

## **2.0: Introduction**

In this chapter, an attempt has been made to review the past studies pertaining to our research questions, objectives and hypothesis. We have already discussed about the process of migration is neither a new concept nor a recent phenomenon. Needless to explain the study of migration and its impact is purely subjectivity. It totally relies on individualistic approach. Being an individualistic and recognizing the crucial role of the study, the matter of this chapter, we discuss in following manner. In introductory part, we discuss the history of Indian migration concerning its level, trend and pattern. In the later part, we discuss the impact of migration considering broadly in three parts i.e., demographic, social, and health aspects. The impact of income on health and pattern and trend of health care expenditure in India and Odisha are discussed at the end of this chapter.

## **2.1: History of Indian migration**

Human mobility in India, particularly in rural to urban areas is neither a new nor a recent phenomenon. During the British colonial period the Royal Commission on Labour 1931 described that the rural labourers from India were pushed not pulled to the industries because the cities have few attractions for them (Davis,1951). Since the dawn of human civilization, migration has been motivated primarily by economic considerations. For instance, in the early stage of human history, people migrated/ moved to collect natural products and for hunting purposes. Thus, in the pastoral stage they moved towards greener pastures and in the agricultural stage they sought after fresh and fertile lands (Sinha and Atallah, 1987). More than five decades ago, Kingsley Davis observed that the population statistics of India has relatively less mobile and their mobility is concerned in region specific because of economic social and cultural reasons (Davis, 1951). Zachariah (1964), finds that, population of India was not very mobile but generally remained attached to its villages. Based on the observation from many studies Zachariah strongly recommended that the reasons of less mobile of Indian habitants is linguistic

problems and that might be a factor inhibiting the movement of people from one state to another (Zachariah, 1964).

During the British colonial rules in India, people migrating with an objective to fulfil the requirements of capitalist development both in India and abroad. After independence or early period of independence when there were a number of industries took place in various parts of the country, movement of the people has intensified. However, the researchers have not given much emphasis to further understanding and study on the trends and patterns of historical Indian migration. Paucity of comprehensive data might have discarded many researchers in understanding of these issues. Number of studies (Zachariah, 1963 & 1964, Bose, 1977; Nair and Narain, 1985; Premi, 1990; Singh, 1998; and Bhagat; 2005) found that volume of interstate migration in India was low, but asserted the fact that about one third of India's population enumerated outside their place of birth indicating the importance of migration as a major demographic process in India.

Research interest has been grown up on migration after decline of fertility and mortality (Battistella et al., 1996). In India Census has been providing migration information since, 1872. However, low mobility among Indian population has been observed based on place of birth definition (Bhatia and Sabagh, 1980). In all decennial censuses since 1981, the proportion of person enumerated in a state other than those of their birth has consistently been shown to be around three percent (Bose, 1967; Mehrotra, 1974). However, Census of India does not provide lifetime migration and return migration statistics. Nevertheless, it has been providing rural urban migration rate. It has also scope of to analyze inter-state and intra-state migration, and the result indicates that the difference is higher in the rural areas than in urban areas (Kundu, 1986). These distinction can be taken into account the territorial boundaries crossed by the migrants.

As we know, the population of Indian sub-continent has less mobile in nature. However, with improvement of infrastructure and communications accompanying the economic development, the increase of population mobility was expected. In fact, most of them are cluster in informal sectors, particularly in textile, construction and agriculture sectors. On

the other, there is a diverse category of workers in the informal sector including casual labourers and irregular migrants who take up a variety of jobs. The diversification in subsistence strategies of labour households due to mobility and the qualitative impact of outmigration has led to increased staying power and higher reservation wages. In addition, a small proportion of labour migrants are able to acquire the means to improve their reproductive base in rural economy.

We also know that, migration is a dynamic process and it encompasses diversified forms of temporal and geographic mobility. There are numerous types and forms of migration. It may be in the form of temporary or permanent migration or it may be a seasonal to yearlong migration (Asfar, 2000). Recent village level studies across different parts of India shows a sharp increase in population mobility including long-term and temporary migration as well as commuting migration, especially from drought-prone locations. Among this type of migration study, several studies focused on rural to urban migration in India (Khan, 1986; De Haan, 1997; Sharma, 1997). In past, labour out-migration has played a stabilizing role in poor regions and now apparently it accelerates to change in production relationships. The major characteristics of migrant labour are elastic supply, long and flexible hours of work and low wage costs. Migrant labourers are easily disciplined and its presence has a disciplining effect, on local labour and dampening effect on local wages. Most of the labour migration to the urban areas is absorbed by informal sector.

In India, interstate migration is higher in comparison to international migration, observed by Singh (1995) and Chopra (1998). They also observe that some states are traditionally sending state whereas others are treated as receiving state. For instance, Punjab has been demanding labour for various agricultural activities through pull factors (getting gainful employment opportunity) from the neighbouring states Uttar Pradesh, Jammu Kashmir, Bihar, Odisha, West Bengal, Rajasthan and Madhya Pradesh, since decade long (Sidhu and Rangi, 1998). Apparently, impact of migration on source and destination areas are treated as two sides of the same capitalist dynamic. One hand it promotes mobility thereby putting upward pressure on wages, even in restricted demand for labour in poor regions. Other hand it also is absorbing labour under conditions favourable to capitalists.

Migration process in India is as old as the India civilisation. It is an essential component of economic development and social and political organization. India's present path of development has created regional inequalities, while the developed areas have created a demand for labour, and in turn backward areas have become the suppliers of labour. For instance, the agricultural and industrial developed states such as Punjab has created an additional demand for labour force which has been met by the migrants labour hailing from backward states like Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, Himanchal Pradesh, Haryana, Rajasthan, Jammu and Kashmir and Odisha (Chnad et al., 1998). More developed states like Punjab and Haryana have a higher percentage of interstate migration compared to the other less developed states, which shows that the mobility of the people depends on the level of development of the state. Studies, further, argues that, movement in Indian migrants is precisely followed different stages. In the first stage, rural people migrate to nearby small towns and become oriented to the urban life styles. This shift resulted in various social and economic constraints faced by them in the nearby towns. Unemployment is the most important and powerful push factor that plays a unique role to push the people from rural area with an aspiration of urban employment opportunities. Although, increased hardships the process of transfer of surplus labour from rural to urban places. However, migration is considered as the survival strategy for the poor and the landless labourer families (Kundu, 1986).

## **2.2: Gender migration in India**

Generally, migration process is a male dominate all over the world in India too. The female mobility in the world has started in the early modernization and pre-industrialization period. More specifically the female mobility in practice has started worldwide during the feminist movement in 1970s and the demand for greater equality between men and women in workplaces, household works and childcares (Young, 2000). In India, since human mobility era, male migrants have been dominating the migration streams due to economic reasons, followed by socio-political and other reasons in accordance with the trend. In other words, cultural restrictions are mainly responsible for female mobility outside the household (Dasgupta, 1978; De Haan, 1997). In recent years

higher female internal migration rate observe (around 45% ) both in rural and urban areas in India. The higher percentage of migrants among female is certainly due to Indian custom i.e., change the place of residences due to marriage (Zacharia, 1964). It is observed also inter district migration a much smaller proportion and spurious due to the practice of pregnant women going to their parent's home for deliveries. The influence of this factor is probably exaggerated, but it is certainly a relevant factor contributing higher female migration. Moreover, the Indian custom requires that the bride moves to the husband's village, which is indicated in NSSO data. (more than 75% of migrants in India are women (NSS, 1999-2000)).

Globalization in India is considered as most curious effect on female migration. It provides an ample of scope in women to empower themselves in demanding greater equality between male and female in the society; especially among middle class educated women. The essential linkages between the two have never been acknowledged which is why the link between women's participation in the formal labour market and the informal labour market roles of immigrant women have remained invisible (Young, 2000). Furthermore, restructure of capitalist economy has created a conducive environment of increased work participation of women in middle and upper class households. UN (1993) observes that, female migrants have relatives or acquaintances in the city, might be act as a motivation and pull factor for her to move since that would bring more security to her vulnerable social position (UN, 1993).

Female migration has not only provided the economic opportunity to migrant women's but also to change their social status. It has largely solved the problem of unemployment among women. It has brought about a dramatic change in the employment pattern of women in the sense that there is a shift from agriculture to non-agricultural activities, particularly self-employment. Migration has increased yearly earnings of all migrants, particularly to women, where women are employed in the formal sector in terms of all parameters such as income, assets, savings, etc. Similarly past studies observed that migration has greater impacts of adoption of voluntary family planning and reproductive health related attitudes and behaviours in rural areas (Zacharia,1964; Bhatia and

Sabhaga,1980, Xu,1992, Hema Kumari and Tataji,1998; Sivakumar,2001, and Maharatna,2003). In reproductive domain past study has already established significant link that, effects of rural-urban return migration provides important policy implications for the reform of China's family planning programme towards reproductive health (Xu, 1992). In total, migration improves the individual and household status in terms of economic wellbeing moreover; it treated as an instrument of reform mechanism.

### **2.3: Level, trend and pattern of internal migration in India and Odisha**

In India, there are two major sources of data available at national level pertaining to migration. One is Census and other is National Sample Survey (NSS). Both the large-scale survey provides migration information in national representative information following different methods. Of course, National Family Health Survey (NFHS) also providing few information about migration but that is not adequate to analyses level and trend of migration. In India, till 1951 census, districts as the administrative units were the Migration Defining Areas (MDA), implying that a person was considered a migrant only if s/he has changed residence from the district of birth to another district or a state. Further, for the first time 1961 Census collected information on migration considering each revenue village or urban settlement as a separate unit. Thus, census considered a person is migrant if birthplace is different from the place of enumeration. In 1971, an additional question on place of last residence, introduced to collect migration data in census questionnaire. Since then, census provides data on migrants based on place of birth (POB) and place of last residence. According to the place of birth definition migrant is a person, if the place of birth or place of last residence is different from the place of enumeration thus a person is defined as a migrant. On the other hand, if the place of birth and place of enumeration is the same, the person is considered as non-migrant (Bhagat, 2005).

According to the Indian Census, migration is determined mainly with reference to a person's place of birth. If a person is born at a place other than the place of enumeration, he/she is treated as a migrant in census returns. As we mentioned previously, up to 1951, the census of India collects information on migration based on place of birth and it provides information on number of migrants on sex. They did not furnish information on

other characteristics of the migrant population nor did they reflect the inter-district movement and movement from rural to urban areas or vice versa. However, in 1961 census widened the scope of enquiry and collected information on i) birth place ii) birth place (rural and urban), and iii) duration of residence if born elsewhere. Nevertheless, this information was unable to capture the multiple movements of a person. The methodology was, a person who had migrated elsewhere for practical purposes and came back to the place of birth during the period of enumeration was treated as non- migrant at the census. The place of last residence concept administrated first time from 1971 census in addition to place of birth question. The duration of residence at the place of enumeration was recorded in completed years (Singh,1995).

To understand the importance of best possible good reliable information was collected during 1961 census on migrant based on the reported place of birth. Persons where enumerated is the place different from their place of birth are considered as migrant or rather lifetime migrant because the time of their move is not known. The information relating to the rural urban character of the place of birth ( or origin) and the place of enumeration (destination) make it possible to distinguish between the intra-rural, urban-rural, rural-urban and inter-urban migrants. The population census provides detailed information on trends and pattern of migration at the district level. It also provides information as also for class 'I' cities. Nevertheless, the information provides by census is impediment to the researcher to analysis the pattern of interdependency of migration with income, poverty, employment status, education and location characteristics based on this data as the census does not collect information on most of the economic characteristics and these relevant information is not available at the household or individual level.

The growth rate of migrants during the 1990s with less than 10-year duration has been observed to be significantly below compared to 10 to 20 years and more than 20 years of duration. This clearly reflects an erroneous reporting of the duration of stay at the place of enumeration by recent migrants. The proposition that migrants are better off than non-

migrants in urban areas may come as a big surprise to many since in common parlance one often refers to persons arriving before a few months or years as migrants.

Besides Census, in India, there are other largest sources of migration data is National Sample Survey (NSS), which is collecting information on migration from its 38<sup>th</sup> round survey (1983) as a part of employment and unemployment enquiries. NSSO has integrated the collection of migration data with regular quinquennial surveys on employment and unemployment from 38<sup>th</sup> round onward with uniform conceptual framework. The definition adapted by NSSO on migration is defined as the village/ town where the person has stayed continuously for at least six months immediately prior to the moving of person is to the village/town where he or she is enumerated. There is, indeed a divergence between the popular perception of the term and that of NSS, which considers all persons who have lived at a place for more than six months, anytime during their lifetime, as migrants. Migration status has been included in the explanatory model to determine whether the in-migrants or the seasonal migrants have a greater probability of falling below the poverty line and if that varies depending on the source (rural or urban) of migration. It may be noted that the migration data from NSSO is of relatively better quality due to their trained investigators and that census has not collected data on out migration. Both data systems have shown the users' requirements during various phases, and have enhanced the average by including additional questions (Narasimhan and Chandra,1998).

