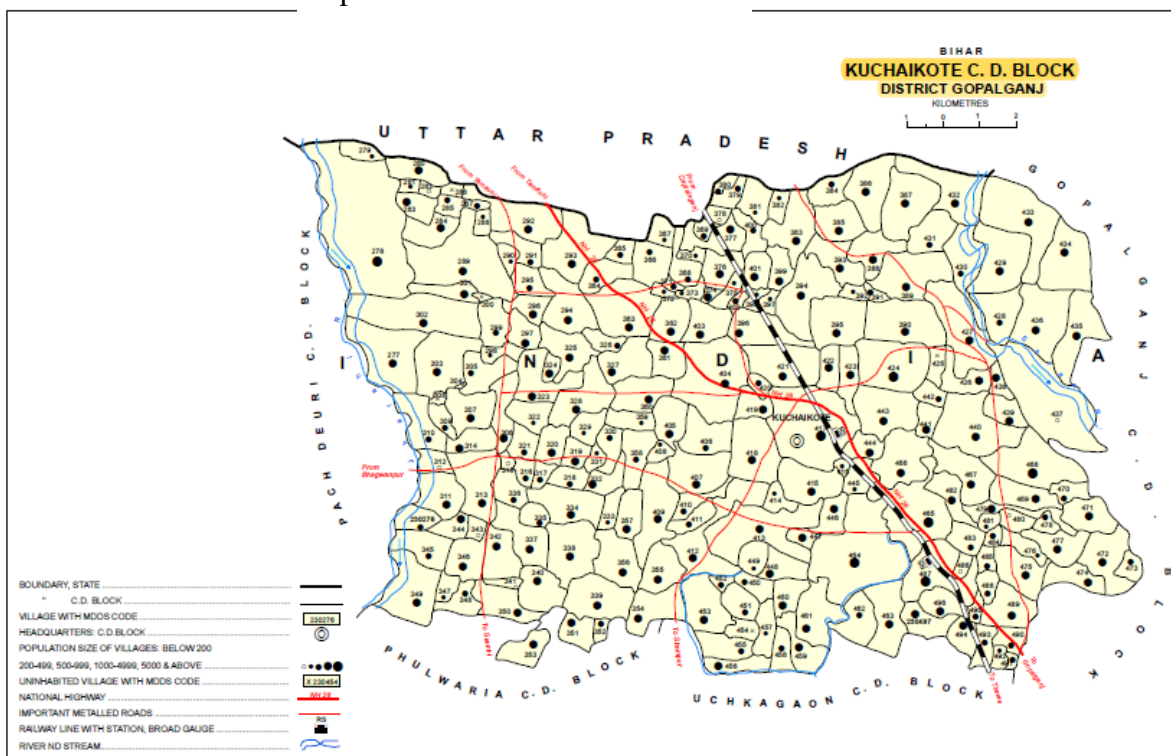
percentage of main workers (17.15 %) while lowest is reported in Katiya sub-district (12.02 %) but in case of marginal workers, highest proportions (21.23 %) is found in Hathuwa sub-district whereas the lowest is reported in Gopalganj sub-district (9.80 %). Moreover, Hathua sub-district is at the top (34.16 %) and Barauli at the bottom in terms of total proportions of workers.

Further for the micro-level study, the Kuchaikote community development block has been selected amongst the 14 C.D. block of Gopalganj district, on the basis of highest number of household size. The household survey was done in 2 villages of this block in order to cover various socio-economic section of the society as a single village didn't have all the major castes categories, religions and class.

5.3 Brief Profile of Kuchaikote

Kuchaikote C.D. is among one of the administrative divisions of Gopalganj district of Bihar. It is located at 26°32'39"N 84°20'27"E. This C.D. block has total 244 villages amongst which 216 inhabited. This 216 inhabited villages total population is 3, 32,041 having 1, 65,651 male and 1, 66,390 female population. This block has no urban population. There are about 14 wards.

Map 5. 4 Kuchaikote C.D. Block



Source: District Census Handbook, Gopalganj (2011), Village and Town Directory, Directorate of Census

According to the census 2011, its sex-ratio is 1004. Total SCs and STs Population is 40957 and 10895. The Percentage of Scheduled Castes population to total population is 12.33 while Percentage of Scheduled Tribes population is 3.28. Total literacy rate is 66.86 %, male 77.91 % and female 55.99%. The gap in male-female literacy rate is 21.92. There are 31 Panchayats in Kuchaikote community development block, some of them are: Pokharvinda, Kuchaikote, Sherpur, Belbanwa and Parsoni Pandey. Mateya Khas, Bantail, Khajuri, Rampur khareya. Every panchayat has one post-office.

The economy of Kuchaikote is mainly based on agricultural products such as sugarcane, pulses, and grains. It is known for its advances in horticulture.

The above sections gave us a brief idea of the history, physiography, climate, demography, socio-economic condition, etc. of Bihar. After being acquainted by all these and before analysing the present scenario of out-migration from Bihar, it is imperative to understand the history of out-migration from Bihar.

5.4 History of Out-Migration from Bihar

Migration from Bihar can be traced since long which has a long history. The phenomenon of migration from Bihar can be found back to the colonial times and even further back to the era of Mughals. Historically, migrants belonging to the warrior communities and castes from the western Bihar were recruited in the army of Mughals. Bihari migrants have not only traversed the state but also migrated to various British colonies. As a result of development of modern industries, and also urbanisation, large number of people started migrating from Bihar to various British colonies such as Sri Lanka, Mauritius, Trinidad, Guyana, Fiji, etc. Emigrants were mostly found to be from the Bihar region speaking Bhojpuri. They were forced to move out of the country to those far off countries by middlemen and contractors, to do work in the plantation and in agriculture sector. These migrants' labourers were mostly treated like slaves. They were not given proper food, shelter, and wages and also didn't get any time-bound increment. These migrations persisted from the Bihar till the First World War.

There were migration on large scale also found within the country. In the latter half of the nineteenth century, with the establishment of British Raj, an improvement in trade and commerce were found along with the road and railways development. During this period, a significant improvement in irrigation facilities is found in the western part of the India. It also

witnessed a specialisation of the cropping pattern. These factors started attracting the migrant labours from the eastern part of India, especially from the regions having high population such as Bihar, which didn't witness such developments. Moreover, the available literature also suggests that this period also witnessed migration towards eastern part of India, especially Assam and Bengal. Since, the middle of 19th century, the most important destinations for the Bihari migrants were Assam (in the tea gardens mainly) and West Bengal (in the industrial areas). Various factors responsible for this were Zamindari system of land settlement which bestowed minimal rights to the tenants, the exorbitant rent of land, substantial proportion of landless peasants, reduced land's agricultural productivity resulting from cultivation of indigo (Davis 1051; Sharma 2005). This stream of migration was largely seasonal in nature, mainly dominated by landless labourers belonging to the lower-castes and whose out-migration was basically a response to the wage gap existed between Bihar and the remaining of eastern India. We can say that the seasonal or circular migration existing during this period helped large proportions of marginal farmers as well as agricultural labourers to cover minimum level of subsistence (Yang 1979, de Haan 2002).

Migrants to the industrial regions of West Bengal were mainly from the plains of North Bihar. These migrants were mostly seen to be involved in the low-paid work like Coolies, night guards, as a worker in jute factories or other factories, rickshaw puller or Thela puller. Just as it is now, during pre-independence also the major aim of Bihari migrants was earning livelihood and also to save some amount of money to send (remittances) to their family members, left at home. They choose Bengal as their second home because of favourable conditions there, such as secure and regular monthly earnings and railway facilities. That doesn't mean that they lost contact with their family members or with their native villages. (Harprasad Chattapadhaya, 1987). A considerable number of migrants also moved to these two states (Assam and Bengal) to do small scale business and petty trades. Before independence too, one can find large number of people in the Bengal police force from Bihar. Besides improving their living condition, other reasons for their out-migration were also natural calamities like flood, drought condition or semi-drought conditions, recurring famines, widespread epidemics, mostly malaria and plague. Out-flow of migrants significantly increased to Assam and Bengal also due to vast disaster in North Bihar caused by the decline of indigo industry and earthquake of 1934 (Thakur, 1988).

In the colonial times, Bengal and Assam were the main destination for the out-migrants from Bihar whereas in the post-colonial era Punjab and Haryana emerged as the main destination.

The trend of westward migration of labour from Bihar continued even in the post-independence period but it surged in the 60's with the introduction of green revolution in the north-western part of the India. The rural-Punjab emerged as the new destination for Bihari migrants not only because of the enhanced requirement of labour due to the introduction of the Green Revolution, but also due to the continuous migration of the people of Punjab to others alluring destinations. All these favourable conditions contributed to enhance the bargaining position of the labour migrants in Punjab during seventies and eighties of twentieth century, which didn't exist in the rural areas of Bihar. "The steady flow of Bihari out-migrants to the destinations in rural Punjab indicated therefore the operations of not only considerable differentials in money wages but also in real wage earnings of rural labourers during seventies between the two regions."(Ansari, 2001). Due to the changes like cropping pattern and mechanization of agriculture in the areas of Green Revolution, demand for the labour saturated in the green revolution region after the decade of eighties.

Rural to rural stream of migration remained predominant in the colonial times as well as during the second half of the twentieth century for Bihari migrants. Even in the post-independence, urban migration was not found to be at all dominant among the Bihari migrants. Although, there were sign of increasing rural-urban and urban-urban migration, but it was not significant. This condition was also true for India as a whole.

Now a days, migration of labour from Bihar is found to be towards the big cities like Bombay, Surat, Kolkata, Hyderabad and Delhi, etc. (Karan, 2003). These cities are acting like a magnet, pulling people from nook and corner of India, mainly because of the resources, infrastructure, opportunities and facilities, available there. Drastic increase in the volume of migration since the eighties has also been seen. In contrast to earlier, out-migration has been found from all the sections of the society, cutting across even the hierarchy of caste, communities and class. Previously, out-migrants from Bihar migrated mostly to the rural areas for agricultural wages, and the nature of their migration was more seasonal in nature whereas in the recent times, the movement of Bihari migrant was seen more towards the urban areas and was more permanent in nature (Karan 2003, Singh et al. 2005).

Conclusion

The scenario of Bihar, what it is today, was not always like this. In fact, in the ancient time, it was the centre, not only of power but also of culture and learning. But now it is often referred to as one of the most backward state, economically and also socially. It is quite evident if we focus on some economic and social indicators. It is one of the poorest state of India with 33.7 % of its rural population below the poverty line. It has also the lowest per capita Net State Domestic Product (NSDP) amongst the Indian states. It has the lowest adult literacy rate (61.8 %, 2011 census), worse child Mortality rate (84.8, NFHS 2005-06). Most of its population don't have access to adequate facilities like health, education and many other services.

Chapter 6

Demographic and Socio-Economic Profiles of Out-Migrants

India is a country of diversity with intra-state as well as inter-state disparity spread to a great extent in terms of economic and human development. These regional inequalities are largely seen to have driven the existing migration pattern. Empowered Action Group (EAG) states which include eight socio-economically backward states of Bihar, Jharkhand, Rajasthan, Madhya Pradesh, Chhattisgarh, Uttar Pradesh, Uttarakhand and Odisha, are amongst the worst performing states of India on the human development aspect, confining far behind on economic, social, health, demographic and epidemiological transitions in comparison to other states of India. These EAG states constitutes about 45 percent of population of India (Registrar General of India, 2011d) with substantial majority of its population don't have an access to the conditions of decent living. These conditions push the people to those places of the country which are able to provide them with better resources and facilities.

On many aspects, Bihar can be recognised amongst them as the worst performing state. Bihar has one of the lowest Per Capita NSDP in India which is about Rs. 28,485 in 2017-18. Bihar is one of the states having highest proportion of its population living below the poverty line having about 33.70 % poor population. The multi-dimensional Poverty Index of this state stands at 0.246. It has low level of urbanisation (i.e. only 11.3 %) and the rate of urbanisation is also very slow (increased from 10.5 % in 2001 to 11.3 % in 2011). Finally, demographic transition, through which most of the states of India has already gone through, Bihar has not experience it so far. It ranked lowest in terms of literacy rate (61.8 % in 2011), levels of educational attainment, etc. Often this state is identified as one with low industrial development and poor infrastructural development.¹⁰³

6.1 Major States of Destination of the Male Out-Migrants from Bihar

Migration from Bihar is not a new phenomenon; it has a long history of migration. It existed since the British colonial time (De Haan, 2002). Bihari migrants are found in almost every states of India but there are some states where its percentage is higher. With time, the

¹⁰³ Finance Department of Bihar (2018-19) "Economy Survey of Bihar", Government of Bihar.

destination of Bihari migrants have changed from the eastern states (i.e. West Bengal) to the north-western (like Delhi), which evident from the Table 6.1. Traditionally, West Bengal was the main destination of the migrants from Bihar whereas Delhi has come out to be the main destination in the 1990s. From the Table 6.1, it is seen that, gradually, the overall percentage of migrants to the major destinations has declined. This may be due to the further diversification of the migrant's destinations in the recent years.

Table 6. 1 Major states of Destination of the Male Out-Migrants from Bihar

1971-1981		1981-1991		1991-2001	
State	Percentage of Migrants	State	Percentage of Migrants	State	Percentage of Migrants
West Bengal	42.01	West Bengal	26.03	Delhi	15.38
Uttar Pradesh	11.65	Delhi	17.33	West Bengal	10.43
Delhi	8.72	Uttar Pradesh	11.66	Maharashtra	9.57
Punjab	5.36	Punjab	6.32	Uttar Pradesh	6.91
Maharashtra	4.34	Assam	5.91	Punjab	5.69
Haryana	3.26	Maharashtra	5.82	Haryana	5.18
Gujarat	1.31	Haryana	4.12	Gujarat	4.27
Assam	-	Gujarat	2.45	Assam	1.10
All India	100	All India	100	All India	100

Source: Census of India 1981; 1991; 2001 Tables D-2

Note: Bihar include Jharkhand and Uttar Pradesh include Uttarakhand, for the 1991 and 2001. Due to the disturbed conditions in Assam, Census 1981 was not conducted there.

6.2 Profile of Migrants

Migration is a complex process which results from various socio-economic and demographic factors. The incidence of out-migration is not same everywhere and not all people and household tends or are able to migrate. The socio-economic and demographic factors at the village level, household level and also at the personal level, determines the migration and its rate also. Furthermore, in order to understand the nature, volume, pattern, reasons and consequences of out-migration, it is important to examine the various demographic and socio-economic attributes of the male out-migrants from rural areas. So this chapter is dedicated to analyse the above mentioned factors.

The present chapter is based on the primary survey done during October 2018 to February 2019 in the villages of the district of Bihar named ‘Gopalgunj’. This district has been selected on the basis of adult sex-ratio, which is considered as a proxy variable of out-migration. On the basis of the calculation of the sex-ratio using data from the Primary Census Abstract, 2011, the highest adult sex-ratio in Bihar is found to be in Gopalgunj district. Further two more villages has been selected from this district. Total of 402 sample households interviewed for the present study, amongst which there are 209 (52 %) migrant households and 193 non-migrant households (48 %). Among the 209 out-migrant HHs, there are about total 282 out-migrant people.

6.2.1 Demographic Profile

6.2.1.1 Gender

This study mainly focuses on those who migrated outside the Bihar state. In general, most of the out-migration took place by females. However, this migration is not for employment or work purpose but because of marriage system followed in India where after marriage females have to leave their parent’s home and go to husband’s home to live with them. In present study, it is found that most of the out-migration is done by males whereas only three females migrated outside the state and these females migrated for study purpose. Amongst them, two belonged to General caste category and one belonged to OBCs. Not a single one belonged to SCs or STs. This shows the plight of these caste categories that even now they are far behind in comparison to General and OBCs.

Table 6. 2 Gender of the Out-Migrants

Gender	Out-Migrants (No.)	Out-Migrants (%)
Male	279	98.9
Female	3	1.1
Total	282	100.0

Source: Primary Survey conducted during October 2018 to February 2019

6.2.1.2 Age

There are many factors affecting out-migration and age component is one which plays an important role in out-migration. Age component not only affects the place of origin but also the place of destination. If the population of the younger age groups out-migrates then it is

disadvantageous for the place of origin whereas it will be advantageous for the place of destination.

Highest percentage of out-migrants are found to be from age-group 20-29 years (35.5 %) followed by 30-39 (30.5 %) and 40-49 (18.1 %). It seems that most of the out-migrants (i.e. 66 %) migrating from the working age-groups, which actually contribute to the economy of the particular place. This means flow of people of the working age-groups hampering the economy of the place of origin while accelerating the economy of the place of destination. There are about 9.2 % migrants moving out under age 19 years, which is a tender age in which they should do study but all because of the poverty and economic hardship, they have to migrate to earn livelihood not only for themselves but also for their family members. This is a serious concern which should be taken care by the governments, as education is very important to improving one's overall life.

Table 6. 3 Percentage Distribution of Out-Migrants by Age Groups

Age Groups (Years)	Out-Migrants (No.)	Out-Migrants (%)
Under 19	26	9.2
20-29	100	35.5
30-39	86	30.5
40-49	51	18.1
50-59	16	5.7
60 and Older	3	1.1
Total	282	100.0

Source: Primary Survey conducted during October 2018 to February 2019

6.2.1.3 Marital Status

Table 6.4 shows that a larger proportion i.e. 71.6 % out-migrants are married while only 28.4 % are unmarried. This may be due to the fact that married males have higher responsibilities. Married male have to take the financial responsibilities of not only their parents but also their wives and many times children also. So to accomplish the higher economic requirement, they have to move out to other places where they can get higher wages in comparison to local, as high wages is not possible at the place of origin. Rural areas, in general, and particularly in Bihar don't have much work opportunities. This is also the major reason of their out-migration as without working they would not be able to fulfil the demands of their family members. This

is really a great sacrifice because they have to live far away from their beloved family, many times old parents and wives also. No one is available at the place of destination to take care of the parents and wives. Whereas in most cases, the unmarried have relatively less responsibilities as compared to the married ones. One peculiar thing to be noted is that those who are highly educated took their spouses with them in comparison to less educated. This may be due to the fact that taking spouses with them would increase the cost of living, which can be possible to bear by the educated ones, as they generally have better job with higher salary, mostly in formal sectors. The less educated are mostly engaged in work under informal sector, where wages are not sufficient enough to take care of more than the individual self.

Table 6. 4 Percentage Distribution of Out-Migrants by Marital Status

Marital Status	Out-Migrants (No.)	Out-Migrants (%)
Married	202	71.6
Unmarried	80	28.4
Total	282	100.0

Source: Primary Survey conducted during October 2018 to February 2019

6.2.2 Social Profile

6.2.2.1 Religion

Religion has been a vital part of Indian culture throughout country's history. According to 2011 Census, 79.8 % population of India practice Hinduism, 14.2% practice Islam, 2.3 % practice Christianity, 1.7 % practice Sikhism and 0.7 % practice Buddhism, Zoroastrianism, Sanamahism and Judaism.

Amongst total out-migrants, 94.3 % belong to Hindu religion whereas 5.7 % were Muslims. Most of these Muslims found to be ghettos around Mosque. However, Hindus ghettos mainly according to their castes. These ghettos named after the particular caste's tolla such as lohar tolla, kumhar tolla, Barhai tolla, etc.

6.2.2.2 Caste

India is the only country in the world where caste system exists. It is prevalent in almost all states of India but its severity is found to be different in different states. Bihar is the state of India where caste still plays a very dominant role in every aspects of socio-economic and

political life. However, caste severity has been declining with the time, with the advent of urbanisation and affirmative action program by government.

In present study, it was found that out-migration didn't confine to a particular caste category but it came from every caste category. Highest percentage of out-migrants i.e. 57.4 % belong to OBCs followed by General (23.4 %), SCs (11.7 %) and STs (7.4 %). In rural India, caste still plays dominating role in determining the economic activity of people. Most of the SCs category people involved in menial work even after migration to other places. This shows that caste still plays an important role in deciding what a person would do. In case of General category, menial work is considered as undesirable in the rural areas. This is why they move to urban areas or at distant places so that they can do menial work there and at the same time they can maintain the supremacy of their caste at the village level. These are generally those people from General category who don't have relatively higher education and socio-economic status. However, this kind of General Caste category people is very less, as most of the people belonging to General Category is found to be rich in land-holdings, wealthy, had better education and also politically active. After the General category, OBCs is found to be dominant (like Teli) but not all. This dominancy has come over the time. These people have seen to acquired incredible political power, acquisition of land and educational upliftment after independence and social awakening in Bihar. Many higher caste people left the villages and move out to urban areas after the abolition of landlordism, this resulted the intermediate castes as the dominant and most powerful group in village matters.

It is seen that higher caste people are out-migrating mostly for education or formal job where as lower caste people are out-migration for work in informal sector or lower menial work. They get Rs. 8000-1000 at the place of destination for the same work for which they used to get Rs. 800-900 in their place of origin. It is also observed that out-migration by SCs and STs to urban regions is a kind of strategy which help them to escape from the discrimination. During the survey in the study area, it is observed that higher land-holdings and higher political power, is still concentrated mostly in the hand of upper castes people except for few. The above discussion clearly shows how caste is still playing a dominant role for socio-economic life of rural people.

Table 6. 5 Percentage Distribution of Out-Migrants by Caste Categories

Caste Category	Out-Migrants (No.)	Out-Migrants (%)
GENERAL	66	23.4
OBC	162	57.4
SC	33	11.7
ST	21	7.4
Total	282	100.0

Source: Primary Survey conducted during October 2018 to February 2019

6.2.2.3 Education

Education is the most basic element in the development of a person and also of the nation. Education is not only the foundation of person's growth and prosperity but also of a country. Educated population can develop a nation in a much better way. It develops a perspective in a person and also helps people to build opinions as well as viewpoints about things in their life. Education makes people capable to interpret things around them. It expands vision and outlook to view the world. Education makes a person form new ideas and these new ideas help in the development of the nation. It is the tool that endows people with knowledge, information, skills, and techniques. Because of education, people became aware of their rights and duties towards their family, society and nation.

Bihar is the worst performer on almost all parameters of education like literacy rate, enrolment ratio, and number of educational institution, etc. Bihar has the lowest literacy rate i.e. 61.8 % in 2011 and 47 % in 2001.

Among the total out-migrants, about 8.87 % are illiterate, which means, in present scenario illiterates are less migrating than those having some level of education. This seems true according to the hypothesis of Todaro (1969)¹⁰⁴, which says that educated people are tend to migrate more than the illiterates because they are more likely to get an employment in the urban areas in comparison to the illiterate ones. The share of out-migrants who are literate without formal education is 2.72 %. Highest proportion (31.52 %) of out-migrants seem to have Secondary level of education, followed by Middle (25.68 %) and Graduation and above (25.29 %).

¹⁰⁴ Todaro, M P. (1969) "A Model for Labour Migration and Urban Unemployment in Less Developed Countries", *American Economic Review*, Vol. 59, No. 1, pp. 138-148.

Table 6. 6 Percentage Distribution of Out-Migrants by Level of Education

Education Level	Out-Migrants (No.)	Out-Migrants (%)
Illiterate	25	8.87
Literate without educational level	7	2.72
Primary	7	2.72
Middle	66	25.68
Secondary	81	31.52
Higher Secondary	31	12.06
Graduation and Above	65	25.29

Source: Primary Survey conducted during October 2018 to February 2019

*Level of Education calculated among total literates, Census, 2001.

* Percentage Illiterate calculated among total out-migrant.

The Table 6.7, clearly shows that highest proportion of out-migrants from the General Caste category have Graduation and above level of educational followed by OBC. This indicates that lower castes people are still behind the upper castes people in terms of levels of educational attainment. It may be because of discrimination at educational institutions, lack of economic and social resources which may be hindering them to go for education in general and higher education in particular. Also the advantage of family wealth and large land holdings by these upper castes people helped them to get enrolled in better education institutions and completion of various levels of education. It is also noticed that because of lack of proper educational institutions in the village, these upper castes people and also some people from OBC category, moved out for education, mostly for higher education. In case of SCs and STs, major proportion of out-migrants have Secondary level of education followed by Middle level of education.

Among 250 out-migrants who had schooling, about 78.4 % have educated in public schools whereas only 10.3 % have private schooling. The reason of not going to private school was money, mentioned by most of them. This was seen to have changed for the current generation of students. Many of these migrant people send their children in private schools due to poor quality of education in the Public schools. They now understand the importance of proper education. Reena, a respondent said that-

“We will not eat but we will give proper education to our children.”

Table 6. 7 Percentage Distribution of Out-Migrants by Caste categories and Level of Education

Caste Category	Illiterate	Percent Literates by Level of Education					
		Literate without Educational Level	Primary	Middle	Secondary	Higher Secondary	Graduation and Above
GENERAL	0.00	1.52	0.00	4.55	10.61	15.15	68.18
OBC	12.35	4.23	3.52	33.10	33.80	11.97	13.38
SC	12.12	0.00	3.45	27.59	62.07	6.90	0.00
ST	4.76	0.00	5.00	40.00	40.00	10.00	5.00

Source: Primary Survey conducted during October 2018 to February 2019

6.2.3 Economic Profile

6.2.3.1 Occupation before and after Migration

It is very important to study the occupational engagement of the out-migrants both before and after migration because it will help us to get a clear understanding about them. About 14.5 % migrants were reported to be unemployed before migration. The reason for this is attributed by majority of them to the paucity of work in the village. Even those employed in the villages were not satisfied with wages they were getting there. Another thing to be noted is that as most of the migrants were not well educated, maximum of them were found to be working on a low-paying jobs in the informal sector (mostly as a casual labour in construction sector) after their migration. Workers in these informal sectors often don't get any employment security. Hire and fire nature is very common amongst these informal sectors.

From the Table 6.8, it is clear that most of the out-migrants are involved in casual labour both before and after migration but the proportion of their involvement has immensely increased from 37.6 % to 67 % after migration. It is found that approx. 5.3 % of them were doing agriculture before migration but after migration not a single person was doing the same. This shows that in present time migration for agricultural work is almost negligible. Even people migrating to Green Revolution region are migrating for non-agricultural work. Nearly 14.2 % were engaged in private services after migration but before migration only one person was found to be engaged in the same. Majority of the migrants engaged in private services and

government service belonged to General category. This shows that even now there are some sectors of occupation dominated mostly by the upper castes people.

It has been seen that 64.2 % migrants didn't have any kind of training. This is mainly because most of them are casual labour in which there is no need for any training. However there are 35.8 % migrants who had training. These trainings were mainly for those works for which some specific kind of skills were required. Some of the training mentioned by the respondents in unorganised sectors were like Welding, pipefitter, POP, JCV driving, regar, carpenter, shattering, etc. and examples in organised sectors are related to different kinds of engineering and management.

Table 6. 8 Occupational Distribution of Out-Migrants

Occupation	Occupation			
	Before Migration		After Migration	
	Out-Migrants (No.)	Out-Migrants (%)	Out-Migrants (No.)	Out-Migrants (%)
Government Service	1	.4	6	2.1
Private Service	1	.4	40	14.2
Student	88	31.2	18	6.4
Unemployed	41	14.5	1	.4
Casual Labourer	106	37.6	189	67.02
Self-Employed	30	10.6	28	9.9
Agriculture	15	5.3	NA	NA
Total	282	100.0	282	100.0

Source: Primary Survey conducted during October 2018 to February 2019

6.2.3.2 Income

For the present study, income analysis is done for 152 out-migrants for before migration and 257 out-migrants for after migration. There were about 130 cases of before migration and 25 cases of after migration who were not getting any income as they were either students or unemployed. However, this also includes those who were working but not getting any income because they were in their training period.

There are some factors which determines the level of income of the persons. The most important among them are the level of education and the work experience gained during an occupation. Therefore, income level will differ from person to person and from place to place. If we compare monthly income of out-migrants before migration, it is found that about 40.1 % migrants were getting monthly income below Rs. 5000 whereas 45.39 % were getting income between Rs. 5000-10000. There are only two out-migrants who were getting monthly income above Rs. 25000. It is clear that most of the migrants (85.52 %) had monthly income below 10000. They were mainly engaged in unskilled activities.

Table 6. 9 Income before Migration

Income Group	Out-Migrants (No.)	Out-Migrants (%)
Below 5000	61	40.13
5000-10000	69	45.39
10000-15000	16	10.53
15000-20000	4	2.63
Above 25000	2	1.32
Total	152	100

Source: Primary Survey conducted during October 2018 to February 2019

Before migration the minimum wage one got was Rs. 400 whereas it is Rs. 4000 after migration among the sampled out-migrants. This shows a huge difference in the wages of before and after migration. Already we have seen above that most the migrants were casual labourers at the place of origin which get double after migration but the wages they get after migration was way better than before. Maximum (51.75 %) migrants have monthly income in between the range Rs. 10000-20000 while 28.79 % migrants have monthly income below Rs. 10000. It is important to mention that a huge percentage (about 80.54 %) have monthly income below Rs. 20000. Only 4.28 % have income level above Rs. 50000 and these are those having very good level of education and working in a private firm. These mainly belong to the landlord families having considerable socio-economic power. Many of their members were found to be in either administrative or political positions. The lower income group mainly belongs to the lower castes people whereas higher income groups mainly belongs to the upper castes people.

Table 6. 10 Income after Migration

Income Group	Out-Migrants (No.)	Out-Migrants (%)
Below 10000	74	28.79
10000-20000	133	51.75
20000-30000	24	9.34
30000-40000	10	3.89
40000-50000	5	1.95
Above 50000	11	4.28
Total	257	100.00

Source: Primary Survey conducted during October 2018 to February 2019

6.3 Sources of Information about Employment

Broadly, there can be two ways through which one can get information about the employment at the destination: i) Formal ii) Informal. Formal sources of information includes advertisements in pamphlets, newspapers, magazines and wallpapers, etc. The informal sources of information include those channels, networks and processes which are informal in nature like relatives, friends, neighbours, etc. In this, there is no formal application procedure for getting job.

Largest chunk of migrants (i.e. 38.02 %) have got information about the job by their relatives followed by friends (18.25 %) and neighbours (13.69 %). About 69.96 % of those who are employed (about 19 i.e. 6.7 % migrants were either students or unemployed) have got information about employment through their relatives, friends and neighbours. They play a crucial role in taking decision of where to migrate. It becomes easier for them to migrate to those places where they have already some known person/s living as they will help them in their initial adjustment to the new place. Another reason mentioned by the respondents is that if they don't have any local support at the destination it would raise the cost of job search. Moreover, the presence of known person at the place of destination help them to get acquaintance to the new place, provide often initial food, accommodation, support in job search and make them feel comfortable to the extent that they feel themselves at home.

It is found that these informal sources of information mainly help those who are engaged in informal /unorganised sector as a casual labour whereas a job search by self is mostly by those who are working in private firms and getting handsome money. Another point to be noted is that the role of Thekedar/contractor in providing job information has reduced with time as only 14.07 % of migrants got information about job by them and this fragment of out-migrants are the most susceptible to exploitation. This is also supported by one of the study by Rodgers and Rodgers, 2011, where it is mentioned that the role of middle men/ contractor has fallen in the process of migration in Bihar. It is observed that role of Thekedar/agents/middle men is more seen in terms of international migration where they asked near about Rs. 40000 for recruiting them for work in foreign countries mostly in middle east countries. International migration in the study area is also mainly seen for informal sector. The duration of migration in this case is mostly one or two years after which their contract end and they are send back to their villages. In such cases, they are able to visit their home only after the contract gets over, in between either they are not allowed to go or don't have money to go.

Table 6. 11 Sources of Information about Employment

Source of Information	Out-Migrants (No.)	Out-Migrants (%)
Through Relatives	100	38.02
Through Hometown Neighbours	36	13.69
Through Hometown Friends	48	18.25
Self-Search	42	15.97
Thekedars/Contractors/Agents/Middle Men	37	14.07
Total	263	100.00

Source: Primary Survey conducted during October 2018 to February 2019

6.4 Destination of Migration

From the Table 6.12, it is found that 96 % migrants are internal migrants whereas meagre 4 % are international migrants. All these international migrants are found to be from the Muslim community only. However, these international migrants out-migrate to mainly Middle East countries like Dubai, Saudi, Oman, etc. Among these Gulf countries, Dubai has the highest number of migrants followed by Saudi. There were some migrants found who previously went to these countries but at the present time, they are working in the Indian cities. These kinds of out-migrants are not taken in the present study in order to make things clear.