The two major sources of data on population mobility in India are more or less provides three types of population mobility commuting, circular or seasonal, and permanent. Both the data sources adequately cover only permanent or semi- permanent migration while, seasonal migration partly overlapping with the category of short duration migrants (Narasimhan and Chandra,1998). Since seasonal migration and commuting are both predominantly employment related existing sources underestimate population mobility and labour migration to a significant extent. A recent trend, in population mobility indicates a decline rate of migration. Micro level studies reveal increasing labour mobility via seasonal migration has breaking down the isolated nature of rural labour



markets and greater integration between rural and urban labour markets; however, two Indian major sources of data reveals underestimate labour mobility. Large number of population mobility, accompanying structural changes, one of the fundamental features of modern economic development. The mobility of labour has received relatively little attention in international policy-making even through the dominant economic paradigms' stress the importance of mobility of both labour and capital. While labour migration affects the development process in a number of crucial ways, it effects primarily on labour market in sending and receiving areas.

Most of the migration studies are destination based. The studies done with census data has lack in-depth understanding as they trace the origin/ source of migration and direction of it viz. rural- rural, rural-urban, urban-urban, urban-rural or explain broadly few specified causes of migration such as employment, marriage, etc. The survey-based studies can bring out the in-depth analysis of the deeper process at work to explain the migration phenomenon particularly to origin. Furthermore, paucity of information based on destination places makes an issue to researchers to comprehend the impact of migration on origin as well as destination.

**Table 2.3.1: Level and trend of internal migration in India 1971-2001 by sex**

	Lifetime Migrants (in Millions)			Sex ratio (M-F)	Percentage of migrants		
	Person	Male	Female	M/F	Person	Male	Female
1971	159.6	49.6	110.0	0.45	30.6	19.0	43.1
1981	201.6	59.2	142.4	0.42	30.3	17.6	43.9
1991	225.9	61.1	164.8	0.37	27.4	14.6	41.2
2001	309.4	90.7	218.7	0.41	30.6	17.5	44.6

Source: Author's computed using various Indian decadal census data

Table 2.3.1 depicts the level and trend of the internal migration in India by sex. It is found that nearly 160 million people lifetime migrate in the year of 1971. Out of these majority of them were female (110 million) as compared to male (49.6 million). Further, the lifetime internal migrants in India were increased 309 million in the year of 2001 included 90.7 million male and 218.7 million female. It clearly depicts in the above table the increasing trend of internal lifetime migration in India. However, the migrants' sex

ratio (Male/Female) decreases from 0.45 to 0.41 during the period of the 1971 to 2001. In a percentage term the percent of migrants of total population has same in two periods of time i.e., 30.6%, but it decreases (30.3% to 27.4%) during 1981 to 1991 probable explanation may be the changing nature, methods and definition of the migration which census of India adopted to collect migration data. Mostly, the decreasing trend observed in the percent of male migrants (19% to 17.5%) in India however, percent of female migrant is increases (43.1% to 44.6%) in the same period.

**Table 2.3.2: Growth of internal migrants by sex in India, 1971-2001**

	Percent of lifetime in-migrants			Percent of Inter-censal migration rate		
	Person	Male	Female	Person	Male	Female
1971-81	26.3	19.43	29.4	6.81	3.01	10.89
1981-91	12.04	3.21	15.72	3.17	0.48	6.07
1991-01	36.96	48.33	32.75	8.91	6.09	11.93
1971-01	93.82	82.83	98.78	9.64	5.11	14.51

Source: Census of India, D\* series different census round

The growth of inter-censal migrants by sex depicts in Table 2.3.2. The inter-censal migration growth rate is increased 6.81% in 1971-81 to 9.64% in 1971-01. The increasing trend also been observed in both sexes; sex differential analysis reveals that the growth percent is more dominant in female as compared to male.

**Table 2.3.3: Migration rates per thousand populations by sex and residence based on various National Sample Survey (NSS) rounds (1983 to 2,000)**

NSS rounds	Male (in number per thousand)			Female (in number per thousand)			
	rural	urban	total	rural	urban	total	
38th round January - December, 1983	72	270	120	351	366	354	234
43rd round July 1987 -june1988	75	268	119	399	396	398	254
49th round January - July 1993	65	239	108	401	382	396	248
55th round July 1999 -June 2000	69	258	117	426	418	424	266

Sources: computed using various NSS round surveys

The level of internal migration by sex and place of residence wise in various NSS rounds shows in the Table 2.3.3. It is found that 234 person were internally moved in India out of every thousand during the period of 1983 that increases 266 in period between 1999-2000. By sex, it is observed that, male are less mobile as compared to female over the period. Similarly, rural people moved less compared to the urban counterpart according to the survey results over the period.

**Table 2.3.4: Percentage distribution of migrants of each sex by migration streams, India 1981-2001**

	Total			Male			Female		
	1981	1991	2001	1981	1991	2001	1981	1991	2001
Total internal migrants	30.3	17.6	43.9	27.4	14.6	41.2	30.6	17.5	44.6
Total rural migrants	81.76	73.08	85.36	70.47	51.03	77.69	67.16	46.90	75.56
Total urban migrants	18.24	26.92	14.64	29.53	48.97	22.31	32.84	53.10	24.44
<b>I. Intra-district</b>	63.22	51.28	68.19	62.14	50.41	66.49	62.57	52.20	66.87
Rural-Rural	78.41	63.02	83.23	77.95	61.59	82.54	77.56	54.11	83.23
Rural-Urban	11.65	20.87	8.77	12.43	22.61	9.57	11.57	23.32	8.73
Urban-Rural	5.02	7.12	4.37	4.98	7.19	4.35	4.31	7.48	3.55
Urban-Urban	4.91	8.99	3.64	4.64	8.61	3.53	6.55	15.08	4.50
<b>II. Inter-district</b>	25.08	29.68	23.16	26.05	30.15	24.53	24.12	26.73	23.04
Rural-Rural	48.34	31.13	57.53	48.74	29.69	57.41	47.46	26.06	57.18
Rural-Urban	22.03	31.82	16.81	23.63	35.07	18.42	25.01	37.57	19.31
Urban-Rural	8.15	8.74	7.83	7.89	8.50	7.62	5.74	6.13	5.56
Urban-Urban	21.48	28.32	17.83	19.74	26.73	16.55	21.79	30.24	17.95
<b>III. Inter-state</b>	11.70	19.04	8.65	11.82	19.44	8.99	13.31	21.06	10.09
Rural-Rural	29.65	19.94	38.61	28.40	18.02	36.71	28.26	17.23	37.70
Rural-Urban	32.07	39.85	24.88	32.83	41.42	25.95	39.33	49.60	30.53
Urban-Rural	7.11	7.32	6.93	7.17	6.67	7.58	4.94	4.58	5.25
Urban-Urban	31.17	32.88	29.59	31.60	33.90	29.75	27.47	28.59	26.52
<b>All Migration stream</b>	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Rural-Rural	65.17	45.36	73.42	64.51	43.53	72.27	62.91	36.41	72.34
Rural-Urban	16.63	27.72	12.01	17.75	30.01	13.21	18.93	34.21	13.50
Urban-Rural	6.08	7.64	5.42	5.99	7.48	5.44	4.76	6.35	4.20
Urban-Urban	12.13	19.28	9.15	11.75	18.97	9.07	13.39	23.03	9.96

Source: Census of India, D' series different census round

The pattern and trend of migrant streams by sex depicts in Table 2.3.4. It is found that majority of the migrants concentrate in intra district migrant stream as compared to the other migrant streams (inter district and interstate) all time in India. Further, among the type of migration rural- rural migration is predominant in inter and intra district streams and time in India. The probable explanation may be the marriage migration is predominate in India because in Indian culture there is customary brides are lifetime in migrants to grooms residence after marriage. Further, in India majority of the people living in rural area their movement often happened in rural to rural rather than other form of migration. Whereas rural to urban migration dominate in interstate stream all time in India. Here it would be noticed that, interstate movement always encompasses economic motive hence majority of rural poor and marginal people (not necessary always but dominate by these groups) they migrate from rural to urban area with work and employment aspirations. More on it, it was observed that rural to rural migration predominant followed by rural to urban, urban to urban and urban to rural in all migration stream and time. Similar observation made in both sexes in all stream, time and form of migration.

**Table 2.3.5: Distribution of migrants by reasons for migration in India for 1991 & 2001 Census** **in %**

	Total		Male		Female	
	1991	2001	1991	2001	1991	2001
<b>Total</b>						
Employment	8.83	9.52	27.79	28.48	1.79	1.66
Business	2.31	0.89	7.06	2.57	0.54	0.20
Education	1.96	1.07	5.02	2.59	0.82	0.44
Marriage	57.26	50.26	4.13	2.38	76.97	70.11
Moved after Birth	N.A	5.09	N.A	10.21	N.A	2.97
Natural calamities	0.49	N.A	1.15	N.A	0.25	N.A
Moved with household	14.95	13.24	26.46	18.86	10.68	10.92
Others	14.21	19.92	28.39	34.91	8.95	13.70
<b>Rural</b>						
Employment	7.48	9.50	26.40	36.74	1.46	1.53
Business	2.02	0.82	6.88	3.02	0.48	0.17
Education	1.82	1.03	5.30	3.26	0.71	0.38
Marriage	62.22	61.97	4.82	3.68	80.51	79.04
Moved after Birth	N.A	4.50	N.A	11.90	N.A	2.34

Natural calamities	0.55	N.A	1.44	N.A	0.26	N.A
Moved with household	12.71	12.06	25.80	21.94	8.54	9.17
Others	13.19	10.11	29.36	19.46	8.04	7.37
<b>Urban</b>						
Employment	15.06	15.46	31.86	32.42	3.73	2.95
Business	3.61	1.77	7.59	3.62	0.93	0.40
Education	2.60	1.90	4.29	3.06	1.46	1.04
Marriage	34.64	29.21	2.25	1.18	56.51	49.90
Moved after Birth	N.A	10.57	N.A	14.17	N.A	7.92
Natural calamities	0.24	N.A	0.34	N.A	0.18	N.A
Moved with household	25.43	25.48	28.53	25.53	23.33	25.45
Others	18.41	15.61	25.15	20.03	13.87	12.34

\* N.A. Information Not Available, Source: Census of India 1991 and 2001, D' series

The decadal Indian census data provide the information about reason for migration in their various census rounds. The information on reason for migration understood on the sense of what was the /reason or motive behind of migrants before migration at the time of survey. The census of India collected information in the range of reasons i.e. employment, business, education, marriage, moved after birth, natural calamities, moved with household and others in their decadal rounds. Reasons for migration by sex and place of residence for the period of 1991-2001 summarised in Table 2.3.5. Among the reasons for migration marriage, others and moved with household are dominate reasons followed by employment, business and education as their reasons for migration in all time. By sex differential reasons for migration, majority of male migrate employment is the major reason whereas marriage is predominate among female all time in India. Similar observation made by place of residence differential of reasons for migration.

**Table 2.3.6: Distribution of migrants by reasons and streams in percent**

Stream of migration	Total		Male		Female	
	1991	2001	1991	2001	1991	2001
Employment	4.91	4.50	18.08	15.28	1.21	1.01
Business	1.44	0.56	5.20	1.80	0.39	0.16
Education	1.74	0.85	5.44	2.38	0.70	0.35

Marriage	11.74	9.27	5.69	3.17	7.40	6.93
Moved after Birth	64.49	56.57	27.17	16.51	81.04	73.85
Natural calamities	N.A	5.22	N.A	12.62	N.A	2.82
Moved with household	0.48	N.A	1.36	N.A	0.23	N.A
Others	15.19	23.03	37.07	48.24	9.03	14.88
<b>Inter-district</b>						
Employment	12.46	13.23	33.96	35.54	2.65	2.50
Business	2.80	1.17	7.32	3.06	0.74	0.26
Education	2.38	1.51	5.31	3.35	1.04	0.63
Marriage	18.44	17.84	27.06	22.61	14.51	15.54
Moved after Birth	50.49	45.23	3.11	1.99	72.10	66.03
Natural calamities	N.A	5.22	N.A	12.62	N.A	2.82
Moved with household	0.56	N.A	1.15	N.A	0.29	N.A
Others	12.88	15.59	22.10	23.74	8.68	11.67
<b>Inter-state</b>						
Employment	21.42	26.39	43.42	52.25	3.76	4.02
Business	5.76	1.98	11.49	3.88	1.17	0.35
Education	2.17	1.33	3.48	2.14	1.11	0.64
Marriage	24.11	23.58	23.68	19.89	24.46	26.78
Moved after Birth	34.11	29.72	1.67	0.93	60.14	54.63
Natural calamities	N.A	3.87	N.A	4.87	N.A	3.01
Moved with household	0.44	N.A	0.61	N.A	0.29	N.A
Others	12.00	13.12	15.65	16.05	9.06	10.58

\* N.A. Information Not Available, Source: Census of India, 1991-2001, D' series

Percentage distribution of migrant streams by reasons in both sexes in 1991 and 2001 census evinces Table 2.3.6. It was found that person moved with birth, followed by marriage and employment is dominant reasons for migration in all streams and decadal

census i.e. 1991 and 2001. Analyzing by sex differential it was found that moved with birth and employment major reasons for migration among males whereas moved with birth and marriage is the major reasons for female in intra district as stream. However, employment is the predominated motive for migration among male both inter district and interstate migrant streams, but the trend remained unchanged among the female migrants.