Table 6. 12 Percentage Distribution of Out-Migrants by Present place of Residence

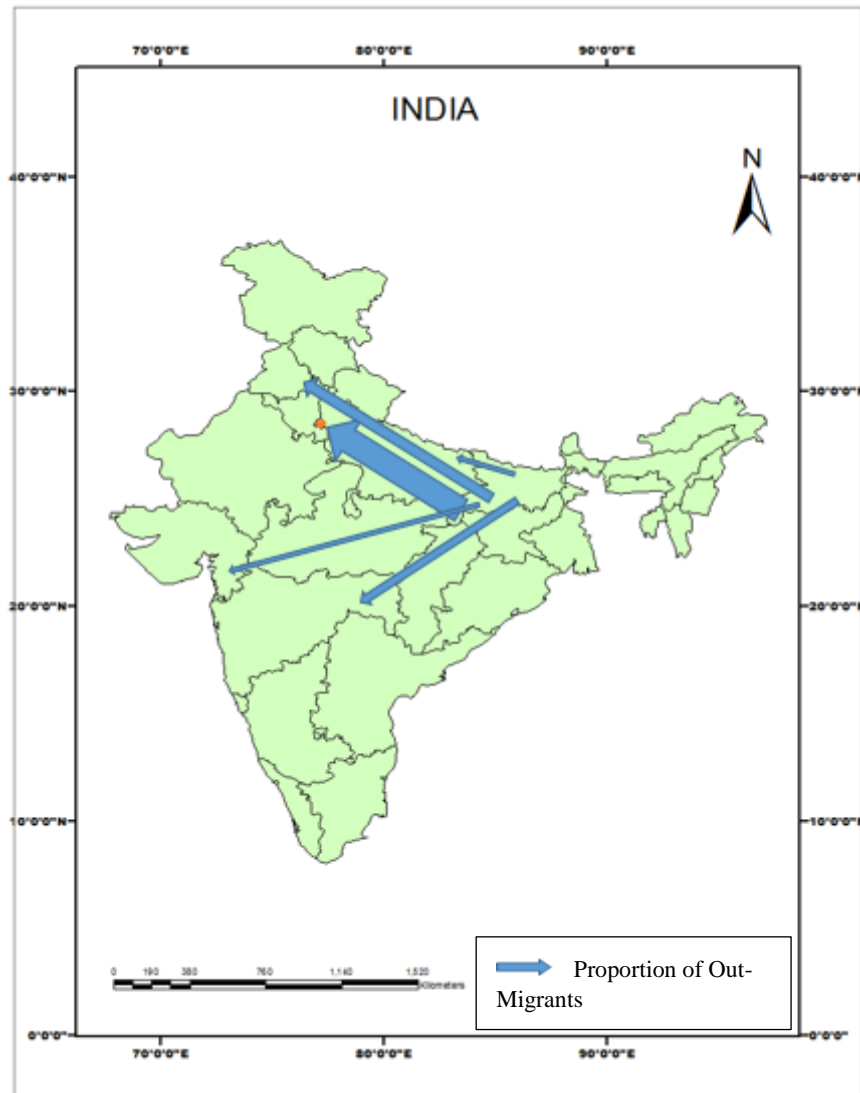
States	Out-Migrants (No.)	Out-Migrants (%)
Delhi	74	26.24
Punjab	34	12.06
Maharashtra	32	11.35
Gujarat	22	7.80
U.P.	19	6.74
Rajasthan	17	6.03
Karnataka	12	4.26
Assam	8	2.84
M.P.	7	2.48
Haryana	6	2.13
T.N.	6	2.13
W.B.	6	2.13
Chandigarh	6	2.13
J & K	7	2.48
Meghalaya	5	1.77
Dubai	4	1.42
Saudi	3	1.06
Uttarakhand	4	1.42
Jharkhand	2	0.71
Orissa	2	0.71
Ethiopia	1	0.35
Kenya	1	0.35
Kerala	1	0.35
Oman	1	0.35
Qatar	1	0.35
Telangana	1	0.35

Source: Primary Survey conducted during October 2018 to February 2019

As far as internal migration concerned, the main domestic destination is found to be Delhi (26.24 %) followed by Punjab (12.06 %) and Maharashtra (11.35 %). Delhi came up as the main destination for out-migrants. Delhi as an administrative capital of India has better infrastructure facilities, better and modern transportation system (metro), best educational institutions and communication attract people from all the nooks and corners of the country. It is also growing at a faster rate economically in comparison to various other states of India¹⁰⁵, which makes it a hotspot for migrants. Another reason may be attributed to its melting pot nature. Delhi has no particular culture of its own like Maharashtra has Marathi culture, Punjab has Punjabi culture, Karnataka has Kannad culture, etc. It is easily and beautifully amalgamates every single person coming from different states. This makes Delhi as one of the favourite destination in the country as here people feel more comfortable in comparison to other cities. There is not much difference between Punjab and Maharashtra (basically Mumbai) in terms of percentage of out-migrants moved there according to present survey but it is cited by many scholars and researchers that with the time the rate of out-migration has decreased to Punjab whereas it has increased to Mumbai. Both are economically better and are developed. Punjab has one of the advanced and modernised agricultural system whereas Mumbai is a commercial/Business capital of India. These characteristics make both as one the favourite destination.

¹⁰⁵ Das, K.C., S. Saha “Inter-state migration and regional disparities in India”, IUSSP.

Map 6. 1 Top 5 Destinations of Out-Migrants from Bihar (%)



Source: Primary Survey conducted during October 2018 to February 2019

6.5 Year of Migration

One can easily notice by simply looking at the Table 6.13 below that the proportion of the out-migrants is increasing with the passing years. This could be because of the improvement in the transportation and communication technology with the time. Due to improved information and communication technology, one can easily get information about the work opportunities at other places and due to the improved transportation facilities, one can easily go to that place for work. Reliance Information communication Limited (popularly known as Jio), a telecommunication company which started providing free Jio SIM with unlimited free SMS, voice calls, 4G mobile data, roaming services nation-wide in 2016, and attracted a huge Indian

population. For using this free SIM and its various attractive facilities, people started buying smart phones. With the introduction of Jio, it became possible for many Indians (even the poor) even in the villages to have smart phones and internet facilities. It has also been observed in the sampled villages where many told the same story.

Table 6. 13 Percentage Distribution of Out-Migrants by Year of Migration

Year Migration	Out-Migrants (No.)	Out-Migrants (%)
Before 1980	2	0.7
1981-1990	5	1.8
1991-2000	41	14.5
2001-2010	84	29.8
After 2010	150	53.2
Total	282	100.0

Source: Primary Survey conducted during October 2018 to February 2019

6.6 Reasons of Migration

Reasons of migration are very important to study in order to understand the situations and conditions of out-migrants which compel them to leave their own beloved home and family members. About 94.3 % out-migrants moved out due to employment related reasons like in search of better work, better wages, wider scope of work opportunities, etc. because there were chronic dearth of job opportunities in the villages as reported by the most of the respondents. Bihar also lacked sufficient secondary and tertiary sector which can absorb labour force of the rural areas and that is why it is unable to hold its population. Hence, out-migration is taking place from this state.¹⁰⁶ With the time there has been improvement in the literacy rate and education among the youths of rural areas with the introduction of many educational programmes by the government. This can be one of the reason of increased out-migration for employment as education help them in better understanding/knowledge about their surroundings, rights, choice and aspiration. This can also aspire people to get better quality of life. Only 5.7 % out-migrants out-migrated for educational purpose mainly for higher education like B.Tech., etc. or for the preparation of government exams. A point to be noted is that these mainly belonged to General Caste category people followed by well-off OBCs. This doesn't mean that other caste people don't want to send their children out-side for study but it is their economic constraints which doesn't allow them to do so.

¹⁰⁶ Ibid. p.7

Table 6. 14 Percentage Distribution of Out-Migrants by Reasons of Migration

Reasons of Migration	Out-Migrants (No.)	Out-Migrants (%)
Employment/Work	266	94.3
Education	16	5.7
Total	282	100.0

Source: Primary Survey conducted during October 2018 to February 2019

6.7 Frequency of Home Visit

It is observed that about 50.4 % migrants went their home twice a year. This two visits in a year mainly for Holi and Chatth. In fact, chatth always comes after six days of Diwali so majority of people usually come in Diwali and stayed till Chatth. Even if one can't come on Diwali they anyhow manage to come in Chatth, as Chatth is the most important festival for the Bihari people. It's a four days festival in which people worship 'Sun God' and 'Chatti Maiyya'. Women keep fast for two days without water and food and on third day only after worshipping these two gods they eat something. The women's of Bihar keep this fast for the good of their family members and society.

Table 6. 15 Frequency Of home visit by Migrant

Frequency of Visits	Out-Migrants (No.)	Out-Migrants (%)
Monthly	1	0.4
Twice a year	142	50.4
Thrice a year	52	18.4
Annually	72	25.5
Once in 2 year	5	1.8
Not went	10	3.5
Total	282	100.0

Source: Primary Survey conducted during October 2018 to February 2019

Near about 25 % migrants go home once a year. Once a year is mainly for the Chatth festival which is unavoidable/compulsory for a Bihari to go for the Chatth Pooja as this festival has

immense importance for the people of Bihar. Those who out-migrate internationally visit home once in two years because it is unaffordable for them as the cost of travelling is very high for them. There are about ten migrants who never went home after employment because there was less time since they left home. Those out-migrants who visit their home more than twice in a year have some work related to agriculture, take care of their older parents, or any family member having some health problems, etc.

6.8 Remittances

Remittances is not a new phenomenon but an age-old phenomenon which have acquired great importance in these few decades, with increasing national and international migration. Remittances can be defined as “transfers, either in cash or in-kind, to the households by their former members who had migrated out” (NSSO 2010a, p.14). It plays a vital role in changing the lives of not only migrants but also their family members. It is often associated with reducing poverty and increasing quality of life. Mostly, it is considered to contribute to positive changes but there are also some negative consequences like it increases inequality in source regions.

Despite its importance, there is dearth of research on remittances in India, mainly because of lack of data that can be represented nationally. It is only NSSO which collected elaborative information on migration and remittances at the household level for the first time in its 64th round survey and published under a report named “Migration in India: 2007-08” in June 2010. This report have detailed information related to migration and remittances across diverse socio-economic attributes and it is also nationally representative. However, aggregate volumes of national and international remittances at the level of state or across attributes of household didn't provided by this report.

About \$10 billion was estimated as domestic remittance in 2007-08, in which 60 % was found to be Inter-state transfers and 80 % was channelled towards households in rural areas. Dependency on domestic remittance is found to be highest in Bihar followed by U.P. and Rajasthan, which has mostly increased since the 1990s. Forty per cent of international remittance came from Kerala, Punjab and Goa. These three states are amongst the top

remittance-reliant economies in the world. U.P. followed by Bihar, is the top domestic remittance receiving states of India.¹⁰⁷

Remittance from out-migrants is an important as well as most debatable topic of discussion whenever one talks about out-migration. It has positive impact not only on rural households but also on the rural economy. If one considers various economic, social or emotional sacrifices of out-migrants and their family members back home as an investment then remittances can be said as returns of their investment. The quantum of remittances depends on the various streams of migration like rural-rural migration will have less amount of remittances in comparison to rural to urban. This is so because urban areas provide better job with higher wages than rural areas. The more they earn the more they remit back home. Aggregate remittances also depend on their duration of stay at the place of destination.

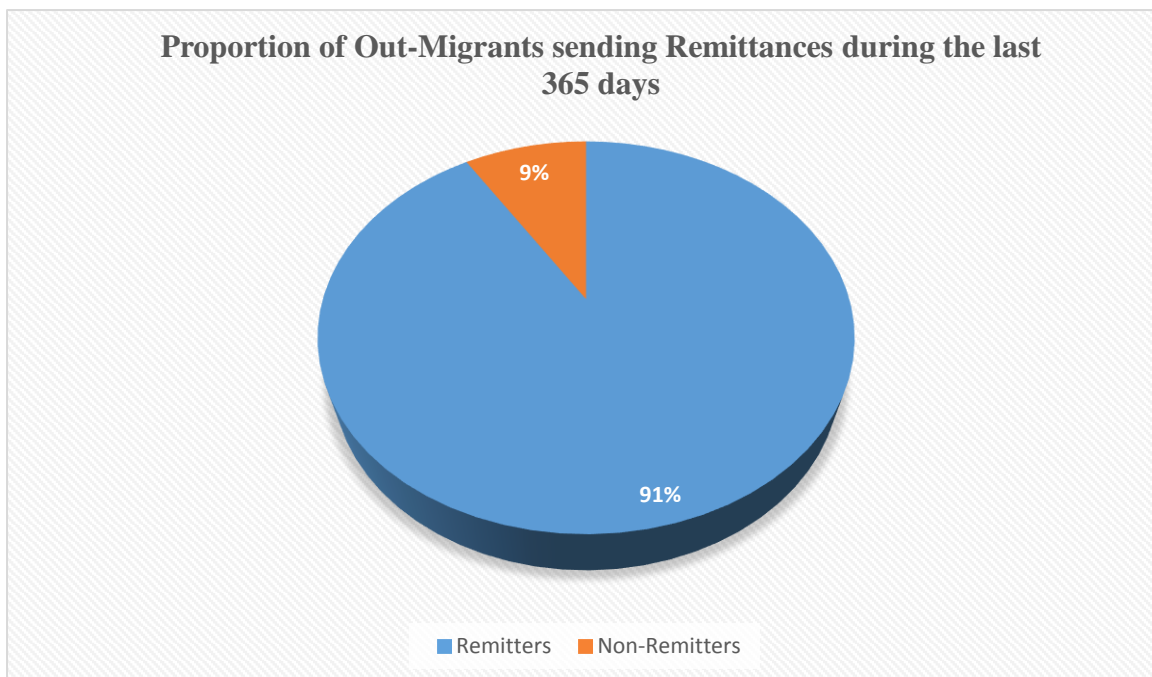
Out-migration is motivated by various reasons but the most important reason is found to be the economic hardship/employment for male. They usually send the earned money back home in the form of remittances. It is observed that out-migrants of lower income group mostly keep small portion of earned money for themselves and send larger portion to their household back in the villages whereas out-migrants of the higher income groups tend to send small portion of money or nothing to their families back home. This is so because out-migrants from the lower income group, compelled by the poor economic conditions of their households, spend less on themselves at the place of destination and try to spare money as much as possible for their families so that they can send larger portion of money to their families at home. Whereas families of out-migrants from higher income groups already have better economic conditions and are well off that's why they don't require extra money by their out-migrant members and also their own expenditure at the place of destination is high. Therefore, we can say that the decision of sending remittances by the out-migrants is not governed by their income level or education level or by the distance of their out-migration rather it depends on the need of the family members left behind in the village and their degree of attachment with the household members.

¹⁰⁷ Tumbe, C. (2011) "Remittances in India: Facts & Issues" Working Paper no. 331, *Indian Institute of Management, Bangalore*, paper presented at the 52nd Annual Conference of the Indian Society of Labour Economics, 17-18 December, 2010, Dharwad.

6.8.1 Proportion of Out-Migrants sending Remittances

Fig. 6.1 reveals that about 91% out-migrants send remittances to their households in the villages whereas meagre of 9 % don't send, these either belonged to well off family who don't require extra money to run their households or those who earn so less that they are unable to send any money to their households. It's also includes those migrants who migrated for study and that's why don't send money back home instead they asked money for their study expenses (School fees, hostel fees, etc.) from their family in the place of origin. During personal interview it was observed that migrants took some eatables like cereals, home-made snakes, etc. with them from the place of origin to the place of destinations. The amount of remittances and its associated aspects are also important to look upon in order to understanding the various impacts of remittances.

Fig. 6. 1 Proportion of Out-Migrants sending Remittances during the last 365 days



Source: Primary Survey conducted during October 2018 to February 2019

6.8.2 Size of Remittances

It is clearly seen in the Table 6.16 below that about 38.5 % out-migrants send remittances less than Rs. 5000 and 41.2 % between Rs. 5000 to Rs. 10000. Therefore, it can be said that major part (approx. 79.7 %) of the out-migrants remit less than 10000 which is actually very less amount to run a household in this scenario of high inflations. The reason for the above said may be because larger proportion of the out-migrants are destitute and are either illiterate or

less educated along with unskilled that don't leave other options for them than working in an unorganised sector as unskilled workers at the place of destinations.

Table 6. 16 Amount of Remittances Remitted by the Out-Migrants

Remittances (Rs)	Remitters (No.)	Remitters (%.)
Below 5000	99	38.5
5000-10000	106	41.2
10000-15000	25	9.7
15000-20000	3	1.2
20000-25000	9	3.5
Above 25000	15	5.8
Total	257	100.0

Source: Primary Survey conducted during October 2018 to February 2019

6.8.3 Amount of Remittance Remitted and Levels of Education of Out-Migrant

The Table 6.17 clarify that lower the education level lower is the remittance amount whereas higher the education level higher is the remittance amount. The education level of the migrant decides their quality of employment and their quality of employment decides their amount of remittance. The destitution don't allow them to have proper or higher education and thus force them to work in an unorganised sector as a labour. Also the village's educational infrastructure is not that good to provide proper education. So those households which are economically well off are able to send their children to cities for better education while these poor migrants are not able to do so, hence employed as labourers or lower paid jobs.

Table 6. 17 Amount of Remittance Remitted and Levels of Education of Out-Migrant

Remittances (Rs)	Illiterates	Literates with no formal Education	Primary	Middle	Secondary	Higher Secondary	Graduation And Above
Below 5000	3.1	1.2	0.8	14.4	13.6	4.3	1.2
5000-10000	5.1	1.2	1.2	9.3	13.2	3.9	7.4

10000-15000	1.2	0.4	0.8	0.4	2.3	0.8	3.9
15000-20000	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.4	0.0	0.4	0.4
20000-25000	0.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.2	1.2	0.8
Above 25000	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.8	0.0	0.4	4.7
Total	9.7	2.7	2.7	25.3	30.4	10.9	18.3

Source: Primary Survey conducted during October 2018 to February 2019

6.8.4 Amount of Remittance Remitted and Types of Occupation

Table 6.18 clearly show that those who are sending higher remittances are those who are doing private, government services or are self-employed. Those sending lower remittances are working as casual labour. The wages they get are not much but still they manage to send money to household in the village by cutting down their own expenses at the destination so that they can save and contribute as much as possible to their household members at home.

It is found that those migrants migrated with their family remit less than those who left their family in village. Another point to be noted is that the proportion of remittances also depends on the need of the household, like those who have members at home suffering with some chronic disease or have children to study, remit more.

Table 6. 18 Amount of Remittance Remitted and Types of Occupation

Remittances (Rs)	Government Service	Private Service	Casual Labourer	Self-Employed
Below 5000	0.0	0.4	32.7	5.4
5000-10000	1.2	7.4	30	2.7
10000-15000	0.4	1.9	6.2	1.2
15000-20000	0.0	0.4	0.8	0.0
20000-25000	0.0	1.6	0.8	1.2
Above 25000	0.8	3.9	0.8	0.4
Total	2.3	15.6	71.2	10.9

Source: Primary Survey conducted during October 2018 to February 2019

6.8.5 Amount of Remittance Remitted and relationship of Out-migrant with the Head of HH

It is discernible through the Table 6.19 that it is the son of the household who are majorly sent outside for earning which may be because they are young, which makes easy for them to go out-side and work. The second largest proportion (46 %) of migrants are head of the house themselves. This shows that there are more responsibilities on the shoulders of the head of the household to manage the household's member's requirements. These responsibilities compel them to go far away from their own family members in order to fulfil their needs.

Table 6. 19 Amount of Remittance Remitted and relationship of Out-Migrant with the Head of HH

Remittances (Rs)	Head Self (%)	Sister/Brother (%)	Son/Daughter (%)	Total (%)
Below 5000	14	1.9	22.6	38.5
5000-10000	24.9	3.1	13.2	41.2
10000-15000	5.1	0.4	4.3	9.7
15000-20000	0.4	0	0.8	1.2
20000-25000	1.2	0	2.3	3.5
Above 25000	0.4	0	5.4	5.8
Total	46	5.4	48.6	100

Source: Primary Survey conducted during October 2018 to February 2019

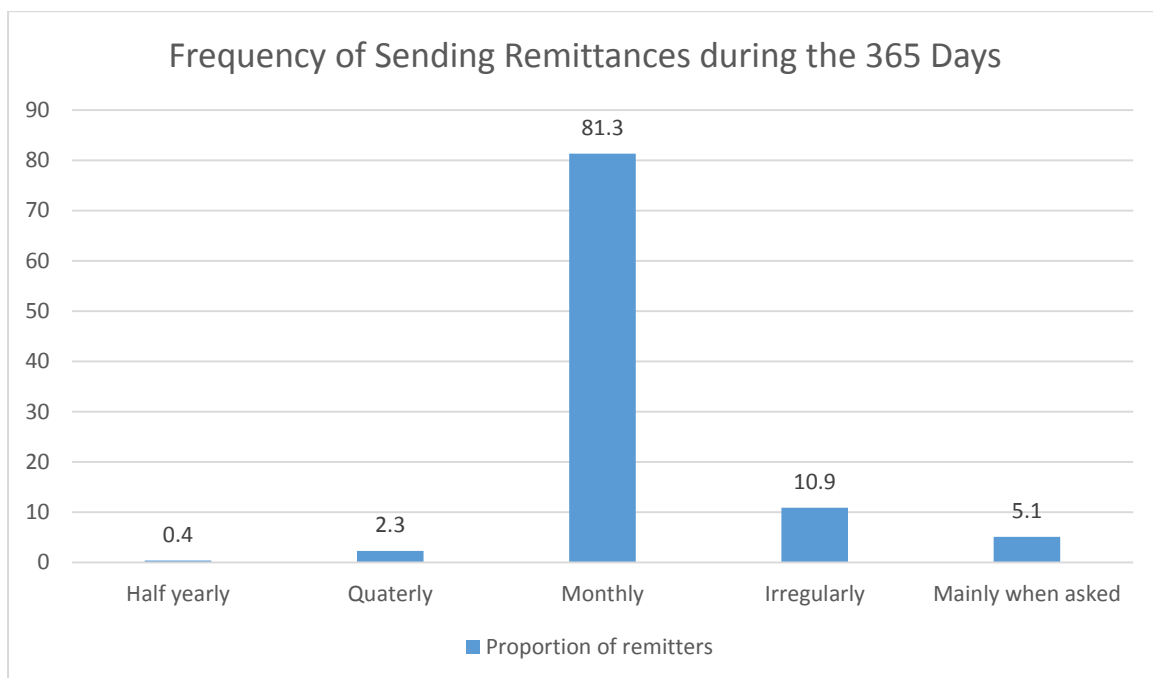
In the last it can be derived that the out-migration by people belonging to lower income group results in better income (in the form of remittance) contribution to their households. It also leads in decreasing the income inequalities amongst the various income groups of the village. The socio-economic condition of a household in particular and place of origin in general has seen to be significantly improving through the contribution of remittances. Though the extent of these developments are largely determined by the size and frequency of remittances.

6.8.6 Frequency of Remittances

Fig. 6.2 reveals that maximum proportion (81.3 %) of remitters remit monthly. Whatever the situation, it is necessary for them to send money because if they don't send, their household members may have to sleep empty stomach. The larger proportion under this are the casual

labourers. However, about 10.9 % remit irregularly, which means there is no definite time to send money, as and when they collected some amount which they can send, they send it back home. Another reason for sending irregular remittances is that many a time migrants are not given regular wages by their employer, but whenever they get they send it immediately. It has been found that migrants from the higher-income groups don't send remittances regularly instead they send only when asked by their family members. It is so because their families are economically well off and hence don't require regular money from their migrant members. They generally ask for money when there is some big functions, ceremonies, festivals or bigger crisis (health or economic).

Fig. 6. 2 Frequency of Sending Remittances during the 365 Days



Source: Primary Survey conducted during October 2018 to February 2019

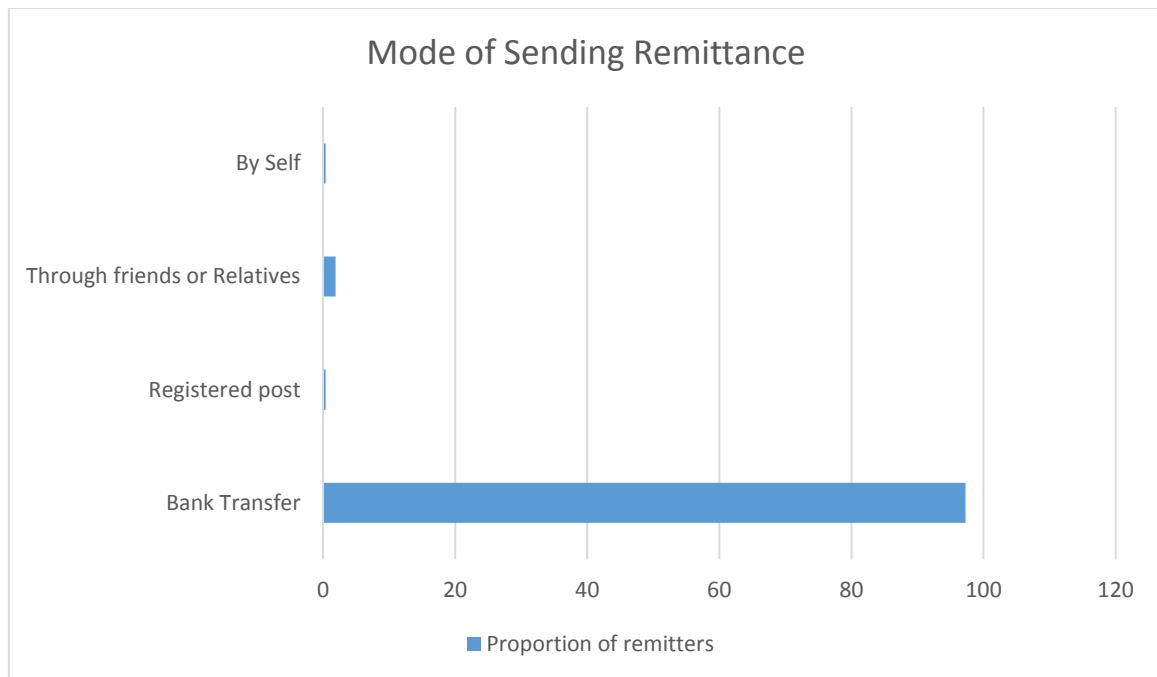
6.8.7 Mode of Sending Remittances

The mode of sending remittances can be broadly classified as formal and informal. The informal channel includes money transfer through friends, relatives, neighbours and by themselves whereas formal channel includes transfers through money order and bank. The present study confirm that the usual mode of sending remittances has changed over the period. Earlier the modes like money order and through friends/relatives were the most important one. There was a time when maximum remittances were send through money order, that's why

Bihar was often referred as “Money Order Economy” (Deshingkar et al., 2009). But now it is the bank transfer which has gained importance. Earlier informal channels were preferred over the formal one because formal financial institutions have so many entry obstacles, cumbersome procedures, and various short comings in the system which made difficult for them to have access to these services. However now these barriers have minimised to a certain extent which has increased its uses by the migrants for sending remittances.

The Fig. 6.3 clearly shows that highest remitters remit money through banks followed by friends and relatives. The reason for this may be due the augmenting penetration of banking in the rural areas in addition with increasing financial literacy amongst the population of rural areas in the recent times.

Fig. 6. 3 Mode of Sending Remittance



Source: Primary Survey conducted during October 2018 to February 2019

6.8.8 Uses of Remittances

Remittances by out-migrants play an important role in enhancing the livelihoods of millions of population. Almost all migrant households received remittances from their out-migrant members but many differences exist in terms of size, frequency, mode and uses of remittances. The analysis of remittance’s uses is necessary to carry out because it help one to know where

exactly the remittances are used by the migrant's household and also to see whether or not it helped in improving migrant household conditions.

The uses of remittances differed significantly from one household to another household, which mainly depends on the need and the socio-economic background of households and also on the amount of remittances received. Irrespective of the above said differences, most of the migrants used the remittances on the basic needs of food, health and education. While taking personal interview, respondents were asked to report primary, secondary and tertiary uses of remittances by the household. About 72 % HHs spent remittances on food, 9.3 % on health care, 7 % on agriculture and 5.4 % on education of household members (largely children). After food, health and education, most of the remittances utilised for the HH consumer expenditures. Remittances allowed them to avert the starvation and ill-health exigencies and along with this it also helped to invest in future livelihood assets (for example-education of children). According to the present study, migrant households were found to invest more on children's education than the non-migrant households. The migrant HHs spent average Rs. 670 monthly whereas non-migrant HHs expense average Rs. 505.28 monthly on the children's education. The other utilisation of remittances included, purchase of land/property, debt. Repayment, renovation of house, starting new petty business, expensing on marriage and other ceremonies (like- funerals, religious functions), agriculture and saving for the future. In short one can say that remittances played a vital role in improving ones quality of life.

Table 6. 20 Uses of Remittances at the Household Level

Uses of Remittance	Proportion of Remittance Receiving Households (%)		
	Primary Use	Secondary Use	Tertiary Use
Food	<u>72</u>	16	3.5
Education	5.4	6.6	17.5
Health	9.3	28	<u>31.9</u>
HH consumer expenditure	0.4	<u>42</u>	31.5
Purchase of Land / property	0.4	-	-
Debt. Repayment	0.8	2.3	4.7

Saving	4.7	1.2	2.7
Agriculture	7	2.3	6.2
Marriage/Ceremonies	-	0.4	1.2
Renovation of house	-	0.8	0.8
Business	-	0.4	-

Source: Primary Survey conducted during October 2018 to February 2019

Additionally, remittances is also seen to be invested in agriculture, allied activities and to buy agricultural inputs like seeds, pesticides and fertilisers, for paying rents of hired water pumps by many HHs. Indeed, in many cases, it is found that migrant's money has played a crucial role in the maintenance and sustenance of small parcels of land owned by them. There were also some cases, where remittances were significant, which allowed HHs to purchase and collect more lands and draw gains from agricultural work. Sometimes, it is also used to lease in agricultural land for sharecropping farming (locally called bataiya), often by very poor one.

6.8.9 Composition of Remittances

Remittances also include some consumer durables (such as clothes, electronic good/gadgets, Jewelleries) in the form of gifts, brought by the out-migrants when they come to home. The same has been pointed out by Hugo (1983) "the volume and direction of the flow remittances between a migrant and his family of origin during a particular year do not necessarily indicate either the net value or the overall direction of a wealth flow over the lifetime of the parent household." These things brought by the migrants also add to their quality of life. Many a time migrants bring things like T.V., bicycles, mobiles, sound box/Speaker, decoration items, etc. Things like T.V., mobiles, etc. enhance their overall awareness and also knowledge outside their village. These gadgets also help them to improve their way of thinking, and overall quality of life.

6.8.10 Contribution of Remittances in Development of HHs

Remittances are generally expected to increasing the levels of consumption, improving the housing conditions, encouraging the business investment, and enhancing the obtainability of health care and education for the members of the households. Along with the multidimensional

effects of remittance, its effects may be short term as well as long term in respect of duration. Lucas (2005) provides a detailed analysis of the impacts of remittance on socio-economic conditions in developing countries. Its short term effects include an increase in consumption, alleviation of poverty and income inequality which led to changes in participation in the labour market. Whereas it's long-term effects are related to socio-economic development, especially on the status of health and education improvement.

Chapter: 7

Comparison of Migrant and Non-Migrant Households

This chapter is dedicated to analyse out-migration at the level of household. Since one of the objectives of the present study is to compare migrant and non-migrant HHs on various social and economic aspects, it is imperative to address this objective in this chapter. For this purpose migrant and non-migrant households have been compared and differentiated. A total of 402 sample households were interviewed for the present study, amongst which there were 209 (52 %) migrant households and 193 non-migrant households (48 %). For the present study, household is considered as those whose members who live under one roof and eat from the common *chulha* or kitchen. There were many cases in which people lived under one roof but they did not share the common kitchen nor their income. Even then, they were considered as one household, though they lived under one roof but ate food from different kitchens. About 60 % of households were included under this category.

7.1 Caste

Amongst the total migrant HHs, 59.3 % HHs belonged to OBC category followed by General (45 %), SCs (12 %) and ST (7.2 %) whereas caste composition of the total non-migrant HHs shows that 48.2 % HHs belonged to OBC category followed by SCs (20.2 %), General (19.7 %), and ST (11.9 %). There are many studies by various scholars which pointed out that it is generally the people belonging to the landless or land-poor communities from the lower castes who go for unskilled seasonal or circular migration (Breman, 1996, 2010; Keshri & Bhagat, 2012; Moose et al., 2002; Srivastava & Sasikumar, 2003). However, the present survey data on composition of caste found that there was no significant differences in the percentage of migrant and non-migrant HHs by caste categories, and migrants belonged from all castes. Some studies based on other parts of Bihar also showed the same scenario (Karan, 2003; Sharma, 1997). However, the benefits of migration varied, with upper caste HHs doing somewhat better than the HHs belonging to the lower castes in Gopalgunj. Indeed, according to the colonial records also, migration from western Bihar was found to be widespread across different groups of caste (de Haan, 1997a, 1997b, 2002; Hagen & Yang, 1979, 1989). The present fieldwork shows that the history of caste based migration from western Bihar has weakened with time. In fact, traditionally, while the lower caste people belonging to landless and land-poor moved elsewhere to earn income, mainly from menial works in addition to the income from the local

farm based labour, in present days the phenomena of migration has risen amongst the upper castes. After the obliteration of Zamindari system and related land reforms, although half-done, brought into Bihar in the post-independence period, loss of land among the upper castes has been higher. Further decreasing the capacity of land based livelihoods led to the continuous disintegration of landholding because of high population pressures. This led the landholdings of upper caste to reach a point where farming no longer offered a feasible income option (Sharma, 2005, p.965) This further contributed in decreasing the wage income prospects locally, and also increased the incidence of migration among the traditionally underprivileged communities like SCs and STs Categories.

Table 7. 1 Migrant and Non-Migrant Households by Caste categories

Household	Caste category				Total
	General	OBC	SC	ST	
Migrants	45 (21.5%)	124 (59.3%)	25 (12 %))	15 (7.2%)	209
Non-Migrant	38 (19.7%)	93 (48.2%)	39 (20.2%)	23 (11.9%)	193
Total	83 (20.6%)	217 (54%)	64 (15.9%)	38 (9.5%)	402

Source: Primary Survey conducted during October 2018 to February 2019

7.2 Religion

The majority of the sample HHs belongs to the Hindu religion (94 %) with only a 6 % Muslim population. This is obvious as this country is Hindu dominant. There were many Muslim HHs that have reported as international migrants. Most of them working in the Arab countries like Dubai, Oman, etc. which is also confirmed by Deshingkar, et al. (2006) “there are many international migrants among Muslims: more than 40 percent of rural Muslim migrants from Siwan and Gopalganj district head for Gulf countries”¹⁰⁸ and some also work in African countries. They have to pay certain amount to the contractor in advance in order to go abroad for work. For this initial cost of international migration, many of them have also taken loan. Most of them work as unskilled labour but some of them also worked as skilled labour. Many times, these migrants are cheated by the contractors, as they take money from them but don’t send them as promised. Since they don’t have any other alternate means to seek employment abroad, they take this risk because the money they earn while working abroad is three to four times more than the money they would have earned if employed in India. They usually come

¹⁰⁸ Deshingkar, P. et al. (2006) “The Role of Migration and Remittances in Promoting Livelihoods in Bihar” Overseas Development Institute, London

back after 2 years when their contract gets over. If they wish to come back earlier than this, then they have to leave the job and return.

Table 7. 2 Migrant and Non-Migrant Households by Religion

Household	Religion		Total
	Hindu	Muslim	
Migrants	195 (93.3%)	14 (6.7%)	209
Non-Migrant	183 (94.8 %)	10 (5.2%)	193
Total	378 (94%)	24 (6 %)	402

Source: Primary Survey conducted during October 2018 to February 2019

7.3 Households by Family Type

Family type also played an important role in promoting or discouraging out-migration. Generally, it is considered that joint families or large families are more likely to promote out-migration than nuclear families as the wives and children of the out-migrants left back at origin, can be taken care well within the system of joint family. The present study found that most of the out-migrants don't take their wives and children with them to their places of destination because of various reasons. The first and foremost reason is related to property. Many times, people living in a house, under joint family structure, is ancestral or there is cultivated land nearby. If they take their wives and children along with them, it would result in losing their contacts with the other members of the family and this would lead to greater possibility of the appropriation of their property to others. Secondly, the values and moral cherished in the Indian family, the wife of the male is expected to take care of the family members specially the old ones. In case of out-migrants also, the older members of the households, especially the older ladies such as the wife or mother of the household head, think that the spouse of the male migrants should perform her duty of providing relief to them from day to day household chores during their old age, and therefore they are expected not to go with her husband and should continue to do the same. The out-migrating person also think that he owes few moral obligation of providing comfort to their aging parents and other members of the household. Thirdly, the elders of the family do not want to send the wife and children of the out-migrant with them until and unless they are properly settled in the place of destination and makes arrangement for living in a house.

Now, in India the scenario has changed over the time, in place of joint family, nuclear family is becoming more common. The same condition is also found in the case of out-migrants. For both the migrant and non-migrant HH, nuclear type of family is found to be more common.

Table 7.3 Shows that joint family HHs is found to be higher for migrant HHs (30.14 %) than the non-migrant HHs (26.94 %). The reason for this has already been explained above.

Table 7. 3 Migrant and Non-Migrant Households by Family Type

Household	Family Type			Total
	Joint	Nuclear	Extended	
Migrants	63 (30.14 %)	137 (65.55 %)	9 (4.3 %)	209
Non-Migrant	52(26.94 %)	141 (73.05 %)	0	193
Total	115 (28.60 %)	278 (69.15 %)	9 (2.23 %)	402

Source: Primary Survey conducted during October 2018 to February 2019

7.3 Migrant and Non-Migrant Households by Head of the Household

The India society is a patriarchal society, where male dominates. In family also the male usually take the important socio-economic decision in the family. That's why they are Head of the Household in most of the households whether migrant or non-migrant HHs. In case of out-migrants, even in the absence of the husband, the left behind wives never refer themselves as the head. After asking, why is it so? They replied that all the decisions are taken by their husband and not by them. They do things only after their husbands' concurrence. This has become easier today due to the widespread availability of mobile phones. This is the reason for higher percentage of male head of the household even in the case of out-migrants. In the absence of the male counterpart in male out-migrant HHs, other adult male assume the responsibility of the head of the household.

Table 7. 4 Migrant and Non-Migrant Households by Head of the Household

Household Types	Head of the Household		Total
	Male	Female	
Migrants HHs	205	4	209
Non-Migrant HHs	182	11	193
Total	387	15	402

Source: Primary Survey conducted during October 2018 to February 2019

7.4 Education

Education is one of the main features of the quality of the population. It provides a crucial link between social development and economic development processes. Development is a phenomenon which is multi-dimensional. Education is one of its important dimensions among others like economic status, health status, women status, nutrition level, housing quality, amenities and assets and access to communication, etc. It is also one of the most imperative drivers for ending poverty. Through education, people acquire knowledge and skills which is required to lead healthy, productive lives, securing meaningful job, and also enable person to contribute to the society. Amartya Sen's 'capability approach' also gives importance to the role of education in the development of capacities. The two role of education which may help in developing capacities are: (i) enhancing the capacities and opportunities and (ii) development of judgement helping in appropriate use/employ of capacities.

7.4.1 Literacy

According to Census, "a person aged seven and above who can both read and write with understanding in any language, is treated as literate." However a person who can read only but can't write, is not considered as literate. Before 1991, children aged below 5 years were treated as illiterates. It is in 1991, it was decided that only people aged 7 and above would be considered for finding out literates or illiterates. Moreover, a person is not requires to attain any formal education or achieve any minimum qualification in order to be considered as literate.

Literacy plays an imperative role in lifting individuals out of poverty. The inability of basic reading and writing skills is a huge disadvantage. Literacy not only improves a person's life, but it also creates opportunities for them to develop skills that will help them and their family. Illiteracy affects the health and wellbeing of an individual directly. It is found that those who don't have education are more likely to be vulnerable to health problems, like it is observed by one study that increased schooling, decreases the risk of infection of HIV.

7.4.1.1 Total Literacy rate

Literacy rate can be defined as the total number of literates in a given age group to the total population in that age group. It can be calculated for different age groups such as adult literacy

rate (15 years and above), youth literacy rate (15-24 years) and elder literacy rate (65 years and above).

The total literacy rate of non-migrant HHs is better than the migrant HHs, this may be due to lower income background of most of the migrant HHs. The same scenario is found with the adult literacy rate. Their low income doesn't allow them to have education as they are barely able to fulfil their basic needs like food, clothes and shelter. Most of them are found to be involved in casual labour, which doesn't required much education. They don't even acquire free government education as sending their children for schools means reducing their labour force i.e. income of the HHs.

Table 7. 5 Performance on various Education Indicators by Migrant and Non-Migrant HHs

		Migrant HHs	Non-Migrant HHs
Total Literacy Rate		82.50	87.50
Female Literacy Rate		72.21	82.11
Adult Literacy Rate		78.66	84.01
Vocational Education (No.)	Male	5	0
	Female	13	10
	Total	18	10
Among tot no. of person with Voc. Education	Tot (%)	64.28	35.71
Types of School attended	Public	77.26	77.64
	Private	22.74	22.36
Dropout rate (10-28 yrs.)		7.67	11.04
Gender Parity Index (literacy)		0.80	0.89

Source: Primary Survey conducted during October 2018 to February 2019

7.4.1.2 Female literacy rate

Female literacy is also very important not only for women but for the whole family. It is found that infant mortality rates reduces significantly for those women who attained primary education and even more sharply for those women who have completed secondary education. This is so because education provide them knowledge about health issues and how to deal/cure it, this help them to reduce poverty and rate of mortality in the long term. Literacy also empowers women and girls by enabling them to become independent and economically

productive so that they can take charge /control of their own lives. Female literacy is found to be 72.21 % for migrant HHs and 82.11 % for non-migrant HHs. The lower female literacy rate of migrant HHs may be attributed to the fact that major proportion of the migrant HHs are from the lower income groups where education of females is never given proper attention/importance.

7.4.1.3 Gender Parity Index (GPI)

GPI simply means “ratio of female to male values of a given indicator” (UNESCO 2009). It measures progress in selected indicator for female in relation to those available for male. It can also reflect the women’s empowerment level existing in the society. Moreover, it doesn’t indicate whether the progression or deterioration is all because of the performance of one of the particular gender group. The closer the GPI is to 1, the closer a state/institution is to acquiring equality in terms of access between males and females. The interpretation of GPI should be as mentioned below:

GPI=1: indicates parity between males and females

GPI<1: indicates disparity in favour of males

GPI>1: indicates disparity in favour of females

However, the interpretation of GPI should be done in other way for certain indicators such as repletion, dropout, and illiteracy rates, etc.

GPI=1: indicates parity between males and females

GPI<1: indicates disparity in favour of females

GPI>1: indicates disparity in favour of males

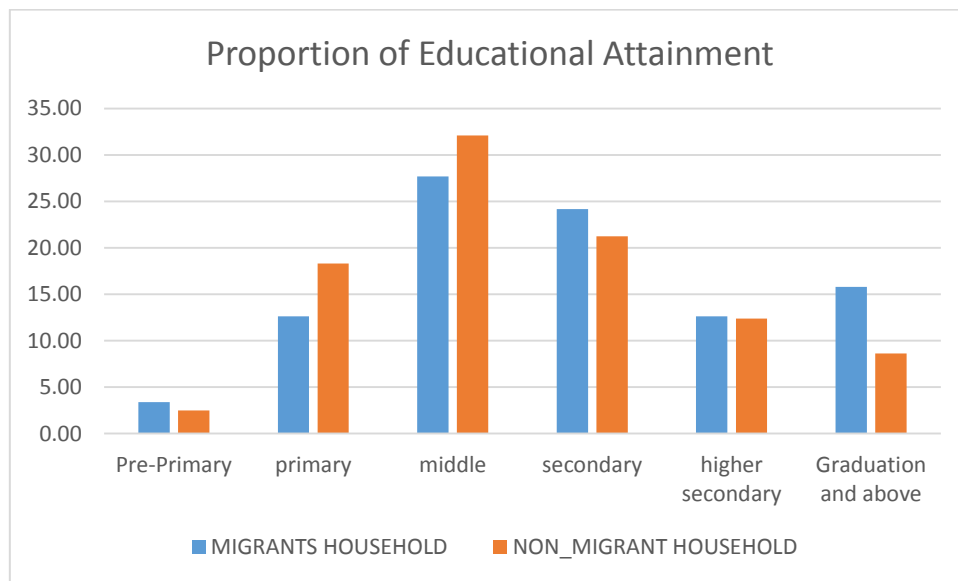
The present study used GPI for analysing literacy parity between males and females separately for migrant and non-migrant HHs. The GPI of non-migrant HHs is 0.89 and 0.80 for migrant HHs. This shows that both kinds of HHs show more disparity in favour of males (as both have GPI less than 1) but it is higher for migrant households than the non-migrant HHs.

7.4.2 Levels of Educational Attainment

Levels of education is imperative to study as it is one of the most important determinants which determines his/her life chances in terms of job opportunities, levels of income, status of health, housing and many other assets and amenities.

The comparative analysis of migrant and non-migrant HHs in terms of levels of educational attainment reveals that till mid-levels (except pre-primary) of educational attainment, non-migrant HHs have higher proportion than the migrant HHs but this get reversed after that, meaning migrant HHs have higher proportion of attainment in secondary, higher secondary and graduation and above. The same scenario is also seen in the case of female levels of educational attainment and also in male (with little variation).

Fig. 7. 1 Proportion of Educational Attainment



Source: Primary Survey conducted during October 2018 to February 2019

Tertiary education are more often recognised as higher education have a potential to provide a better quality of life. Moreover, it instils key skills. Attaining higher education gives a person a higher level of logical interpretation, knowledge, reasoning and hands-on skills over and above the average human being. In addition to it, it also open new and unexpected opportunities which might have not been available had they not acquired a tertiary education. Our economy is experiencing a change from manufacturing based to more knowledge based, and in such scenario, tertiary education in present times will offer people more opportunities and better career choices. So, when an individual combines his/her knowledge and hands-on skills, the person will become capable to thrive in the present growing economy. People, who are well educated are more employable, get higher wages and can also cope better with economic shocks. Higher education is beneficial not only for individual but for the society as well. People

with higher education are more environmentally conscious, inculcates healthier habits, also have higher civic participation level.¹⁰⁹

7.4.2.1 Graduation and above educational attainment

With reference to the above, educational attainment of graduation and above has been analysed. It has been calculated by dividing Graduation and above educational attainment by total literates. It is found that higher proportion of members from the migrant HHs (15.8%) have attained graduation and above than the non-migrant HHs (8.62 %). The same scenario has also been seen in the case of female's graduation and above educational attainment. These proportion of migrant HHs mainly belong to affluent section, who are economically capable of attaining higher level of education. The attainment of higher level of education allowed them to get high end jobs in organised sectors in the urban areas as these kinds of opportunities are not available in the villages.

Table 7. 6 Proportion of Educational Attainment by Sex and Migration Status

Sex	Migration Status	Proportion of Educational Attainment					
		Pre-Primary	Primary	Middle	Secondary	Higher Secondary	Graduation and Above
Females	Migrant HHs	3.25	14.63	29.81	22.49	11.65	13.01
	Non-migrant HHs	2.10	21.26	31.50	20.73	9.97	7.61
Males	Migrant HHs	3.48	11.32	26.31	25.26	13.24	17.60
	Non-migrant HHs	2.79	15.88	32.62	21.67	14.38	9.44

Source: Primary Survey conducted during October 2018 to February 2019

7.4.3 Types of School

School education is necessary for children as it is the foremost fountain of knowledge exposed to children who go to school. It helps them to attain knowledge in numerous fields of education like people, geography, history, literature, science, politics, mathematics and other various subjects.

Both kinds of HHs have higher percentage of members going to Public schools but the proportion is higher for the non-migrant HHs in comparison to migrant HHs. The reverse scene

¹⁰⁹ <https://www.worldbank.org/en/topic/tertiaryeducation>

is observed in the case of Private Schools, where migrant HHs have higher proportion than the non-migrant HHs. The government schools in the study area don't have proper amenities/facilities but still most of them go to public schools mainly because of economic crisis and also may be due to the unavailability of many private schools. So they don't have any other option than taking education in public schools with improper amenities and facilities. However, while conducting survey, many have expressed that they wanted to send their children to private schools so that their children can get better education and employment.

7.4.4 Drop-Out

Maximum drop-outs taken place between age 10 to 15 years old people. However, the total dropouts is found to be between 10 to 28 years. That's why dropout rate is calculated for this age cohort. The dropout is found to be higher for non-migrant HHs in comparison to the migrant HHs.

7.4.5 Vocational Education

Only 28 people were found of doing vocational study, amongst which 10 were from non-migrant HHs and 18 were from migrant HHs. More members of migrant HHs were found to be going for vocational education than the members of non-migrant HHs. Larger proportion of females were reported of doing vocational education than the males. Females are mostly taking vocational training for tailoring, beautician course whereas males for learning computer (maximum), electrician, GDA (government duty assistant), sales and marketing. Vocational education was found to be imparted mainly by the Kausal Vikash Kendra in the study area. This Kausal Vikash Kendra imparts vocational education under Pradhan Mantri Kaushal Vikas Yojana (PMKVY), a skill development scheme launched in 16th July 2015. PMKVY's objective is "to encourage skill development for youth by providing monetary rewards for successful completion of approved training programs." It also aims to "enable and mobilize a large number of Indian youth to take up skill training and become employable and earn their livelihood, increase productivity of the existing workforce and align the training and certification to the needs of the country."¹¹⁰ Those who are doing vocational study in KVK, expressed that they are doing only because it is free of cost otherwise it would be not possible for them to do so.

¹¹⁰ http://pmkvyofficial.org/App_Documents/News/PMKVY_Scheme-Document_v1.1.pdf

7.5 Household Amenities

7.5.1 Ownership of the House

Shelter is one of the basic needs of the human beings. House doesn't only provide shelter but also safety, security, privacy and protection from out-side adversities either physical or human. Thus house is very important for every human being. "Healthy housing is shelter that supports a state of complete physical, mental and social well-being."¹¹¹ The Study of the housing conditions, its related aspects and effects is important, as people spend their large amount of time in their houses. Since they spend most of their time at home, hence they are more prone to be exposed to health risks associated with poor housing conditions. "Choices of housing types, quality, size and location are shaped by a number of economic, social and demographic factors."¹¹² Though ownership of the house is mostly considered as one's economic condition but it also affects peoples' physical, psychological and social well-being. It provides people a sense of belonging, security, stability, privacy and personal and emotional satisfaction. Owning a house can be seen as an asset whose worth increases over time and can be useful during adverse situations in life. The freedom which one can feel in their own purchased house cannot be possible in the rented home where for most of the things, one has to take permission/approval from their landlord. Along with this the landlord can throw out people whenever they wish and hence a rented house can never provide them the same social, emotional and personal/ psychological security that an owned house gives.

The present study shows that most of the HHs either migrant or non-migrant own a house except for few which can be seen in most of the rural areas whereas owing a house is bit difficult in urban/metropolitan areas.

7.5.2 Structure of House

Structure of the house is important for analysis, if one have to get an idea of the HH's socio-economic condition. Structure of the house includes analysis of the material through which the wall, floor and roofing are made of. In the present study, the structure of the house of the rural areas under study is broadly classified into three groups: kaccha house, pucca house and semi-pucca house.

¹¹¹ World Health Organization (2018) "WHO Housing and Health Guidelines", p. 2

¹¹² Ibid. p. 10

Unfortunately the major proportion of the houses in the rural areas of Gopalgunj district are devoid of the vital physical and social prerequisites of residential homes. Most of the rural area's present housing conditions are not conducive to healthy living because most of the houses are found to be overcrowded and also don't have proper roofing, latrines and bathrooms. Many of them even don't have latrines. Having proper bathroom for bath is a rare thing to see in the villages. Housing structure represents the socio-economic status of the household.

It is found that most of the pucca houses belong to the economically well off HHs whereas most of the poor or having low income possess kaccha houses.

Table 7. 7 Distribution of HHs by Status of Migration and Structure of House amongst the total HHs

Migration Status	Structure of House							
	Kaccha		Pucca		Semi Pucca		Total	
Migrant HHs	2	0.5%	117	29.1%	90	22.4%	209	52.0%
Non-migrant HHs	4	1.0%	108	26.9%	81	20.1%	193	48.0%
Total HHs	6	1.5%	225	56%	171	42.5%	402	100

Source: Primary Survey conducted during October 2018 to February 2019

Table 7.7 represents the distribution of HHs according to the type of houses and status of migration. It is found that about 56% of the total HHs have pucca house, 42.5 % semi pucca and only meagre of 1.5 % have kaccha house. The same scenario can be seen in the case of migrant and Non-migrant HHs.

Table 7. 8 Distribution of HHs by Status of Migration and Structure of House amongst the amongst their respective HHs

Migration Status	Structure of House		
	Kaccha	Pucca	Semi Pucca
Migrant HHs (MHs)	0.96	55.98	43.06
Non-migrant HHs (NMHs)	2.07	55.95	41.96

Source: Primary Survey conducted during October 2018 to February 2019

*MHs- Migrant Households *NMH- Non-Migrant Households

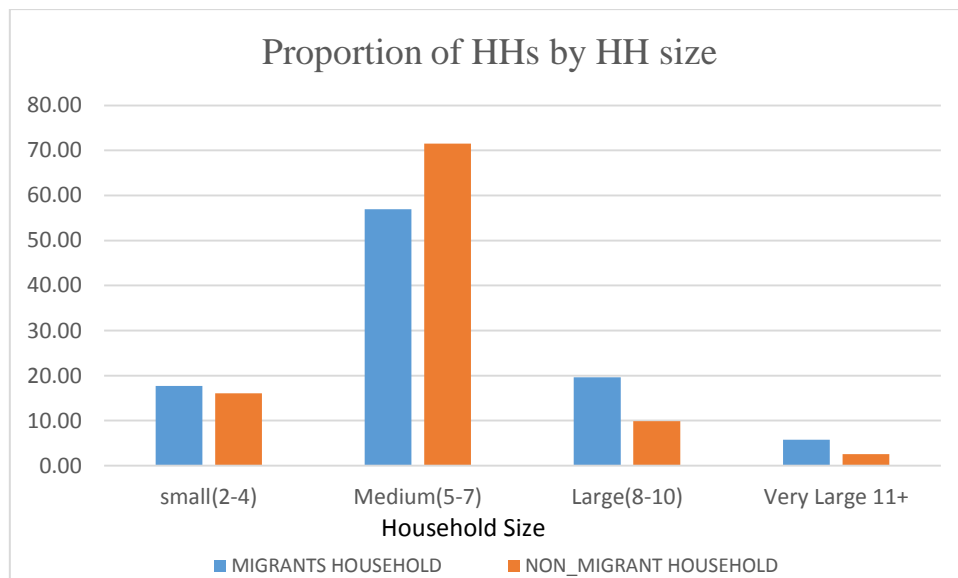
The above Table 7.8 clearly shows that both MHs and NMHs have mostly Pucca and semi-pucca houses. It is observed that migrant HHs have more pucca and semi-pucca houses in

comparison to non-migrant HHs and non-migrant HHs have more kaccha houses than migrant HHs, though the differences are not much.

7.5.3 Household Size

It is important to study the household size in order to analyse whether or not it affects migration. The Fig. 7.2 shows that highest percentage of migrant HHs belonged to medium (56.94 %) HH size followed by large (19.62 %) and small (17.70 %). However in case of the non-migrant HHs, 71.50 % of HHs are of medium size followed by small size (16.06 %). About 25.36 % of the migrant HHs have HH size more than 7, the same for non-migrant HHs is 12.43 %. This shows that larger HHs favour more migration than small. Larger HH size provide more conducive environment for migration as their wife and children can be taken care by other members of the larger HH. Along with this the migrant member's work within the HH can be substituted by other members of the HH easily which is not possible in case of small HH size. Larger HH size puts more responsibilities and pressure on the shoulder of the members to earn more and this force the HH member/s to migrate due to scarcity of employment opportunities within the villages.

Fig. 7. 2 Proportion of HHs by Size



Source: Primary Survey conducted during October 2018 to February 2019

7.5.4 Room Density

It can be defined as total persons per room. Room density can affect one's psychological, social and health conditions. Sharing a single room with more members can create various issues. Everybody desires and should have personal space to be in, like the sick or ill person needs proper separate space from other members of the HH, school or college going students require space conducive for better study environment, married couples require privacy and separation from rest of the members of the HH. More persons per room means more distractions which can hinder the performance of the persons sharing common room. Health wise also it's not good for many persons to live in a single room, as one person if by chance is infected with disease, can transfer it to other members living in a single room more easily.

Unavailability of sufficient and proper space for carrying out particular activities can lead to serious consequences on the domestic environment and inter-personal relationships of the members of the HH with each other. It can also result in grave inconvenience to the members of the family. In a nutshell, one can say it affects one's overall quality of life.

Number of rooms, carpet or floor area and covered area, are the measures used for measuring the adequacy of living space in the residence/house. Indicators like number of rooms and persons per room are considered to be better than carpet or floor area internationally for determining living space and crowdedness in house.¹¹³ For the present study, the available number of rooms in a house and the persons per room are used.

About 21.05 % of the migrant HHs have only one room while the same is 23.83 % for the non-migrant HHs.

Two persons per room (UN 2003) has been recommended by the United Nations Housing Rights Programme (UNHRP). If this criteria is taken for the present study, 42.11 % of migrant HHs and 59.07 % non-migrant HHs live in crowded houses (meaning more than two persons in a single room).

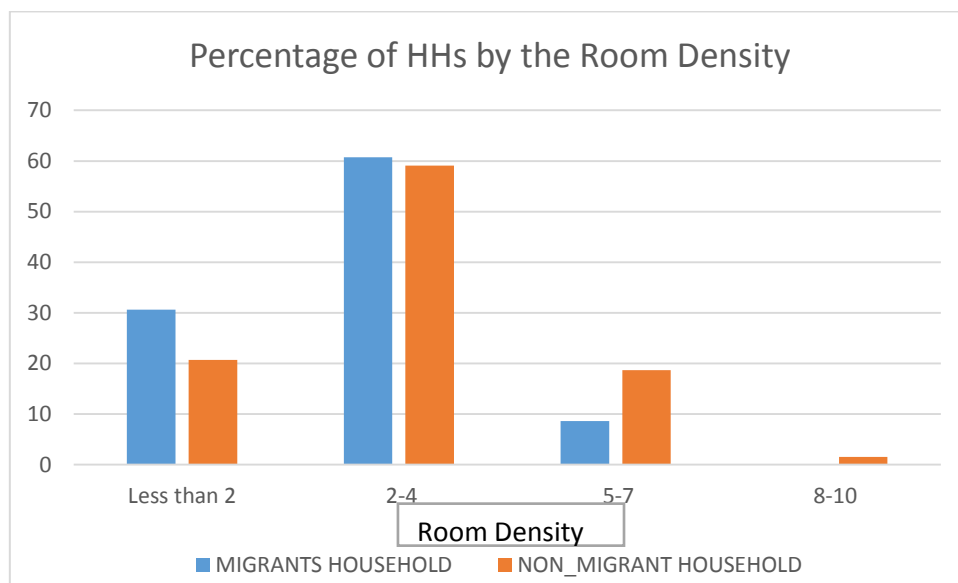
If one would try to be little liberal than it is necessary to consider the norm of three persons residing per room in order to eliminate those HHs which might be accommodating a husband,

¹¹³ International Labour Organisation (ILO) workers' housing recommendations, 1961, recommend three criteria for measuring space per person or per family. These three criteria are: floor area; cubic volume; or size and number of rooms (ILO 1961).

wife and a child in one room. The proportion of such kind for migrant HHs is 20.57 % and 33.68 % for non-migrant HHs.

Many studies have found a direct relationship between crowding and adverse out-comes in terms of health, like infectious disease, sleep disorder and problems related to mental health (stress, depression, and anxiety). Along with this, it is also reported that crowding results in poor educational attainment also (WHO Housing and health guidelines, 2018).

Fig. 7. 3 Percentage of HHs by the Room Density



Source: Primary Survey conducted during October 2018 to February 2019

The above Fig. 7.3 clarify that larger proportion of the HHs of both migrant and non-migrant have room density of two to four. About 9 % of migrant and 21 % of non-migrant HHs shares a single room with more than five to ten members. Moreover, 31 % of migrant HHs and 21 % of non-migrant have more rooms than the total members of the HHs. There are also some cases where a single household have 10 to 22 rooms, these HHs are mostly found to be of migrant HHs. These mainly belonged to high and affluent classes.

There were also cases where some members sleep either in the courtyard or outside the house by arranging cot. Many times they also sleep on the floor, as they are unable to arrange enough cots or space. Generally, old age people do this kind of arrangement or the unmarried person.

7.5.5 Separate Room for Married Couple

Married couples required separate room because they need privacy for a healthy relationship. Married couples, mostly in India, are bound with some norms and culture which don't allow them to exchange their love openly. That's why they often feel uncomfortable and are not able to share their feelings, needs, emotions and love in front of other members. There are some physical, psychological and emotional needs of the married couple which can be met in separate room only. Unavailability of these can lead to rift in their relationship and can results into some serious health, psychological and emotional problems.

Migrant HHs provide more personal space to the married couples than the non-migrant HHs. This is confirmed by the fact that about 71.30 % migrant HHs have separate room for married couples while the same is 65.1 % for non-migrant HHs.

7.5.6 Availability of Kitchen

One of the important aspects of housing quality is the provision of a separate kitchen which is considered as very important aspect in respect of health and hygiene (ILO, 1961, recommendations on housing of workers).

Separate kitchen/ cooking space availability is of immense importance for the wellbeing of not only for those who cook but also for the whole family members of the HHs. The indoor cooking releases smoke which exposes resident to various respiratory diseases. This problem is grave for women because they are the one majorly involved in cooking. So the unavailability of separate kitchen is more dangerous and hazardous for health of women than the men of the same Household.

More than 50 % of HHs of migrant have separate kitchen where as it's only 45 % for NMHs. Those who don't have kitchen cook food in the courtyard (locally called aangan/baranda) and those who even don't have this, cook in the same room where they sleep. This practice of cooking in open space or in the same room where they sleep causes many health problems. Though, it is not considered as harmful by them cooking in open spaces.

While doing survey, it is found that in recent times, the kitchen's structure and the facilities inside it, is highly influenced by those in urban areas. Such type of kitchen is mainly found in

affluent HHs, where there are kitchens with certain facilities like proper storage arrangements, separate space for washing utensils, better ventilation (exhaust fan) and lighting facilities.

7.5.7 Fuel for Cooking

Fuel used for cooking is another very important aspect of amenities to study because this affects health, largely depending upon its type. Traditionally, dung cakes, crop residue and firewood was used for cooking. Even now these are the common sources of cooking in the rural areas. But there are severe health hazards related to cooking associated with fossil fuels. According to estimates of WHO, unclean cooking fuel alone lead to about five lakh deaths in India. Maximum of these premature deaths were because of the non-communicable diseases like lung cancer, diseases related to heart, chronic pulmonary disease, and stroke. A significant case of acute respiratory diseases in young children were found to be associated with indoor air pollution. It is confirmed by many experts that the open fire in the kitchen is equal to burning about 400 cigarettes in one hour. In India, LPG cylinders often seen to be more accessible to middle class or the affluent class, especially in urban and semi-urban areas, than the poor ones.

Even those who have LPG connection, don't use it for regular cooking, instead they use it for few tasks like making tea, boiling milk, etc. They save their LPG for cooking in adverse weather conditions i.e. during rain when it becomes difficult to cook outside and also when their guests come, in order to cook fast.

There is not much difference between the migrant and non-migrant HHs in terms of LPG use for cooking as it is evident by the Table 7.9. While interviewing it is expressed by many that they are able to use LPG only because of the government scheme named Pradhan Mantri Ujjwala yojana (PMUY) under which adult women from the poor family/BPL, having no LPG connection in her household, are given free of cost LPG connection. PMUY was launched by Mr. Narendra Modi, Prime Minister of India, on 1st May 2016. This scheme was launched in order to ensure universal coverage of LPG (cooking gas) in the country. This scheme was based on the assumption that it will empower women, (mainly the rural and the BPL) and protect their health by reduced emission of smoke and the time spent on cooking and collecting firewood from far places.¹¹⁴ However, many respondent expressed that they were unable to refill the cylinder because of financial crisis and that's why they stopped using it.

¹¹⁴ <https://vikaspedia.in/energy/policy-support/pradhan-mantri-ujjwala-yojana>

Table 7. 9 Proportion of HHs by various Amenities

Migration Status	Separate Room for Married Couple	HHs sharing a room by single more than two persons	Kitchen	Fuel for cooking		Treat Water before Drinking	Proportion of HHs drinking R-O water (R-O cann + filtered water)
				Firewood	LPG		
Migrants Household	71.3%	42.11%	55.0%	31.1%	68.9%	11.00%	8.6%
Non-Migrant Household	65.1%	59.07%	45.0%	31.6%	68.4%	11.40%	12.9%

Source: Primary Survey conducted during October 2018 to February 2019

7.5.8 Drinking Water

“Water is a physiological requirement to sustain adequate hydration, to prepare food, and to maintain hygiene.”¹¹⁵ Consuming untreated/contaminated water can transmit infectious diseases and sometimes non-infectious diseases, like lead poisoning occurs due to leaded pipes and plumbing. Lack of accessibility of safe drinking water can lead to various health hazards. Safe drinking water is the basic need which should be fulfilled. “Everyone has the right to sufficient, safe, acceptable and physically accessible and affordable water for personal and domestic use, such as for drinking and for hygiene”¹¹⁶ Diseases transmitted by unsafe drinking water are cholera, diarrhoea, typhoid, etc. Particularly, children are more prone to water-borne diseases. Hence access to better quality of drinking water can result in improved health and therefore improved school attendance.

Table 7. 10 Main Source of Drinking Water

Migration Status	Main Source of Drinking Water					
	Own Hand Pump	Public Hand Pump	Shared Hand Pump	Own Tap	RO-Cann	Own Filter Machine
Migrants Household	77.51	4.78	2.87	6.22	6.70	1.91
Non-Migrant Household	80.31	4.15	1.55	1.04	6.74	6.22

Source: Primary Survey conducted during October 2018 to February 2019

¹¹⁵ World Health Organization (2018) “WHO Housing and Health Guidelines” p. 76

¹¹⁶ Ibid. p. 76

UN has described some norms for safe drinking water. These are: Water supply should be sufficient and continuous; colour, odour and taste should be acceptable and safe; it should be accessible either within or in the close vicinity of the premises; it should be affordable and accessible for everyone irrespective of any discrimination (UN 2002). The present study focus on the features like: safe water source in relations of source type used (open, covered/piped sources); accessibility in relation to personal access; location of the source of water; and discrimination while accessing water sources by specific groups.

For assessing the quality of source of water for drinking, definition of Indian government is used, who uses covered sources as a proxy variable for safe sources of water. It is found that almost all HHs either migrant or non-migrant have access to covered sources of drinking water.

It is not always true that covered sources of water are safe for drinking. Covered sources of water don't warrant that the water quality is better but the taste, odour and colour of water is also important. It is also true for the present study as some respondents while having personal hand pump went to fetch water from government hand pumps, nearby, for drinking purpose as the government hand pumps are dug to the lower level (up to 100 feet) and hence give better quality of water for drinking. Hand pump is the major source of drinking water for both migrant and non-migrant HHs.

7.5.8.1 Ownership of the Source of Drinking Water

Owning a source of water determines the continuous supply of safe drinking water and prevent them from any kind of discrimination that can occur if they have to depend on the drinking water sources owned by others or government. Owning a source of drinking water improves one's quality of life. However, everyone could not afford to have their own source of drinking water because of the costs involved in it. It is found that there was no community operated water source for drinking but there were government owned hand pumps in most of the locality. Many have confirmed that the quality of water from the government hand pump is better and safe for drinking purpose.

About 92.34 % migrant HHs and 94.30 % non-migrant HHs owned a safe drinking water. This confirms that both types of HHs are near about equal on the basis of owning a source of water. Therefore, there were no discrimination found in relation to access of drinking water.

7.5.8.2 Location of the Source of Water

There are direct impacts of distance of source of water from the HH on the health and hygiene, and the water quality collected (Howard and Bartram, WHO, 2003). In India, the responsibility of collecting water invariably is done by females. As a result women and girls of the HHs invest most of their time and energy in collecting water. Their substantial time and energy could be saved if the water source is located either within the house premise or near it.

Major proportion of HHs, irrespective of belonging to migrant or non-migrant HHs, have water source within their house premise. Only 7.66 % for migrant and 5.18 % of non-migrant HHs have no water source nearby their premises. It was good to find that not a single HH was found to go far for fetching drinking water.

7.5.8.3 Treatment of Water before Drinking

It is found that there were some HHs both from migrant and non-migrant who treat water before drinking. However the percentage of such kind of HHs is higher for non-migrant than the migrant HHs. They either purchase filtered water (water cann of 20 litre for Rs. 40) or have their own water filter machine or R-O machine. However, these HHs mostly belonged to affluent class.

7.5.9 Sanitation

Sanitation is defined by WHO as “access to and use of facilities and services for the safe disposal of human urine and faeces” and a safe sanitation system is defined “as a system that separates human excreta from human contact at all steps of the sanitation service chain from toilet capture and containment through emptying, transport, treatment (in-situ or off-site) and final disposal or end use.”

Safe sanitation is very important for health as it prevents various kinds of infection and diseases like Diarrhoea, helminth infection, schistosomiasis, trachoma, etc. It can improve and maintain mental and overall physical as well as social well-being.

“Unsanitary conditions have been linked with stunting (Danaei et al., 2016), which affects almost one quarter of children under-five globally (UNICEF/ WHO/World Bank, 2018) through several mechanisms including repeated diarrhoea (Richard et al., 2013), helminth

infections (Ziegelbauer et al., 2012) and environmental enteric dysfunction” (Humphrey, 2009; Keusch et al., 2014; Crane et al., 2015) (see Box 1.1).”¹¹⁷

The unavailability of safe sanitation systems lead to occurrence and spread of antimicrobial resistance by developing the risk of diseases which are infectious in nature (Holmes et al., 2016) and as a result antibiotics used to tackle infections could be avoided.

Poor sanitation system is found to exist in many parts of the world especially the third world countries. Large proportion of population worldwide practice defecation in open and many more even don't have access to services that can check faecal waste from polluting the environment (WHO-UNICEF, 2017). Rural areas of many low and middle income countries are underserved hence facing many problems related to it.