**Table 2.3.7: Percentage of migration in Odisha by sex, NSS rounds 1983-1993**

NSSO Rounds	Rural			Urban		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
38th round (1983)	5.0	6.1	4.1	2.6	2.8	2.7
43rd round (1987-88)	4.4	5.7	5.4	2.7	2.4	2.5
49th round (January-June, 1993)	2.5	4.2	4.0	2.2	2.0	2.1

Source: Demography India, Internal migration in India by D.P. Singh

The Table (2.3.7) depicts the percent of migration by place of residence in both sexes in Odisha in various NSS rounds from 1983-1993. The trend of migration has decrease over the period in both sexes by place of residence over the period in Odisha. For instances; around 4.1% people of Odisha migrate in the year of 1983 and it declines in 4% in the year of 1993 in rural area the declining finding also indicates i.e. 2.7% in the year of 1983 to 2.1% in urban area

#### **2.4: Migration in context of Odisha and Ganjam district**

During the British rule in India, the Royal commission on labour (1929-31) observes that Odisha labourers used to go Rangoon, Assam, Bengal and Bombay since 1803 in order to work in plantations, earthwork dams, roads, railways, jute mills, textile mills, brick-kiln industry etc. To eke-out a living, the labourers of Odisha migrate to distant parts of the country. They are also forced by natural calamities like famine and high pressure of population of land, absences of alternative avenues of employment etc. A large segment of migrant labourers in Odisha belongs to the category of landless agricultural labourers and very often from scheduled backward or tribal castes. In few cases, those who have limited land did not possess the needed resources to develop the same as a result the barren land is left un-cultivated for year. Therefore, they compelled to work as migrant labourer. The exploitation by the feudal lord by the princely states of Odisha had also

worked as a push factor for such out-migration. The indebted among the landed classes was traceable to abandon his ancestral occupation and work as migrant labourer.

In past, large numbers of Oriya migrant workers migrate to Assam to work in tea gardens and to West Bengal particularly to Calcutta to work as 'Kulli' or as a worker in Jute mills. At present, they can be seen as plumbers and construction workers in most part of India and abroad. Besides these large chunk of migrant labourers are cluster in different part of the country to engage in various sectors at present. There also evidence of migration of workers, particularly from undivided Ganjam and Puri districts to Ahmedabad and Surat city of Gujarat to work in the textile mills and diamond cutting industry and people from undivided Kalahandi and Bolangir districts to Raipur and Bilashpur of Chhattisgarh to work as rickshaw pullers. In Odisha, the push factors in rural area rather than pull factors constitute the main determinant of rural to urban migration in the urban informal sectors. It is also observed that, migrant workers of Odisha who instead of going to other part of the world they are moving within the country i.e., inter-state migration. Beyond the inter-state migration, the state also has been experiencing the intra-state migration. In intra-state migration, migrants mostly belong from the coastal districts to the western part of Odisha and from the drought prone districts to the industrial belt of the state. However, a good number of migrants, particularly workers and traders to western part of Odisha and skilled and technical workers from industrial belt are migrating to outside the state as inter-state migration.

There are several factors operating to act as push and pull factors in the state. Among these factors; unemployment, chronic poverty, lack of industrialization, small size of land holding, low agricultural productivity and natural calamities are playing as push factor to force the people to migrate. However, employment opportunity, aspiration of better prospect, free from poverty and hunger and cosmopolitan of urbanities are the major pull factors operate to migrate people of the state. Although social and economic inequality in rural areas continue to surface in push the people from origin of the state. As like other states migrant, the Odisha migrants are also followed the same network system, i.e.,



prearranged job at destination may be by their friends, relatives or contractors at destinations, which more attract to migrate.

There are a number of migration based study available in literature with relate to Odisha migration; some of are highlights in origin based (Nayak 1993; and Mishra 1998; Wandschneider and Mishara, 2003; Jha, 2005) few in names. Other's are made attempt to study on destination based (Samal and Mishra, 1998). In the origin base study the researchers has attempted to find out networking and patterns of migrants. Their findings shows that the migrants of the state are move out of the state on their own accord with the help of friends and relatives and other co-villagers and some by labour contractors or agents. The migrant pattern studies shows that most of the migrants from origins are young, illiterate and from marginal farmer households. On the other hand, the destination based study reveals that distance has a positive association with income of the migrants that motivate migrant moved from far away to earning more as compared to short distance migrants. The study also reveals the age and educational level of the migrants are major decision factor, which induces the migrants to migrate from origin (Samal and Mishra, 1998). However, Jha (2005) origin based study on migration elucidates the changing patter of migrants in Odisha from traditional male dominated to female dominate pattern, particularly in the tribal districts for livelihood options. It also reveals that the stream of migration has changed from rural–rural migration in pre 1980's period to rural–urban migration (such as Delhi, Kolkata and Mumbai) cities. A study on Dadan labour structure of Odisha found that labourers of Odisha were taken too far off places like Jammu and Kashmir, Maeghalaya, Sikkim and even to the Arbian countries like Iraq and Iran. Most of them were recruited as a Dadan labourer, their origin from the rural and tribal areas of Keonjhar, Mayurbhanj, Sambalpur, Bolangir, Kalahandi, Ganjam and Puri districts of Odisha (Tripathy & Das, 1997). They also found that migrants from the different districts of Odisha were migrating with different aspiration and motives. For instances; migrant form back ward and tribal belt of Odisha such as undivided Bolangir, Kalahandi and Phulabani because of deforestation, increased pressure on land, lack of irrigation and recurring drought conditions due to poverty and unemployment, tribal's

have been migrating to outside their geographical boundaries as migrant labourer (Tripathy & Das, 1997).

Migration is common in almost all the districts of Odisha, however the more visible in coastal districts than in inland districts inhabitant where predominated by large number of socially and economically backward class people. For instance; migration is not largely taking place from undivided Phulbani (Kandhamala at present), Mayurbhanj, Bolangir and Sambalpur districts but it is taking place more in Ganjam, Puri, Cuttack and Balasore. The probable reason may be the available of well transport and communication facilities, hereditary influence and family contacts are some of the factors influencing people of these districts to migrate. Moreover, migration should not viewed as alternative source of livelihood for poor but it is an option for them to free from poverty and hunger for short period but effort should be geared to avoid risk indulgent migration process.

### **Ganjam context**

As we mentioned above the district Ganjam is recorded as the main district of Odisha where large number of migrants are out migrate to the than Java and Sumetra Island (at present in Burma province) for trade and merchant with aspirations of acquire bullion and gold. Lack of industrialisation and low land-man ratio makes worrisome for the people of this district to find employment adequately, neither in industrial nor in agriculture sector. Hence, traditionally this district represents large number of out migration and migrant pocket among the districts of Odisha. Further the unbalanced trade i.e., import exceed export thereby restricting the growth of labour employment in this sector owing to inadequate development of trade and business has aggravated the problem of migration from the district.

In the history of labour economics, the labour migration treated as the integral part of human development. Although, the phenomenon of migration is as old as the history of humankind, but it's impact is varying in various manners. However, the impact of labour migration is much in context of health, social, economic and demographic aspects at both origin and destination. However, the report of the labour commission of Odisha

conducted a study on inter states migrant labours from Odisha which pointed out largest number of migrants belonging from the district of Ganjam. Since the district of Ganjam ranks first in the list of having largest number of migrants from Odisha (Royal commission of India,1931). There are number of migration based study available able in literature among them two studies are pertaining to inter-state migrants in their places of origin in the undivided districts of Ganjam and Puri (Nayak 1993; and Mishra 1998). However, none of the past study attempt has made through lights on how internal migration impact on the child health in Odisha specifically in the Ganjam district, although migration has significant impact on the district Ganjam in social and economic and health areas.

## **2.5: Impact of Migration on Economic Development**

The concept of migration (Internal & International) impact on economic development and vice-versa has always been a contentious issue. Concerning this, there are two schools of thought 1).Migration is cause of economic development 2). Economic development is cause of migration. In each school of thought, they argue how migration and economic development is having positive and negative impact on each other. Due to migration the economic development, takes place both origin (by using cheap labour force) and destination (by sending remittance, skill and knowledge). Host societies have the opportunity to benefit from an influx of skills and knowledge. And home societies can benefit from resources remitted by people who have moved away, and from the return of migrants, armed with new skills, knowledge and information. On the other hand, followers of other school argued, due to better opportunity in terms of availability and accessibility, people are migrating. Nevertheless, the enormity of the migration has always created imbalances on the management of resources such as water, housing, electricity health facility, transportation both origin and destination.

The pattern and dimension of migration has changed a lot with the adoption of economic reform by Indian economy in late 1990's. Moreover, recent speed of globalization has given new shape to the trend of migration. It has affected the participation rate at the rural level in the context of common pool resources management. Migration becomes a

universal phenomenon in modern times. The process of migration becomes easier in the wake of liberalization, expansion of the means of communication, worldwide process of urbanization and industrialization. However, empirical evidence shows that large-scale migration is accompanied in most countries, with development of industrialization and economic development that always not true.

Undoubtedly, many researchers have propounded migration as an economic prospective of the migrants instead of looking at its negative consequences. Internal migration has positive and negative implications. Researchers have recognized that the positive side of internal migration is much stronger than the negative side. It has many economic implications for origin beyond remittances. For instance; in some sending region, low-skilled migration can raise demand for the remaining low-skilled workers at the margin, leading to some combination of higher wages, lower unemployment, less underemployment, and greater labour force participation. Thus, low-skilled migration can offer a valuable safety regulator for insufficient employment at home. In the long run, however, the ultimate aim of the state is to generate adequate employment and rapid growth, rather than relying on migration as an alternative to development opportunities.

On the other hand migrants' remittances do play an important role in reducing the incidence and severity of poverty but its impact on economic growth is clear in literature. It can directly increase the income of the recipient and can help smooth household consumption, especially in response to adverse events such as crop failure or at the time of health crisis. In addition to these direct benefits migrant remittance help households to diversify their sources of income (and thus reduce their vulnerability to risks) while providing a much needed source of savings and capital for investment. Remittances appear to be associated with increased household investments in health, education and entrepreneurship all of which have a high social return in most circumstances in long-run (World Bank, 2006)

However, evidence from the literature depicts that remittances from international migrants do play an important role in the country's internal and external position.

Internally it influences the community, household and individual level whereas the externally it influences the country's balance of payment and foreign exchange position. Nevertheless, remittances can have different levels of both positive and negative impact on the development of the origin country. In positive counts Bryant (2005) found that it improves the children's health and schooling and household income (financed by remittances) he also pointed out- coupled with strong involvement of the extended family, tended to mitigate the social costs of a parent's migration. In Filipino Survey Yang (2003), found that unanticipated increases in remittance lead to enhanced human capital accumulation and entrepreneurship in origin households with less child labor greater of entry in labour market (Yang, 2003). On the other hand, Battistella (1996) found that the children of migrant parents from Luzon and Philippines performed worse in school and trend to be less socially adjusted (particularly if the mother had emigrated) than children with both parents at home.

In India, numbers of micro studies reveal how internal migration helps people to escape from utter poverty and economic crisis. Despite poverty reduction, migration helps in enhancing the human capital (health and education) formation of the migrants' family members (Oberai, 1998). The labour-intensive manufacturing, construction and other urban basic services attract large number of migrant workers from under-developed regions in the nature of seasonal migration. Seasonal inter/intra migration has often resorted to as survival strategy in migrant households (Sharma, 2005). Recent studies on this count reveal that seasonal migration brings some economic and social changes especially in migrant household (World Bank, 2006). In India, generally, labour mobility is higher between rural/agricultural regions to the developed western and northern states such as Punjab, Maharashtra and Gujarat as major destination and metropolitans and second order metropolitan cities. Inter-state migration happens from the poorer eastern and central part of the country to the western advanced states. There is also much rural-urban movement of people within states with sharp regional inequalities. This rural-urban migration is very acute in the states like Andhra Pradesh, Tamil Nadu and Rajasthan (Jha, 2005).

Migrants are destined for work in many different subsectors of manufacturing, construction and services sector. There are large numbers of migrant workers are working in sand mining and stone quarrying industries in Rajasthan and Madhya Pradesh; power looms and diamond polishing business in Gujarat. The pattern of internal migration has changed dramatically in recent times. Study shows that in the early part of this decade migration used to happen from Bihar to Punjab for work in agricultural sector but the migrants now travelling to urban centres and industry (Sharma,2005).

Internal migration in India happens, not only due to development of industries and manufacturing opportunities, but also due to the factors such as low rate of job creation and decline in real wage rate in agriculture, worsening land-person ratio persistent drought. Nearly two-third of the arable area in India is semiarid and drought prone and many of these areas show very high rates of seasonal migration. A study in Odisha estimates that nearly 60,000 people migrated in the year 2001 from the Bolangir district of Odisha because of worst hit of drought (Wandschneider and Mishara, 2003). Past study reveals that rural–urban migration has a positive impact on urban growth and social development, which makes generation of employment opportunities and provision of health, education, transport and infrastructure facilities for the migrants (Ijer, 1994).