In the broader view of well-being, the immediate effect of the lack of access to adequate sanitation often leads to anxiety (resulted from the shame and embarrassment from defecating in open and shared sanitation, not fulfilling gender specific needs) and consequences related to that; Sexual assault and consequences related to it; adverse birth outcomes resulting from underutilisation of healthcare facilities along with poor sanitation. The long term effects of inadequate sanitation are school absence, reduced economic productivity, anti-microbial resistance and poverty.¹¹⁸

7.5.9.1 Access to Lavatories

As sanitation plays a very important role in one's overall quality of life, accessibility to safe toilets irrespective of caste, class and gender, along with elimination of open defecation, enhancement in the level of service with special focus to poor, marginalised and underprivileged people should be ensured and prioritized by the governments. An association is found between poor sanitation and eight dimensions of social and mental well-being. These are: - lack of privacy, safety and dignity; shame, fear, anxiety, assault and embarrassment, etc.

Lack of access to adequate sanitation affect females the most. They have to walk far distances only to find a proper place, early in the morning and after the sunset in the evening so that they can cover/hide themselves under the darkness for defecation. It was mentioned by many respondents that there were some assigned places of open defecation for the male and female separately. If, by chance, they got late in the morning then they have to go through extreme

¹¹⁷ World Health Organization (2018) “Guidelines on Sanitation and Health”, p.1

¹¹⁸ Ibid. p.2

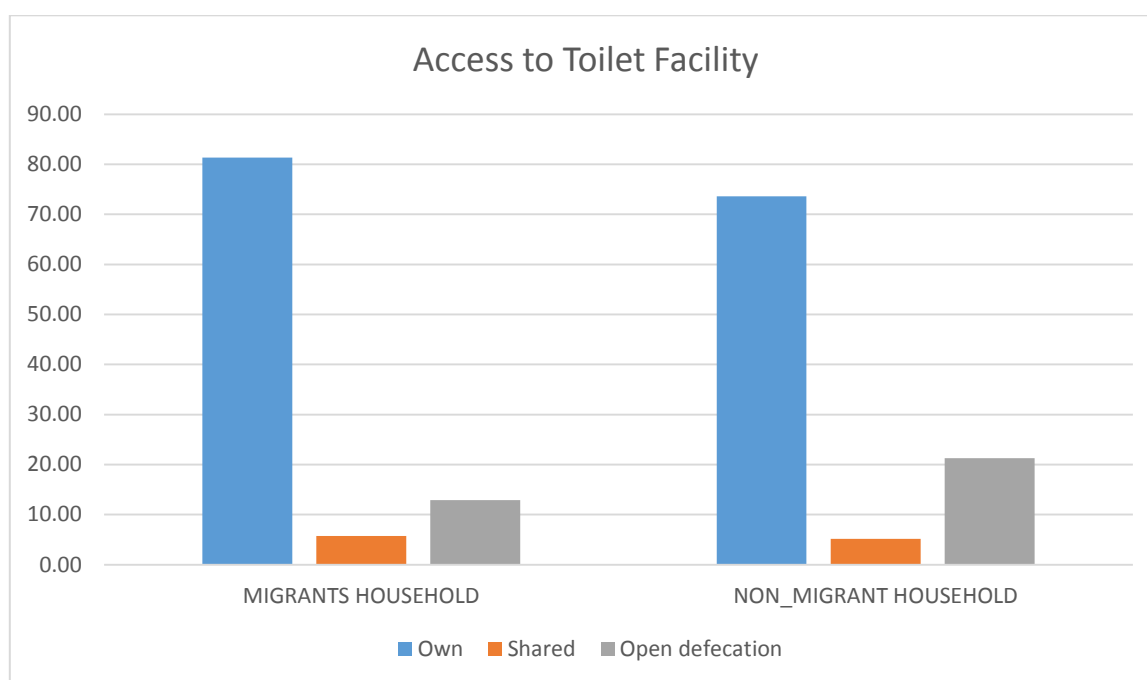
inconvenience as well as embarrassment because of the movement of the villagers, which increases as the day approaches. This becomes more difficult at the time of cultivation in the field and during the raining season, when there is standing crops (because the crops guarded by the people) in the field.

Keeping in mind the above, the present study compare the migrant and non-migrant HHs in terms of accessibility of toilets and its types.

Providing access to sanitation, is pre-requisite but not enough for ending open defecation. There are various reasons behind poor use of latrine and reversion to open defecation such as high cost involved in its maintenance and repair, poor quality of latrine and its durability, lack of regular follow up as well as monitoring. Moreover, coercive methods are followed by government which resulted in construction of latrine without sustained use/adoption of its services and technology. The same is found in the study area where people constructed latrines due to government pressure under scheme of Swachh Bharat, where government promised them money if they construct toilet. After construction they were are asked to click a picture of latrine and send it to the concerned authority and after the approval and inspection, the amount invested in the construction of latrine was refunded to the concerned person.

About 81.34 % migrant and 73.58 % non-migrant HHs have their own toilet facility. This proportion is high for both due to the launch of the “Swachh Bharat Mission” on 2nd October 2014 under which 100 million toilets were constructed by 2nd October 2019 in rural India, in order to achieve ‘open defecation free’ India. This scheme was initiated to bring back the focus on the sanitation and to speed up the efforts to attain universal coverage in terms of sanitation. Even after this, 12.92 % migrant and 21.24 % non-migrant are still practicing open-defecation.

Fig. 7. 4 Access to Toilet Facility



Source: Primary Survey conducted during October 2018 to February 2019

7.5.9.2 Type of Toilet facility

Most of the HHs of both migrant and non-migrant have pit without tap type toilet facility. They carry water in a bucket from the hand pump in the courtyard (locally called ‘Angan’) whenever they go to toilet. Migrant HHs performed better than non-migrant on both pit with tap and also flush type toilet facility. Flush type toilet facility is mostly available in the rich and affluent HHs. In this way one can say that migrant HHs performed better than non-migrant HHs in terms of sanitation.

Table 7. 11 Type of Toilet facility by Migration Status

Migration Status	Type of Toilet Facility		
	Pit without Tap	Pit with Tap	Flush
Migrants Household	81.3%	7.7%	11.0%
Non-Migrant Household	86.9%	5.2%	7.8%

Source: Primary Survey conducted during October 2018 to February 2019

7.5.9 Bathroom Facility

Access to proper bathroom facility is also necessary in everyday life as bathing in open cause various issues along with embarrassment.

Table 7. 12 Types of Bathroom Facility by Migration Status

Migration Status	Bathroom Facility		
	Open	Semi-Covered Bathroom	Proper Bathroom
Migrants Household	69.2%	7.7%	23.1%
Non-Migrant Household	73.6%	5.2%	21.2%

Source: Primary Survey conducted during October 2018 to February 2019

The Table 7.12 above shows a dismal picture as most of the HHs, either migrant or non-migrant (highest than migrant HHs), take bath in the open space. This open space is generally located in the courtyard (Aangan) near the hand pump. It is very embarrassing for female to take bath in open space. However, during the survey, it was found that the middle aged and the old aged women got habituated to this practice and didn't find it embarrassing but the newly married women and new generation's boys and girls, especially belonging to teenage/adolescent, felt very embarrassed/shy while doing so.

About 7.7 % of migrant and 5.2 % of non-migrant HHs have bathroom but without proper cover from all the sides, either they don't have cover from the above (in most of the case) or they don't have gate. However, these semi-covered bathrooms are not always found to made-up of bricks and cement but in many cases it is made up of crop residue and bamboo sticks. This kind of bathroom also don't have tap inside it, that's why they carry water for bath from the hand pump/tap out-side the bathroom, mostly located in the courtyard.

However, the proportion of 23.1 % and 21.2 % of migrant and non-migrant HHs have proper bathroom (covered from all sides with a tap). These are mostly the rich and landlord classes of the study area.

7.5.10 Electricity

Many respondents have told that the village was electrified in 2015. Earlier, in the villages, electricity was utilised mainly for the purpose of lighting but with the time uses of electricity got diversified with the increase in the number of electrical appliances.

Table 7. 13 Main Source of Lighting by Migration Status

Migration Status	Main Source Of Lighting			
	Kerosene Lamp	Gas Lamp	Electricity (permanent)	Solar Lamp
Migrants Household	1.0%	0.5%	97.7%	1.0%
Non-Migrant Household	2.1%	0.0%	97.9%	0.0%

Source: Primary Survey conducted during October 2018 to February 2019

Almost all HHs of both migrant and non-migrant HHs had electricity connection. There are very less proportion of HHs who didn't have electricity connections and those mainly belonged to the poorest of the poor. They spend their night with only one kerosene, gas or solar lamp.

“One migrant HH was found where a single lady with her five daughters lived alone. They had no electricity and had only one solar lamp. Her husband visited her once in six months. She got emotional while interviewing. She expressed that her life in the village is very difficult without her husband. They are hardly able to arrange food for themselves. She was pregnant also. In the wait for a boy child, she gave birth to five girl child and is still waiting for the same.”

The mean monthly electricity bill for migrant HHs is Rs. 379 and for non-migrant HHs is Rs. 286. This shows that migrant HHs use more electrical appliances than the non-migrant HHs. There were many cases found where meter was installed but no electricity bill was received since installation. In some cases, though there were no electricity meter installed but they had electricity connection and they were paying approx. Rs. 300/month irrespective of their usage of electricity.

7.6 Household Assets

Anything that has some monetary value, meaning which can be sold and converted into cash, is called as an asset. It can be movable (car, cycle, refrigerator, etc.) and immovable (land and house) assets. Assets, that a HH own, can play a very important role to determine the levels of living of the HH. It constitutes the household durables and livestock assets. Assets are found to be directly associated with the income. Ownership of productive assets can directly affect the quality of life of the HH. The household durable assets include the house and the homestead land, total land-holdings, refrigerator, T.V., car, A.C., mobile, generator, computer, laptop, shops/commercial establishments, etc.

The following Table 7.14 shows that in terms of most of the ownership of the assets, the migrant HHs are better than the non-migrant HHs, except for few. About 100 % of the migrant HHs among the sampled HH, have mobile phone and in case of some assets like, gas stove and fan, above 90% of its HHs have accessibility. Many have mentioned that they got bicycles, T.V., iron, motorcycle, and sewing machine, etc. in dowry. Some respondents also mentioned that they got mobile phone as a gift after her engagement by their fiancé, so that they could talk and know each other better before marriage. There were many cases found where they got DTH free of cost by the government and they are not paying anything for it.

Table 7. 14 Assets by Migration Status

Sr. No.	Assets	Migrant Household (%)	Non-Migrant Household (%)
1.	Telephone	100.00	98.40
2.	T.V.	46.89	47.15
3.	Gas Stove	92.34	89.64
4.	Cycle	77.99	83.42
5.	Sewing Machine	43.06	43.01
6.	Fan	94.26	89.12
7.	Scooter/ Motor-Cycle	40.19	43.01
8.	Car	9.09	8.81
9.	Room-Heater	13.88	13.47
10.	Geysar	9.57	7.25
11.	Mixer	17.7	16.06
12.	Iron	32.54	31.61
13.	Refrigerator	21.53	18.13
14.	DVD Player	19.62	20.73
15.	Generator	8.13	5.7
16.	Computer/Laptop	14.83	10.88
17.	Washing Machine	14.83	8.81

18.	DTH	37.32	27.46
19.	Inverter	21.05	18.13

Source: Primary Survey conducted during October 2018 to February 2019

The livestock are converted into monetary value according to the price prevailing at the time of the survey. The total average value of livestock assets is Rs. 78,080.80 for migrant HHs and Rs. 62,909.63 for non-migrant HHs. Except for poultry, the mean value for all livestock assets is higher for migrant HHs than the non-migrant HHs. This shows that the migrant HHs have better livestock possession than the non-migrant HHs. The below Table 7.15 also shows that in livestock possession, cow is the main livestock asset amongst the all, followed by buffalo, goat and lastly poultry, for both migrant and non-migrant HHs.

Table 7. 15 Distribution of HHs by Livestock Asset in terms of their Mean Value (Rs.)

Livestock Asset	Average/Mean value in Rupees	
	Migrant Household	Non-Migrant Household
Cow	49428.57	49428.57
Buffalo	23000	8375
Goat	5318.18	3772.73
Poultry	333.33	1333.33
Total	78080.08	62909.63

Source: Primary Survey conducted during October 2018 to February 2019

Total landholding is the main asset amongst the all the assets as it has the higher value as compared to other household durable assets. But for the present study it has been included in the analysis of economic status.

7.7 Economic Status

There were/is lots of debate regarding the role of economic condition on the overall quality of life since long. It is not the sole factor responsible for the overall quality of life but one can't deny that it is one of the most important one.

Economic status of the HHs can be ascertained by various facets of economic condition like income of the HHs, per capita income, landholdings, proportion of earning members in the HHs, agriculture land holdings, dependency ratio, etc. but amongst the all, size of landholding is the most important in the rural areas.

7.7.1 Size of Landholdings

In the context of rural areas, proportion of the landholdings of the HHs is considered as very important and it determines one's economic, social and political power in the village. It goes without mentioning that the larger the size of the landholding the greater the power, wealth, and wellbeing.

The present study analyses both, the agricultural landholding and the overall landholdings in relation to migrant and non-migrant HHs. This has been done to find out whether any differences exist between them in terms of agriculture and overall landholdings. The below Table no. 7.16 represents the total landholdings and not agricultural land only, of a particular HHs. The landholding classification by agricultural census of India was not considered i.e. Marginal landholding (less than 1 hectare); Small landholding (1-2 hectares); Semi-medium landholding (2-4 hectares); Medium landholding (4-10 hectares); and Large landholding (more than 10 hectare), as most of the HHs of the study area had landholdings less one acre (1 hectare = 2.4712 acre) except for few. That's why to present better picture, the following landholding classification has been done.

Table 7. 16 Size of Total Land holdings by Migration Status

Range of Landholding	Landholding in Acres			
	Migrant Household		Non-Migrant Household	
	No.	%	No.	%
Landless	1	0.5	0	0.0
Less than 1 Acre	174	83.3	177	91.7
1 - 5	24	11.5	16	8.3
5 -10	5	2.4	0	0.0
10 -15	2	1.0	0	0.0
More than 15	3	1.4	0	0.0
Total	209	100	193	100

Source: Primary Survey conducted during October 2018 to February 2019

About 87.3 % HHs have land holding less than one acre and 10 % have 1-5 acre land. Only one HH was landless. About 1.2 % HHs have 5-10 acre land and only 0.5 % and 0.7% HHs have 10-15 acre and more than 15 acre land. Land holding higher than one acre is mainly concentrated to general caste category HHs (9.9 %) followed by OBC (2.4 %). Not a single SCs and STs HH have land holding higher than 1 acre. They mostly have landholding less than

1 acre. The above said proved that still higher land holdings is in the hand of higher castes people and lower castes are still not able to improve their landholding status.

The Table 7.16 illustrates that most of the HHs of the Migrant and non-migrant have total land holding less than one acre but this proportion is higher for non-migrant HHs. Migrant HHs have more landholding than the non-migrant HHs in the category of 1 -5 acres of landholding. Only migrant HHs have landholdings more than 5 acres of land and not a single HH from non-migrant was found to have this.

7.7.2 Agricultural Landholdings

Size of agricultural landholding have immense importance in the life of the rural areas. It is so not only because as a factor of production but also as an income source and a sense of security. The livelihood of rural areas is still mainly dependent on the employment based on agriculture. Largely, people in the rural areas are mostly dependent on land for their survival hence, agricultural landholding is found to be one of the important variable in the study of out-migration.

Table 7. 17 Size of Agricultural Land holdings by Migration Status

Range of Landholding	Agricultural Landholding in Acres			
	Migrant Household		Non-Migrant Household	
	No.	%	No.	%
No Agricultural land	87	41.6%	78	40.4%
Less than 1 Acre	87	41.6%	102	52.8%
1 - 5	26	12.4%	13	6.7%
5 -10	7	3.3%	0	0.0%
10 -15	1	0.5%	0	0.0%
More than 15	1	0.5%	0	0.0%
Total	209	100	193	100

Source: Primary Survey conducted during October 2018 to February 2019

The Table 7.17 clearly shows that most of the sampled HHs don't have agricultural land (41 %) but the percentage is higher for migrants HHs than the non-migrants HHs. Another point to be noted is that about 41.6 % of migrant HHs have agricultural landholding less than one Acre, and 12.4 % have 1-5 Acres. Meagre of 1 % have landholding more than 10 Acres. These 1 %

basically belonged to the higher caste HHs. It is surprising to see that not a single HH from non-migrant HHs have landholding more than 5 Acres.

Most of the HHs have either no land or have land less than 1 Acre. People belonging to landless, near landless or small landholdings are not able to cultivate their land and hence have more chances of migrating outside for employment than those having more landholdings.

7.7.3 Income

There were huge debate regarding the role and importance of income in the quality of life since long. Though income is not alone sufficient for the overall quality of life but it contribute significantly in the socio-economic development and quality of life of the HHs at micro-level and the district/state/country at macro level. Income of the HH or person enable them to have access to better food, shelter, medical/health care, education, assets and amenities, etc.

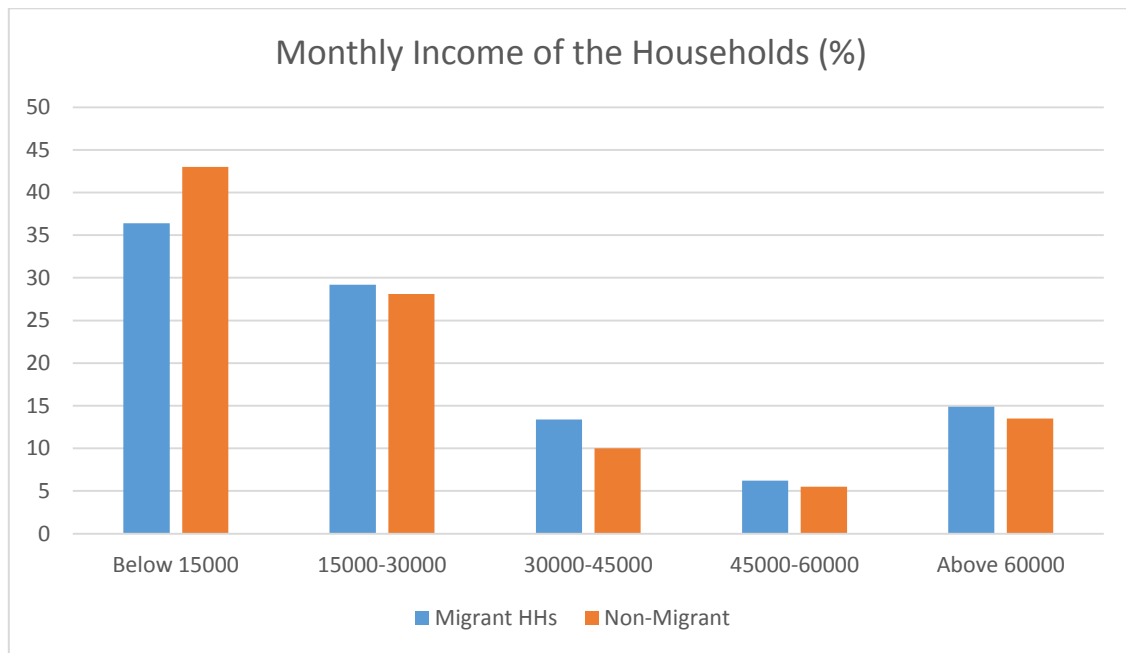
Income of the HHs plays a vital role in the quality of education and health status of the HHs. It's relation with various health measures has been studied by many scholars like self-reported health status (Deaton and Paxson 1998), rate of mortality (Backlund, Soelie and Johnson 1996) chronic disease conditions (Case, Lubotsky and Paxson 2002) and obesity (Schmeiser 2009).

7.7.3.1 Monthly Income of the household

Total income earned by all members of the household (who are 15 years and above) from all sources in one month is referred as monthly income of the HHs. It is calculated for both migrant and non-migrant HHs so that they can be compared.

Higher proportion of non-migrant HHs (43 %) have monthly income below Rs.15000 whereas higher proportion migrant HHs have monthly income higher than Rs.15000. About 14.9 % of migrant HHs and 13.5 % of non-migrant HHs have monthly income of the household above Rs.60000. This shows that migrant HHs is better than the non-migrant HHs in terms of monthly income of HH.

Fig. 7. 5 Monthly Income of the HHs



Source: Primary Survey conducted during October 2018 to February 2019

There are about 90 HHs which are totally depends on remittances sent by their member/s who have migrated out. There was not a single member of the HH who are earning in the village from these HHs except those who migrated out-side the village. This shows how much these HHs are vulnerable and dependent on remittances.

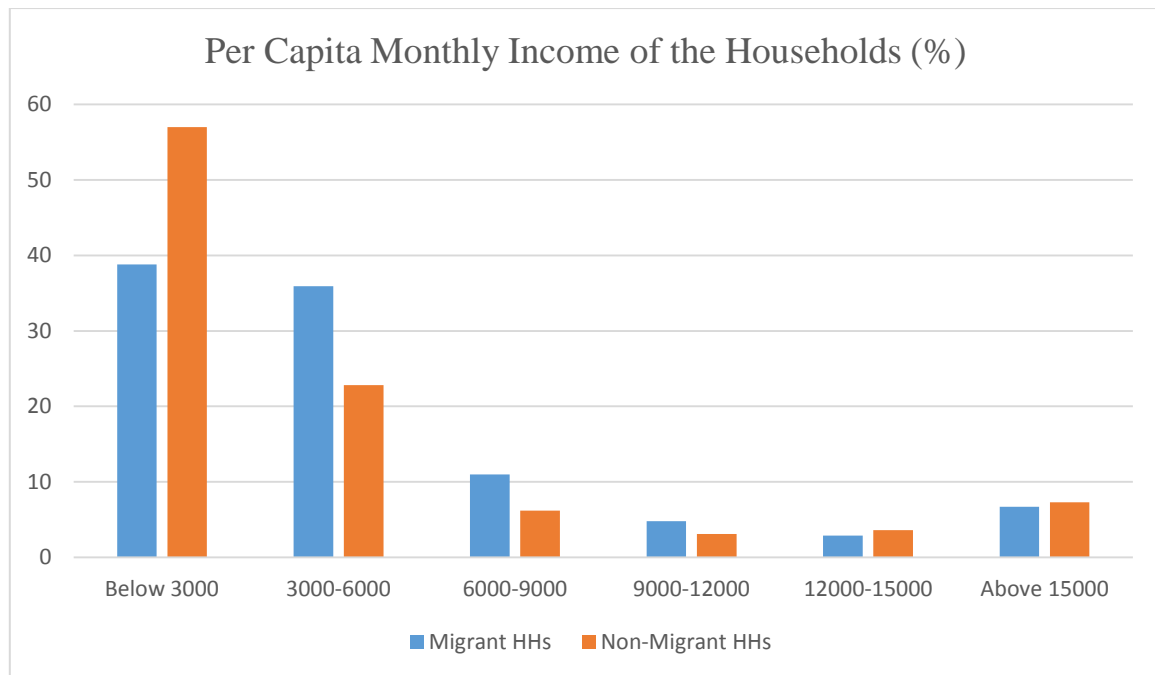
The regular employment ensures the regular income which help the members of the HHs to access/obtain various health and education facilities along with better amenities without compromising their basic needs like food, clothing and shelter. High incidences of ill health has been generally found among the low-income/ unemployed HHs by many studies. Lower income groups have significantly higher mortality rate than the higher income groups (Pappas et. al 1993). Another research by Preston (1975) concluded that health is partly a result of levels of income. A positive correlation is found between the national income levels and expectancy of life. This seems valid as higher income level enable the HHs to get access to various inputs like food, safe drinking water and sanitation, better education and proper medical care, and this in turn will provide overall better health.

7.7.3.2 Per capita Monthly income of the households

It is calculated by dividing total income of the household by total members of the Household. Higher proportion of non-migrant HHs have per capita monthly income below Rs.3000 and

also above Rs.12000 whereas higher proportion of migrant HHs have per capita monthly income between Rs.3000 to Rs.12000.

Fig. 7. 6 Per Capita Monthly Income of the HHs



Source: Primary Survey conducted during October 2018 to February 2019

7.7.3.3 Proportion of economically active person to total members of working age (15-65 years) of Household

Economically active person refers to those members of the HHs who are currently working and earning. The Census of India considered 15-59 years as working age but for the present study, people of the age group 15-65 years are considered as working age group as significant numbers of people above 59 years were found to be working.

The Table 7.18 shows the proportion of economically active person to total members of working age of the HHs is higher for the migrant HHs than the non-migrant HHs. This doesn't mean that MHs earning more than the NMHs. The type of occupations they are doing and the wages they are getting, are also important to consider in order to understand the overall economic condition of the HHs.

Table 7. 18 Proportion of economically active person to total members of working age (15-65 years) of Household and Occupational Status by Migration Status

		Migrants Household	Non-Migrant Household
	Proportion of economically active person to total members of working age (15-65 years) of Household	50.06	42.09
Occupation	Agriculture	6.67	5.03
	Self-Employed	21.15	42.95
	Government Services	4.60	5.37
	Private Services	11.95	5.37
	Casual Labour	55.63	41.28

Source: Primary Survey conducted during October 2018 to February 2019

7.7.3.4 Income Source/Occupation

The study of the source of the income is important and for this one have to delve into the occupation through which they are getting income. In general, Occupation of a person refers to the trade, profession and type of work, the person is involved in. Work may be referred to participation in any kind of economically productive activity either at physical or at mental level. It doesn't only include the actual work but also any kind of effective direction or supervision of work. The unpaid work done on the farm or in the family enterprise is also included in this.

The social inequality of a type of HHs/region/area can be revealed by occupational structure and composition exists there. In social terms, various kinds of respect, prestige and status is found to be attached to the occupation of an individual. Some occupation is symbolised by high status/prestige whereas some with low or very low status/prestige, which of course is of little social efficacy. Such kind of scenario is not seen only in rural areas but also in urban areas or in modern society. However this has been blurred over the time but has not vanished completely. Economic progress is often found to be related with definite distinct, required and foreseeable changes in the structure of the occupation (Clark, 1940). Therefore, any kind of change in the occupational structure may indicate a change in the economic growth. The economic and social conditions of the society highlighted by the percentage of workers involved in various types of occupation, especially in India, where the cultural moorings is found to have strong effects on the man's livelihood.

The various occupational status of the members of the HHs has been classified into five categories- Agriculture, self-employed, casual labour, private services and government services. Self-employed category is made by merging occupations like small and big business; drivers, pandit, janitor, barber, etc. Most of the members of the migrant HHs are engaged in casual labour followed by self-employment whereas in case of the non-migrant HHs it is the self-employment followed by the casual labour. Larger proportion of members of migrant HHs is doing services (Government/private) than the non-migrant HHs.

7.8 Social inclusion, Awareness and Participation

Awareness and participation in various aspects is very important for an individual's and HH's overall quality of life. Without having awareness, no one can take benefits of various socio-economic and political facilities/schemes and also can't demand for the same, provided by the government. Lack of awareness leads to lack of participation which leaves them back from others in terms of development. Awareness is necessary, as it contributes to easier accessibility and also better utilisation of facilities provided by the government. Awareness can be said to be the first step to quality of life/development. Awareness means having information about various socio-economic and political facilities and rights given to them. If someone is aware then they can demand and reap maximum benefits not only for themselves but also for the community. Awareness is important but only having awareness cannot solve the problem until and unless it is converted into active participation. Participation is equally important as only participating by the person can bring out any change. For the participation in decision-making, people generate ideas, formulate and assess the various options, and then make choices about them, along with this they formulate plans for putting selected options into effect. All these contribute to improve their capability and hence enhance their quality of life.

7.8.1 Social Inclusion

Inclusive growth is only possible through proper inclusion of all people irrespective of their gender, age, caste, class, race, religion, disability, birth place, etc. It is all about providing equal access to resources as well as opportunities irrespective of their socio-economic or other differences. Inclusive growth envisaged by the eleventh five year plan (2007-12) as an important objective as well as strategy for achieving the economic development.

“The process of improving the terms for individuals and groups to take part in society” and
“The process of improving the ability, opportunity, and dignity of people, disadvantaged on

the basis of their identity, to take part in society” (World Bank, 2013, pp. 3-4). “Social inclusion is a process which ensures that those at risk of poverty and social exclusion gain the opportunities and resources necessary to participate fully in economic, social, political and cultural life and to enjoy a standard of living that is considered normal in the society in which they live. It ensures that they have greater participation in decision making which affects their lives and access to their fundamental rights” (Commission of the European Communities, 2003, p. 9). It is multi-dimensional and have four most important dimensions such as social, political, cultural, and economical which operates at various social levels.

Government along with various NGOs at national and international level, work towards making society more socially inclusive by introducing various development programmes/plans at each level. These social, economic, cultural, political developmental plans/programmes aims at enhancing access/participation to these services to the population irrespective of their religion, caste, race, ethnicity, age, marital status, income level, place of residence, place of birth, level of disability, sex or other status. It also works towards inclusive growth with essence of equity and social protection.

Social inclusion at various levels is important for achieving overall quality of life. Though the present study don't delve deep into social inclusion but it tries to assess it on various levels (economic, social and political) by analysing the awareness/knowledge about various schemes and facilities provided by the government.

7.8.2 Awareness/Participation regarding various Social Schemes of the Government

This has been studied to analyse their awareness regarding various social schemes initiated by the government for their welfare. It is known that only having information/knowledge is not enough for its access but still it has been studied to assess their level of awareness. Only after having information or knowledge one can take further step to avail it. Considering this fact various socio-economic schemes like PDS (public distribution system), Pradhan Mantri Fasal Bima Yojana (PMFBY), Pension/Social Assistance Programmes, Self-Help Group, Integrated Child Development Scheme (ICDS), Pradhan Mantri Gram Jan Dhan Yojana (PMGJDY), MGNREGA, are assessed for the present study. It is found that migrant HHs have better information for most of the schemes than the non-migrant except for few like PDS, SHGs and PMGJDY, that too without larger distinctions.

Table 7. 19 Awareness/Participation regarding various Social Schemes of Government by Migration Status

	Migrant Household (%)	Non-Migrant Household (%)
Proportion of HHs having Aadhaar card	100	99.48
Proportion of HHs having Job Card (MGNREGA)	10.05	9.33
PDS (Public Distribution System)	99.04	100
Self-Help Group (SHGs) (Locally Jeevika)	76.08	79.79
Pension/Social Assistance Programmes	96.65	91.19
Pradhan Mantri Fasal Bima Yojana (PMFBY)	80.38	72.54
Integrated Child Development Scheme (ICDS)	87.08	83.42
Pradhan Mantri Gram Jan Dhan Yojana (PMJDY)	40.19	42.49
MGNREGA	66.51	54.92

Source: Primary Survey conducted during October 2018 to February 2019

Aadhaar Card

Aadhaar card have twelve digit unique identity number created by UIDAI (Unique Identification Authority of India) attached to the individual bio-metric details/identification. On 11 march 2016, the Aadhaar (Targeted Delivery of Financial and other Subsidies, Benefits and Services) Act, 2016, was passed by the Lok Sabha. It is introduced with a vision to empower people of India with a unique identity and a digital platform for authentication at anytime and anywhere. Though it has many disadvantages and demerits attached to it.

It is very important to assess its access as it is mandatory for availing various government subsidies, benefits and services, one is eligible for. It is necessary to furnish their Aadhaar card to the concerned authorities and the subsidies related to government reaches directly to the bank account attached to it. The present study found that 100 % migrant and 99.48 % non-migrant HHs have access to Aadhaar card. It is observed that almost every one of the village are well aware about the importance and requirement of Aadhaar card.

MGNREGA (Job Card)

It is the employment generation programme for rural areas which is aimed to contribute to food security of the poor people by increasing the income of the poor. About 10.5 % MHs and 9.33 % NMHs have MGNREGA card. There were some cases where people have MGNREGA card but they didn't get any job under it even after so much efforts. It is also found that few got job under MGNREGA two or three years back but did not now. Presently no MGNREGA job opportunity is found in the village. Higher proportion of HHs got job for three months only and got wages for three months all together. Most of them demanded more days to work.

7.8.3 Access to Means or Modern Means of Communication

Large percentage of migrant HHs were found to be reading newspaper than the non-migrant HHs. Frequency of reading newspaper daily is also higher for MHs. In terms of internet connection, it is seen that those who have access to internet connection is through only mobile data, that too mainly because of the Jio scheme launched by the Jio company on 5th September 2016, under which free Jio sim with free unlimited calling and 4G data pack was provided by the company till December 2016 which was later extended till 31st March 2017. Most of the HHs either MHs or NMHs reported maximum use of You Tube. About 30.62 % of MHs and 31.61 % of NMHs uses social media. Only two kinds of social media (Facebook and WhatsApp) were popular among them. Under social media, maximum proportion of MHs as well as NMHs use WhatsApp followed by Facebook. However, MHs use more Facebook than NMHs whereas NMHs use more WhatsApp than MHs. Maximum HHs from both migrant and non-migrant users joined social media in last one year or two years. The reason behind this has already been explained above.

Table 7. 20 Access to means or modern means of communication and Food Security by Migration Status

Access to Means or Modern Means of communication		Migrant Household (%)	Non-Migrant Household (%)
Proportion of HHs who read Newspaper		19.14	14.51
Frequency of reading Newspaper	Daily	47.5	25
	Irregular	52.50	75
Proportion of HHs having Internet Connection? (mobile data only)		34.45	32.12
Proportion of HHs using Social Media		30.62	31.61

Proportion of HHs using type of Social Media more frequently		Facebook	17.19	6.56
		WhatsApp	82.81	93.44
Proportion of HHs who think the urban life style (e.g. fast food, mall culture, trendy clothing, nuclear family, etc.) has affected the rural life style			11.00	7.77
Food Security				
Proportion of HHs whose family take two full meals (sufficient) through all the months during 2017-18			98.09	95.34
Proportion of HHs having Ration Card			56.46	66.32
Proportion of HHs by types of Ration Card		APL	19.49	19.53
		BPL	75.42	73.44
		AAY	5.08	7.03

Source: Primary Survey conducted during October 2018 to February 2019

7.9 Food Security

It is declared by the World Food Summit, 1995 that “Food security at the individual, household, regional, national and global levels exists when all people, at all times, have physical and economic access to sufficient, safe and nutritious food to meet their dietary needs and food preferences for an active and healthy life” (FAO, 1996, p.3). It further recognised that “poverty eradication is essential to improve access to food”. In simple way it can be said that food security is availability, accessibility and affordability of food to all people irrespective of their caste, class, religion, gender, etc. at all time. Food is the basic need of the people which should be fulfilled. The destitute people are more vulnerable to food insecurity. In order to overcome this, government started PDS system to ensure the three basic fundamentals of food security i.e. availability, accessibility and affordability.

The present study has tried to assess the food security by analysing the facilities provided by the government under PDS system. The possession of a Ration Card has been used as a criteria to assess the accessibility of the PDS system.

Ration Card

In order to provide food security, government introduced PDS system. Under this people get stipulated amount of food grains and related items (rice, wheat, sugar and kerosene oil) every month at subsidised rate (price lower the market price) from the government regulated Fair Price Shop (Ration Shop). In 2013, National Food Security Act was passed which made it compulsory for provisioning of 5 Kg per person per month and fix the price of wheat at Rs. 2/Kg and rice 3/Kg and Coarse grains Rs. 1/Kg. However, many state government could further subsidise the price of food grain.

Most of the HHs have BPL card followed by APL and AAY card in case of both migrant and non-migrant HHs. There were some cases found where people had Ration Card but they were not given ration saying that their name/s is/are not in the list. They complained to the Mukhiya but no action was taken by him. The Ration Shop in the area under study provide Rs.1/kg wheat and Rs. 2/kg rice and Rs. 40-50/1 $\frac{1}{2}$ litres of Kerosene. Many people reported that the PDS dealer give each beneficiary HH 5 kg less ration.

About 98.09 % and 95.34 % of MHs and NMHs take two full meals (sufficient) through all the months during 2017-18. There were some HHs who did not get the same, mainly in the month of monsoon (July and August) but such cases of HHs were found more from non-migrant HHs. When they don't get food, they have no other option but to starve.

7.10 Social Connectedness and Social Integration

“Social integration is a multidimensional construct that can be defined as the extent to which individuals participate in a variety of social relationships, including engagement in social activities or relationships and a sense of communality and identification with one's social roles (Holt-Lunstad and Uchino 2015; Brissette et al. 2000).”¹¹⁹ It can be measured through the social network, inter-personal relationship and inter-marriage.

7.10.1 Social Network

Social network is of great importance in assessing one's social integration and social life. The number of social networks reveals its degree of connectedness in the society. These social networks include friends, relatives, neighbours and colleagues, etc. It is analysed for the present

¹¹⁹ https://link.springer.com/referenceworkentry/10.1007%2F978-3-319-69892-2_646-2#:~:text=Social%20integration%20is%20a%20multidimensional,Holt%2DLunstad%20and%20Uchino%202015%3B

study as it also influences one's quality of life. Only having social network is not enough if it does not help one in their time of crisis. However, it is observed by many scholars and researchers that rural areas are more collective in nature as compared to urban areas which are comparatively individualistic in nature. Though with the time there is decline in the collective nature found in the rural areas in comparison to the past.

Taking into consideration the above said factor, support offered by social network was studied and found that 65.55 % of MHs and 62.69 % NMHs have received certain kinds of support by their social networks. It is little astonishing to notice that higher proportion of HHs of both MHs (43.54 %) and NMHs (38.86 %) received financial support. This financial support largely offered by the relatives, especially by spouse's relative. It is dismal to notice that smaller proportion of them got emotional support.

Table 7. 21 Support and types of support offered by Social Networks

		Migrant Household (%)	Non-Migrant Household (%)
Support offered by Social Networks		65.55	62.69
Types of support offered by Social Networks	Emotional	1.44	2.07
	Financial	43.54	38.86
	Manpower	20.57	21.24
	Others	0.00	0.52
	No support	34.45	37.31

Source: Primary Survey conducted during October 2018 to February 2019

7.10.2 Community Feasts

In order to analyse the social, economic, political and cultural assimilation, community feasts given by the HHs was also studied. Invitation received and offered, may reveal whether or not any sort of social, economic and political discrimination was practiced in the study area. It is good to notice that no kind of discrimination on any ground was found in the study area as everyone in the village were invited irrespective of caste, class, religion, etc. This is confirmed as 100 % of HHs from both MHs and NMHs conveyed that they receive invitation from everyone in the village. This shows that there is good assimilation on every ground in the village. Most of the community feast were given for the marriage ceremony either of daughter, son, sister or brother. Community Feasts given by the HHs in the last 1-3 years has been assessed.

Table 7. 22 Occasion for which Community Feasts given and Invitees to the Community Feast

		Migrant Household (%)	Non-Migrant Household (%)
Community feasts given by the HHs in the last 1-3 years		25.36	22.28
Occasion for which Community Feasts given	Marriage	90.20	86.05
	Death of elderly	0.00	2.33
	Birth of a son	1.96	2.33
	Birth of a daughter	1.96	0.00
	House warming	0.00	4.65
	Religious occasion	1.96	2.33
	Birthday	1.96	2.33
	Gauna	1.96	0.00
Invitees to the Community Feast	Everyone from the village	100	100

Source: Primary Survey conducted during October 2018 to February 2019

There are 23.44 % of migrant HHs and 20.73 % of non-migrant HHs where marriage ceremony took place in last one year. All these marriages were arranged and within same religion and caste. Even now not a single HH was found where inter-caste marriage took place. When inquired about what type of marriage they would like to have for future generation they still mentioned that they will go for only arrange marriage and that too within caste and religion. They were strictly against love and inter-caste marriage. Love marriage within caste is also not favoured by them. The mean age of marriage is higher for migrant HHs than the non-migrant HHs.

Many HH members had expressed that there are some kind of differences between the present and past marriages. Earlier the girl or boy were not allowed to see each other before marriage but now it is allowed to some extent in the present study area. Moreover, the boy and girl also talk over video call before marriage. There were few cases found where the fiancé gave phone to his fiancée. Other changes observed by them is the increase in the age of marriage for both girl and boy. Quite a large proportion of MHs and NMHs mentioned increased amount of dowry and increased expenses than before. Some also mentioned that now a days, huge marriage celebration and more show-off take place than the past.

The major cause of differences in the marriage at present from the past generation is found to be the Mass-media followed by show-off and education. Mass-media play a very important

role in influencing population through various kinds of serial and movies shown on the T.V. In present scenario internet is also playing some short of role in this. Through internet people get access to social media and many apps and site which contribute in changing one's opinion, views and thinking.

Table 7. 23 View Point of Households on various aspects of Marriage

		Migrant Household (%)	Non-Migrant Household (%)
Proportion of HHs who observed marriage at present is different from the past generation		97.13	92.75
How marriage at present is different from the past generation	Dowry increased	40.89	36.31
	Expense increased	22.66	25.14
	Boy-Girl see each other	14.78	12.85
	Marital age increased	11.82	15.08
	Show off	5.42	3.35
	Huge celebration	1.48	1.12
	Clothing style	0.49	0.56
	Less Parda	0.49	1.12
	Talk / video call before marriage	0.99	2.79
	Too much fashion	0.00	0.56
	Demand for educated girl	0.00	1.12
	Boy-girl select each other	0.99	0.00
The main cause of differences	Education	8.4	3.4
	Mass Media	76.59	86.28
	Show off	15.01	10.32

Source: Primary Survey conducted during October 2018 to February 2019

7.11 Economic Inclusion

Financial inclusion is one of the important step towards inclusive growth. Financial inclusion is the process which ensure the access and provision of banking and financial services/products to all people at affordable cost in a fair, transparent and equitable manner. It helps to achieve the overall economic development/upliftment of the disadvantaged section of the population. With no inclusive financial system, the destitute and vulnerable section of the population and

small and petty enterprises would not be able to reap the benefits/advantages of the development/growth opportunities.

In order to achieve financial inclusion, government/RBI came up with many financial inclusion plan such as advising banks to open bank accounts with least common facilities like no minimum balance, easy deposit and withdrawal of cash, facility of ATM card, receipt and credit of money using electronic payment channels, simplified KYC norms, etc. Amongst all these, opening bank account is the most basic and important steps towards financial inclusion as bank account allows people to keep their money safe and withdraw cash whenever they need, especially at the time of financial emergency. Most importantly, it allows them to have access to credit facilities provided by government/private player which may help in the upliftment and improvement of poor and weaker sections of the society.

Overall, a good proportion of village population have bank accounts. Many have expressed that recently they opened accounts under the government policy of Pradhan Mantri Jan-Dhan Yojana (PMJDY), *“is National Mission for Financial Inclusion to ensure access to financial services, namely, a basic savings & deposit accounts, remittance, credit, insurance, pension in an affordable manner. Under the scheme, a basic savings bank deposit (BSBD) account can be opened in any bank branch or Business Correspondent (Bank Mitra) outlet, by persons not having any other account.”*¹²⁰ About 96.65 % of Migrant HHs and 95.34 % of non-migrant HHs have access to bank account. Now a days having bank account is really important as most of the government subsidies reached directly to beneficiary bank account linked to their Aadhaar card, since the introduction of Direct Bank Transfer (DBT). This has been launched with a notion to curb corruption. Lower proportion of HHs from both migrant (22.49 %) and non-migrant (16.06) have access to ATM card but migrant HHs are better than the non-migrant HHs. Even those who have ATM, don't fully know how to use it. Amongst those who have ATM cards, the proportion who know how to use it, is higher for migrant HHs than the non-migrant HHs. Meagre of 5.74 % and 7.7 % of MHs and NMHs had made online payments. These online payment is mostly for mobile bill, electricity bill, followed by DTH recharge and online shopping. Most of the migrant HHs use online mode for the payment of mobile bill followed by electricity bill whereas NMHs for mobile bill and electricity bill equally. It is important to mention that those HHs either from MHs or NMS doing online payments belonged to the affluent class.

¹²⁰ <https://pmjdy.gov.in/scheme>

Table 7. 24 Economic Inclusion by Migration Status

		Migrant Household	Non-Migrant Household
Bank Account		96.65	95.34
ATM card		22.49	16.06
Know how to use ATM card		21.53	15.03
Proportion of HHs doing Online Payment		5.74	7.77
Purpose of doing Online Payment	Mobile Bill	41.67	86.67
	Electricity Bill	41.67	00
	Online Shopping	8.33	13.33
	DTH Recharge	8.33	00

Source: Primary Survey conducted during October 2018 to February 2019

7.12 Political Participation

Political participation refers to those activities undertaken voluntarily by the mass public in order to influence public policy either directly or indirectly, by affecting the selection of people who form policies. It can include voting in elections; helping/contributing either physically or monetarily, a political campaign, a candidate, a cause; petitioning, contacting officials, working on issues with other people, protesting, etc. Studies using substantial number of cross-national data revealed higher rate of participation by those who are wealthier and have better education than those who are less advantaged. However such kind of relationship is found to be weaker in those countries where strong political organisations or parties offer alternative resources.¹²¹

Voting is the most predominant form of political participation, though still many voters who are eligible don't go to vote in elections. Through voting, citizens take participation in the democratic process. Citizens drop vote for those leaders who represent them as well as their ideas, and in turn, the leaders take care of and support the interest of the citizens.

About 97.13 % migrant and 98.96 % non-migrant HHs have Voter Card. Though only having Voter Card don't assure voting but still it gives a rough idea about it. The proportion of registered voters is higher in migrant HHs than non-migrant HHs. The percentage of HHs

¹²¹ Uhlaner, C.J. (2001) International Encyclopedia of the Social & Behavioral Sciences. (Registered voters are those members of the HHs who are 18 years and above and are registered as voters)

having any of their HH members contest any election in the past is higher for non-migrant than migrant HHs and the willingness to contest election in future has also showed the same scenario. Migrant HHs participate more in Gram Sabha and also their females, they cast their vote more in panchayat election than the non-migrant HHs.

Table 7. 25 Political Participation by the Types of Households

	Migrant Household	Non-Migrant Household
Proportion of HHs having Voter Card	97.13	98.96
Proportion of Registered Voters	84.03	80.09
Proportion of HHs having any family member/s contested any election in the past	10.53	13.47
Proportion of HHs whose family member/s would like to contest any election in future	8.61	12.95
Proportion of HHs who caste vote for Panchayat Election	89.47	88.60
Proportion of HHs who vote a candidate as per their choice	88.04	88.08
Proportion of HHs who participates in Gram Sabha	18.18	12.44
Proportion of HHs whose female/s participate/s in Gram Sabha	3.83	2.59

Source: Primary Survey conducted during October 2018 to February 2019

7.13 Health

Health is a very important aspect of everyone's life. Health is wealth because health is prerequisite for achieving anything, such as better income and education, etc. Without good health no one can achieve better quality of life. According to WHO "Health is a state of complete physical, mental, and social well-being and not merely the absence of disease or infirmity." A healthy person can do work far better than those who are not healthy. They can do long hours of work more easily and can perform any task with full energy, concentration and dedication.

According to WHO, Health can be assessed in four ways:

Inputs and Process	Output	Outcome	Impact
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Health Financing • Health workforce • Health infrastructure • Health information 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Service access and availability • Service quality and safety • Health security 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Coverage of interventions like- HIV care coverage, Antenatal care coverage, etc. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Health status Like- Infant mortality rate, Stillbirth rate, life expectancy at birth, total fertility rate, etc.

Health Indicators can be classified into four domains-

- 1) Health Status: Subdivided into- Mortality by age and sex, Mortality by cause, Fertility, Morbidity.
- 2) Risk Factors: Subdivided into- Nutrition, Infection, Environmental risk factors, Non communicable disease, Injuries
- 3) Service Coverage: Reproductive, maternal, new-born, child and adolescent; Immunization, HIV, HIV/TB, Tuberculosis, Malaria, Neglected tropical disease, screening and preventive care, mental health.
- 4) Health System: Quality and safety of care, access, health workforce, health information, health financing, health security

The present study use indicators from the above four domains in order to assess health status of the migrant and non-migrant HH.

7.13.1 Institutional Deliveries

Among total deliveries (117), about 93.16 % are institutional deliveries, amongst which most of the deliveries took place in the Primary Health Centre (PHC) but few (majorly affluent HHs) also took place at the private hospitals. Only one PHC is located at the study area. About 6.84 % of delivery were done at home (non-institutional delivery). Among these, few HHs mentioned that there were no time to go to hospital that's why they delivered at home. However, there are also cases in which members of HHs think that there is no necessity to go to hospital as at home there would be less expensive and can also give more care than the hospitals. Other reason for delivery at home specified by them is custom. According to them

delivering at home is the custom taking place since long and there is no harm if one delivers at home.

The Table 7.26 clearly shows that more institutional deliveries taking place in migrant HHs in comparison to non-migrant HHs. However, if we see percentage institutional deliveries among total respective HH deliveries, one cannot notice much differences between them. This all because of the presence of Anganwadi (centre for the care of rural child, initiated by the government in 1975 as a part of integrated child development services programme to fight child hunger and malnutrition) where Anganwadi workers do regular survey of the HHs/families to find out the beneficiaries. They provide pre-natal and post-natal care to the women, and also responsible for the care of the new born babies. It is their duty to ensure every single child below the age of 6 years get immunized and to provide non-formal pre-school education to the children belonging to 3-5 years. They provide health and nutrition education to the families and encourage them to adopt family planning, institutional deliveries. They also educate families about child growth and development. They coordinate with the PHC staff for the health check-ups, immunization and referral of pregnant women and suffering child. The hard work of these Anganwadi workers in the village yielded more than 90 % institutional deliveries in the village.

Table 7. 26 Institutional deliveries by Migration Status

	Non- Institutional Deliveries(No.)	Institutional Deliveries(No.)	Institutional Deliveries (%) among total deliveries	Institutional Deliveries (%) among total respective HH deliveries
Migrant HHs	6	68	58.11	91.89
Non-Migrant HHs	2	42	35.89	95.45
Total	8	109	93.16	-

Source: Primary Survey conducted during October 2018 to February 2019

Higher percentage of normal deliveries took place in MHs in comparison to NMHs. There were about 8.2 % and 12.20 % caesarean deliveries done in migrant households and non-migrant households. There were various reason given for that such as no labour pain, inverted baby, heavy weight of baby and no sufficient enlargement of uterus. This has been taken under study because caesarean takes generally heavy toll on the health of the mother and also on family

(high cost of caesarean). It is noted that all caesarean done in a private hospital as no one want to take risk doing this in government hospital, even it is costly for them. This shows their lack of trust and faith on government hospital's facilities and services.

About 83.91 % and 83.33 % successful deliveries reported in migrant HHs and non-migrant HHs. The Table 7.27 shows that more miscarriages took place in migrant HHs whereas more stillbirths took place in non-migrant HHs. However, overall there were less cases of abortion, miscarriage, and stillbirth reported in the study area. This indicates a good maternal health care. Though can't deny that these kinds of information are sensitive and people tend to hide these information. However, it has been tried during the survey to fetch true data. The reason for abortion stated by the respondent was that they want a boy but it was a girl child so they went for the same. There was only a single case of stillbirth reported in migrant HHs, but the concerned respondent told that they were not given any reason by the doctor. The most common reason given for miscarriage is that they were unaware as it happened unexpected, mostly they attributed it to black magic. Other reasons for it are accidents (slips over floor or stairs), health issues, and taking wrong medicine.

Table 7. 27 Health Status by Migration Status

		Migrant HHs	Non-Migrant HHs
Consequences of Pregnancy	Abortion	1.15	0
	Miscarriage	13.79	10.42
	Stillbirth	1.15	6.25
	Delivery	83.91	83.33
Type of Delivery	Normal Delivery (%)	90.54	83.72
	Caesarean Delivery (%)	9.46	16.28
	Institutional Deliveries (%)	91.89	95.45
	Vaccination (%)	99.04	98.43
	Percentage of Households with Disabled Person	4.78	3.11
	Percentage Chronic Disease Patient	7.90	7.17
	Percentage of Households with death due to health problems in last one year	3.35	4.66
	Percentage of Households with Infant Mortality	3.83	0.52

Source: Primary Survey conducted during October 2018 to February 2019

7.13.2 Vaccination

Vaccination is the act through which a vaccine is introduced into the body in order to produce immunity to a particular disease. It is an important part of primary health care and an undeniable human right. Vaccines are extremely important to the prevention and control of the outbreaks of infectious-disease.¹²²Vaccine coverage or percentage vaccination “is the proportion of children who are eligible to receive a specific vaccine who have actually received it.”¹²³It can be measured by two basic ways: 1) “Administrative coverage is measured by counting the number of doses of vaccine given and dividing by the number of eligible children in the population. 2) Survey coverage is measured by determining the vaccination status of eligible children selected for a population-based survey.”¹²⁴

Higher percentage of vaccination is found in migrant HHs than the non-migrant HHs. Though there is little difference between them. Overall Vaccination coverage is very good in the study area, the reason is the splendid work of anganwadi persons, who regularly identify and keep track of pregnant women and new born child/children and take care of their needs. Even who forget to give vaccine to their child for any reason, anganwadi person go to their home and remind them for the same and ask them to take it as soon as possible. They always enquire and remind from time to time the parents about the vaccination. Above 95 % HHs has given vaccination to their children in anganwadi centres except few affluent class who has given in private hospitals.

7.13.3 Preference of Hospital

As health plays a very crucial role for one’s overall quality of life, a proper and affordable health facilities/services should be available for them. These health facilities/services generally catered and promoted by two health system in India that is Public and Private Hospitals. A high percentage of all households either MHs or NMHs (higher for MHs) prefer private hospitals for treatment. This is so because it’s quite normal to prefer those who provide better quality of services and environment than those with poor quality of services. The same reason is mentioned by maximum of the HHs. They prefer to spend extra at own expenses in private hospitals than going to government hospitals (who provide low cost services) due to their lack

¹²² https://www.who.int/health-topics/vaccines-and-immunization?gclid=CjwKCAiA17P9BRB2EiwAMvwNyIVyAFtC5dsuQZARtEU5XVDJDe56DeaI3vmDjtjEE1j92Vd7k_SdlRoCI2gQAvD_BwE#tab=tab_1

¹²³ http://conflict.lshrm.ac.uk/page_151.htm

¹²⁴ Ibid.

of facilities, services and sincerity of the staff. Even those who visit public hospitals, many of them prefer reputed hospitals like AIIMS etc. The rest who go to public hospitals are those who are extremely very poor (who hardly manage food) and cannot afford to pay at private hospitals. This can be substantiated with many studies who also found that public hospitals are largely preferred by poorer/poorest or low income HHs whereas comparatively well of (socio-economic level) prefer to go to private hospitals (Prasad, 2013)¹²⁵.

Table 7. 28 Preference of Hospital to Visit by Migration Status

	Preference of Hospital to Visit					
	Public		Private		Total	
	N0.	%	N0.	%	N0.	%
Migrant HHs	22	10.5	187	89.5	209	100
Non-Migrant HHs	29	15	164	85	193	100
Total	51	12.7	351	87.3	402	100

Source: Primary Survey conducted during October 2018 to February 2019

7.13.4 Frequency of Hospital Visit

The Table 7.29 illustrates that there are only 15.3 % MHs and 17.09 % NMHs who visit hospitals rarely whereas about 20.6 % and 19.2 % of the same visits thrice in a month. Higher percentage of MHs (83.27 %) and NMHs (80.86 %), visit hospitals more than once in a month. This higher frequency shows that most of the HHs either MHs or NMHs don't have good health condition. Maximum of the time they suffer with one or other type of health issues or diseases for which they have to visit hospital.

Table 7. 29 Frequency of hospital visit by Migration Status

Migration Status	Frequency of Hospital Visit											
	Once in a Month		Twice in a Month		Thrice in a Month		More than thrice in a Month		Rarely		Total	
	N0.	%	N0.	%	N0.	%	N0.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Migrant HHs	3	1.4	88	42.1	43	20.6	43	20.57	32	15.3	209	100

¹²⁵ Prasad, S. (2013) "Preference of Hospital Uses in India", *Annals of Tropical Medicine and Public Health*. Vol. 6, No.4, pp. 472-478.

Non-Migrant HHs	4	2.1	88	45.6	37	19.2	31	16.06	33	17.09	193	100
Total	7	1.7	176	43.8	80	19.9	74	36.63	65	15.9	402	100

Source: Primary Survey conducted during October 2018 to February 2019

7.13.5 Alcohol Consumption

Alcohol consumption in excess amount can cause short term as well as long term problems. The short term problems are injuries, alcohol poisoning and precarious sexual behaviour whereas over the time it can cause dangerous diseases like- cancers, liver disease, heart disease, high blood pressure, memory and cognition related problems, etc. Alcohol consumption does not only affect the health of those who consume but also the members of the HHs, if taken in high amount. Many cases were reported where after drinking people do domestic violence, quarrel, fight and even beat their wife (most of the cases) or other members of the HH. This badly affects the environment of the house and degrades the quality of life in many ways. About 45.5 % and 43 % migrant and non-migrant HHs reported consumption of alcohol which convey that 54.5 % and 57 % of the households of migrant and non-migrant are those HHs with no family member involved in drinking alcohol.

Table 7. 30 Migration Status by Migration Status

Migration Status	Alcoholic		Non-Alcoholic		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Migrant HHs	95	45.5	114	54.5	209	100
Non-Migrant HHs	83	43	110	57	193	100
Total	178	44.3	224	55.7	402	100

Source: Primary Survey conducted during October 2018 to February 2019

7.13.6 Disability

A disabled person can be defined as “someone who has a physical or mental impairment that has a substantial and long-term adverse effect on his or her ability to carry out normal day-to-day activities” (The Disability Discrimination Act (DDA)). A handicap can be said as the way the impairment restricts or confines the normal functioning of the person.

Handicapped members of the HHs, are not only considered as burden on themselves but on the whole family members. About 4.78 % and 3.11 % of migrant and non-migrant HHs are found with one or more disabled person. These HHs generally have to face lot of problems in terms of money and social stigma attached to the disability. Out of 16 cases of handicapped, only five reported that they are receiving money from government for the same that too is not sufficient at all for them.

7.13.7 Chronic Patients

“Non-communicable - or chronic - diseases are diseases of long duration and generally slow progression. The four main types of non-communicable diseases are cardiovascular diseases (like heart attacks and stroke), cancer, chronic respiratory diseases (such as chronic obstructed pulmonary disease and asthma) and diabetes, are linked by common and preventable biological risk factors, notably high blood pressure, high blood cholesterol and overweight, and by related major behavioural risk factors: unhealthy diet, physical inactivity and tobacco use.”¹²⁶ Non-communicable and chronic disease is found to be the leading reason of deaths in the world, representing 63% of all death in one year. That’s why it is important to study it in relation to quality of life. **Improving quality of life (which is also one of the objectives of Integrated Chronic Disease Prevention and Control Programme by WHO) can contribute in reducing the incidence of chronic disease. In this way, we can say that absence of chronic disease indicates better quality of life.**

Table 7.27 illustrates that 7.90 % members of migrant households and 7.17 % members of non-migrant households are suffering from one or more chronic diseases. The **most common amongst them is found to be B.P. followed by Diabetes and cardio-vascular disease.** Most of the HHs spend out of the pocket on the treatment of these diseases, many have even taken large amount of loan for the same. **Chronic diseases are like termites which eat not only the patient body but also their money over the time.** Almost all households reported to have used only allopathy medicines except few who after losing all hopes tried everything (homeopathic, Ayurvedic, etc. and even jhar-fuk) to cure her/his loved ones.

¹²⁶[https://www.who.int/features/factfiles/noncommunicable_diseases/en/#:~:text=Noncommunicable%20%2D%20or%20chronic%20%2D%20diseases%20are,disease%20and%20asthma\)%20and%20diabetes.](https://www.who.int/features/factfiles/noncommunicable_diseases/en/#:~:text=Noncommunicable%20%2D%20or%20chronic%20%2D%20diseases%20are,disease%20and%20asthma)%20and%20diabetes.)

7.13.8 Death due to Health Problems

Under this, death due to health problems in last one year is analysed and it has been found that 3.35 % of migrant households and 4.66 % of non-migrant households reported death due to health problems in last one year. It is found that health problems is the major cause of death in most of the HHs. These health problems are heart attack, brain haemorrhage, cancer and liver damage, etc.

7.13.9 Surgery

About 26.79 % and 20.21 % of migrant and non-migrant households reported that one or more of their members underwent surgery in last one year. Most of the HHs went to private hospitals for the surgeries as they don't have much faith in public hospitals due to its lack of proper facilities and services. Maximum number of surgeries that took place in the study area was done by the hospitals in the nearest district of Gopalgunj, Siwan, Gorakhpur but some of them also managed to go to even Delhi, Mumbai and Patna. Majority of the HHs went for surgery for Hysterectomy followed by Tubectomy and Hydrocele. The more complex the surgery (Knee replacement, heart surge, Tumour, etc.) is, the more the distance they had to travel, i.e. to Gorakhpur, Patna, Delhi and Mumbai. Many of them went to public hospitals for surgery of those health issues for which government provide some subsidies like Tubectomy.

7.13.10 Infant Mortality/ Child Mortality

Infant Mortality can be defined as “the death of an infant before his or her first birthday.”¹²⁷ Whereas the Infant Mortality Rate is “the number of infant deaths for every 1,000 live births.”¹²⁸ Overall there were less cases of Infant Mortality, which is a good sign. It gives us not only key information about health of mother and infant but it is an essential maker of the overall health of the society. For the present study, percentage of households with infant mortality is calculated to compare the same between migrant and non-migrant households. It has been seen that more households from migrant household (3.83 %) have reported Infant Mortality than the non-migrant households (0.52 %). The reasons for the deaths were

¹²⁷<https://www.cdc.gov/reproductivehealth/maternalinfanthealth/infantmortality.htm#:~:text=Infant%20mortality%20is%20the%20death,for%20every%201%2C000%20live%20births.>

¹²⁸ Ibid.

pneumonia, tumour, heart disease and some health problems that the household members themselves don't know.

Only two household reported Child Mortality (death of a child between one to five years of age) in the last one year. This shows better health of child in the study area. The reason of death for one was due to the snake bite and one due to some health issues.

The comparative analysis between migrant and non-migrant households on various socio-economic aspects in this chapter revealed that in some aspects migrant households are doing better and in others non-migrants are better but one can't say that which household have better quality of life. So in order to get a clear picture of which household is better in terms of quality of life, various socio-economic index were build and using those a single quality of life index was also constructed in the next chapter.

Chapter 8

Quality of Life: A Comparative Analysis of Migrant and Non-Migrant Households

Quality of life (QOL) is not a new term. Actually, it nothing but a new name for an age old notion. It is a “subjective name for the "wellbeing" of people and the environment in which they live.” The quality-of- life concept is multidimensional. Quality of life is a relative term. It is found that there is no universally accepted definition of Quality of life and neither there are universally accepted indicators of quality of life. There is always a “problem of defining the quality of life in terms of quantifiable categories to map variations of human life conditions. World Health Organisation states Quality of Life as “individuals’ perception of their position in life in the context of the culture and value systems in which they live and in relation to their goals, expectations, standards and concerns. It is a broad ranging concept affected in a complex way by the person's physical health, psychological state, level of independence, social relationships, personal beliefs and their relationship to salient features of their environment.”¹²⁹

QOL covers “not only the economic opportunities available to the people but also their ability to take advantage of these opportunities and the existence of living conditions which permit a healthy and productive life. Eradication of poverty and provision of basic minimum services are integral elements of this strategy to improve the quality of life. It should be noted that social indicators cannot be improved merely through increased investment but in addition, it requires a significant change in social attitudes and behavioural responses of the people. In order to achieve these objectives, there is no alternative to social mobilisation and community participation.”

In order to assess quality of life, quality of life index is constructed by combining various socio-economic index. Quality of Life Index (QLI) signifies the well-being of an average individual. It does not attempt to predict or reflect the future situation rather it reflects only the current situation or condition and represent only the results which is visible.

There are many debate regarding the relationships of out-migration and quality of life. It is assumed that out-migration improves quality of life. So in order to find out whether or not out-migration affects quality of life, quality of life for migrant HHs and non-migrant HHs are

¹²⁹ World Health Organization (1997) “Measuring Quality of Life”, Division of Mental Health and Prevention of Substance Abuse.

computed and compared. Firstly, various socio-economic index are calculated like economic, health, education, assets, amenities, political and awareness and then one aggregate Quality of index is built using all these index.

For the present study, seven dimensions for assessing quality has been used, namely, Economic, Education, Health, amenities, Assets, political participation and awareness. A reasonable economic condition not only ensures access to basic necessities of life but also provides access to other dimensions of life such as education, health, household amenities (sanitation, portable drinking water and electricity), assets, political participation and awareness about their surrounding socio-economic environment/facilities/resources. Similarly, health and education enable a person to acquire better occupation which result in better income. Health is of immense importance to households not only for ensuring a healthy life, but better health warrants a better healthy life and thus higher capability to earn better income. A better amenities directly improves the health and better health's benefits already explained above. Political participation reveals individual's access to their political rights. Political participation results in feeling of satisfaction with one's life as participation in political activities gives them feeling of autonomy, competence and also relatedness. Along with this, it also give them sense that they are part of the system and the society. This feeling of satisfaction by political participation improves one's quality of life. Awareness about surrounding environment and various socio-economic opportunities, facilities and resources is equally important for leading a better quality of life because awareness about these leads to their accesses to the available resources/facilities and thus improves their overall quality of life. Thus, it can be said that the aggregate of the above mentioned seven dimensions would provide a reasonable picture of the quality of the migrant and non-migrant households.

Keeping the above factors in mind, this chapter further deals with all seven indexes, with respect to both migrant and non-migrant HHs, one by one and after that the aggregate of these index has been presented under the quality of life. Finally, the last chapter is concluded by comparing the quality of life of the migrant and non-migrant HHs.

8.1 Economic Index

There were huge debate regarding the role and importance of economic status in the quality of life since long. Though income is not alone sufficient for the overall quality of life but it contribute significantly to the socio-economic development and quality of life of the HHs at micro-level and the district/state/country at macro level. Income of the HH or person enable

them to have access to better food, shelter, medical/health care, education, assets and amenities, etc.

For assessing Economic condition, Economic index has been calculated using six variables which are converted into respective indicators. Then these indicators are divided by their respective means to make them normalised or standardised. After that, the standardised values are summed up to get a composite score, then this score is divided by the total numbers of indicators to get a final Economic Index.

Table 8. 1 Economic Index

S. No.	Selected Indicators	Migrants Household	Non-Migrant Household
1.	Proportion of economically active person to total members of working age (15-65 years) of Household	50.06	42.09
2.	Percentage of person among total working member of HH in service sector	16.55	10.74
3.	Percentage of households having Land-holding 1 acre and more	16.3	8.3
4.	Percentage of households having Agricultural Land holding 1 acre and more	16.7	6.7
5.	Percentage of households with total monthly income above 45000	21.1	19
6.	Percentage of households with Monthly Per capita income above 6000	25.4	20.2
Economic Index		1.20	0.80

Source: Primary Survey conducted during October 2018 to February 2019

Out of six indicators, migrant HHs performed better in all six indicators whereas non-migrant HHs did not perform even in a single indicator. Moreover, the composite score of all indicators revealed that migrant HH's (1.20) Economic index is far better than non-migrant HHs (0.80), with a margin of about 0.40 point.

8.2 Health Index

Health is one of the most important aspects of quality of life as without proper health no one can achieve better QOL. One can access and utilise the available opportunities and facilities if and only if they are physically and mentally fit. A healthy person can do work far better than those who are not healthy. They can do long hours of work more easily and can perform any task with full energy, concentration and dedication.

For assessing health, health index has been calculated using thirteen variables which are converted into respective indicators. Then these indicators are divided by their respective means to make them normalised or standardised. After that, the standardised values are summed up to get a composite score, then this score is divided by the total numbers of indicators to get a final health index. The thirteen indicators have been selected for calculating health index which are suggested by the WHO as the health indicators.

According to WHO, health indicators can be classified into four domains¹³⁰:

- 1) Health Status: Subdivided into-“Mortality by age and sex, Mortality by cause, Fertility, Morbidity.
- 2) Risk Factors: Subdivided into- Nutrition, Infection, Environmental risk factors, Non-communicable disease, Injuries
- 3) Service Coverage: Reproductive, maternal, new-born, child and adolescent; Immunization, HIV, HIV/TB, Tuberculosis, Malaria, Neglected tropical disease, screening and preventive care, mental health.
- 4) Health System: Quality and safety of care, access, health workforce, health information, health financing, and health security.”

The thirteen indicators selected for making Health Index are:

1. Percentage of Institutional Deliveries
2. Percentage of Vaccinated Child
3. Percentage of Households without Infant Mortality in the last one year.
4. Percentage of no Chronic Disease patient
5. Percentage HHs who treat water before Drinking

¹³⁰ World Health Organization (2015) “Global Reference List of 100 Core Health Indicators”, p. 14.