### **2.5.1: Brighter side of migration**

A conceptual model devised here to measure the degree of positive impact of internal migration on economic wellbeing over different layers of development units. These units may be of individuals, households, communities and economy as a whole. The multilevel economic impact of internal migration has conceptualized to capture how the migration has changed the economic scenario of both individual (migrant) and the place of origin and destination.

The past study on migration shows that people cross the boundary to escape insecurity in terms of social, political and economic. Sometimes it reveals that people migrate because of struggle to survive, access to utilization of resources, and to thrive in terms of financial and gaining knowledge. Although migration serves as the oldest action against poverty

reduction, at present migration and poverty is equally complicated and contentious issue. As indicated above, reduction of poverty and economic development is not necessarily the main cause of migrants' income (remittances). Again higher migration is not always associated with low economic development and high concentration of poverty. The link between economic development and migration is complex and context-specific. For instance, in internal migration-people migrate from Tamil Nadu to Kerala, to work as agriculture labourer in the cross border region. Similarly, in western Odisha from undivided KBK (Kalahandi, Balangir and Koraput) region people migrate to escape from livelihood insecurity and hunger. From coastal region of Odisha people migrate for net gain in terms of financial, knowledge and skill enhance and to access to resources utilization. Further, within the state, people from different region migrate in different part of the state in different aspirations. Hence, in literature there is no clear evidence that poverty reduced to a certain percentage point due to migration and migrants remittances in a closed economy.

Some researchers argue, migration flows from rural to urban areas are actively working to weaken the feudal traditions in rural, with increased inflow of resources and information and it improved understanding of the dignity of labour at the origin society. The macro level effects of migration on the rural areas from where the out migration takes place largely depend on the magnitude of the migration flow and the quantum of resource inflow in the rural belt. If migration takes place in an economic situation, which is, poised for rapid and healthy industrialization, not only will the rate of rural urban migration be the high but the inflow of resources to the rural area will also be large. The rural areas will feel the impact of a reduction in unemployment, disguised unemployment and income inequality and an added impetus to technological development. In the urban areas, migration will strengthen the small-scale industrialization process and impact in terms of the expansion of trade and commerce as a result rural-urban out-migration will be dynamite both rural and urban areas and the entire economy as a whole. The consequences of migration for the individual migrants and their households are more likely to be positive than the overall consequence of rural and urban areas. Oberai (1998) observed impact of migration on economic development cannot be derived only relying

on logical framework rather it requires some scientific and systematic empirical research (Oberai et al., 1989).

The positive impact of migration can be comprehended in the brighter side of migration and broadly it is observed in three categories such as (i) Economic impact (ii) Social impact (iii) Demographic impact.

### **2.5.1.1: Economic impact of migration**

Population mobility is inevitable to a settled nation. The restriction in nomadic phenomenon is one of the cruellest approaches were undertaken to force people to settle in one area. Generous documents available in literature that migration always not only one of the most powerful mechanisms for the redistribution of income through migrants remittances from rich to poor area, but also an indispensable means whereby poor households were able to diversify their incomes and ensure their survival strategy (Harris, 2004; Ellis and Harris, 2004). Other way migration treated as injection of income in terms of helping the poorest families to survive. It is also a vivid illustration of migration as means to diversify the income of poor households (particularly in the agricultural off-season) and so allowing most households to meet the costs of continuing to live in the same place.

Evidence from the literature depicts that migrants' remittances do play an important role in the country's internal and external economic status. As compared to international migration, internal migration has greater potential impact on health for eradication of poverty in meeting the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and contributing to economic growth in developing countries (Deshingkar,2006). In China, it is estimated that rural to urban migration was able to send home on an average of 4522 Yen (US\$545) during the year 2,000. In addition, they contributed to 16 per cent of total GDP growth in China over the past 18 years and rural to urban migration have remained one of the key reasons that China has been able to sustain a GDP growth rates above 8 per cent during the past 25 years (Liu et al., 2003). Similarly, in Bangladesh migrants in Dhaka use to send up to 60 percent of their income to origins and 80 percent of the household budgets supported by these migrants remittances (Asraf,2,000). In 2004, a migration survey of the



Vietnam shows that remittance not only has a direct impact on reduction of poverty but also it helps the rural Vietnam's to sustainability their livelihoods by preventing people from sliding further into poverty (Carling, 2005). In India, a survey conducted in twelve villages of Jharkhand state has found that 98 per cent of the migrants reported an improvement in their standard of living because of remittances from internal migration. Apart from this, the study also reveals that on an average the migrant household has increased 15 per cent more consumption spending in contrast to non-migrant households in study area (Deshingkar and Farrington, 2006). Another study on international migration from Kerala to gulf countries showed that remittances has been a significant contributor of alleviating poverty and reduction in unemployment than any other factors in Kerala. Moreover, during 1998, remittances made up nearly 10 per cent of the state's Gross Domestic Product (GDP), and it is twice what the state received from the central government by way of budgetary support (Zachariah et al., 1999).

Past studies relating to the economic impact of migration reveals that, migration is a vital livelihood strategy particularly for poorer households, although it has failed to elevate the economic status of all migrating households either in form of internal or international migration. It apparently evinces a study of economic impact of internal migration in Bihar by Sharma (1988) reveals that among the lower income groups, migration has raised the economic status of about 57 per cent of migrant families in terms of household income, 53 percent of asset holdings and 18 percent of saving improvement (Sharma, 1988). The theory of dualism had gone to the extent of considering this not merely an element but a prime indicator of development. It had seen as indicative of the expansion of relatively more productive industrialization and decrease in the dependence on less productive agriculture. Therefore, it is assumed that, rural-urban migration would always be voluntary and leads to generation of a new labour that would be more skilled and receive higher wages. Thus, this new labour would have experienced upward social mobility (Todaro 1977; World Bank, 1995). That rural-urban migrant were not actually entering the modern working class but were being absorbed into what could be called the 'informal-sector' (Breman, 1996). Several other works established that these migrants were stuck well below the poverty line (Sharma, 1988). They characterized as the

‘working poor’. Nevertheless, migration was not always voluntary and upwardly mobile and it is a compulsion generated in the interest of capital. Therefore, only where the pull factors operate that one could endorse the assumption of upward social mobility, because of rural-urban migration.

Seasonal labour migration is irreversibly part of the lives and livelihoods of many of the poorest sections of rural areas particularly in developing country like India. Migration is not just a means to cope with below subsistence agriculture debt, but it was seen in western India the changing agrarian lifestyles of the poor and marginal farmers. In nine years of observation in western India (Gujarat) evidences suggest that even a poor seasonal migrant brings or acquires a spouse, puts children into school (Harris, 2005).

Circulatory migration is treated as a mode of enriching human capital in sending and receiving regions. It not only impact on origin but also destination to develop the major development work of cities especially in the construction of building, highway and maintenance and development of infrastructure, hospital and city cleaning services etc. (Harris, 2005). Further, circulatory migration in India act as a ‘water for thirsty’ in agricultural sector. Generally, this circulatory migration brings a lump sum of money while they return to home. Although, these workers are often landless but they could live in precarious at home due to lump sum returns. In fact, these migrants are economically compelled to migrate as part of their earnings owing a several push and pull factors. The poor migrants have neither food stocks nor the possibility of hiring out their only resource that is what their own labour they are outsourcing. Hence, out-migration seemed to be one such means of survival and many people went for it, although migration itself involves much insecurity (Rafique, 2003).

The impact of migration can be assessed in terms of receipt of remittances. The positive impact of migration is much more pervasive than the problems associated with it. Migrants generally keep their link between the origin and destination by keeping regular visit. Indeed, this is treated as the most significant mode of linkage as it has a positive impact on the economy of rural households and the rural economy in general. More on it

is a means of meeting the social obligation of migrants towards their aged parents by providing for their well-being and of retaining and their inherited property rights. Further, the remittance has substantial impact on the improvement of the child health and well-being. Undoubtedly, migrants are able to save easily and send remittances on a lump sum basis to their relatives at origin. In general, remittances help their families left behind to sustain food security, have a pucca (cement and brick) house and meet expenses for farm inputs and social obligations. A study shows migrant remittance has substantial contribution to improve the financial capability to meet social and religious obligations (Jaitly,1987). Migrant from the farming households are able to save some portion of remittance beyond their expenditure at origin and destination. The amount of saving from remittances can be utilized for the marriage of their children and for asset accumulation (purchase of farming land and business in the nearby towns of the village). Remittances provide a significant source of income for the migrant households. Some study also observed that the share of remittance income is substantial at about half of the total household income of migrants' family (Connell,1976; Lipton,1988; Deshingkar and Start's,2003).

Literature cited from past study reveals that, there are number of factors, which play very important role and make decision to remit money to migrants household. Broadly, these factors are categorized in three types, i.e., demographic, social and economic factors. Among the demographic determinant of decisions on migrant remittance, marital status and size of the family member of the migrants is positively determining the remittance sending decision. Amount of income earning at destination and household property at origin (particularly in land property) economic variables are playing imperative role to determine the migrants' remittance decision. Level of migrants' education; duration of stay at urban set up and closeness ties with origin has strong influences the migrants' remittances (Chnad et. al., 1998). It is a fact that major portion of the remitted amount are spent only on consumption and to meet the day-to-day demand. But the impact of migrants' remittance depends on the size and usage. The complexity and enormous range of impact of migrants' remittances in rural areas has illustrated in a Philippines study undertaken by Trager (1984). The findings suggest that the impact of migrant remittances

in three perspective ways these are (a) for some families, remittances are a survival strategy that ensures subsistence but does not necessarily lead to a significant improvement in living standards. (b) for other families, remittances are a means which to invest in agriculture or in their children's education; and (c) relatively better-off families use remittances to invest in productive activities through purchasing agricultural land and growing cash crops (Trager, 1984). Besides these, consumption demand remittances also used for productive purposes like purchase of agricultural inputs, expenditure on education and health care (Chnad et al., 1998).

Migrants' remittances are some time determined by the modus-operandi available between destination and origin and requirement of sending members at origin. Often, migrants send their remittances through banks, trusted friends or by other family members according to the need of the household. Again, it depends upon the nature of migration such as seasonal or short term and permanent or long-term migration. In general, long-term or permanent migrants save some part of their income at their working place and part of their income sending as remittances beyond their consumption expenditure at destination. The short-term migrants send the whole amount while they are returning to home. Irrespective of migration nature, less than 50 per cent of their incomes are sending to their families as remittances (Paris et. al. 2005). Davis (1963), observed that population statistics in India, rural-urban migration is one of the multiple responses of the rural population to pressures on the economic well being of peasant families in the evolving economy (Davis, 1963).

Labour migration from rural to urban area is attributed to economic reasons (Dandaekar and Rath, 1971; Kundu, 1986). Rural poverty may be attributing to act as a pull and push factor for out migration. This migration has twin effects, one hand it reduces the rural poverty and other hand improves the rural economy. Similarly, the probabilistic models, hypothesizing these statements that rural-urban expected income differentials are much larger for the rural poor than the non-poor, hence the poor have a higher propensity to migrate to urban areas (Todaro, 1969; Harris- Todaro, 1970). This has proved analyzing two-stage migration process: in the first stage, migrants enter the 'urban traditional'

sector (informal sector), due to their limited access to the 'modern sector' (formal sector). On the second stage, with the rise in the duration of stay, workers in the urban traditional sector are likely to acquire skills and accommodate to the formal sector, or what he called, "eventual attainment of a more permanent modern sector job".

This is indicative of the fact that with a rise in the duration of migration, poverty is likely to decline, as migrants over time tend to acquire better access to information about the urban job market, and find more stable employment. The study shows, the decline in the incidence of poverty is not steady with respect to the rise in the duration of migration. The percentage of migrants below the poverty line is the highest among those who migrated 1-5 years ago, and the lowest among those who have been in Delhi for 12-15 years. Although the decline in the incidence of poverty is not in proportion to the rise in the duration of migration, it suggests that with a rise in the period of stay, migrants are able to improve their standards of living. (Banerjee and Bucci, 1994). It also argued that migration, in general, linked to expected future social and economic pay-offs in comparison with those in the present. Hence, a person is likely to have a greater chance of escaping poverty after migration but it is a free choice of migrants. The motivation to send out-migrant would be stronger for a poor than a rich household, although the capacity to "afford" migration is higher in case of the latter (but it may be true in international migration may not be in internal migration).