6. Percentage of HHs who don't practice open defecation
7. Percentage of Safe Fuel of Cooking (LPG)
8. Percentage households with no family member involved in drinking alcohol
9. Percentage of Households without disabled person
10. Percentage of Households with rare visit to hospitals in the last one year
11. Percentage of Normal Delivery to the total deliveries in last one year
12. Percentage of Households without death due to health problems in last one year
13. Percentage no Stillbirth (Stillbirth among total deliveries)

Table 8. 2 Health Index

S. No.	Selected Indicators	Migrant HHs	Non-Migrant HHs
1.	Percentage of Institutional Deliveries	91.89	95.45
2.	Percentage of Vaccinated Child	99.04	98.43
3.	Percentage of Households without Infant Mortality in the last one year.	96.17	99.48
4.	Percentage of no Chronic Disease patient	92.1	92.83
5.	Percentage HHs who treat water before Drinking	11	11.4
6.	Percentage of HHs who don't practice Open Defecation	87.1	78.8
7.	Percentage of Safe Fuel of Cooking (LPG)	68.9	68.4
8.	Percentage households with no family member involved in drinking Alcohol	54.5	57
9.	Percentage of Households without Disabled Person	95.22	96.89
10.	Percentage of Households with rare visit to hospitals in the last one year	15.3	17.09
11.	Percentage of Normal Delivery to the total deliveries in last one year	90.54	83.72
12.	Percentage of Households without death due to health problems in last one year	96.65	95.34

13.	Percentage no Stillbirth (Stillbirth among total deliveries)	98.63	92.5
Health Index		0.999	1.001

Source: Primary Survey conducted during October 2018 to February 2019

Out of thirteen indicators, migrant HHs performed better in six indicators whereas non-migrant HHs did well on seven indicators. However the composite score of all indicators revealed that migrant HHs and non-migrant HH's health status is almost equal to each other as there is no significant difference in their health index.

8.3 Education Index

Education is essential for “development and growth. Access to education, a basic human right which is enshrined in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child, is also a strategic development investment. It is the human mind which makes it possible to achieve all other developments ranging from advances in health and innovation in agriculture to infrastructure construction and growth of private sector.” It is one of the strongest and vital instruments for diminishing poverty and bettering health, gender equality, peace and stability.

Griliche (1964) noted that only 10 per cent enhancement in farmer's education increases the yield of agriculture by 3 to 4 per cent in comparison to only 1 to 2 per cent yield owing to 10 per cent increase in inland fertilizers and mechanisation in agriculture in U.S. In this way, one can say that educational advancement acts as a medium for economic development.

Many studies confirm that education is “one of the most effective development investments of countries and their donor partners can make” (Basic Education Coalition 2004). “Adequate investments in education make it possible to achieve many other development goals and increases the possibility of sustained development” (USAID 2005). Schooling each year “increases individual output by 4 to 7 percent, and countries that advance literacy rates by 20 to 30 percent have seen increase in Gross Domestic Product (GDP) of 8 to 16 percent” (Basic Education Coalition 2004). Education helps to expand human capital which is essential for growth of economy (USAID 2005). It also bring substantial improvements in status of health, nutrition, and expectancy of life. In fact, it can be said that education uplift the overall quality of life of a person, households, state, and country.

Providing education to girl can even bring greater results. Girls who study can contribute more to the income of the family and to national productivity. They are also more likely to postpone their marriage, have less number of children who is/are generally healthier. Actually, “educating girls quite possibly yields a higher rate of return than any other investment available in the developing world” (Summer 1992). Notwithstanding this fact, mere “59 (nearly one-third) among 181 countries, of which data were available, had attained gender parity in terms of their gross enrolment rates in case of both levels of primary and secondary education (UNESCO 2007).”

For assessing education, education index has been calculated using five variables which are converted into respective indicators. Then these indicators are divided by their respective means to make them normalised or standardised. After that, the standardised values are summed up to get a composite score, then this score is divided by the total numbers of indicators to get a final Education Index.

Table 8. 3 Education Index

S. No.	Selected Indicators	Migrant HHs	Non-Migrant HHs
1.	Total Literacy Rate	79.79	87.56
2.	Female Literacy Rate	72.05	82.26
3.	Adult Literacy Rate	73	84.08
4.	Graduation and Above Educational Attainment to Total Literates	9.76	7.61
5.	Female Graduation and Above Educational Attainment to Total Female Literates	12.3	7.79
Education Index		1.03	0.97

Source: Primary Survey conducted during October 2018 to February 2019

Out of five indicators, migrant HHs performed better in two indicators whereas non-migrant HHs on three indicators. However the composite score of all indicators revealed that migrant HH’s education index is better than non-migrant HHs, with a margin of 0.06 point.

8.4 Amenities Index

Access to basic amenities is very essential for every individual as it affects the quality of life that one lives. Only after fulfilling this need one can aspire for higher needs (education, employment, etc.). It is the foremost duty of the state to provide adequate access to basic services such as water, sanitation, electricity and transport, etc. to its citizens. Access to the basic facilities is constrained by many factors such as poverty, inequality and failure of government.¹³¹ Access to amenities directly affects the health of the individual, like access to better amenities leads to better health and vice-versa, which will result in better education and employment opportunities. This has also been confirmed by U.S. Mishra and V. Shukla, “Access to toilet facility is one of the very essential components of sanitation which is an integral component of public hygiene and health in India. It contributes to a clean and improved environment, social development and generates significant economic benefits.”¹³² Just like sanitation, safe drinking water, safe cooking fuel, etc. are essential for leading a quality of life and without which one can never achieve a better quality of life.

For assessing Amenities, Amenities Index has been calculated using ten variables which are converted into respective indicators. Then these indicators are divided by their respective means to make them normalised or standardised. After that, the standardised values are summed up to get a composite score, then this score is divided by the total numbers of indicators to get a final Amenities Index.

Table 8. 4 Amenities Index

S. No.	Selected Indicators	Migrant Household (%)	Non-Migrant Household (%)
1.	Percentage of Households having Separate Room for Married Couple	71.30	65.10
2.	Percentage of Households having Kitchen	55.00	45.00
3.	Percentage of Households using LPG	68.90	68.40
4.	Percentage of Households who treat water before Drinking	11.00	11.40

¹³¹ Srivastava, R and S.K. Sasikumar (2003): “An Overview of Migration in India, its Impacts and Key Issues”. Paper presented at Regional Conference on Migration, Development and Pro-Poor Policy Choices in Asia, at Dhaka.

¹³² Mishra, U.S. and V. Shukla (2015) “Provisions of Basic Household Amenities in India: A Progress Report, SAGE, Vol. 45, No. 3, p. 423.

5.	Percentage of Households who share a single room by less than three persons	57.89	40.93
6.	Percentage of Households with Pucca House	55.98	55.95
7.	Proportion of HHs having proper Toilet Facility (covered latrine room with tap)	18.70	13.00
8.	Proportion of HHs having proper Bathroom (fully covered with tap)	23.10	21.20
9.	Proportion of HHs having Permanent Electricity	97.70	97.90
10	Proportion of HHs having Flush Toilet Facility	11.00	7.80
Amenities Index		1.07	0.93

Source: Primary Survey conducted during October 2018 to February 2019

Out of ten indicators, migrant HHs performed better in eight indicators whereas non-migrant HHs were better on two indicators only. Moreover the composite score of all indicators revealed that migrant HH's Amenities Index is better than non-migrant HHs, with a margin of 0.14 point.

8.5 Asset Index

Anything that has some monetary value, meaning which can be sold and converted into cash, is called as an asset. It can be movable (car, cycle, refrigerator, etc.) and immovable (land and house). Assets, that a HH own, can play a very important role to determine the quality of life of the HH. It constitutes the household durables and livestock assets. Assets are found to be directly associated with the income. Ownership of a productive asset can directly affect the Quality of life of a HH. The household durable assets include the house and the homestead land, total land-holdings, refrigerator, T.V., car, A.C., mobile, generator, computer, laptop, shops/commercial establishments, etc.

For assessing Assets, Asset Index has been calculated using nineteen variables which are converted into respective indicators. Then these indicators are divided by their respective means to make them normalised or standardised. After that, the standardised values are

summed up to get a composite score, then this score is divided by the total numbers of indicators to get a final Asset Index.

Table 8. 5 Asset Index

S. No.	Selected Indicators	Migrant Household (%)	Non-Migrant Household (%)
1.	Percentage of Households having Telephone	100.00	98.40
2.	Percentage of Households having T.V.	46.89	47.15
3.	Percentage of Households having Gas Stove	92.34	89.64
4.	Percentage of Households having Cycle	77.99	83.42
5.	Percentage of Households having Sewing Machine	43.06	43.01
6.	Percentage of Households having Fan	94.26	89.12
7.	Percentage of Households having Scooter / Motor-Cycle	40.19	43.01
8.	Percentage of Households having Car	9.09	8.81
9.	Percentage of Households having Room-Heater	13.88	13.47
10.	Percentage of Households having Geyser	9.57	7.25
11.	Percentage of Households having Mixer	17.7	16.06
12.	Percentage of Households having Iron	32.54	31.61
13.	Percentage of Households having Refrigerator	21.53	18.13
14.	Percentage of Households having DVD Player	19.62	20.73
15.	Percentage of Households having Generator	8.13	5.7
16.	Percentage of Households having Computer/Laptop	14.83	10.88
17.	Percentage of Households having Washing Machine	14.83	8.81
18.	Percentage of Households having DTH	37.32	27.46
19.	Percentage of Households having Inverter	21.05	18.13

Asset Index	1.06	0.94
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Source: Primary Survey conducted during October 2018 to February 2019

Out of nineteen indicators, migrant HHs performed better in fifteen indicators whereas non-migrant HHs on four indicators. However the composite score of all indicators revealed that migrant HH's Asset Index is better than non-migrant HHs, with a margin of 0.12 point.

8.6 Political Participation Index

“Political participation refers to those activities undertaken voluntary by the mass public in order to influence public policy either directly or indirectly, by affecting the selection of people who form policies.” It can include voting in elections; helping/contributing either physically or monetarily, a political campaign, a candidate, a cause; petitioning, contacting officials, working on issues with other people, protesting, etc. Studies using substantial number of cross-national data revealed higher rate of participation by those who are wealthier and have better education than those who are less privileged. However such kind of relationship is found to be weaker in those countries where strong political organisations or parties offer alternative resources.¹³³

Political participation results in feeling of satisfaction with one's life as participation in political activities gives them feeling of autonomy, competence and also relatedness. A study by Rebecca and Winters (2008) on individual level data from Latin America revealed a positive as well as statistically significant association between voting and life satisfaction.¹³⁴ This feeling of satisfaction by political participation improves one's quality of life. It is also mentioned by Amartya Sen in *Development as Freedom* that “Participation can also be seen to have intrinsic value for the quality of life. Indeed, being able to do something through political action—for oneself or for others—is one of the elementary freedoms that people have reason to value”¹³⁵

¹³³ Uhlener, C.J. (2001) International Encyclopedia of the Social & Behavioral Sciences.

* (Registered voters are those members of the HHs who are 18 years and above and are registered as voters)

¹³⁴ Rebecca, W.S. and M.S. Winters (2008) “Political Participation and Quality of Life”, Working Paper no. 638, Inter-American Development Bank, Columbia University.

¹³⁵ Sen, A.K. (1995) “Rationality and Social Choice.” *American Economic Review*, Vol.85, pp. 1-24.

For assessing Political Participation, Political Participation Index has been calculated using seven variables which are converted into respective indicators. Then these indicators are divided by their respective means to make them normalised or standardised. After that, the standardised values are summed up to get a composite score, then this score is divided by the total numbers of indicators to get a final Political Participation Index.

Table 8. 6 Political Participation Index

S. No.	Selected Indicators	Migrant Household	Non-Migrant Household
1.	Proportion of HHs having Voter Card	97.13	98.96
2.	Proportion of Registered Voters	84.03	80.09
3.	Proportion of HHs having any family member/s contested any election in the past	10.53	13.47
4.	Proportion of HHs who caste vote for Panchayat Election	89.47	88.6
5.	Proportion of HHs who vote a candidate as per their choice	88.04	88.08
6.	Proportion of HHs who participates in Gram Sabha	18.18	12.44
7.	Proportion of HHs whose female/s participate/s in Gram Sabha	3.83	2.59
Political Participation Index		1.04	0.96

Source: Primary Survey conducted during October 2018 to February 2019

Out of seven indicators, migrant HHs performed better in four indicators whereas non-migrant HHs on three indicators. However the composite score of all indicators revealed that migrant HH's Political Participation Index is better than non-migrant HHs, with a margin of 0.08 point.

8.7 Awareness Index

Awareness and participation in various aspects is very important for an individual's and HH's overall quality of life. Without having awareness, no one can take benefits of various socio-economic and political facilities/schemes and also can't demand for the same, provided by the

government. Lack of awareness leads to lack of participation which leaves them back from others in terms of development. Awareness is necessary, as it contributes to easier accessibility and also better utilisation of facilities provided by the government. Awareness can be said to be the first step to quality of life/development. Awareness means having information about various socio-economic and political facilities and rights given to them. If someone is aware then they can demand and reap maximum benefits not only for themselves but also for their community. Awareness is important but only having awareness could not solve the problem until and unless it is converted into active participation. Participation is equally important as only participating by the person can bring out any change. For the participation in decision-making, people generate ideas, formulate and assess the various options, and then make choices about them, along with this they formulate plans for putting selected options into effect. All these contribute to improve their capability and hence enhance their quality of life.

For assessing Awareness, Awareness Index has been calculated using eighteen variables which are converted into respective indicators. Then these indicators are divided by their respective means to make them normalised or standardised. After that, the standardised values are summed up to get a composite score, then this score is divided by the total numbers of indicators to get a final Awareness Index.

Table 8. 7 Awareness Index

S. No.	Selected Indicators	Migrant Household (%)	Non-Migrant Household (%)
1.	Proportion of HHs having Bank Account	96.65	95.34
2.	Proportion of HHs having ATM Card	22.49	16.06
3.	Proportion of HHs who have at least one member who Know how to use ATM Card	21.53	15.03
4.	Proportion of HHs doing Online Payment	5.74	7.77
5.	Proportion of HHs who read Newspaper daily	47.5	25

6.	Proportion of HHs having Internet Connection (mobile data only)	34.45	32.12
7.	Proportion of HHs using Social Media	30.62	31.61
8.	Proportion of HHs using WhatsApp	82.81	93.44
9.	Proportion of HHs having Job Card (MGNREGA)	10.05	9.33
10.	Proportion of HHs having Ration Card	56.46	66.32
11.	Proportion of HHs having Aadhaar Card	100	99.48
12.	Proportion of HHs who know about PDS (Public Distribution System)	99.04	100
13.	Proportion of HHs who know about Self-Help Group (SHGs)	76.08	79.79
14.	Proportion of HHs who know about Pension/Social Assistance Programmes	96.65	91.19
15.	Proportion of HHs who know about Pradhan Mantri Fasal Bima Yojana (PMFBY)	80.38	72.54
16.	Proportion of HHs who know about Integrated child Development Scheme (ICDS)	87.08	83.42
17.	Proportion of HHs who know about Pradhan Mantri Gram Jan Dhan Yojana (PMJDY)	40.19	42.49

18.	Proportion of HHs who know about MGNREGA	66.51	54.92
Awareness Index		1.03	0.97

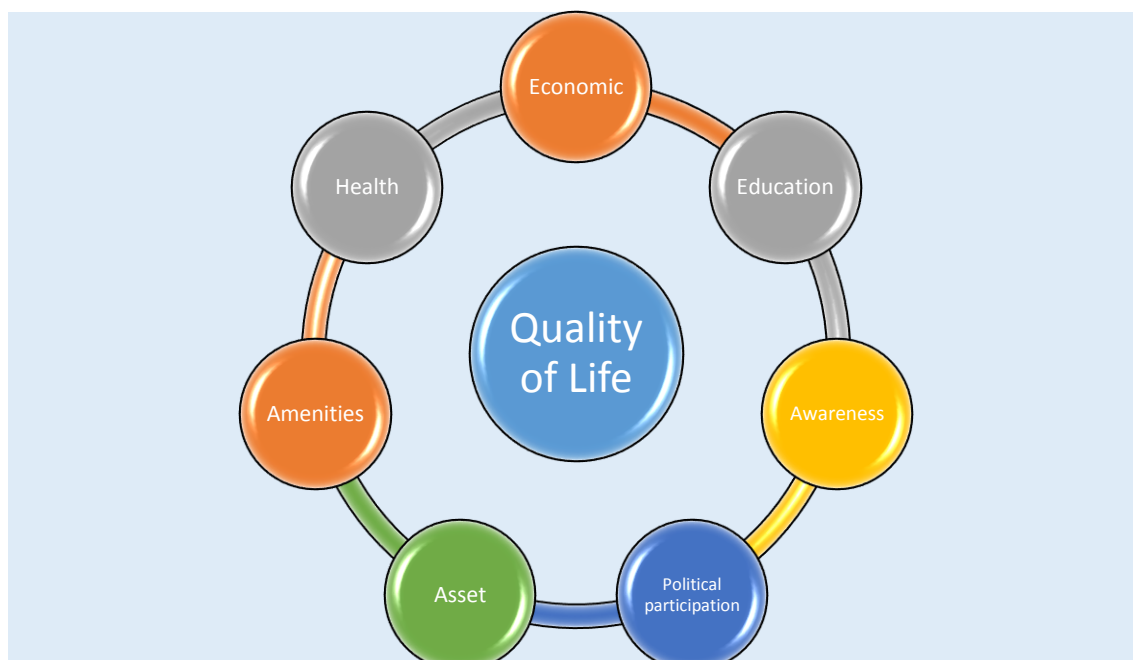
Source: Primary Survey conducted during October 2018 to February 2019

Out of eighteen indicators, migrant HHs performed better in eleven indicators whereas non-migrant HHs on seven indicators. However the composite score of all indicators revealed that migrant HH's Awareness Index is better than non-migrant HHs, with a margin of 0.06 point.

8.8 Quality of Life Index

Quality of life index has been calculated for migrant and non-migrant household by aggregating the seven socio-economic indices and dividing it by the total number of these indices. These seven indices are Economic Index, Health Index, Education Index, Amenities Index, Asset Index, Political Participation Index and Awareness Index.

Fig. 8. 1 Indicators of Quality of Life



Amongst seven index, migrant HH performed better in six index except health index where both migrant and non-migrant HH are more or less similar. It is found that the quality of life

index of migrant HH is higher than the non-migrant HH. There is about 0.12 point difference in the quality of life index between the migrant and non-migrant household. This shows that the migrating out helps migrant households to improve their economic, social, political, health status and awareness.

Table 8. 8 Quality of life Index

S. No.	Index	Migrant Household	Non-Migrant Household
1.	Economic Index	1.20	0.80
2.	Health Index	0.999	1.001
3.	Education Index	1.03	0.97
4.	Amenities Index	1.07	0.93
5.	Asset Index	1.06	0.94
6.	Political Participation Index	1.04	0.96
7.	Awareness Index	1.03	0.97
Quality of Life Index		1.06	0.94

Source: Primary Survey conducted during October 2018 to February 2019

Amongst the seven index which are calculated for assessing quality of life, economic index is best performed by the migrant households followed by amenities index, asset index, political participation index, education index, awareness index and health index. Whereas in the case of non-migrant HHs, health index is on the top followed by education Index, awareness Index, political participation Index, asset index, amenities Index and economic Index.

The whole discussion made till now proves that migrants are able to reap benefits from their out-migration. They are able to provide socio-economic facilities to their household's members which ultimately enhance their quality of life. One of the respondent of migrant HH mentioned that -

“We were hardly able to manage food before my husband’s out-migration. Many times we even slept empty stomach but since his migration we have never seen those days again. We didn’t

have proper house to live in nor did we have proper cloths to wear. We do feel pain of his long distance stay but that pain is less painful than the pain we used to have before his migration.”

There were many such cases found where the respondents expressed more or less the same feeling mentioned above during the survey. Though it is true that out-migration don't turn an individual from a beggar to a billionaire but one cannot deny that it brings definitely a significant improvement in their quality of life with the time.

Conclusions

To summarise the above discussion following broad conclusions can be drawn:

- Out of six economic indicators, migrant HHs performed better in all six indicators whereas non-migrant HHs could not perform even in a single indicator. Moreover, the composite score of all indicators revealed that migrant HH's (1.20) Economic index is far better than non-migrant HHs (0.80), with a margin of about 0.40 point.
- Among the thirteen Health indicators, migrant HHs performed better in six indicators whereas non-migrant HHs on seven indicators. However the composite score of all indicators revealed that migrant HHs and non-migrant HH's health status is almost equal to each other as there is not much difference in their health index.
- Migrant HHs did better in two indicators whereas non-migrant HHs on three indicators out of five education indicators. However the composite score of all indicators revealed that migrant HH's education index is better than non-migrant HHs, with a margin of 0.06 point.
- Out of ten Amenities indicators, migrant HHs performed better in eight indicators whereas non-migrant HHs on two indicators only. Moreover the composite score of all indicators revealed that migrant HH's Amenities index is better than non-migrant HHs, with a margin of 0.14 point.
- Migrant HHs performed better in fifteen indicators and non-migrant HHs on four indicators out of nineteen Asset indicators. However the composite score of all indicators revealed that migrant HH's Asset index is better than non-migrant HHs, with a margin of 0.12 point.
- Amongst the seven Political Participation indicators, migrant HHs performed better in four indicators whereas non-migrant HHs on three indicators. However the

composite score of all indicators revealed that migrant HH's Political Participation Index is better than non-migrant HHs, with a margin of 0.08 point.

- Out of eighteen Awareness indicators, migrant HHs performed better in eleven indicators whereas non-migrant HHs on seven indicators. However the composite score of all indicators revealed that migrant HH's Awareness Index is better than non-migrant HHs, with a margin of 0.06 point.
- Among the seven index, migrant HH performed better in six index except health index where both migrant and non-migrant HH were more or less similar. It is found that quality of life index of migrant HH is higher than the non-migrant HH. There are about 0.12 point difference in the quality of life index between the migrant and non-migrant household. This shows that the migrating out helps migrant households to improve their economic, social, political, health status and awareness.
- Amongst the seven index which are calculated for assessing quality of life, economic index is far the best performed by the migrant households followed by amenities index, asset index, political participation index, education index, awareness index and health index. Whereas in the case of non-migrant HHs, health index is on the top followed by education Index, awareness Index, political participation Index, asset index, amenities Index and economic Index.
- The Present study analysis proves that migrants are able to reap benefits from their out-migration. They are able to provide socio-economic facilities to their household's members which ultimately enhance their quality of life.
- Though remittances, knowledge, talents, abilities, experiences and learned skills carried by the people who moved out from the destination places bring about economic, social and cultural changes in their household in particular and village in general. These also improve their quality of life and also raise their aspirations. However, out-migration from the rural regions is beneficial for the place of origin on one part but on the other part it is depleting the valuable human resources of the rural areas. So, there should be some policy measures which would discourage the out-migration from the rural areas by providing those resources and facilities such as better job opportunities, education, etc for which they are compelled to move out of their native land. By having these development at their own place of origin they can improve their quality of life by having better education, employment opportunities and other resources.

Chapter 9

Summary of Main Conclusions and Policy Recommendations

I.

- Migration is not new, it existed since long, but in recent years there has been unprecedented surge in out-migration among the rural population.
- Migration is, obviously, change and “it can transform the person who migrate, the region to which they migrate and even the region from where they migrate”.
- Migration, generally, viewed as a result of unequal development in places of origin and destination.
- The developmentalist argue that “in exchange of flow of migrants, counter-flow of capital (like remittances and investment) and knowledge are also produced to the place of origin, which can be again invested and as a result bring about development and modernization. According to Pessimist, in the capitalist system, out-migration from the origin is viewed as a part of a larger practice of draining away of resources from an under-developing to developing area/region.”
- Generally, the main motive behind out-migration is to achieve a better quality of life not only for one-self but also for their family members.
- Unequal regional development leads to migration. Lack of opportunities at the place of origin often force migrants to leave their native land. Hence, in order to acquire a better and improved life they migrate to urban areas.
- Better employment prospects, improved infrastructure, and higher wages available in developed regions attract migrants whereas the absence of the same in the developing or under-developed regions push migrants outside.
- It is not only the poor who is out-migrating from the rural areas but rich people are also nearly equally susceptible to the same. The rich people are out-migrating to acquire enhanced as well as higher comforts of life whereas poor people are forced to out-migrate due to their economic hardships in order to eke out existence.
- People who are migrating from rural areas to cities in search of employment, generally work in unorganised sectors on low wages without any protection of labour legislation and often live in slums.

- Both rural and urban areas can be positively as well as negatively impacted by the rural to urban migration. In terms of rural areas, it can affect rural income, either it reduces the rural income as the males who are younger show a greater tendency for migration hence reducing agricultural productivity or increasing rural income through the remittances sent by the migrants. In terms of urban areas, it can lead to greater incidence of unemployment and reduction of wages in the urban labour markets or can positively affect the urban economy, which depends on the types of migrants involved.

II.

- Bihar covers an area of about 94163 km² (36,357 sq. miles) which is 2.86 % of India's total area and ranked 12th in terms of area amongst all states and UTs of India.
- The climate of Bihar is of sub-tropical humid in nature, with hot summers and cold winters.
- Bihar is a huge extension of fertile plain which is mostly drained by the mighty river Ganga and its tributaries such as Gandhak, Ghagra, Kosi, etc.
- The Ganga River divides it unequally into 2 parts, the North Bihar Plain and South Bihar Plain.
- In terms of population, Bihar ranked as 3rd most populous state of India.
- The population density of Bihar is 1106 per sq. km (census, 2011), which is the highest amongst all the states of India.
- It is predominantly an agrarian society as most of the population of Bihar (i.e. 89 %) resides in the rural areas.
- During 2001-2010, Bihar's urban population although increased at a faster rate, its urbanisation level hardly increased. In terms of urbanisation rate, Bihar ranked the 2nd lowest in India.
- The sex-ratio of Bihar is 918 females per 1000 males, which is considerably lower in comparison to India's average.
- About 82.7 % population of Bihar is Hindu whereas 16.9 % are Muslims.
- The scenario of Bihar, what it is today, was not always like this. In fact, in the ancient time, it was the centre, not only of power but also of culture and learning. But now it is often referred as one of the most backward state, economically and socially. It is quite evident if one focuses on some economic and social indicators. About 33.74 % Bihar's

population lived below the poverty line and this makes it one of the poorest state of India. It has also the lowest per capita Net State Domestic Product (NSDP) in India. It has the lowest Adult Literacy Rate (63.8 %, 2011 census), worse Child Mortality Rate (84.8, NFHS 2005-06). Most of its population doesn't have accessibility to proper facilities like health, education and many other services.

- Migration from Bihar is very old and has a long history. Bihari migrants have not only traversed the state but also migrated to various overseas British colonies.
- Migration from Bihar (forced by middlemen and contractors) to various British colonies to work in the plantation and in agriculture sector, persisted till the First World War.
- Since, middle of the 19th century, the most important destinations for the Bihari migrants were Assam (in the tea gardens mainly) and West Bengal (in the industrial areas). Migrants to the industrial regions of West Bengal mainly from the plains of North Bihar and were involved in low-paid work like Coolies, night guards, as a worker in jute factories or other factories, etc.
- In the post-colonial era (during seventies and eighties of twentieth century) Punjab and Haryana emerged as the main destination not only because of enhanced requirement of labour due to the introduction of the Green Revolution, but also due to the continuous migration of the people of Punjab to others alluring destinations (mostly foreign countries).
- Due to the changes like cropping pattern and mechanization of agriculture in the areas of Green Revolution, demand for the labour saturated in the green revolution region after eighties. Now a days, migration of labour from Bihar is found to be towards big cities like Bombay, Surat, Kolkata, Hyderabad, Bengaluru and Delhi, etc. (Karan, 2003) mainly because of the resources, infrastructure, opportunities and facilities, available there.
- The migrants migrated to the rural areas for agricultural wages, mainly move seasonally, whereas migration towards urban areas in the recent time is of more permanent in nature.
- The history of Gopalgunj belongs to the history of old Saran which earlier included, the present districts of Saran, Siwan and Gopalgunj.
- Gopalgunj is located on the west-northern corner of the Bihar. This district extends from 26 ° 12 "to 26 ° 39 "N latitudes and from 83 ° 54 "to 84 ° 12 55 "E longitudes.

- It constitutes of 2.2 % of the total areas of the Bihar state and ranked 26th in terms of area coverage among other districts.
- The population of Gopalgunj district is about 25, 62,012, which is 2.4 per cent of the Bihar's total population.
- Gopalgunj is a large sized district and ranks 21th in the state in order of population. This district is divided into fourteen Community Development Blocks which comprises approx. 1534 villages and four towns.
- Kuchaikote C.D.Block is the most populous while Pach Deuri is the least populated C.D.Block in the district.
- It is observed that the district has registered a total literacy rate of 65.47 percent, male literacy rate is 76.51 % and female literacy rate is 54.81 %.
- The work participation rate (WPR) in the district is 14.17 % for main workers and 14.25 % for marginal workers.
- Kuchaikote C.D. is one of the important C.D. block amongst the total 14 C.D. blocks of the Gopalgunj.
- It extends from 26°32'39"N 84°20'27"E. This C.D. block has total 244 villages amongst which 216 inhabited.
- This 216 inhabited villages total population is 3, 32,041 having 1, 65,651 male and 1, 66,390 female population. This block has no urban population. There are about 14 wards.
- According to the census 2011, its sex-ratio is 1004.
- Total literacy rate is 66.86 %, male 77.91 % and female 55.99%.
- There are 31 Panchayats in Kuchaikote community development block.
- Kuchaikote's economy is mostly based upon agricultural products like sugarcane, pulses, and grains.

III.

- In many developing countries, unbalanced regional development and unbalanced investment on men and materials lead to out migration for economic reasons from rural areas and underdeveloped regions. The lack of industrial development in rural areas, poor infrastructure, limited market place, rural poverty, low agricultural income &

productivity and under-employment induce the rural population to out migrate to other areas which offer better employment opportunities and wages.

- Migration is one of the complex processes, especially in context of India as it is affected by various socio-economic, political and cultural elements.
- Migration is a process which has profound effect on both the regions from which a person moved out and to which a person moved in.
- According to Census data, the trends of migration from 1981 to 2001 shows that rate of migration for all segments has peaked in 1981 to about 30.3 per cent, that decreased to 27 per cent in 1991, and again in 2001 augmented to 30.1 per cent.
- The over-all number of migrants increased by only 12 % between 1981 and 1991 while between 1991-2001, it has increased by 37 %.
- The all India scenario shows that rate of out-migration of male from rural areas is greater than the urban areas.
- Rate of out-migration is higher in rural areas for both male and female than urban areas because in rural areas lack of resources and opportunities push people outside in search of the same.
- Out-migration rate is found to be higher for females in case of both rural and urban areas because of the marriage system followed in India, in which girls have to go to their husband's house after marriage in most of the states of India excepting the few.
- Female out-migration is mainly found within the state, whether for rural (89 per cent) or urban (79.7 per cent). The same is also found to be true in case of District i.e. female out migration is predominantly found to be within the same district for rural as well as urban. It has already been seen that majority of female out migration is marriage related and most of the Indian family don't want their daughter to marry to very far off places. So the propensity of female migrating outside the state is very less common in rural as well as urban areas.
- The present place of residence for male out-migrants is observed to be more diverse for rural along with urban areas, in comparison to those of female out-migrants. The rural male out-migrants is seen to be almost equally distributed within the state and out-side state whereas urban male migrants is slightly higher within the state than outside state. About 7.2 per cent of rural male and 15.9 per cent of urban male are moving out to another country. With the improvement in technology, infrastructure advanced

communication system and transport networks, it becomes easier for people to move across the country border.

- Rural-rural migration is dominated by migration within the districts. For other streams also except urban-urban stream, the intra-district migration is still the highest, showing that the propensity to move by people is still constrained by the distance.
- Inter-state migration for rural-urban stream has augmented from 19.6 % to 25.2 % in 2007-08 while it has decreased for rural-rural and urban-rural. Comparing both the data it is clear that people from rural areas are now moving more to urban areas than rural areas while people from urban areas are more prone to move to urban areas than rural areas.
- Out-migration from the rural regions is still found to be dominant in most of the states of India. The recent trend illustrates that migration from rural to urban areas has increased. This is because, urban areas are the place where these rural people get diverse work opportunities and higher wages, which is not so in rural areas.
- **Very high** proportion of out-migration is found from **Bihar** followed by **Jharkhand**. This is attributed to socio-economic and political backwardness of these states.
- States with **high percentage of out-migration are Uttarakhand (43.6 per cent), Uttar Pradesh (35.9 per cent), Orissa, etc.**
- Those states which have low or very low out-migration are basically those which are urbanised and industrialised like Karnataka, Punjab, Maharashtra, Andhra Pradesh, Gujarat, etc.
- Male out-migration is also highest in Bihar (85.2 %) followed by U.P. (70 %), Jharkhand (68.6 %). They mainly go in search of better work opportunity, resources, facilities and better wages as these states lacked in the same. These state backwardness can be attributed to long term economic stagnation, feeble institutions, bad infrastructure, political instability, poor governance, low human capital and social conflicts entrenched in sectarian politics established on caste, class and ethnic decision (Rasul and Eklabya, 2014). These states have high population, low literacy rate, low educational level attainment, low urbanisation, and high poverty and are mainly relied on agriculture.
- The major reason of out-migration for female is marriage for rural as well as urban at all India level whereas it is the employment related reasons for both rural and urban male out-migrants.

- The example of poverty induced migration, seems to be correct in terms of Bihar and U.P., where males are migrating for employment in large proportion due to the poverty, lack of employment opportunities, low infrastructure facilities, resources unavailability, underdevelopment, low wages etc. to those places where the same is present.
- However example of prosperity induced male migration seems to be true in case of Delhi, Chandigarh, Goa, Maharashtra, etc. where one can see fast rate of economic development, contributing to the better infrastructure, transportation, communication, industrialisation and urbanisation along with better and diverse job prospects and higher wages. *These are the states where prosperity induces both in-migration and also out-migration.*
- Female out-migration for employment related reason is found to be highest from the North eastern region (NER).
- Out-migration of female for employment is seen to be high other than the NER are those states which are socially and economically more developed such as Goa (17.4 per cent), Chandigarh (15.7 per cent), etc.
- Those states having very low female out-migration for employment are those which are backward in terms of development like J & K, Uttar Pradesh except Haryana, which is a developed state in terms of economy only but the status of women there is very low and this constrained their movement out-side states for employment.
- India is a country which is the largest receiver of remittances from abroad and also is the 2nd highest domestic remittance market in the developing countries.
- The picture on the state level revealed that there are certain states where remittances are concentrated. Punjab, Goa and Kerala are well known for high level of international remittances inflow whereas Bihar and U.P. are well recognised for high domestic remittance inflow is high.
- Dependence on remittance has grown since 1993 in already affecting states with some new state coming into the picture like Orissa. Uttar Pradesh and Bihar, are also stepping slowly into receiving the highest international remittances from abroad especially by West Asian countries.
- It is the male out-migrants who usually send remittances in comparison to female out-migrants. Even in case where female out-migrants send remittances, the proportion is

higher for male out-migrants and also they send higher remittances than the female out-migrants.

- Higher remittances are sent by the out-migrants residing abroad in comparison to those living in India, in terms of both male and females.
- Highest remitter is from Bihar followed by Jharkhand and Tripura.
- Higher percentage of remitter from Bihar may be due to the poor economic status of the out-migrant's household, due to which they are obligated to send remittances to their home.
- The frequency of remittances from the urban areas is seen to be slightly higher than rural, in terms of both male and female out-migrants.
- Out-migrants living in abroad, send higher amount of remittances in comparison to those residing within India.
- On an average amount of remittances is about Rs.52, 000 by abroad resident and about Rs.13, 000 by Indian resident. Another point to note is that, urban out-migrants send higher amount of remittances than those of rural areas.
- Female out-migrants who migrated whether from rural or urban sent lesser amount of remittances than their counterparts irrespective of their residence in India or abroad.
- According to all India level data, above 90 % of remittance receiving households of both rural and urban, used the remittances for some or other form of household consumer expenditure. This includes item like food items, education, Household durables, marriage, health care and 'other items'.
- Among all the remittance receiving household consumer expenditure, a very large percentage of the households i.e. 76 % in the rural areas and 71 % in the urban areas stated use on 'food items'. After this, the second most important expenditure is on 'health care' (rural-38 %, urban-36 %) followed by education (rural-31%, urban 34%) and then household durables (rural-20.3%, urban-18.9%). The next important expenditure is on debt repayment for rural areas (10.3 %) whereas it is saving/investment for urban areas (12.6 %).
- Same scenario on all India level can be seen at the state level for rural and urban also, i.e. maximum remittances expenditure is on 'food items' by most of the states whereas some distinctive variation can be seen at regional level.

IV.

- Total of 402 sample households were interviewed for the present study, in which there are 209 (52 %) migrant households and 193 non-migrant households (48 %).
- Amongst the total migrant HHs, 59.3 % HHs belonged to OBC category followed by General (45 %), SCs (12 %) and ST (7.2 %) whereas caste composition of the total non-migrant HHs shows that 48.2 % HHs belonged to OBC category followed by SCs (20.2 %), General (19.7 %), and ST (11.9 %).
- The present study found that migrants belonged from all castes. Indeed, according to the colonial records also, migration from western Bihar was found to be from all caste's group.
- The phenomenon of out-migration has risen among the higher castes.
- The benefits of migration varied, with upper caste HHs doing slightly better than the HHs belonging to the lower castes in Gopalgunj.
- About 93.3 % migrant HHs belonged to Hindu and 6.7 % to Muslims whereas 94.8 % Hindu and 5.2 % Muslims HHs in case of Non-migrant HHs.
- For both the migrant and non-migrant HH, nuclear type of family is found to be more common and in case of joint family type, its proportion is higher for migrant HHs (30.14 %) than the non-migrant HHs (26.94 %).
- In case of most of the households, either migrant or non-migrant HHs, males are found to be the head of the households. In case of out-migrants, even in the absence of the husband, the left behind wives never refer themselves as head because all the decisions are taken by their husband not by them. Availability and accessibility of mobile phones make it easier to ask for each and every decision from their husbands. In the absence of the male counterpart in male out-migrant HHs, other adult male assume the responsibility of the head of the household.
- The total literacy rate of non-migrant HHs is better than the migrant HHs. The same scenario is found with the adult literacy rate and female literacy rate. This may be due the lower income background of most of the migrant HHs which doesn't not allow them to have education. The lower educational attainment is the main reason that they are not able to find higher paid occupation in organised sector and that's why most of the them are engaged in unorganised sector (mostly casual labour) having no security and safety.
- The Gender Parity Index or GPI in terms of literacy rate, of non-migrant HHs is 0.89 and 0.80 for migrant HHs. This shows that both kinds of HHs show more disparity in

favour of males (as both have GPI less than 1) but it is higher for migrant HHs than the non-migrant HHs.

- It is found that higher proportion of members from the migrant HHs (15.8%) have attained graduation and more than the non-migrant HHs (8.62 %). The same scenario has also been seen in the case of female's graduation in educational attainment. These proportions of migrant HHs mainly belong to affluent section, who are economically capable of attaining higher level of education. Higher education level attainment allowed them to get high end jobs in organised sectors in the urban areas as these kinds of opportunities are not available in the village.
- Both kinds of HHs have higher percentage of members going to Public schools but the proportion is higher for the non-migrant HHs in comparison to migrant HHs. The reverse scene is observed in the case of Private Schools, where migrant HHs have higher proportion than the non-migrant HHs.
- Maximum drop-outs has taken place between age 10 to 15 years old people. However, the total dropout is found to be between 10 to 28 years. That's why dropout rate is calculated for this age cohort. The dropout is found to be higher for non-migrant HHs than the migrant HHs.
- More members of migrant HHs (18 members) were found to be going for vocational education than the members of non-migrant HHs (10 members). Larger proportions of females were reported doing vocational education than the males. Females are mostly taking vocational training for tailoring, beautician course whereas males for learning computer (maximum), electrician, GDA (government duty assistant), sales and marketing. Vocational education was found to be imparted mainly by the Kausal Vikash Kendra in the study area.
- The present study shows that most of the HHs either migrant or non-migrant own a house except few which can be seen in most of the rural areas whereas owing a house is bit difficult in urban/metropolitan areas.
- Both MHs and NMHs have mostly Pucca and semi-pucca houses. It is observed that migrant HHs have more pucca and semi-pucca houses in comparison to non-migrant HHs and non-migrant HHs have more kaccha houses than migrant HHs, though the differences are not much.
- Highest percentage of migrant HHs belonged to medium (56.94 %) HH size followed by large (19.62 %) and small (17.70 %). However in case of the non-migrant HHs,

71.50 % of HHs are of medium size followed by small size (16.06 %). About 25.36 % of the migrant HHs have HH size more than 7, the same for non-migrant HHs is 12.43 %. This shows that big HHs favour more migration than small. Larger HH provide more conducive environment for migration as their wife and children can be taken care by other members of the large HH. Along with this the migrant member's work within the HH can be substituted by other members of the HH easily which is not possible in case of small HH.

- Two persons per room (UN 2003) have been recommended by the United Nations Housing Rights Programme (UNHRP). If this criteria is taken for the present study, 42.11 % of migrant HHs and 59.07 % non-migrant HHs lived in crowded houses (means more than two persons in a single room). If one would like to try a liberal norm of three persons residing per room in order to eliminate those HHs which might be accommodating a husband, wife and a child in a room. The proportion of such kind for migrant HHs is 20.57 % and 33.68 % for non-migrant HHs.
- Larger proportion of the HHs of both migrant and non-migrant have room density of two to four. About 9 % of migrant and 21 % of non-migrant HHs shares a single room with more than five to ten members. Moreover, 31 % of migrant HHs and 21 % of non-migrant have more rooms than the total members of the HHs. There are also some cases where a single household have 10 to 22 rooms, these HHs are mostly found to be of migrant HHs. These mainly belonged to high and affluent classes.
- Migrant HHs provide more personal space to the married couples than the non-migrant HHs. This is confirmed by the fact that about 71.30 % migrant HHs have separate room for married couples while the same is 65.1 % for non-migrant HHs.
- More than 50 % of HHs of migrant have separate kitchen where as it's only 45 % for NMHs. Those who don't have kitchen cook food in the courtyard (locally called baranda) and those who even don't have this, cook in the same room where they sleep.
- There is not much difference between the migrant (68.9 %) and non-migrant HHs (68.4 %) in terms of access to safe cooking fuel (i.e. LPG). This is mainly attributed to the government scheme named Pradhan Mantri Ujjwala yojana (PMUY).
- It is found that almost all HHs either migrant or non-migrant have access to covered sources of drinking water.

- About 92.34 % migrant HHs and 94.30 % non-migrant HHs owned a safe drinking water. This confirms that there was no discrimination found in relation to access of drinking water.
- Major proportion of HHs, irrespective of belonging to migrant or non-migrant HHs, have water source within their house premise. Only 7.66 % for migrant and 5.18 % of non-migrant HHs do not have water source near their premises. It is good to find that not a single HH was found who have to go far for fetching drinking water.
- It was found that there were some HHs both from migrant and non-migrant who treat water before drinking. However the percentage of such kind of HHs is higher for non-migrant than the migrant HHs. They either purchase filtered water (water cann of 20 litre for Rs. 40) or have their own water filter machine or R-O machine. However these HHs mostly belonged to affluent class.
- About 81.34 % migrant and 73.58 % non-migrant HHs have their own toilet facility. This proportion is high for both due to the launch of the “Swachh Bharat Mission”. Even after this, 12.92 % migrant and 21.24 % non-migrant still practicing open-defecation.
- Most of the HHs of both migrant and non-migrant have pit without tap type toilet facility.
- Migrant HHs performed better than non-migrant on both pit with tap and also flush type toilet facility. Flush type toilet facility mostly available in the rich and affluent HHs.
- Most of the HHs, either migrant or non-migrant (higher than migrant HHs), take bath in the open space.
- About 7.7 % of migrant and 5.2 % of non-migrant HHs have bathroom but without proper cover from all the sides. 23.1 % and 21.2 % of migrant and non-migrant HHs respectively have proper bathroom (covered from all sides with a tap). These are mostly the rich and landlord classes of the study area.
- Almost all HHs of both migrant and non-migrant HHs had electricity connection. There are very less proportion of HHs who didn't have electricity connections and those mainly belonged to the poorest of the poor.
- The mean monthly electricity bill for migrant HHs is Rs. 379 and for non-migrant HHs is Rs. 286. There were many cases where meter was installed but were not receiving electricity bill since the installation of meter. In some cases, there were no electricity

meter installed but they had electricity supply and they paid approx. Rs. 300/month irrespective of their usage of electricity.

- In terms of most of the ownership of the assets such as T.V., Cycle, Scooter/Motor-Cycle and DVD Player, except for few, the migrant HHs are better than the non-migrant HHs,
- The total average value of livestock assets is Rs. 78,080.80 for migrant HHs and Rs. 62,909.63 for non-migrant HHs. Except for poultry, the mean value for all livestock assets is higher for migrant HHs than the non-migrant HHs.
- Land holding of more than one acre is mainly held by general caste category HHs (9.9 %) followed by OBC (2.4 %). Not a single SCs and STs HH have land holding more than 1 acre.
- Most of the HHs of the Migrant and non-migrant have total land holding less of than one acre but this proportion is higher for non-migrant HHs. Migrant HHs have more landholding than the non-migrant HHs in the category of 1 -5 acres of landholding. Only migrant HHs have landholdings more than 5 acres of land, not a single HH from non-migrant was found to have the same.
- Most of the sampled HHs don't have agricultural land (41 %) but the percentage is higher for migrants HHs than the non-migrants HHs. Another point to be noted is that about 41.6 % of migrant HHs have agricultural landholding of less than one Acre, and 12.4 % have 1-5 Acres. Meagre of 1 % have landholding more than 10 Acres. These 1 % basically belonged to the higher caste HHs. It is surprising to see that not a single HH from non-migrant HHs have landholding higher than 5 Acres.
- Higher proportion of non-migrant HHs (43 %) have monthly income below Rs.15000 whereas higher proportion migrant HHs have monthly income more than Rs.15000. About 14.9 % of migrant HHs and 13.5 % of non-migrant HHs have monthly income of the household above Rs.60000. This shows that migrant HHs is better than the non-migrant HHs in terms of monthly income of HH.
- There are about 90 HHs which are totally depends on remittances sent by their member/s migrated out.
- Higher proportion of non-migrant HHs have per capita monthly income below Rs.3000 and also above Rs.12000 whereas higher proportion of migrant HHs have per capita monthly income between Rs.3000 to Rs. 12000.

- The percentage of economically active person to total members of working age of the HHs is higher for migrant HHs in comparison to non-migrant HHs. This doesn't mean that MH earning was more than the NMH.
- Most of the members of the migrant HHs are employed in casual labour followed by self-employed whereas in case of the non-migrant HHs it is the self-employed followed by the casual labour. Larger proportion of members of migrant HHs are engaged in services (Government/private) than the non-migrant HHs.
- The present study found that 100 % migrant and 99.48 % non-migrant HHs have access to Aadhaar card. It is observed that almost every one of the village are well aware about the importance and requirement of the Aadhaar card.
- About 10.5 % MHs and 9.33 % NMHs have MGNREGA card. There were some cases where people have MGNREGA card but they didn't get any job under his even after several efforts. It is also found that few got job under MGNREGA two or three years back but they could not find the same opportunity now. Presently no one could find any job under MGNREGA in the village. Higher proportion of HHs got job for three months only and got wages for three months all together. Most of them demanded more days to work.
- Most of the HHs either MHs or NMHs reported maximum use of You Tube. About 30.62 % of MHs and 31.61 % of NMHs used social media. Under social media, maximum proportion of MHs as well as NMHs use WhatsApp followed by Facebook. However, MHs use more Facebook than NMHs whereas NMHs use more WhatsApp than MHs. Maximum HHs from both migrant and non-migrant users joined social media in last one year or two years.
- Most of the HHs have BPL card followed by APL and AAY card in case of both migrant and non-migrant HHs. There were some cases found where people had ration card but they were not given ration saying that their name/s is/are not in the list.
- The Ration Shop in the area under study provide Rs.1/kg wheat and Rs. 2/kg rice and Rs. 40-50/1 $\frac{1}{2}$ litres of Kerosene. Many people reported that the PDS dealer give each beneficiary HH 5 kg less ration.
- It is found that 65.55 % of MHs and 62.69 % NMHs have received certain kinds of support by their social networks. It is little astonishing to notice that higher proportion of HHs of both MHs (43.54 %) and NMHs (38.86 %) received financial support. This

financial support were largely offered by the relatives, especially by spouse's relative. It is dismal to notice that smaller proportion of them got emotional support.

- It is good to notice that no kind of discrimination on any ground was found in the study area as everyone in the village were invited by and to irrespective of caste, class, religion, etc. This is confirmed as 100 % of HHs from both MHs and NMHs conveyed that they receive invitation from everyone in the village.
- There are 23.44 % of migrant HHs and 20.73 % of non-migrant HHs where marriage ceremony took place in last one year. All these marriages were arranged and within same religion and caste. Even now not a single HH was found where inter-caste marriage took place.
- People of village were strictly against love and inter-caste marriages for the present as well as for the future generation. Love marriage within caste is also not favoured by them. The mean age of marriage is higher for migrant HHs than the non-migrant HHs.
- Many HH members had expressed that there was some difference between the present and past the marriages. Earlier the girl or boy were not allowed to see each other before marriage but now it is allowed to some extent in the present study area.
- A large proportion of MHs and NMHs mentioned increased amount of dowry and increased expenses than before. Some also mentioned that now a days, expensive marriage celebration and more show-off took place than the past.
- The major cause of differences in the marriage at present from the past generation is found to be influenced by the Mass-media followed by show-off and education. Mass-media plays a very important role in influencing population through various kinds of serial and movies shown on the T.V. In present scenario internet is also playing some short of role in this. Through internet people get access to social media and many apps and site which contribute in changing one's opinion, views and thinking.
- About 96.65 % of Migrant HHs and 95.34 % of non-migrant HHs have access to bank account.
- Lower proportion of HHs from both migrant (22.49 %) and non-migrant (16.06) have access to ATM card but migrant HHs are better than the non-migrant HHs. Even those who have ATM, don't fully know how to use it. Amongst those who have ATM cards, the proportion who knows how to use it, is higher for migrant HHs than the non-migrant HHs.

- Meagre of 5.74 % and 7.7 % of MHs and NMHs had made online payments. These online payment is mostly for mobile bill, electricity bill, followed by DTH recharge and online shopping. Most of the migrant HHs use online mode for the payment of mobile bill followed by electricity bill whereas NMHs for mobile bill and electricity bill equally. It is important to mention that those HHs either from MHs or NMS doing online payments belonged to affluence class.
- About 97.13 % migrant and 98.96 % non-migrant HHs have voter card. The proportion of registered voters is higher in migrant HHs than non-migrant HHs.
- The percentage of HHs having any of their HH members contest any election in the past is higher for non-migrant than migrant HHs and the willingness to contest election in future has also showed the same scenario.
- Migrant HHs participate more in Gram Sabha and also their females, they cast their vote more in panchayat election than the non-migrant HHs.
- Among total deliveries (117), about 93.16 % are institutional deliveries, amongst which most of the deliveries took place in the Primary Health Centre (PHC) but few (majorly affluent HHs) also took place at the private hospitals. The percentage of higher institutional delivery is all because of the presence of Anganwadi.
- Only one PHC is located at the study area. About 6.84 % of delivery was done at home (non-institutional delivery).
- There are also cases in which members of HHs think that there is no necessity to go to hospital as expense at home is lesser than the hospital and they can also give better care at home than at the hospitals. Other reason for delivery at home specified by them is custom. According to them delivering at home is the custom practised since long and there is no harm in practising delivers at home.
- More institutional deliveries took place in migrant HHs in comparison to non-migrant HHs.
- Higher percentage of normal deliveries took place in MHs in comparison to NMHs. There were about 8.2 % and 12.20 % caesarean deliveries done in migrant households and non-migrant households respectively.
- About 83.91 % and 83.33 % successful deliveries reported in migrant HHs and non-migrant HHs respectively.

- More miscarriages took place in migrant HHs whereas more stillbirths took place in non-migrant HHs. However, overall there were less cases of abortion, miscarriage, and stillbirth reported in the study area. This indicates a good maternal health care.
- The reason for abortion stated by the respondent was that they wanted a boy but it was a girl child so they went for abortion.
- There was only a single case of stillbirth reported in migrant HHs, but the concerned respondent told that they were not given any reason by the doctor. The most common reason given for miscarriage is that they don't know as it happened all of a sudden, mostly they attributed not known reason to black magic. Other reasons are accidents (slips over floor or stairs), health issues, and unknowingly eating wrong medicine.
- Higher percentage of vaccination is found in migrant Households than the non-migrant HHs. Though there is little difference between them. Overall vaccination coverage is very good in the study area, the reason is the splendid work of Anganwadi personnel.
- Above 95 % HHs has given vaccination to their children in Anganwadi centres except few affluent class who has given in private hospitals.
- There are only 15.3 % MHs and 17.09 % NMHs who visit hospitals rarely whereas about 20.6 % and 19.2 % of the same visits thrice in a month. Higher percentage of MHs (83.27 %) and NMHs (80.86 %), visit hospitals more than once in a month. This higher frequency shows that most of the HHs either MHs or NMHs don't have good health condition.
- Nearly 54.5 % and 57 % of the households of migrant and non-migrant are those HHs with no family member involved in drinking alcohol.
- About 4.78 % and 3.11 % of migrant and non-migrant HHs are found with one or more disabled person. Out of 16 cases of handicapped, only five reported that they are receiving money from government for the same that too is not at all sufficient for them.
- About 7.90 % members of migrant households and 7.17 % members of non-migrant households are suffering from one or more chronic diseases. The most common amongst them is found to be B.P. followed by Diabetes and cardio-vascular disease.
- It has been found that 3.35 % of migrant households and 4.66 % of non-migrant households reported death due to health problems in last one year.
- About 26.79 % and 20.21 % of migrant and non-migrant households reported that one or more of their members underwent surgery in last one year. Most of the HHs went to

private hospitals for the surgeries as they don't have much faith on public hospitals due to its lack of proper facilities and services.

- It has been seen that more households from migrant household (3.83 %) have reported infant mortality than the non-migrant households (0.52 %). The reasons for the deaths were pneumonia, tumour, heart disease and some health problems that the household members themselves don't know.
- Only two household reported child mortality (death of a child between one to five years of age) in the last one year. This shows better health of child in the study area. The reason of death for one was due to the snake bite and one due to some health issues.

V.

- Out of six economic indicators, migrant HHs performed better in all six indicators whereas non-migrant HHs did not perform even on a single indicator. Moreover, the composite score of all indicators revealed that migrant HH's (1.20) Economic index is far better than non-migrant HHs (0.80), with a margin of about 0.40 point.
- Out of thirteen Health indicators, migrant HHs performed better in six indicators whereas non-migrant HHs on seven indicators. However the composite score of all indicators revealed that migrant HHs and non-migrant HH's health status is almost equal to each other as there is no much difference in their health index.
- Out of five education indicators, migrant HHs performed better in two indicators whereas non-migrant HHs on three indicators. However the composite score of all indicators revealed that migrant HH's education index is better than non-migrant HHs, with a margin of 0.06 point.
- Out of ten Amenities indicators, migrant HHs performed better in eight indicators whereas non-migrant HHs were better on two indicators only. Moreover the composite score of all indicators revealed that migrant HH's Amenities index is better than non-migrant HHs, with a margin of 0.14 point.
- Out of nineteen Asset indicators, migrant HHs performed better in fifteen indicators whereas non-migrant HHs on four indicators. However the composite score of all indicators revealed that migrant HH's Asset index is better than non-migrant HHs, with a margin of 0.12 point.
- Out of seven Political Participation indicators, migrant HHs performed better in four indicators whereas non-migrant HHs on three indicators. However the

composite score of all indicators revealed that migrant HH's Political Participation Index is better than non-migrant HHs, with a margin of 0.08 point.

- Out of eighteen Awareness indicators, migrant HHs performed better in eleven indicators whereas non-migrant HHs on seven indicators. However the composite score of all indicators revealed that migrant HH's Awareness Index is better than non-migrant HHs, with a margin of 0.06 point.
- Among seven indices, migrant HH performed better in six index except health index where both migrant and non-migrant HH were more or less similar. It is found that the QOL index of migrant HH is higher than the non-migrant HH. There are about 0.12 point difference in the quality of life index between the migrant and non-migrant household. This shows that the migrating out helps migrant households to improve their economic, social, political, health status and awareness.
- Amongst the seven index which are calculated for assessing quality of life, economic index is far the best performed by the migrant households followed by amenities index, asset index, political participation index, education index, awareness index and health index. Whereas in the case of non-migrant HHs, health index is on the top followed by education Index, awareness Index, political participation Index, asset index, amenities Index and economic Index.
- The whole discussion made till now proves that migrants are able to reap benefits from their out-migration. They are able to provide socio-economic facilities to their household's members which ultimately enhance their quality of life.
- Though remittances, knowledge, abilities, experiences, talents and skills carried by the migrants from the places of destination bring about economic, social and cultural changes in their household in particular and village in general. These also improve their quality of life and also raise their aspirations. However, out-migration from the rural areas is beneficial for the place of origin in one aspect but it can also be said to deplete the valuable human resources of the rural areas. So, there should be some policy measures which would discourage the out-migration from the rural areas by providing those resources and facilities for which they are compelled to move out from their native place such as better job opportunities, education, etc. So that they can improve their quality of life by having better education, employment opportunities and other resources by being at their own place of origin.

Suggestions / Policy implication

In a country like India where disparities in respect of economic development exist not only between states but also within the districts and there is not enough decentralization of economic opportunities, the study of out-migration of rural male has its own importance. The study of human mobility behaviour is important when the need of integrated rural development has been recognized and consequently special attention is paid to several aspects of socio-economic development including the establishment of panchayat raj, growth centres and industries of small scale in rural regions.

Migration is seen to be an important element in development of economy and manpower planning. In the context of agriculture commercialisation, migration has acquired a special significance. "With greater access to new technology, the large landowners have become richer, while the small farmers who find new technology expensive and too risky are left behind. Because the subsequent increase in productivity and output brings down price, the small farmers, using traditional forms of production and receiving lower price, experience decline in income." These are the reasons that have driven to the people's out-migration from the rural regions. The establishment of schools in the rural areas has also stimulated out-migration by providing education and awareness of other opportunities to rural youths especially those belonging to the middle class. Some out-migrate to pursue their further education while others out-migrate because they get dissatisfied with the prospect of rural life. Thus, it can be said that it is not the poor only who is out-migrating from the rural areas but rich people are also nearly equally susceptible to the same. The rich people are out-migrating to acquire enhanced as well as higher comforts of life whereas poor people are forced to out-migrate due to their economic hardships in order to eke out existence.

The first step toward solving various issues regarding migration is to comprehend why people are migrating. A specific area/region have specific reasons to migrate. So it's important to analyse those specific causes and then accordingly employ specific remedies to correct the situation.

In the present study it is found that the most important reason of out-migration from the study area, which is a rural area, is due to the unavailability of the job prospects and higher level of education and the availability of the same in the urban areas. This shows that out-migration is

taking place not only due to the pull or push factor but because of both these factors also. Both these factors are equally important.

Migration has positive as well as negative impacts at the place of origin as well as at the place of destination. The increased concern regarding the rural to urban migration is basically due to the following reasons:

- Migration led to increasing population pressure on the urban centres which cause a deterioration of the physical environment and in the people's quality of life. Many urban centres are facing a virtual breakdown of the necessary and basic services such as supply of clean water for drinking, safe toilet facility, education, proper health care and transport. The migrants of the city, especially the new migrant, are facing under-employment and high incidence of poverty.
- The large cities are confronting serious problem of the urban housing and the rapid increase in the number of slums and squatter settlements.
- Migration's ethnic dimension and the evolving conflicts between the 'migrants' and 'sons' of soil. There is an increased sentiments, in many parts of India, that the local populace should be given priority over migrants, mostly considered as out-siders by the locals, in employment and in the accessibility to social services. Domicile regulation has been adopted increasingly by state after state in employment, education, housing and few other basic services. These kinds of nativistic sentiments have developed since independence with the formation of states based on language, the fast growing of regional nationalism and surge in political participation (Weiner, 1978:24).
- The heavy out-migration of working age population from the rural areas which consequently impacting the local economy and income.
- The emotional turmoil is faced by both the person/s who migrate/s and the household members of the migrants because of the separation due to migration.
- The increased workload and problems faced by the wives left by their husbands at the native place.

The plans and policies of government perceives migration largely from the perspective of development of urban areas and therefore tend to undermine migration's role in:

- The economic rejuvenation of the country as a whole and rural regions in particular.
- Aiding in the convergence of the country's regions.
- Lives of rural migrants despite of all the hostilities of urban life.

Moreover, the migrants aspirations and his expectations from the 'urban areas' have not been taken into consideration by the various attempts to inhibit migration. This is a chief reason which explains why so many efforts of rural development which try to contain migrants at the source of origin have not been so effective. Regardless of rural development, if there exists any income difference between rural areas and urban areas, it's more likely that it will stimulate migration.

The only one way through which migration can be understood in its appropriate perspectives and in context of the country's rural and urban development plans, is by empirically analysing the migration's implications for the development of both rural and urban in a regional context. The general trend is to look upon rural and urban migration as a problem, which have been done by most of the government policies to understand the phenomena in an askew way and consequently frame policies which conceive only one face of the situation.

The action plan to resolve these issues should include:

- A holistic migration's assessment considering the consequences at the place of both origin and destination. As this is anticipated to display regional variation, successive policies may be prepared more extensively at the national level and more area specific at the local level.
- Identification of predominantly disadvantaged migrants in the urban areas, which is shown by high level of unemployment and poverty and subsequently development of program and policies for the welfare of these migrants on a priority basis.
- Establishing a centralized system in order to help in transferring labour and the unemployed people from the areas of surplus labour (which have to be recognised on a regional basis) to the areas of shortage of labour. This should be absolutely voluntary in nature.

Instead of focusing more on problems of urban area due to migration, specific focus should also be given to the rural development (as most of the population of India resides in the rural areas i.e. 70 %) which may help in retaining the population which out-migrates to the urban areas. The rural areas should be provided with all the basic amenities and better job prospects which may surely reduce the rate of migration from there.

- India is a country where one can find major percentage of population involved in agriculture. However, with time, people of rural areas are finding agriculture as non-

profitable hence losing interest in it. As a result of that the present and also the future generations are more prone to out-migrate to cities for better opportunities. This can be solved by developing agriculture in such way that it becomes a lucrative career option. Thus it will help to retain its youth which are more prone to migration and keep them in rural areas.

- There should also be generation/development of non-agricultural sector/work in the rural areas. So that those who don't have agricultural land can earn in their own place of residence.
- Some encouragement or incentives should be given to the establishment of industry in the rural areas by the government. This will help the local population to get employment locally and hinder their out-migration from the rural regions.
- Improving access to better education and other facilities, especially higher education to the rural population.
- Developing skills of the rural population so that they can earn better wages and can improve their QOL.
- Increasing the knowledge and awareness among the rural people regarding their various socio-economic, political facilities/resources and rights available to them.

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Appendix

Appendix 1: Adult Sex-Ratio, Bihar (2011)		
S. No.	Districts	Adult Sex-Ratio(2011)
1.	Gopalganj	1036
2.	Siwan	998
3.	Saran	960
4.	Kishanganj	944
5.	Nawada	937
6.	Gaya	933
7.	Sheikhpura	927
8.	Supaul	926
9.	Arwal	925
10.	Madhubani	924
11.	Aurangabad	922
12.	Jehanabad	922
13.	Nalanda	920
14.	Buxar	919
15.	Kaimur (Bhabua)	915
16.	Rohtas	915
17.	Jamui	914
18.	Purnia	913
19.	Araria	912
20.	Katihar	909
21.	Samastipur	908
22.	Darbhanga	907
23.	Madhepura	906
24.	Bhojpur	905
25.	Saharsa	899
26.	Banka	899
27.	Pashchim Champaran	899
28.	Lakhisarai	898
29.	Muzaffarpur	896
30.	Purba Champaran	894
31.	Patna	894
32.	Vaishali	893
33.	Sitamarhi	891
34.	Begusarai	890
35.	Sheohar	884
36.	Khagaria	876
37.	Bhagalpur	868
38.	Munger	867

Appendix. 2 Migration Rate, India (1981 to 2001)

Year	Persons	Male	Female
1981	30.3	17.2	44.3
1991	27	14.1	40.9
2001	30.1	17	44.1

Appendix. 3 Rural Migration Rate, India (1981 to 2001)

Year	Persons	Male	Female
1981	28.3	12.1	45.3
1991	25.6	9.8	42.5
2001	28	11.1	45.8

Appendix. 4 Urban Migration Rate, India (1981 to 2001)

Year	Persons	Male	Female
1981	36.8	33.2	40.8
1991	31	26.3	36.2
2001	35.5	32	39.4

Appendix. 5 Percentage distribution of Out-Migrants in different Places of Residence

	Rural Male Out-Migrants	Rural Female Out-Migrants	Urban Male Out-Migrants	Urban Female Out-Migrants
Same State	46.6	89	49.9	79.7
Out-Side State	45.8	10.2	33.3	17.6
Another Country	7.2	0.7	15.9	2.7

Appendix. 6 Frequency of Remittances (no.) by Rural Male Out-Migrants (in a year)

State	Frequency of Remittances (no.)
Andhra Pradesh	12
Arunachal Pradesh	10
Assam	10
Bihar	8
Chhattisgarh	8
Delhi	8
Goa	8
Gujarat	7

Haryana	7
Himachal Pradesh	7
Jammu & Kashmir	7
Jharkhand	7
Karnataka	7
Kerala	7
Madhya Pradesh	7
Maharashtra	7
Manipur	6
Meghalaya	6
Mizoram	6
Nagaland	6
Orissa	5
Punjab	5
Rajasthan	5
Sikkim	5
Tamil Nadu	5
Tripura	5
Uttarakhand	4
Uttar Pradesh	4
West Bengal	4
A & N Islands	4
Chandigarh	4
Dadra & Nagar Haveli	4
Daman & Diu	3

Appendix. 7 Amount of Remittances (Rs.00) sent during the last 365 days by different categories of Out-Migrants

Category of Out-Migrants	Residing in India	Residing in Abroad
Rural Male Out-Migrants	134	523
Rural Female Out-Migrants	60	268
Urban Male Out-Migrants	277	729
Urban Female Out-Migrants	134	487

Appendix. 8 Proportion of Out-Migrants sending Remittances during the last 365 days

Types of Remitters	Out-Migrants by Remittances
Remitters	91.1
Non-Remitters	8.9

Appendix. 9 Frequency of Sending Remittances during the 365 Days

Period	Proportion of Remitters
Half yearly	0.4
Quarterly	2.3
Monthly	81.3
Irregularly	10.9
Mainly when asked	5.1

Appendix. 10 Mode of Sending Remittance

Mode of Sending Remittance	Proportion of Remitters
Bank Transfer	97.3
Registered Post	0.4
Through Friends or Relatives	1.9
By Self	0.4

Appendix. 11 Proportion of Educational Attainment

Types of Household	Levels of Education					
	Pre-Primary	Primary	Middle	Secondary	Higher Secondary	Graduation and Above
Migrants Household	3.39	12.62	27.68	24.18	12.62	15.80
Non-Migrant Household	2.48	18.30	32.11	21.25	12.40	8.62

Appendix. 12 Proportion of HHs by Size

Types of Household	HH Size (%) with Migrant Members			
	Small(2-4)	Medium(5-7)	Large(8-10)	Very Large 11+
Migrants Household	17.70	56.94	19.62	5.74
Non-Migrant Household	16.06	71.50	9.84	2.59

Appendix. 13 Percentage of HHs by the Room Density

Types of Household	Percentage HH by Density			
	Less than 2	2-4	5-7	8-10
Migrants Household	31	61	9	0
Non-Migrant Household	21	59	19	2

Appendix. 14 Access to Toilet Facility

Types of Household	Toilet Facility		
	Own	Shared	Open Defecation
Migrants Household	81.34	5.74	12.92
Non-Migrant Household	73.58	5.18	21.24