In general, a person migrates to urban areas for economic reasons, such as: expands his/her earning opportunities, and hence must have a negative impact on poverty. One may further stipulate that the relatively better off among the rural population are able to move to cities and towns, since in order to get a foothold in urban areas; one requires initial investment, certain skill levels and capacity to handle new technology. In addition, the capacity to migrate places the person at a higher pedestal than the locals (if it is a free and conscious decision) and helps in increasing her earnings. However, if urban poverty were a spill over of rural poverty (Dandekar and Rath, 1971), one would expect a higher incidence of poverty among the migrants than the non-migrants, since the average urban income happens to be significantly above that in rural areas. Poverty is not the key factor

behind seasonal migration. Kundu and Sarangi (2007) found that, mobility is not very high among the poor when compared to middle class households. With regard to this proposition the rural urban mobility is a factor in poverty reduction since the rural migrants into urban areas have a lower probability of being poor than the local population. It is possible that migration itself is the factor responsible for increasing the earnings of individuals, enabling them to go over the poverty line. Alternatively, one may argue that, largely the relatively better off sections that enable them to migrate to urban centers since moving to cities requires initial staying capacity and certain levels of skill and, consequently, poverty is low among rural-urban migrants. Migration, both from rural and urban areas, thus, emerges clearly as an instrument of improving economic well-being and escaping poverty for the adult population.

Noticeably, seasonal migration shows a significant impact in terms of increasing or reducing the probability of falling below poverty line. This supports the hypothesis, noted in the preceding section that seasonal (short duration) migration is not restricted to the rural poor struggling for survival, but is also common among better off households, shifting temporarily for better opportunities or posting to another village or town for a short duration is common in Indian states. Past study has records; inter or intra state has a significant social and economic changes; particularly, in rice cultivation in West Bengal and Sugarcane cultivation in Gujarat (Rogaly et .al, 2001). Seasonal migration has very powerful force that has relatively more economic and social impact as compared to other form of migration. It has twin effect both at origin and destination likewise; provides the employment opportunity in lean period at origin and reduces the labour supply at destinations. Further, on seasonal migration in many locations has enabled the migrant households are able to save some amount of cash, partly because of austerity and hard work at distant places (Weber, 1924; Breman, 1985; Epstein, 1973), which they could not have been able to do at home. And, partly because of a higher wage rate than the prevailing levels in their original areas ( Krishnaiah, 1997). By an large, both the origin and destinations are getting economic advantage (Rogaly et .al, 2001) due to seasonal migration. Seasonal migration from rural households in India, especially from semi-arid and similar inferior geographical locations, has been instrumental towards an

improvement of living conditions as well as some social changes at source areas (Hema Kumari, 1993; Krishnaiah, 1997; Rogaly, 1998; Chaudhuri, 1998; Gupta and Prajapati, 1998; Haberfeld et al., 1999; Rogaly et al., 2001;). The overview of the migration pattern reveals that economic deprivation is not the most critical factor in seasonal migration decisions although, short duration mobility is very high among the poor as compared to middle class households. A study of Kundu and Sarangi (2007) observes that both poor and rich households report out-migration, but the reasons for sending and the nature of jobs sought by them are different (Kundu and Sarangi, 2007).

The positive impact of migration on Kerala's economy is examined by many researchers. In Kerala, migration is considered as the 'Vehicle of Economic Growth'. It brings cheer on the face of members of family in Kerala (Zachariah et.al., 2001).

#### **2.5.1.2: Impact of migration on demographic**

A plenty of past literature have shown, positive impact of migration on demographic events particularly in the fertility regulation by using contraceptive. A study also reveals migration has positive effect on family size or to adhere small family norms. In recent years, there has been a rapid growth of interest in the study of the relationship between migration and fertility. There has been little study on migration and its relationship with fertility particularly in India since the inception of family planning era (Rogaly, 2001). While much research interest has focused on the economic conditions or demographic behaviours of the migrants in the destination areas, concern is growing over the impact of return migration on women's position and reproductive health related attitudes and behaviours in the sending areas (Davin 1999 and 2005; Murphy 2002; Zheng and Xie, 2004; Roberts and Connelly, 2007). It is generally believed that migrants' women are profoundly affected by their experiences under the influence of the urban culture and when they return they will take back with them to the villages notions of love, small families, and different expectations of women's roles and greater aspiration for their children (Davin, 1996, 1999, 2005). Consistent with this view on migration, recent study finds that the diffusion effects of migration on contraceptive knowledge and use are strong in rural-urban migration (including migration to high-income international

destinations) (Lindstrom and Muniz-Franco, 2005; Maharatna,2000). Some study argues that migrants change the social norms through social interactions that support to decline the fertility (Montgomery and Casterline, 1996; Bongaarts and Watkins, 1996; Goldman et.al., 2001; Maharatna, 2000). This hypotheses is reconfirmed in the recent in a study of rural-urban migration and it effect on family planning an reproductive behaviour by Chen (2008) has shows that rural-urban migration is an important mechanism of diffusion of family planning and reproductive health attitudes and behaviours in sending areas in rural China. It is found that women living in a rural sending community and have experience of rural-urban migration, experiences is more likely to have adopted family planning and reproductive health related attitudes and behaviours as compared to non-migrant women, regardless of their own migration experience. In spite of migration brings some economic changes rural-urban migrants has potential of diffusion of new fertility norms, contraceptive knowledge and reproductive health related behaviour in sending areas of rural China (Jiajian Chen, 2008).

Often seasonal migration is treated as an adverse effect on both destination and origin, because absence of migrants in the peak period while taking decision at household ( at the time of requirement) that negative effect at destination and due to short period they are more likely to be unemployed at destination (Jaitly,1987). However, the positive pervasive is much more to source areas than the negative one. In the context of impact of seasonal migration in family planning behaviour particularly in rural-urban migrants, the following observations have made on the return migrants'. Seasonal rural-urban migration bringing about ideational change among traditional rural folk and have some echo into the role of fertility behaviour among seasonal migrants that could able to regulate fertility control in the source areas (Maharatna, 2003). The study confirmed that these return migrants not only have lower fertility themselves, but also spread these norms in the rural areas. Migrant usually return with new ideas, attitudes and values acquired during their stay in the cities and the people at their native place often seek their advice and listen to them with respect (Bhatia and Sabagh, 1980). Indeed, the significance of this mechanism gets even reinforced by the possibility that people who migrate are often found somewhat more innovative, dynamic and open to ideas, as



compared to those who do not migrate and stay behind. For instance, a recent comparative study of demographic features between migrants and non-migrants in Tamil Nadu, and Santal tribal women in West Bengal has shown a higher levels of contraceptive prevalence and lower levels of fertility measures among the migrants from rural areas than those found not only among rural non-migrants, but also among urban non-migrants (Sivakumar, 2001; Maharatna,2003). While this differential perhaps reflects selectivity of rural migrants by socio-economic background, the distinct influence of migration on demographic behaviour cannot be ignored. Similarly, some other study reveals seasonal migration by women workers (not necessarily tribals) in various Indian regions has observed an increased female age of marriage and decline fertility among the migrant women, both of which have been labelled as 'positive' consequences of migration (Hema Kumari and Tataji, 1998). Further, they also argue that seasonal migration has a significant predictive power for contraceptive use (and fertility reduction), very possibly by enhancing levels of aspiration as well as by paving the way through augmented scope for social interactions for enhanced diffusion of ideas and knowledge relating to fertility regulation (Maharatna, 2003). Concisely it confirmed that migration has positive impact on source areas based, even if a short duration or seasonal migration.

### **2.5.1.3: Social Impact of migration**

Internal migration not only helps to boost the economic status of the migrants through remittance but also it helps to enhance the social status of the migrants at origin. Study of sexual behaviour of migrants' and their perceptives have been documented that internal migration has gained sexual favour to the migrants at origin after returning from destination due to increase in the social status (Poudel, 2004). Hence, internal migration not only increases income but also social status and stature of the migrants and their family at origin.

Migration also has profound influences on the left behind wives, children and family members at the origin in the absences of migrants. Study by (Gulati, 1987; Hugo, 1995; Hadi, 1999) shows that, in the absence of husband overall status of women improves both

in the inside and outside of the household. As they have greater access to money, which they can spend as they wish; they have the freedom of movement; and they can take independent decisions regarding the education of their children and type of treatment to be given to them if they fall sick. More or less migration is viewed as beneficial in terms of enhanced income or even survival or livelihood but also it acts as medium of information sources along with the money. Besides this benefit generated due to migration the cost of migration never ignored. Nevertheless, the cost of the migration cannot always be measurable in pecuniary terms, as extra hardships and insecurity that generally fall on male migrants' wives, who stay back at home, often with single-handed responsibility of caring children and elderly can be only found in researchers' notes, rather than in any clear-cut balance sheet designed to estimate net benefit of migration. Taking all these background into consideration the amount of sacrifice and benefit born due to migration researcher cannot undermine the type of verdict in the literature on the impact of migration.

The diversified nature of impact of migration study put emphasis researcher on their own interest on consequences of male outmigration on women left behind families (Gulati, 1987; Jetley, 1987 and Karlekar, 1995; Rogaly et. al., 2001) especially in Indian states. They found that family left behind the migrants is the most imperative stimuli which phenomenon on circular migration. Recent ongoing study by World Bank reveals, among the family members left behind the young migrant left the women behind, and this provides perhaps, the most important and powerful determinant of return migration besides left behind women family, and life style also influence the decision of return and circular migration, rather than income opportunities (Gibson and McKenzie, 2009). Further, the study of seasonal or circular pattern of migration Paris et.al (2005) found older age cohort migrant are longer in labour market in comparison to younger age cohort; because of the left behind families and family attachment, particularly to wife, is stronger in later choice. Similarly better educated is long term in destination place as compared to lower educated, because of higher possibilities of unemployment in destination in unavailability of job to suit their knowledge and skills. Further their findings indicate that the long-term migrants who are better educated have better

employment (regular and secure) and better paying opportunities. Add to this, the study revalidates the hypotheses of Todaro (1969) that educated people who command a higher probability of obtaining long-term employment in the urban labour market are more likely to migrate than the illiterate ones (Paris et. al. 2005). Goldscheider (1987) viewed migration as a vehicle or mechanism of moving traditional people into contact with modernity, linking return migration to social change in rural areas. The linkages of migration and social change are not mechanical or automatic but involve a process of direct diffusion of urban modernity to rural areas.

Migrants not only increase the economic status of the household but also increase the level of empowerment, autonomy and decision-making. A study in Kerala Migrants reveals before the migration none of the migrants wives name had bank account after the migration they immediately open the bank account to cash the money, which had received through migrants remittances. This avails women's more financial autonomy and opportunity in mobility to outside home. Earlier, they were not exposed to banks and were unaware of banking procedure (Gulati, 1993). More on it absence of husbands, women's awareness increases considerably regarding the range of goods and services for purchase or use. Women seem now to be able to make a much greater impact on the husband's thinking and decision-making than before (Gulati, 1993; Hugo, 1995; Hadi, 1999). With improved finances, the general availability of items of daily consumption improves considerably with up-gradation in the household's living standard during the years following the migration; childcare occupied the pride of place while improved the economic status of the migrant household. Particular attention has been given to food, medical care and education of children. Migrants themselves reportedly enquired of children's health and education and urged qualified medical attention in case a child fell sick and additional tutorial help in case a child would, as a result, do better in school (Gulati, 1993).

Number of rural-urban out-migration study reveals that the money flow from outside the village has significant importance to individual, household and overall development of the village. Despite, major part of the migrants' remittances uses in consumption

purposes and it acts as injection during crises period. Hence, the visible affect of migration remittances has been ignored. A study of international migration in Kerala state reveals that migrant has worked abroad for a sufficient length of time (more than four years) the wife possessed a great deal more jewellery than she did before the husband's migration (Gulati, 1987). The study also shows that the person migrated to Gulf country could make at least an income four times larger as compared to pre migration status. Some may argue long absence of husband has negative effect in household decision-making. However, the study reveals migrants women learn to manage things on their own, they tend more and more to take independent decision in many matters and in the process want to be less and less dependent on relatives and gain in confidence to live independently (Gulati, 1987).

Century long migration treated as in chronic social and economic breakdown process. Particularly, internal rural-urban migration is seen as a major mechanism for the redistribution of resources from richer to poorer localities and a vital means of raising the incomes of the poor. Temporary circulatory migration for the purposes of training would seem to be the best outcome, so that migration becomes a means to enhance the human capital of developing countries for the task of reducing world poverty. Most of the backward Indian states have relatively higher population growth; migrations become an inevitable process for their economic development and reduce the poverty of these backward states. However, there is more concerning is that, such movements often take place because of the inadequate development of transport and communications. The major economic factors responsible for male migration in urban areas are poverty establishment of non-household industry the difference of industrial income and level of urbanization. The role of tertiary sector not found to be very significant in the results. Effective measures should take to eradicate rural poverty and to develop the rural sectors, small towns and cities so that they absorb their population (Kohil and Kothari, 1998).