Appendix. 15 Monthly Income of the HHs

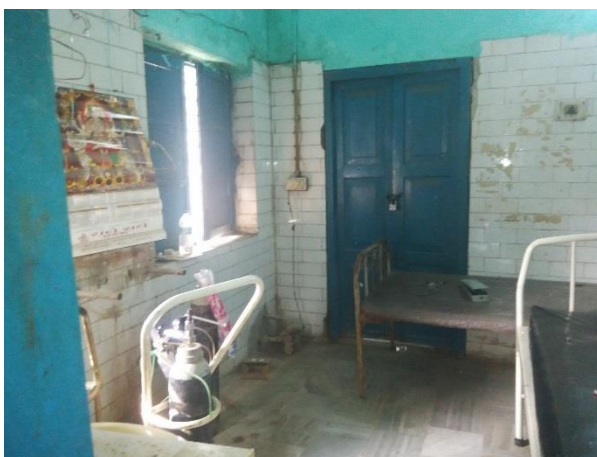
Monthly Income of the Households	Migrant HHs	Non-Migrant
Below 15000	36.4	43
15000-30000	29.2	28.1
30000-45000	13.4	10
45000-60000	6.2	5.5
Above 60000	14.9	13.5

Appendix. 16 Per Capita Monthly Income of the HHs

Per Capita Monthly Income of the HHs	Migrant HHs	Non-Migrant HHs
Below 3000	38.8	57
3000-6000	35.9	22.8
6000-9000	11	6.2
9000-12000	4.8	3.1
12000-15000	2.9	3.6
Above 15000	6.7	7.3

Field Photographs

1. Health Facility- Primary Health Centre (PHC) at village



2. Education Facility



Students sitting in the class room



Attendance of the students



Principal of the School



Corridor of the School



Teacher taking class outside the class room



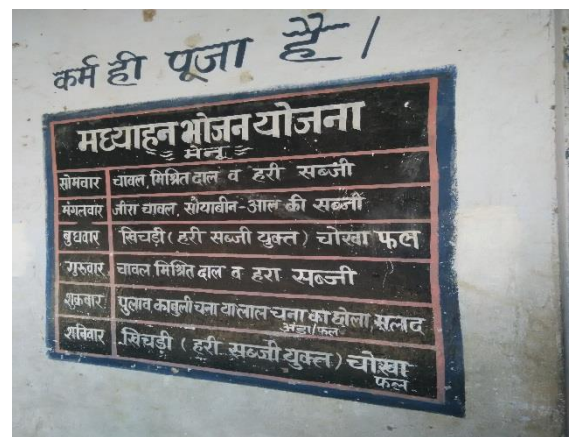
Playground of the School



Some interesting writings on the wall of School



Drinking facility in the school



Mid-Day Meal Scheme of the school



3. Household Conditions



Kitchen Arrangements



Area for dish and hand washing, bathing



Covered and Uncovered Latrine



Kitchen within the Room



Bathroom



Semi-Pakka House

4. Agriculture



Pakka House



Sarso Cultivation



Leftover Straw



Hand Chaff Cutter



Livestock



Threshing

5. Local Economy



Village People





Gram Panchayat Office



Indira Awas Yojna Office



Electricity Supply Office



Government Veterinary Clinic



MNREGA Office



Local Sabji Mandi

Questionnaire

Out-Migration and Quality of Life: A Comparative Study of Migrant and Non-Migrant Households of Rural Bihar (GOPALGUNJ)

Centre for the Study of Regional Development
School Of Social Sciences
Jawaharlal Nehru University

1.	Migrants HH Tot. no. of mig.....
2.	Non-Migrants HH

Q.1	Block name:	Q.2	Village name:
Q.3	Hamlet name:	Q.4	Land holding size:
Q.5	Name of the Respondent Ph. No.		
Q.6	Name of head of household	Male1 Female2	
Q.7	Religion	Hindu.....1 Muslim.....2 Christian.....3 Others (specify)4	
Q.8	Caste Category Caste name.....	General.....1 OBC.....2 EBC.....3 SC.....4 ST.....5	
Q.9	Type of the family	Joint.....1 Nuclear.....2 Extended.....3	

Reasons of mig.- work/empl -1, better salary -2, business-3, marriage-4, education-5, moved with HH-6, housing prob-7, others-8

Education: illiterate-1, read/write(literate)-2, pri-3, mid.-4, Sec.-5, higher sec.-6, grad. & above-7

Pattern of mig. : S-seasonal(less than 2 months)-1, ST- short term(less than 9 months)-2, LT-long term (more than 9 months)-3, R-return (at least stayed 2 mnths)-4

Frequency of sending remittances: Annually-1, Half yearly-2, Quaterly-3, Monthly-4, Irregularly-5, Mainly when asked-6, Others (specify)-7

Usual Mode of remittance: Bank transfer-1, Online transfer-2, Money Order-3, Registered post-4, Through friends and relation-5, Others (specify)-6

Uses of remittances: food-1, education-2, HH durables-2, marriage and ceremonies-3, health-4, HH consumer expenditure-5, purchase of land/building-6, purchase of livestock-7, repairs of house-8, debt. Repayment-9, initiating new entrepreneurial activity-10, saving-11, investment-12, others-13

Frequency of visit home: AL(always: every 2/3 days whenever required)-1, V-often(1/2 times in 15 days)-2, often-(once in a month)-3, S'times-(sometimes:1/2 in a month)-4, Never-(never visited)-5

Q.10 Details of out-migrants who migrated out any time in the past 365 days

S r . n o .	Sex M F 1 2	Age		Marital Status M U M W D S	Year and Period since leaving the HH	Pr. place of residence (destination)	Re as on s Of mi g.	Educati on		Occupat ion			Income	Whet her sent remitt ances during the last 365 days Y N	How long after leaving the village did he first sent money Year-1 Month- 2 Week - 3	Frequency of sending remittances during the 365 days	Amt. of remi ttan ces sent duri ng last 365 days (Rs.)	Usual Mod e of remi ttan ce 1 2 3 4 5 6	Uses of remi ttan ce s(Ma x. 3 codes in desce nding order of amt. used)	Patter n Of Mig. S - 1 ST-2 LT-3 R - 4	Fr eq . Of vis it ho me
		Pre sen t Age (yrs)	at Tim e Of mig					At the Tim e of mig	P r e s e n t	B4	pr e s e n t	B4									
	1 2			1 2 3 4 5										1 2	1 2 3	1 2 3 4 5 6 7				1 2 3 4	
	1 2			1 2 3 4 5										1 2	1 2 3	1 2 3 4 5 6 7				1 2 3 4	
	1 2			1 2 3 4 5										1 2	1 2 3	1 2 3 4 5 6 7				1 2 3 4	
	1 2			1 2 3 4 5										1 2	1 2 3	1 2 3 4 5 6 7				1 2 3 4	
	1 2			1 2 3 4 5										1 2	1 2 3	1 2 3 4 5 6 7				1 2 3 4	
	1 2			1 2 3 4 5										1 2	1 2 3	1 2 3 4 5 6 7				1 2 3 4	
	1 2			1 2 3 4 5										1 2	1 2 3	1 2 3 4 5 6 7				1 2 3 4	
	1 2			1 2 3 4 5										1 2	1 2 3	1 2 3 4 5 6 7				1 2 3 4	
	1 2			1 2 3 4 5										1 2	1 2 3	1 2 3 4 5 6 7				1 2 3 4	
	1 2			1 2 3 4 5										1 2	1 2 3	1 2 3 4 5 6 7				1 2 3 4	
	1 2			1 2 3 4 5										1 2	1 2 3	1 2 3 4 5 6 7				1 2 3 4	

Q.11 If pattern of migration is S/ST/LT/R, reason for that:

Q.12 How did you get the job at your destination?

Q.13 Have you taken any training for getting this job? Yes-1 No-2

Q.13 (a) If yes, what kind of training do you get?

Q.14 Details of the HH members

Sr. no.	Name	R/s with head	Sex M-1 F-2	Age	Marital status M U M W D S	EDUCATION	Vocational education			School Type		Drop out			OCCUPATION	Income	Phy. Handi.	
							Y-1 n-2	By Gov-1 Pvt-2 NGO-3	Wh at type of training	Pub.-1 Pvt.-2	Fee paid	Y-1 N-2	At Level/class	Reason			Y-1 N-2	Type Of Phy. Handi.
1			1 2		1 2 3 4 5		1 2	1 2 3		1 2		1 2				1 2		
2			1 2		1 2 3 4 5		1 2	1 2 3		1 2		1 2				1 2		
3			1 2		1 2 3 4 5		1 2	1 2 3		1 2		1 2				1 2		
4			1 2		1 2 3 4 5		1 2	1 2 3		1 2		1 2				1 2		
5			1 2		1 2 3 4 5		1 2	1 2 3		1 2		1 2				1 2		
6			1 2		1 2 3 4 5		1 2	1 2 3		1 2		1 2				1 2		
7			1 2		1 2 3 4 5		1 2	1 2 3		1 2		1 2				1 2		
8			1 2		1 2 3 4 5		1 2	1 2 3		1 2		1 2				1 2		
9			1 2		1 2 3 4 5		1 2	1 2 3		1 2		1 2				1 2		
10			1 2		1 2 3 4 5		1 2	1 2 3		1 2		1 2				1 2		
11			1 2		1 2 3 4 5		1 2	1 2 3		1 2		1 2				1 2		
12			1 2		1 2 3 4 5		1 2	1 2 3		1 2		1 2				1 2		
13			1 2		1 2 3 4 5		1 2	1 2 3		1 2		1 2				1 2		
14			1 2		1 2 3 4 5		1 2	1 2 3		1 2		1 2				1 2		
15			1 2		1 2 3 4 5		1 2	1 2 3		1 2		1 2				1 2		

Relationship with head of HH: head self-1, spouse of head-2, parents-3, sister/brother-4, son/daughter-5, son/daughter-in-law-6, brother/sister-in-law-7, grandchild-8, parents-in-law-9, others-10

Married Status: M (married)-1, UM (unmarried)-2, W (widow)-3, D (divorce)-4, S (separated)-5

Education: illiterate-1, literate-2, primary-3, middle-4, secondary-5, H.sec-6, Grad and abv-7

Occupation: Agriculture-1, Agricultural labourer-2, animal husbandry-3, small petty shop/business-4, Big business-5, government service-6, pvt. Service-7, student-8, housewife-9, dependent-10, unemployed-11, others-12

Health profile:

Q.15 Are there any house members who are currently suffering from any major illness like- T.B., leprosy, heart disease, hypertension, asthma, diabetes, and gynaecological problem?

s. no.	Name	Type of illness	Duration	1 st source of treatment	Reason for choosing	Nature of treatment provided	If referred, place of referral	Reason of referral	You took or not, if not, reasons	Any other treatment sought	Reasons for seeking other treatment	Result of the treatment	Total cost in illness
1													
2													
3													
4													
5													

Q. 16	Sr. no.	Do you have vaccination card?		Have vaccinated your child?		If not vacci. ,reason	Status of vacci.	Immunised at
		Yes-1	No-2	Yes-1	No-2			
		1	2	1	2	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14	1 2 3 4 5
		1	2	1	2	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14	1 2 3 4 5
		1	2	1	2	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14	1 2 3 4 5
		1	2	1	2	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14	1 2 3 4 5
		1	2	1	2	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14	1 2 3 4 5

Reasons for child not vaccinated: No knowledge abt vaccination-1, No need of it-2, No health worker visited or camp held-3; No knowledge abt where to go for vacci.-4, husband not there to take the child-5, other family member not available to take the child-6, Sub-centre/PHC/facility very far away-7, Vaccines at facility not available-8, On day of vaccine. camp child was ill-9, others(specify)-10

Status of vaccination: BCG(tuberculosis vaccine)-1, Polio (OPV)-2, IPV (injectable polio vaccine)-3, Hep B-4, DTaP/DTwP (diphtheria, tetanus and pertussis)-5, Hib (Haemophilus influenzae type B vaccine)-6, PCV (pneumococcal conjugate vaccine)-7, Rotavirus-8, Influenza-9, MMR1 or MR(measles, mumps and rubella vaccine)-10, Hep A (hepatitis A)-11, Meningococcal meningitis-12, Typhoid CV (typhoid conjugate vaccine)-13, JE (Japanese encephalitis)-14,

Immunised at: By health worker at home/a camp in the village-1, By health worker at sub-centre/PHC-2, Doctor (PHC)-3, Doctor-Private-4, other pub.fac.-5(specify)

Q.17 In last 3 year, have any women in this family become pregnant? What was the consequences of pregnancy?

S. N	Name of the pregnant women	Year of Preg.	Consequences	Reason for	Place of Delivery	If at home, who conducted the delivery?	Why did you deliver at home not other institutions?	Was it a normal delivery?	If no, what was the problem?
			Abortion(A)-1 Miscarriage(M)-2 Stillbirth(S)-3 Delivery(D)-4	A M S					
			1 2 3 4		1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11	1 2	1 2 3 4 5 6
			1 2 3 4		1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11		1 2 3 4 5 6
			1 2 3 4		1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11		1 2 3 4 5 6
			1 2 3 4		1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11		1 2 3 4 5 6
			1 2 3 4		1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11		1 2 3 4 5 6

Place of delivery: Home-1, In the Field-2, PHC-3, Sub-centre-4, Government hospital-5, Pvt. Hospital-6, Pvt. Clinic/maternity home-7, other(specify)-8

Who conducted the delivery at home: Docter-1, Vaid-2, Nurse/Midwife-3, ANM/LHV-4, Dai (TBA trained)-5, Dai (traditional)-6, Relative/neighbour/friend-7, other(specify)-8

Why at home: Lack of knowledge about medical services-1, Not necessary-2, Customery to deliver at home-3, No money to go-4, Doctor far away-5, Poor quality services-6, Husband or member available to take care-7, Not permitted to go-8, No time to go-9, No transport available-10, Others-11

Problem of not having a normal delivery: Premature birth-1, low birth weight-2, Forceps-3, Caesarean-4, Stillbirth-5, Any other(specify)-6

Q. 18	Is there any death of child (below 1 year age)? Yes-1 No-2	Total no. of death	Male-1	Female-2	Age at death	Reason of death

Q. 19	In last 1 year, have any child (under 5 yr) died? Yes-1 No-2	Total no. of death	Male-1	Female-2	Age at death	Reason of death

Q.20 Which hospital do you prefer to visit? 1) Public 2) Private

Q.21 What is the frequency of visit hospitals in a month/year for health issues.....

Q.22 What medicine do you prefer to administer? 1) Allopathic 2) Homeopathic 3) Ayurvedic 4) Other

- Q.23 Is there any member of the family alcoholic? 1) Yes 2) No
- Q.24 Is there any death due to health problem in last one year? Yes- 1 No-2
- Q.25 If Yes, what is the Health problem.....
- Q.26 Did any of your family member underwent surgery during last one year? Yes- 1 No-2
- Q.27 If yes, where, how much was spent? (Rs.....)
- Q.28 Do you have health insurance? Yes – 1 No – 2
- Q.29 If Yes, since when Premium amount (Rs).....

Q.30	Type of House	Kachcha.....1 Pacca.....2 Semi-pacca.....3
Q.31	Ownership of House	Own Land.....1 Own land government aided.....2 Govt. land and own constr.3 Govt. land and govt. contr.4 Tenant.....5
Q.32	How many rooms are there in your house?	
Q.33	How many person live in one room?	
Q.34	Is there separate room for married couple?	Yes-1 No-2
Q.35	Do you have kitchen?	Yes-1 No-2
Q.36	What type of fuel (main) do you use for cooking?	Dung Cake.....1 Firewood.....2 LPG.....3 Induction.....4 Others(specify)5
Q.37	What is the main source of drinking water in your house?	Own Well.....1 Public Well.....2 Own hand pump.....3 Public hand pump.....4 Shared hand pump.....5 Own Tap.....6 Others.....7
Q.38	Do you treat water before drinking?	Yes-1 No-2
Q.39	How do you treat water?	Boil- 1 Filter- 2
Q.40	What is the main source of lighting in your house? If permanent, elec. Bill per month.....	Kerosene lamp.....1 Gas lamp.....2 Candle.....3 Own Generator.....4 Generator connection.....5 Electricity (temp.)6 Electricity (p'nent light)7 Others.....8
Q.41	Who owns the toilet facility used by you?	Own1 Shared.....2 Open-air defecation.....3
Q.42	What type of toilet facility do you use?	Pit.....1 Flush.....2 Linked to drain/stream.....3

Q.43	What type of bathroom facility do you use?	Open.....1 Enclosed space without cover.....2 Bathroom (within premise)3
Q.44	Do you own telephone facility?	Yes-1 No-2 Landline/Mobile (specify no. of connections)
Q.45	What is the source of livelihood?	Agriculture.....1 Agricultural labour.....2 Non-agr labour.....3 Artisan.....4 Remittances.....5 Small business.....6 Business.....7 Other(specify)8

Assets: q.46 What are the assets your HH possess?

Name of the article	Response	No. of the article	purchase B4 mig/ Year of purchase	
			Y-1	N-2
T.V.	Yes-1 No-2		1	2
Radio	Yes-1 No-2		1	2
Gas stove (LPG)	Yes-1 No-2		1	2
Kerosene cooking stove	Yes-1 No-2		1	2
Electricity connector	Yes-1 No-2		1	2
Solar Energy connection	Yes-1 No-2		1	2
Cycle	Yes-1 No-2		1	2
Scooter/Motorcycle	Yes-1 No-2		1	2
Car	Yes-1 No-2		1	2
Sewing machine	Yes-1 No-2		1	2
Room heater/blower	Yes-1 No-2		1	2
Geyser	Yes-1 No-2		1	2
Mixer	Yes-1 No-2		1	2
Iron	Yes-1 No-2		1	2
Refrigerator	Yes-1 No-2		1	2
VCD player	Yes-1 No-2		1	2
DVD player	Yes-1 No-2		1	2
Generator	Yes-1 No-2		1	2
Fan	Yes-1 No-2		1	2
Computer/ laptop	Yes-1 No-2		1	2
Washing machine	Yes-1 No-2		1	2
Tractor	Yes-1 No-2		1	2
Thresher	Yes-1 No-2		1	2
Pump set	Yes-1 No-2		1	2
Plough/hal/tiller	Yes-1 No-2		1	2
Plank/leveller	Yes-1 No-2		1	2
Fodder cutter	Yes-1 No-2		1	2
Harvester	Yes-1 No-2		1	2
Rotavator	Yes-1 No-2		1	2
Sprayer	Yes-1 No-2		1	2

Q.47	Do you have any livestock?			Yes-1	No-2	
S.No.	Item	No.	Present value	Have you changed the herd size in the last 10 yrs?		Mention the reasons for change of herd size
				Yes-1 No-2	If yes, 1-increase 2-Decrease	
	Cow					
	Bull					
	Buffalo					
	Goat					
	Sheep					
	Pig					
	Poultry					
	Fishery(fish catch last 1 yr)					
	Others (specify)					
Q.48	Where do you go for buying the livestock?			Village shop-.....1 Local market-.....2 Small town-.....3 City -.....4		
Q.49	Where do you go for consulting your veterinary doctor?			Own house-.....1 Village shop-.....2 Local market-.....3 Small town-.....4 City -.....5		
Q.50	Do you have cattle shed?			Yes-1	No-2	
Q.51	From where you procure fodder?			Forest.....1 CPR in the village.....2 Purchase.....3		
Q.52	If purchase from where?			Village shop-.....1 Local market-.....2 Small town-.....3 City -.....4 M/m-middlemen-.....5 F/w-feriwals-.....6		

Q.53	Details of livestock production activities during last year				
Name	Total prod. (quintal)	Quantity retained for home consumption (quintal)	Quantity sold (quintal)	Average price (Rs/quintal)	Where do you sell your livestock products?
Milk					B C D E M/m F/w
Mutton					B C D E M/m F/w
Chicken					B C D E M/m F/w
Eggs					B C D E M/m F/w

Livestock products: Village shop-B, Local market-C, Small town-D, City -E, Middlemen- M/m, feriwals- F/w

Q.54. Agriculture land details: (in acre)

	Irrigated	Non-irrigated	Total
Owned			
Leased in			
Leased out			
Cultivated land			

Q.55	How was this land acquired?	Inherited from family.....1 Purchased.....2 Allotted by Gov.3 Gifted.....4 Others(specify)5
Q.56	Did you purchase any land in the last 10 yrs in your village?	Yes-1 No-2
Q.57	If yes, how much land purchased? (in acres)	
Q.58	Total value of land purchased (Rs.)	
Q.59	For what purpose did you purchase land?	Cultivation/agriculture-1 House construction-.....2 To start a business.....3 To add to the land size.....4 Others(specify)-5
Q.60	What was the source of income for purchase of land?	Farming-1 Borrowed-2 Remittances-3 Others(specify)-4
Q.61	Did you sell your land in the last 10 yrs?	Yes-1 No-2
Q.62	If yes, how much land? (acre)	
Q.63	Total value of land sold (Rs.)	
Q.64	What was the reasons for selling land?	Agriculture-.....1 To start a business.....2 To finance the study of son/daughter.....3 Vehicle purchase.....4 Cattle purchase.....5 Medical needs.....6 Repayment of debt.....7 House construction.....8 Others(specify)9
Q.65	Did you lease-in land for cultivation during 2017-18?	Yes-1 no-2
65.a	If yes, how much land? (acre)	
65.b	What was the terms of tenancy? Mention amount (Rs.) or quantity (quintal)	Fixed money.....1 Fixed produce.....2 Share of produce.....3 Mortgaged land.....4 Others(specify)5
65.c	How long has been the tenancy relation with the present landowner?	
65.d	Do you change the landowner?	Yes-1 No-2
65.e	Do you take loan from your landowner?	Yes-1 no-2
65.f	Does that bind you to provide certain obligatory services to your land owner?	Yes-1 No-2
65.g	If yes, what services?	
Q.66	Is the land on which your house is built owned by you?	Yes-1 No-2
66.a	If no, whose land is this?	
Q.67	Do you rent out room or house? (e.g. storage etc.)	Yes-1 No-2
67.a	If yes, mention the rental rate (Rs.)	
Q.68	Have you availed any gov. scheme for building your house?	Yes-1 No-2
68.a	If yes, mention the name of the scheme.....Amount(Rs.).....	
Q.69	Do you have common land in your village?	Yes-1 No-2
69.a	If yes, do you have access to it?	Yes-1 No-2
Q.70	Do you have access to forest?	Yes-1 No-2

Q.71	Are you allowed to draw water from this source wherever it exists in the village?	Yes-1 No-2
71.a	If no, please explain why?	
Q.72	What is the source of irrigation?	Canal water.....1 Tube well.....2 Dug well.....3 Tanks.....4 Others(specify)5

Q.73 Details of crop production activities during last one year

crop	Area (acre)	Total prod. (quintal)	Quantity retained for home consumption (Quintal)	Quantity sold (Quintal)	Average price (Rs/Quintal)	Total paid out cost of cultivation(Rs)	Where do you sell the produce
Kharif							A B C D E M/m F/w
							A B C D E M/m F/w
							A B C D E M/m F/w
							A B C D E M/m F/w
							A B C D E M/m F/w
							A B C D E M/m F/w
							A B C D E M/m F/w
Rabi							A B C D E M/m F/w
							A B C D E M/m F/w
							A B C D E M/m F/w
							A B C D E M/m F/w
							A B C D E M/m F/w
							A B C D E M/m F/w
							A B C D E M/m F/w
zaid							A B C D E M/m F/w
							A B C D E M/m F/w
							A B C D E M/m F/w
							A B C D E M/m F/w
							A B C D E M/m F/w
							A B C D E M/m F/w

Sell produce: Own house-A, Village shop-B,Local market-C,Small town-D,City -E,Middlemen- M/m, feriwals-F/w

Q.74	Did you change your cropping pattern in the 10 years?	Yes-1 No-2
74.a	If yes, what new crops did you introduce? Explain why?	
Q.75	Explain how do you market your crop produce? (<i>process involved, market players, compulsory sale to trader through credit linkage, price, problems faced, etc.</i>)	

Q.76 What are the major crops grown in your field? (for last crop sown only)					
Crops	seed		fertilizers		Pesticides
	Type Trad.-1 HYV-2 Both-3	If HYV From where	Type Org.-1 Chem-2	If chemical from where	Type Trad.-1 Org-2 Chem-3
Rice.....1	1 2 3	A B C D E M/m F/w	1 2	A B C D E M/m F/w	1 2 3
Wheat-.....2	1 2 3	A B C D E M/m F/w	1 2	A B C D E M/m F/w	1 2 3
Pulses--.....3	1 2 3	A B C D E M/m F/w	1 2	A B C D E M/m F/w	1 2 3
Sugarcane.....4	1 2 3	A B C D E M/m F/w	1 2	A B C D E M/m F/w	1 2 3
Potato--.....5	1 2 3	A B C D E M/m F/w	1 2	A B C D E M/m F/w	1 2 3
Vegetables--.....6	1 2 3	A B C D E M/m F/w	1 2	A B C D E M/m F/w	1 2 3
Flowers--.....7	1 2 3	A B C D E M/m F/w	1 2	A B C D E M/m F/w	1 2 3
Corn -.....8	1 2 3	A B C D E M/m F/w	1 2	A B C D E M/m F/w	1 2 3
Others--.....9	1 2 3	A B C D E M/m F/w	1 2	A B C D E M/m F/w	1 2 3

Place of purchase: Own house-A, Village shop-B, Local market-C, Small town-D, City -E, Middlemen- M/m, feriwals- F/w

Q.77 Consumption Expenditure of Households:

77. a Food items (reference period: last 30 days)

S.No.	Items	Quantity (Kg)	Value (Rs)	Quantity home produced (Kg)
1	Rice			
2	Wheat flour			
3	Maida			
4	Other cereals			
5	Sugar			
6	Salt			
7	Spices			
8	Pulses and pulse products			
9	Edible oil/Vanaspati			
10	Vegetables			
11	Milk			
12	Milk products			
13	Meat			
14	Fish			
15	Eggs			
16	Fruits			
17	Processed food (biscuits/bread/others)			
18	Food ate outside hotel/restaurants			
19	Fuel (LPG/kerosene)			
20	Intoxicants (alcohol/tobacco/cigarrete)			
21	Any other (specify)			

77.b Non-food items (Reference period: last 365 days)

S.No.	Items	Value (Rs)
1	Clothes and bedding materials	
2	Footwear	
3	Consumer-durables (TV/utensils/furniture/mobiles/other)	
4	Fuel/light	
5	Education (Schools/college fee/ stationeries)	
6	Transport	
7	Private coaching/tuition	
8	Medical expenses	

9	Expense on social functions (marriage/birthdays and others)	
10	Jewellery and ornaments	
11	Expense on recreation (cinema, picnic, cable charges, CD, sports, etc)	
12	Others non-food expense	

Total income of HH:

Total expenditure of HH:

Total savings HH:

Q.78 Details of loan taken as on date of survey						
Amnt. Borrowed(Rs)	Source	Interest rate(%) specify (month/yr)	Purpose	Type of security	Period of loan	Loan outstanding(Rs)
			1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14	1 2 3 4 5		
			1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14	1 2 3 4 5		
			1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14	1 2 3 4 5		
			1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14	1 2 3 4 5		
			1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14	1 2 3 4 5		

Source: Co-operative credit society-1, land development bank-2, Commercial bank-3, Regional Rural Bank-4, Money lender-5, Friends-6, Relatives-7, Traders/commission agent-8, Others (specify)-9

Purpose: Agriculture-1, Purchase of tractor and other implements-2, Purchase of livestock-3, Consumption expenditure-4, Marriage and social ceremonies-5, Non-farm activity-6, other expenditure-7, To start a business-8, To finance the study of son/daughter-9, For marriage of daughter-10, For marriage of son-11, Vehicle purchase-12, Medical needs-13, House construction-14,

Type of security: No security-1, Land-2, Crop-3, Jewels-4, Others-5

Period of loan: Less than 6 months-1, 6 to 12 months-2, 12-18 months-3, 18-24 months-4, 2 to 5 yrs-5, More than 5 yrs-6

Q.79	Has any marriage taken place in your household during last two yrs?	Yes....1 M-1 F-2	No.....2 age (.....)
Q.80	If yes, can you answer what type of marriage?	Arrange-.....1 Love cum arrange--.....2 Love-.....3 Within caste-.....4 Outside caste but within religion-.....5 Outside religion-.....6	
Q.81	If not in recent past; what kind of marriage would you like to have for the next generation?	Arrange-.....1 Love cum arrange-.....2 Love-.....3 Within caste-.....4 Outside caste but within religion-.....5 Outside religion-.....6	
Q.82	Has marriage at present is different from past generation?	Yes.....1 No.....2	
Q.83	If yes, how is it different? Write the details		
Q.84	What do you think is the main cause of difference?	Education-.....1 Mass media-.....2 Affluence-.....3 Networking-.....4	
Q.85	Do people from all social groups visit you?	Yes.....1	

		No.....2
Q.86	Is there any community feasts you have given in the last 1-3 yrs	Yes.....1 No.....2
Q.87	If yes, please tell the occasion	Marriage of son-.....1 Marriage of daughter-.....2 Death of elderly-.....3 Birth of a son-.....4 Birth of a daughter-.....5 House warming-.....6 Religious occasion-.....7 Electoral victory-.....8 Other occasion (please specify).....9
Q.88	If yes, please answer about invitees	Within close clan only-.....1 Outside clan but within caste-.....2 Outside caste-.....3 Only from village-.....4 Also from nearby urban centre-.....5 Everyone from the village-6
Q.89	Frequency of contact with relatives, friends, neighbours, colleagues	Once a month-.....1 Once a week-.....2 Everyday-.....3
Q.90	Are you a member of caste/community based association (since when, in case of yes)	Yes-1.....(year.....) No-2
Q.91	If yes, what type?	Farmers association-.....1 Dairy cooperative-.....2 SHG-.....3 Political party-.....4 Others(specify)-5
Q.92	Since when this association exist?	
Q.93	If yes, what benefits you get?	
Q.94	If not, why not?	
Q.95	Are there other caste based organisations you know about?	Yes....1 No.....2
Q.96	Are you beneficiary of government reservation policy?	Yes....1 No.....2
Q.97	Types of support offered by social networks?	Emotional-.....1 Financial-.....2 Manpower-.....3 Others(specify)-4 No support-.....5
Q.98	Do you have bank account?	Yes....1 No.....2
Q.99	Total no. members having active bank account
Q.100	Do you know about the Pradhan Mantri Gram Jan Dhan Yojana (PMJDY)	Yes....1 No.....2
Q.101	Do you have ATM card?	Yes....1 No.....2
Q.102	If yes, do you know how to use ATM card?	Yes-1 No-2
Q.103	Do you have Adhaar card?	Yes-1 No-2
Q.104	Do you have Voter card?	Yes-1 No-2
Q.105	Total no. of registered voters?	
Q.106	Do you or any of your family members contest any election in the past?	Yes-1 No-2
Q.107	Will you or any of your family members contest any election in future?	Yes-1 No-2
Q.108	Do you caste vote for panchayat election?	Yes-1 No-2
Q.109	Do you vote a candidate as per your choice?	Yes-1 No-2

Q.110	If no, who guides you to vote for a particular candidate?	
Q.111	Do you participate in Gram Sabha? How many members of family participated in Gram Sabha?	Yes-1 No-2 Tot no.....
Q.112	Do the females of HH participated in Gram Sabha?	Yes-1 No-2
Q.113	Do you have Van Panchayat in your village?	Yes-1 No-2
Q.114	Which type of panchayat you feel important for development of your village?	Van Panchayat-.....1 Gram Panchayat-.....2
Q.115	Do you read newspaper? Daily-1 weekly-2 mnthly-3 anually-4 irglr-5	Yes-1 No-2
Q.116	Do you have internet connection?	Yes-1 No-2
Q.117	If yes, mention through which medium you connect?	Mobile-.....1 Data card-.....2 Modem-.....3 Other(specify)-4
Q.118	Who provides internet connection?	
Q.119	Do you use social media?	Yes-1 No-2
Q.120	If yes, which one do you use more frequently?	Facebook-.....1 Watsapp-.....2 Twitter-.....3 Other(specify)-4
Q.121	Since when are you using this social media?mention language.....
Q.122	Do you get agriculture related information to your mobile?	Yes-1 No-2
Q.123	If yes, what kind of information do you receive?	
Q.124	In which form do you get the information?	SMS-.....1 Voice message-.....2
Q.125	Do you find the information useful? Explain.....	Yes-1 No-2
Q.126	Do you make online payment?	Yes-1 No-2
Q.127	If yes, for what purpose do you make online payment?	Gas bill-.....1 Mobile bill-.....2 Electricity bill-.....3 Others(specify)-.....4
Q.128	Do you think the urban life style (e.g. fast food, mall culture, trendy clothing, nuclear family, etc.) has affected the rural life style?	Yes-1 No-2
Q.129	If yes, explain how?	

Q.130	Mention whether you have participated in any of the development programmes		
S.no	Programmes	Yes-1	No-2
1	MGNREGA	1	2
2	PDS (public distribution system)	1	2
3	Self-Help Group	1	2
4	Pension/Social Assistance Programmes	1	2
5	Pradhan Mantri Fasal Bima Yojana	1	2
6	Watershed association	1	2
7	Water user association	1	2
8	Integrated child Development Scheme	1	2
9	Any other (specify)	1	2

Q.131	Provide details about MGNREGA	
a.	Do you have job card?	Yes-1 No-2
b.	For how many days did you get job under MGNREGA during 2016-17?	
c.	Did you demand for more days to work?	Yes-1 No-2
d.	What was the average wage you had received during 2017-2018?	Rs.....
e.	How many days it took to receive the wages?	
f.	Has MGNREGA led to increase in the casual wage rate in your village?	Yes-1 No-2 If yes%
g.	Do you think that participation of workers in MGNREGA has resulted in shortage of labour available for agriculture operation in the village?	Yes-1 No-2
h.	Did you receive any other benefit (other than work) under the MGNREGS (e.g. toilet construction, farm pond construction)?	
Q.132 Provide details about household food security		
a	Number of meals taken in a day	
b	Did your family take two full meals (sufficient) through all the months during 2017-18?	
c	If no, which months of the year your family did not get sufficient food?	
d	How did you cope with the shortage of food?	Borrowed foodgrains-..1 Taken loan-.....2 Starved-.....3 Other(specify)-.....4
e	Do you have ration card?	Yes-1 No-2
f	What type of ration card do you have?	APL-.....1 BPL-.....2 AAY-.....3
g	Provide the details of rations you got in the previous month	
	Item	Quantity(Kg) Price(Rs)
	Rice	
	Wheat	
	Pulses	
	Edible oil	
	Others (specify)	