Now that the agenda for developing countries have transformed, supposedly, to a single-minded attempt to reduce poverty is embodied in the Millennium Development Goals (MDG). Governments have embraced a remarkable reversal of policy by now seeking not

to block migration or expel people from the cities, but to facilitate mobility and the protection of families on the move. Parallel to this recognition of the positive and important role of internal migration in redistributing income between rich and poor areas, in alleviating poverty, has come the increasing awareness that the same generalization applies to international migration. There is a school of thought, which rejects the argument that worker remittance flows are an unmixed benefit. First, it is suggested that such sources of income are inherently unstable, and that long-term dependence upon them forces families to sacrifice local development (so that they could earn an adequate income while staying at home) to migration, to the export of labour resources. The point is strengthened by empirical studies, which show that often the bulk of remittance revenue is spend on immediate household consumption, rather than devoted to saving and investment to expand the productive base of the local area. The argument reproduces one of the traditional arguments against internal migration. As noted earlier, migration is one of the most important mechanisms for the redistribution of wealth from rich to poor areas. Most of this migration is internal. Take the example of China with something of the order of between 98 and 120 million migrants outside the province of their birth, remitting sums to families left behind now nearly equal to 60 per cent of rural household incomes (that is, a greater proportion than is earned in farming) (Liu,2003). Internal migration not only improves the economic status of migrants household but also it develops many newly independent town, cities and urban development. It also attributed to the damage inflicted by colonialism or capitalism and assumed that the newly liberated powers of the State could be used to end territorial inequalities and create the economic homogeneity across the national territory which was supposedly the promise of nationhood.

It is documented in literature the propensity to migrate differs significantly among various socio economic groups of society persons belonging to some sections are more mobile than those of other groups and consequently the overall effect of migration is likely to be different for different groups of the society. Thus, it is important to consider the social background of the migrants from rural areas in order to assess the differential impact of migration on different socio economic groups. Past studies on internal

migration have documented that higher out migration rate by social caste, larger families and more social contact household due to operation of different factors such as education, possession of land social contacts etc associated with different caste groups (Singh et.al, 1980). Detail empirical analysis suggest that irrigation intensity and regeneration of forests have direct impact on reducing distress out migration (Rao, 2,000; Gulati and Chopra, 2001). It also recorded that creation of common property rights and ownership of cattle stock has a significant and negative impact on distance migration. Besides smoothing income, flows from migration by providing employment during the agricultural lean season, temporary migration and commuting to urban centres are undertaken for increasing disposable income, which is then, invested in a variety of production, and consumption uses (Harris, 2004). However, the relative importance of migration is highly context specific as are its effects on the local agricultural economy and poverty reduction.

It is a fact that lack of systematic information on flow of internal remittance has restricted the researcher to comprehend the impacts of economic development and poverty reduction. However, countries like India and China where internal remittances is more powerful and much larger as compared to international remittances because of the larger numbers of people involved in this process. In China a Ministry of Agriculture sample survey of 20,089 rural households estimated that in 2004, the remittance contribution by migrant workers to rural household incomes was about to overtake earnings from agriculture (Liu, 2003). Further, a constraint is dearth of nationally representative data on internal remittances impediment to understand the impact of health on internal migration remittances. However, there is mounting evidence made through micro-studies as well as survey that migration reduces poverty, inequality and contributes to overall growth and development. A study conducted by the World Bank shows that migration can generate significant economic gains for migrants' origin as well as country of destination (World Bank, 2006). Migration also can have important demographic, economic, social and political consequences for both the country of origin and destination of migrants (Asfar, 2003). However, internal migration should not be viewed as a substitute for economic

development for both origin and destination unless devising sound domestic economic policies.

There are substantial evidences in the literature that migration helps in reducing socio-economic inequalities between areas of origin and the place of destination. Identifying push and pull factors does shed some light on the reasons for migration, but it is perhaps more useful to see migration as one of the options can be opted by the poor for managing their risks of hunger and sustaining their lives and livelihoods. If people felt that their current place of residence provide them with adequate chances for secure lives, free of poverty, and with the prospect of improvement; then they would not feel forced to move as migrants. Understanding dynamics of migration as part of the range of poor people's livelihood options has important policy implications in recent times. Migration and migrants should not be considered as problems to be dealt with. The process of migration presents both challenges and opportunities. This cannot be divorced from the wider international system of economics and politics as it shapes the lives of the poor. The planners, policy makers and the development thinkers should not view the economic problems arises out of migration in a narrow perspective rather the long term benefits accrues to the economy in terms of remittances and remittances based financing development. Effective governance through a favourable migrant policy may serve as an alternative tool for economic development.

### **2.5.2: Negative Impact of Migration**

Despite a number of positive effects of migration, based on the empirical evidences researchers have also concluded that migration has some gloomy sides. These are either in economic, health status of migrant or their family members and many social implication aspects.

#### **2.5.2.1: Effect of Migration on Health**

Some scholars have observed the negative effects of migration on health. Migration may worsen health outcomes in the short run because origin families have less money to sustain themselves than they would have if household heads remained home. It was

observed that migrants remitted to origin families, may not improve familial health, mostly remittance at origin used for consumption needs and debt repayments (Casillas Moreno, 1985; Kanaiaupuni, 1995; Stephens, 1990). On the other hand, the absence of male members in the household translates into a marked increase in agricultural work, including a wide range of farm tasks, a heavier workload, and less time for domestic tasks and childcare for women, which deteriorate the health status of the children. Apart from increased responsibilities, frequent thoughts about the safety of migrant husband add to mental stress of left behind wives. Thus, the added responsibilities of managing family, children and financial matters, anxiety about safety of husband and self, and the problems associated with isolation, altogether create a condition of stress among left behind wives (Gupta and Prajapati, 1998). However, there is hardly any available literature focusing on mental stress on wives left behind by migrants. Thus, the disruption of social ties and family life that occur during migratory moves, especially in situations of poverty and crisis, it also increases the risk of (Sexual Transmission Infection) STIs as migrants find new sex partners at destinations. This suggests that the prevalence of RTIs/STIs may be higher among the left-behind wives of migrant men than among the wives of non-migrant men. Therefore, migration has become a new focus of reproductive health care programs in developing countries at present time. The main reason for this concern is that Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome (AIDS) and other Sexually Transmitted Diseases (STDs) spread faster in a population when it becomes more mobile (Armstrong 1995; Decosas et al., 1995; Population Report, 1998). Studies have shown in Sub-Saharan Africa and in many Asian countries (Population Reports, 1998) that single male migrants have a much higher chances of getting sexually transmitted diseases (STD) and AIDS. The more people move the faster AIDS and other STDs can spread because migrants become carriers of such infections and they expose their wives to such infections whenever they visit home (Carr- Harris, 1993; Decosas et al., 1995).

Many parts of the world, including India, some studies have been conducted to find out a link between male out-migration and HIV/AIDS. Single male migrants get indulged in extra-marital sexual relations at the place of destination. As they are away from their wives, separated from their families and regular sex partners for long periods, may



encounter loneliness or even a sense of isolation in a country or region where the language and cultural practices are alien (Haour-Knipe, 2000; Population Reference Bureau, 2001) are countered by any type of sexual disease. Some studies (Carlier, 1999; Azarcon, 2000; Mishra, 2002; Luire et.al., 2003) have found that migrants who are settled with their families often have less risky sexual behaviour than those migrants who migrate without their families. Because, some migrants quickly become part of a new peer group, including a new sexual network. Here one can argue that increase target intervention programme can check the spread of this disease. However, study in past observed that the incidence of condom use among migrant workers is low because of poor accessibility, hesitation in buying condoms, uncertainty about the protection they provide, and reluctance to use them in intimate or steady relationships (Cruz and Azarcon, 2000).

Besides migration impact on reproductive health, it has also impact on the overall health status of the migrants and their left behind family members. Many past studies have also recorded, migrants often living in poor hygienic, congested and in accessibilities of the basic facilities at destination that deteriorate the health status. They are also deprived of all type of health facilities at destinations.

#### **2.5.2.2: Effect of Migration on Economic**

Study specifically attributes rural urban migration as the cause of urban poverty. Studies have revealed migrations economic benefits do not necessarily translate into adequate support for families at home also migration of household's heads means the temporary absence of a primary source of economic and social support and rural-urban out-migration as the cause of urban poverty (UNPFA, 1993; Kanaiaupuni, 1995;). The additional source of income through remittances does not substantially change the economic status of family nor helps it come out of its subsistence level. A little more food and a few basic needs to reduce their poverty is all they get in return for prolonged displacement of family life, emotional deprivation and insecure future, except for a possible bridge for their children to go to the big city. Indeed, male migration actually enhances both the physical and financial burdens on the women, in terms of overwork,

leading to poor health and indebtedness. Absence of male member in the household, women need to run the household on a daily basis till such time as the cash remittance, usually inadequate, arrives, as also cope with the children and family relationships also enhances emotional stress and tensions. In India, male who are pushed by structural poverty and enter in migration streams as a survival strategy that dominate in the seasonal migration pattern. While male migration provides economic relief to their families, left behind wives have to bear the burden of increasing responsibilities of managing their households, and meet social expectations, which leads to greater mental stress.

For instance, out-migration of the economically active adult population might create shortage of labour force to work on land for enhancing its productivity. A sustained shortage of effective labour force may therefore lead to further degradation of land and other productive resources thus, may have adverse environmental implications. What is worse is, this kind of migration especially, of the adult male, increases the burden on the family members who stay back, i.e., the elderly and the women (Myers, 1995).

To quote Skeldon's view (1997) "migration does not necessarily make migrant better off, indeed some become further impoverished by moving from one place to another". Migration itself is dangerous, transgressive, and a source of conflict because it 'stretches the boundaries between the fulfilment of personal/individual ambitions and wider social responsibilities' (Gardner and Osella, 2003). Family members remaining in villages too – often the old, children or the disabled – faced difficulty meeting food, fodder and fuel needs with limited resources, or accessing assistance or credit. For a few, migration is a route of upward social and economic mobility; but for the vast majority migration not only perpetuates debt and dependence, but exposes the poorest to extreme hardship and cruel exploitation. However, massive rural- urban migration flows creates numerous social and economic problems both in the place of origin and destination (Rhoda, 1980; Borjas, 1983 and Kannappan, 1985). The large male out-migration increases the burden of performing agricultural, animal husbandry and other economic activities on the women (Bora, 1996). Increasing rural-urban migration had much to contribute towards inflation, overcrowded housing, open sewage, street congestion, depressed wages, rampant

unemployment, petty crime and general social disorder in cities. Young girls and boys slept in the open air and made money out of selling their labour and bodies to anyone who wanted to buy.

Study of impact of internal 'Brain Drain' through internal migration in Indian states has not well documented in literature. An examination of census data Maharatana (2003) provides evidence on large out-migration of qualified and skilled human power from states like West Bengal to relatively faster growing areas in the country affecting the efficiency and economy of the home state. The evidence and imprint of incessant flows of population movements from one place to another is just much too germane to deserve a special mention, especially to those with some interest in the history of human civilization.

### **2.5.2.3: Effect of Migration on Social Practices**

Worldwide, human migration perceived as undesirable by governments, policy-makers and urban planners, particularly in rural-urban migration. Due to the migrant population in cities, living in squatter and slum settlement is showing an upward trend and the mushrooming growth of slum population exerts increased pressure on provision of minimum basic services such as housing, water supply, health, education and other basic infrastructure including sanitation facility. Supply of these services is one of the biggest challenges to all urban planners and policy-makers. The overcrowding of migrant population in unskilled badly paid insecure jobs in the urban labour market often working under appalling conditions there is virtually no investment on human capital in the case of poorer households. However, the consequences of in-migration in urban areas are likely to mix. Given the prevailing structure of the industrial and trading sectors in the urban areas, in migrants from rural areas are more likely to crowd the informal sector (Kannapan, 1983). The negative aspect of urban in-migration is related to overcrowding and congestion in the cities. Migration can both cause and caused by poverty and contributing factor to urban environmental degradation (Sundari, 2005).

Some researcher view migration has many negative social implications. For instances; absence of male member in the household increases the burden of work in women. It is happening with the migrants' families; generally, absence of male migrants leads more workload to women inside and outside of the household. On the other hand, male migrants have diminishing supply of labour for male and share farm task, women must have to depend on hired labourer at origin during absence of the male members. Nevertheless, absence of husband makes the life of a wife more difficult. Besides her workload, as she has to take care of several other things, which culturally are done by men. Apart from doing the regular household chores and taking care of children, she has to work in agricultural fields, look after the livestock, and manage all the outdoor work (Jaitly, 1983). In the absence of husband, a woman feels isolated (Bose, 2,000). A study on 'Filipino wives' (Go et al., 1983) and 'gulf wives' in India (Gulati, 1983) found that wives experience a certain amount of emotional stress when they have to bear the responsibility of making decisions in the absence of their husband.

Historically, human mobility system is always encompass male dominate, leaving families behind at the place of origin, and it also a predominant form of migration in many African, Latin American and Asian Countries (Population Report, 1998). This form of migration has wide social implications on left behind families. Apart from this, absence of husband increases the responsibility of managing the household affairs (such as financial crisis, education and health related problems of children, and additional work). Past study has found that women in migrant household are taking independent decisions, particularly related to seeking treatment during sickness, and education of children whereas non-migrant households husband takes most of the decisions (Jaitly, 1983). Although, women's involvement in decision-making is a positive sign of their autonomy, but when they are forced to take that role in the absence of husband, they might have to undergo severe mental stress, as they are illiterate and less exposed to the outside world in a male dominated society. In such a situation, their dependence on others (family members and friends) increases even for petty things. More on, presence of adult males in the family provided left behind wives a kind of protective umbrella and saved them from potential exploitation. The women in these de facto female-headed households

project themselves as the 'behind-the-scene' decision-makers, while trying to live according to the expectations of the patriarchal ideology, conferring the role of major decision-maker on the absentee husband. Thus, male migration from the poor peasant or landless households by itself neither leads to a greater autonomy for women nor pulls the family out of its poverty (Jetley, 1987). The longer the duration of stay of the migrant in the city and the greater the distance between his home and place of work, the weaker are his ties with his rural family and the greater the insecurity of the woman at home. At the same time, due to disruption of social ties and family life that occur during moves, especially in a situation of poverty and crisis, there is an increased risk of sexually transmitted infections (STIs) as many migrants find new sex partners at the place of destination.

Study in left behind of Bihar migrants by Gupta and Prajapati (1998) reveal seven percent of the left behind wives neighbours provided help in outdoor chores, but 16 percent of them had to do such jobs by themselves. However, one can argue that migration of men provides some economic relief to their families, but the women have to pay a heavy price in the form of excessive physical and mental stress. It does not improve the health status of left behind women; rather, it puts them at a greater risk of developing mental stress and acquiring deadly diseases like STDs and HIV/AIDS (Gupta and prajapati, 1998). A large number of both types of members had reported that they could not participate in the process of decision making in family matters during the period of migration. Also more than 20 percent members had perceived that they were unable to take care of their aged family members during this period that is an important responsibility supposed to be undertaken by them (Gupta and prajapati, 1998).

However, in India, more specifically the backward and tribal dominated areas seasonal labour migration has become an irreversible part of the livelihoods of rural 'adivasi' communities in, primarily to major urban centres for construction work or as casual labourer. The significance of labour migration in the context of failing subsistence agriculture and debt, and the experience of migration itself, has explored elsewhere (Mosse et al., 2002). These migrants are those for whom migration is a defensive survival

strategy; people, who in the monsoon season trade their labour in distant urban sites for cash advances from recruiters to meet the urgent need for food, and who are most completely tied into relations of dependence and exploitation. By whatever route they get there, at work sites migrants experience long hours, hard work, harsh conditions, injuries (with inadequate medical help or compensation), and social isolation and humiliation. Besides these they are residing with lack of all basic amenities in destination including prime requirement of water scarcity and encampments and migrants have to negotiate access to it from construction sites or private houses rather than the municipality. Add to this, migrants face harassment, abuse, theft, forcible eviction by the police, or the demolition of their dwellings by urban authorities.

The abuse of 'adivasi' migrants closely related to their lack of identity or dwellings in urban places. Here they stand out as marginal, transitional people. They are subject to prejudice, stigmatized and criminalized, falsely accused them of theft or looting, and detained and beaten by police. When men held in remand, women left without support. The harsh conditions amplified for women by their gender roles and the simultaneous demands of work and childcare, by the need to undertake heavy work and long hours when pregnant. Besides these sexual exploitation by masons, contractors, the police and others which is routine with them but silenced by fear and economic or marital insecurity (i e, unreported for fear of loss of work or domestic violence). Migrant women describe fear at night and fitful sleep in exposed places. For the most part children at worksites have no care or shelter – 'they spend their days crying'. Often it is observed older children either work or are needed to care for younger siblings. Nutrition is poor often limited to 'roti' with 'chilli' or 'onion' for migrant worker and their children (Mosse et al., 2002). Although, migrant workers are employed in far below the legal minimum wages (especially piece-rate jobs), but payment is often late or withheld, particularly towards 'the end of the season. This indicates the power has firmly shifted from employee (coaxed with advances) to the employer, and when migrants are under pressure to return home for the cultivation season' (Mosse et al., 2002). The non-payment and under-payment of wages is a regular occurrence with migrants. Migrants have no power to redress these issues. Knowing this, if labourers or their 'mukkadams' suspect a

contractor, they are quite likely to cut their losses by decamping in the night with whatever wages they have. For a majority, however, labour migration is linked to long-term indebtedness, fails to generate net cash returns, and perpetuates below-subsistence livelihoods. Migration, then, is both determined by and amplifies existing social inequalities. It may index migration neither transforming social mobility, nor the erosion of rural ways of living. It may, paradoxically, have become the only means by which settled agricultural livelihoods (as ideal and practice) are possible or sustainable; although survival that is dependent upon migration and its individualized earning or the loss of reciprocity is also transgressive and brings moral risk. Some perceive repeated seasonal migration as having a significant negative impact on community institutions at village level, and on intra-household relations ( Mosse et al.,1997; 2002).

More on the study of seasonal migration particularly from rural to urban areas in the East- Jharkhand-South-West Bengal region, migrants to have been excluded from house-building grants earmarked for poor families, such as Indira Awas Yojana, because they were deemed likely to be absent during the stipulated period for building at origin places (Jetley, 1987). However, in the destination based study seasonally migrant women did not gain access to Integrated Child Development Scheme (ICDS) facilities were greeted with derision. The study also found that frequent travel of seasonal migrants is not using any safe mode of transport. Migrants fear seeking treatment for ill-health when working at the destination, not just because they usually have to repay the employer for the cost of the treatment, but also (and especially) because of loss of wages. At the very least, free health care might be campaigned for; sick pay is a long way off for casual workers anywhere. Migrants struggle to keep children at school, including many children themselves. Social debts are made with kin; children return to take exams; at least one child migrated to earn the cost of clothes to wear to school. However, the schooling system has not responded to the seasonal requirements dictated by agricultural cycles, either in source or destination areas. In addition, study observed that increasing seasonal migration bare the migrants' children from primary school and increasing school dropout ratio as well as decreasing school attendance up to 40 percent in origin areas, mainly migrant of

agricultural labourers in the cultivation seasons. Many were covering for parents busy earning a wage. (Jetley, 1987).

India faces a huge challenge with “distress seasonal migration”. Millions of families are being forced to leave their homes and villages for several months every year in search of livelihoods. These migrations mean that families are forced to drop out of schools, something that closes up the only available opportunity to break the vicious cycle generation after generation. At worksites, migrant children are inevitably put to work. All evidence indicates that migrations are large and growing. The number of children below 14 years of age thus affected, may already be in the order of 9 million (America India Foundation, 2006) Migrant populations overwhelmingly belong to Scheduled Caste, Scheduled Tribes, and Other Backward Castes. They comprise the landless and land poor who possess the least amount of assets, skills or education. Studies reveal that the majority of migrant labour is to found states like Andhra Pradesh, Rajasthan, Karnataka, Gujarat, Tamil Nadu and Maharashtra. Almost all major states appear to be affected by migration, although to varying degrees. Many industrial and agro-industrial sectors like brick-making, salt manufacture, sugar cane harvesting, stone quarrying, construction, fisheries, plantations, rice mills and so on run largely on migrant labour. However, recent evidence indicates that migration decision (even relating to seasonal type) often, depends not only on economic circumstances of migrants’ home area, but it was also influenced by several complex considerations including socio-cultural factors (Kalam 1997; Mahadev and Racine 1997; and Rogaly 1998). For instance, as Breman (1996) has argued based on evidence in Gujarat that, people forced to migrate not because of inadequate employment opportunities in their local areas, but rather due to denial of local employment to them. Indeed this type of seasonal migration has a long history tracing back to pre-colonial and colonial periods, particularly in the tribal-concentrated regions like central India (Bates and Carter, 1992). Seasonal migration often portrayed as a survival strategy of a very vulnerable group, who are not able to extricate themselves from acute poverty at home (Breman 1985, 1996). In this perspective, the seasonal migration hardly seen as a route to upward mobility – produces serious negative influences, especially on matters like labour relations, children’s schooling and health



care, living conditions and women's safety from sexual abuse (Rao and Rana 1997; Rogaly, 1998).

This is because, while seasonal wagedworkers are among the poorest people, they and their children are often excluded from geographically based interventions by their absence. National level estimates indicate that rural employment outmigration has 'probably' increased for India as a whole (Sen, 1997). In general, the work migrants do, whether in agriculture, industry, construction or forestry, is mostly arduous, low-status, and badly paid. Manual workers in rural India are informally contracted, sometimes through intermediaries, and, like most rural workers worldwide, do not have effective collective bargaining mechanisms or legal protection from harsh employment practices (ILO, 1996). Despite poor bargaining power often migrant workers face sexual harassment, heavy work-loads, and the adverse health consequences of poor living conditions, migration is not always the 'menace' (for the migrant workers concerned), that it is made out to be. Women migrants have reported sexual harassment from employers, contractors and - in the case of mixed migrant groups male migrant workers too (Banerjee, 1989-90). Children in general are likely to suffer ill-effects from family disruption associated with seasonal migration. 'Migration often aggravates existing tensions among and between men and women provoking conflicts, for example, between brothers competing for influence or fathers/uncles and sons/nephews' (Mosse et al, 1997). The study also gives seasonal migration as a cause of strained marital relations, sometimes because of new liaisons formed in migration destinations by both women and men, or if women who stay behind return to their natal homes in protest. The large number of rural urban migrations erodes the attitude of the locals – wariness towards newcomers, who are seen as competitors, increasing labour supply, reducing wages and causing unemployment.

The changing new patterns of Indian migrants system observed in recent past; even in the tribal and backward areas. In this region large number of single female for search of livelihood, which is earlier male dominated (Jha, 2005). To drive out poverty tribal families nowadays are sending unmarried daughters to cities in search of work. However,

single women and tribal girls are more prone to exploitation not only by employers but also by anti-social elements. A district level survey of Sundargarh, district of Odisha reveals nearly 63 percent of the tribal girls are migrating to cities in search of livelihood. Often found sexual exploitation, trafficking of women and sometimes-poor health and diseases appear as the consequence of such migration. In case, the adult male members migrate with their immediate families (i.e., their spouse and children) to urban centres they often end up living in slums or pavements that can hardly be treated as appropriate living conditions with human dignity. Researcher like Maharatna (2003) found that internal migration not only encompass the matters of flow of two regions (i.e., sending and receiving). Beyond that, one has to observe the attributing characteristics due to migration flow. A quote an example of America and Europe, he has explained, America benefited substantially from the early European emigration chiefly by young adults during the 16<sup>th</sup> and 17th centuries (Maharatna, 2003). Due to the brain drain receiving area are get benefited in the cost of sending region. More on it, increasing migrant in urban labour market decrease bargain the labour power with the capitalist and is compelled the migrants the unpleasant living arrangement in destination and subsequent in the origin places.

Poverty and social problems witnessed in many urbanizing areas today are a failure of government to respond to an inevitable process of people moving away from agriculture into urban areas, the blame has shifted to migrants themselves. The poor immigrants viewed as a burden rather than the asset. It would be misleading to hypothesize that the urban job market is vast in nature, and provides opportunities of all types. However, the consequences of migration are starker, in terms of the visible negative impacts on schooling and health care, poor living and working conditions, and constant fear of sexual abuse by strangers. The entry into the labour market by a large number of migrants is in itself a reflection of a society under siege, of a process of development that has displaced large numbers from their traditional livelihoods without providing secure and sustainable options locally.

## **2.6: Impact of migrants' remittance on health care**

There are few studies in the literature available in the context of migration how affects the health status of population in origin. In fact, a number of scholars have attempted to establish a link between human mobility and spread of different diseases like malaria and tuberculosis and HIV/AIDS (Lederberg, Shope and Oaks, 1992; Prothero, 1997, 1989; Service 1989) including many more factors influence the relationship between health and migration. Study has found that the survival effects attributable to migration are not immediate, but affect the result of a cumulative process that accrues over time. Moreover, benefits accrue to entire communities and are not limited to infants in households with migrants (Kanaiaupuni et al., 1999). The potential effect of migration on health has diverse in nature both household and community-level. In many areas, migrant remittances provide a buffer against local and economic fluctuation (Grindle, 1987). Therefore, in theory migration should enable households and communities to improve overall well being by raising standards of living and enhancing local environments (Durand et al, 1996; Taylor and Wyatt, 1996). We argue that the relationship between migration and health is one that unfolds over time, independent national improvements in health and infant mortality. Migration may affect health and mortality by changing economic resources and investment patterns of individuals and communities, shifting familial and social networks and providing new information about health consequences of migration. The result of past study indicates, migration has eventual benefits to infant survival because of social and economic process related (Kanaiaupuni et al., 1999).

It is well documented that accumulating enough resources to build basic infrastructure is time consuming. As more people migrate, origin communities may witness of sustained by migrants remittances and continued migration. The result is improved living conditions and better health in places where migration is common. Even if economic investments made when communities are in an early stage of migration, health may be slower of change. Thus, observable differences in health may not be immediate, but may emerge as households and communities adapt and respond to the migration process. Finding on Mexican studies on migration on child health suggest that whereas migration produces costs to Mexican families, especially in the short run, it yields health benefits

over time (Kanaiaupuni et al., 1999). Migration eventually yields resources that buffer the political power and social infrastructure of communities and their members, thereby helping to insulate them from economic crises. Some diffusion of knowledge also probably occurs as migration persists, resulting in better health and hygiene for the families residing in these communities (Kanaiaupuni et al., 1999). In this write-up attempt has geared to flash out the impact of migration on health in general and child health in particular.

As we mentioned above, migration not only improves the economic status of the migrant household but it also transforms the information and knowledge. At the destination places migrants receive knowledge and information and it passes to origin along with remittance. Past study on impact of migration on fertility found that, low level of fertility in migrant households as compared to non-migrant households (Maharatna, 2003; Bhatia and Sabagh, 1980; Zacharia, 1964; Hema Kumari, 1998). Further, the study also revealed the migrants' household not only have low fertility but also spread these norms in the rural areas. They usually return with new ideas attitudes and values acquired during their stay in the cities and the people at the native place often seek their advice and listen to them with respect. The other migrants who do not permanently return maintain close kinship ties with their native place and often make visits and bring fresh ideas from the cities. These permanent returns and temporary visitors prove as catalyst of change and it is probable that the family welfare workers seek their help and assistance in molding the behavioral pattern of villagers (Bhatia and Sabagh, 1980).

Globally, researchers have tried to establish the relationship between migration and its impact on health, income and poverty reduction and economic growth. However, in India, few studies attempted to correlate the relationship of internal migration and child health. However, none of them tries to correlate how the internal migration and their remittances affect child health, particularly in child health in rural India. Among the few studies, the study of Mexico by Hildebrandt and McKenzie has found that children in migrants household have better health status and child survival in comparison to non-migrants households. The study also reveals the process through which migration helps to

better health outcomes. They found that increased rate of migration leads to improved health knowledge and health information of mothers, which leads to direct effect on child health as well as of increasing standard of living of households (Nicole et al., 2005). In Philippines, Cameron & Lim found that excess receipt of remittances from migrants provides a positive marginal effect on child weight-for-height and weight-for age (Michael and Steven, 2007).

Researcher rarely pointed out the impacts of migration on child health but few studies shows that migration has significant impacts on rural livelihoods as well as on child health care spending. However, due to migration changes in the economic resources, investment pattern, and health knowledge and information that may affect the health status and standard of the living of the migrants' household. It varies across the time and geographical location. Evidence from previous study has found that in the initially period the uneven process of migration disrupted family and community, but eventually it helps to smooth the health status of the community and increases the survival chances of children by increased economic well-being. In addition, migration provides the buffer resources that improve the social infrastructure and it helps to the communities to insulate them from economic crisis. Diffusing health information by migrant has, helped the community to practice better health hygienic practices. Evidence from the earlier study has cited increasing migrants' remittances has reduced the risk of mortality; it has potential effect to reduce the infant mortality rate of the community (Durand et al., 1996). It addition, increased migration leads to increased labour force participation rate, which signifies greater economic opportunities, and lower the mortality risk.

## **2.7: Impact of income on access to health care and health status**

Many past studies proved that access to health care services improve the children's health status. A study of Indonesia midwife programme in the village improved the access to health care of the community henceforth the health status of the children (Elizabeth et al., 2005). It is well documented that, to measure the well-being of child health, child nutritional is a critical factor to measure the health status of the child. Further, poor nutrition in early childhood is more at risk of health hazardous with associated an

elevated mortality risk and poorer cognitive development. More on this greater functional impairment in adulthood as well as lower earning in later on age (Martorell and Arroyave, 1988; Strauss and Thomas, 1995). Largely, number of studies have examined effect of child nutritional outcomes by socioeconomic and demographic characteristics (Horton, 1988; Strauss,1988; Thomas, 1990). For instance, Horton (1988) found that in the Philippines child's age, birth order, and parent's height were significant for both child height-for-age and weight-for-height, and that rural location and water availability significantly affected weight-for-height. Many past studies proved that individual health seeking behaviour is always influence by family's health seeking behaviour; however, few studies have examined the extent of the influence of families on the health behaviour of individual family members (Mechanic, 1980; Miller, et al., 1960). The central role of the family in our society discussed in the social and behavioural sciences that contributed to our theoretical understanding of the interaction between families and individual family members and its contribution to decision on health care utilization. Especially it is very often true when children are present; unlike adults, the use of health care services by children ordinarily requires parental involvement (Tyroler et al., 1965; Mechanic, 1964; Alpert et al., 1967; Antonovsky and Kats, 1970). Hence, researchers inferred that, at least for children, health care utilization strongly reflects a family's pattern of care seeking (Mechanic, 1980; Lewis et al., 1977). It is common how do family influences operate with regard to health care utilization by family members or individuals and within family, there are numbers of characteristics that are operating and how is it? Further, there would have some common doubts what is the importance of particular characteristic with respect to other characteristics such as family size, parental age, birth interval, or developmental stage of the family (standard of living of family). Do these characteristics' belonging to one family make significant alter expected health care-seeking behaviours? In order to answer these above questions researchers proved through empirical findings that family influence on individual utilization of health seeking behaviour is uniform regardless of morbidity. Although, certain individuals within the family exert disproportionate influence over the health behaviour of other family members but regardless it is uniform for instances; mother's influence on child health care seeking as compared to other family members (Newacheck and Halfon,1986).

It is note-worthy here, level of income of household is a very strong characteristic among other characteristics, which disproportionately affect the health seeking both within and between the household.

Household income is one of the key determinants of household health expenditures. It is very important that to understand the determinant of health expenditure. Because it sheds light on the ultimate question what is the optimal amount of health spending for a society to achieve the health goals. On the other hand, health economists and policy analysts have determined which, countries spend the most and the least of their gross domestic product (GDP) on health care to achieve the certain health goals. The relationship between health expenditure and income is well established, and the subject of much empirical investigation. Pritchett and Summers have found that increasing spending on health care has positive effect on infant and child mortality rate using some instrumental variables to eliminate the possibility of incidental association at the country level (Pinstrup et al., 1995). In addition to it the study has also revealed that the income elasticity of infant and child mortality to be -0.2 for five-year intervals, and -0.4 for thirty-year periods. Other study also depicts that demand for health care increases with increased income, so that poorest are often in the worst health due to low-income level. Add to this increased income of the household tend to increase in the child height through better access and utilizing of health care (Thomas, 1990). However, it indicates that increased income affects health at the household as well as at individual levels. Therefore, the remittances received from migrants household is getting opportunity to spend on health care or health improving consumption expenditure that could better health outcomes. Durand (1996) found that the health outcomes of migrant families improved due to income effects of migration. Often, sociological study has found that most of remittances sending by migrants are only spending made in the consumption expenditure of migrant households. In addition, some other study has found that improves the entrepreneurship and level of education of migrants' household (Durand et al., 1996).

However, lack of nationally representative data on internal migration and its impact on health, which has some bearings on the overall development of socio-economic indicators

of the economy, is yet to develop. It is also significant to know how migration affects health, poverty and economic development of a country. However, ample of micro studies and large scale survey show that migration has potential to reduce poverty, inequality and contributes to overall economic growth and impact on health. A study of World Bank (2006) in this regard shows that migration can generate significant economic and health gains for migrants of origin and destination area (World Bank, 2006).

### **2.8: Pattern of public and private health expenditure in India and Odisha**

Many writers suggest that health may be viewed as a form of durable human capital (Grossman, 1972; Mushkin, 1962; Becker, 1964; Fuchs, 1966). It decreases with increasing age while increase with education and income. It has been assumed, often an optimum health care spending could be achieved by the measurement of objective health care goals, then, these spending could be fairly distributed to those requiring that. Unfortunately, well- intentioned as these attempts have been, the reality is that the problem is much more complex. Globally, the analysis of health care expenditures in general has been a topic of research and discussion in recent times. In particular, the relationship between the income and Health Care Expenditure (HCE) has been focus of research for the reason that it helps us to understand the key determinants of healthcare expenditures and also provides insights into linkages between income variable on the one hand, and demand and supply side of health on the other (Bhat & Jain, 2004). Last decade Government of India has declared a mission document on health with specific goal to increase the budgetary support on health should be increase 3 percent of GDP in a time bound manner. However, it has been observed that, right from 1940s, expenditure towards health from public is grossly inadequate, although, it has been steadily increasing since then. More cause of concern is expenditure form public domain is always lesser than private in this sector. The Bhore Committee report stated that per capita private expenditure on health was Rs.2.50 compared to a state per capita health expenditure of just Rs. 0.36 which is 1/7th of Private expenditures. In the 1950s and 1960s public expenditure towards health was 17% and 12% where as private health expenditure was 83% and 88% respectively (Duggal. et. al, 1995). However, at present in India, lees than 20 % of all health expenditure is borne by the government, the rest being borne privately



by the people. It appears that India is one of the most highly privatised healthcare systems of the world.

The above trend analysis on public and private expenditure on health has been comes out with a true conclusion that, in India expenditure on health is predominant by private sector with small contribution from external flows. It has been observed that, private expenditure towards this is 78.05% of total health expenditure while, public sector accounts for 19.67% and external flows 2.28% (NHA, 2004-05). Hence, it is worthwhile to have a systematic review on the pattern and trend of private health expenditure in India.

**Table 2.8.1: Total (public and private) expenditure on health care in India and Odisha during 2001-2002**

Regions	Health expenditure (Rs, in 000)			Per capita expenditure in Rs.			Public exp. as % of total exp.
	Public exp.	Private exp.	Total exp.	Public exp.	Private	Total exp.	
Odisha	4,965,448	16,626,974	21,592,422	134	449	582	23.0
India	214,391,018	818,104,032	1,032,495,050	207	790	997	20.8

Source: National Health Account, 2001-02 ; All India expenditure including expenditure by MOHFW, Central ministries and local bodies, while private expenditure includes health expenditure by NGOs, firms and households

The Table 2.8.1 depicts the public and private health expenditure of Odisha and India in year of 2001-02. The table evinces private health expenditure is the pre-dominant expenditure of health both in India and Odisha. The share of private expenditure of total health expenditure is 77 percent in Odisha in comparison to 79.1 percent in India. The per-capita private health expenditure in Odisha is 449 rupees as against 790 rupees in India. Further, in public expenditure is 134 against 207 rupees. Hence, it is observed that

the private health expenditure is higher portion contribute to health expenditure both the state and a country as whole.

**Table 2.8.2: Different component wise percent of out of pocket expenditure public in rural India and Odisha for inpatient care**

Country/State	Doctor's fee	Diagnostic test	Other service, bed	Medicine	Blood Etc.	Food
India	4.16	11.92	4.36	66.49	3.75	9.33
Odisha	5.19	7.33	2.28	72.59	1.94	10.67

Source: National Health Account-India, 2004-05

Table 2.8.2 shows the component wise percent of out of pocket public health expenditure in rural area for inpatient care during the period of 2004-05 in India and Odisha. It shows medicine is the major health cost followed by diagnostic test and food expenditure during hospitalization in India. While in Odisha, medicine followed by food and diagnostic test and doctor's fee.

**Table 2.8.3: Different component wise percent of out of pocket expenditure private in rural India and Odisha for outpatient care**

Country/State	Doctor's fee	Diagnostic test	Other service, bed	Medicine	Blood Etc.	Food
India	25.84	9.37	16.57	40.43	2.86	4.91
Odisha	27.31	4.15	17.79	37.70	1.88	11.14

Source: National Health Accounts India, 2004-05

Table 2.8.3 shows the component wise percent of out of pocket private health expenditure in rural area for inpatient care during the period of 2004-05 in India and Odisha. It shows medicine is the major health cost followed by doctor's fee; other services included bed charges, diagnostic test and food expenditure during hospitalization in India. While in Odisha, medicine followed by doctor's fee, other services included bed charges, food and diagnostic test.

As mentioned above the relationship between migration and its impact on healthcare has dual possibility, where this two-way relationship shows that migration leads to increase in income and hence improved to avail to health to health facilities then gradually health status. Empirically it shows that higher income, improves better health, and better health increases productivity which probably due to increase an individual's migration, which in turn increases the individual's (and possibly his family's) health care. It is anticipated that, improved health information due to migration may lead to improved health of children of migrant families. Changed socio and economic conditions due to mobility have an important bearing on access to health care services. Socio-economic status of certain group of population or area has been the main reasons for unequal health indicators across the states of the country. In this regard, migration can generate substantial welfare gains for migrants and their families to improve the health status. Further improved health status of the families is included component of the improvement of child health status. More over the improved health knowledge and information through mobility is a crucial component to improve the child health status. The process of migration not only improves overall social and economic position of the migrant households but also regarded as the medium of source for health knowledge and information, that is substantial benefit to the sending region to improve the child health status.

However, needless to mention that the district Ganjam, is one of the most resource rich (in terms of working population, natural resources and technological aspects) and a developed districts of Odisha. However, still it is lagging behind as compared to other districts in all round development, which could address the problems of all areas and all sections of the society. Such growth imbalances and disparities in economic development may be attributed to several constraints/factors. Identifying such critical gaps and inadequacies in the existing infrastructure can be achieved through internal labour migration issue. Hence, an attempt is being made here in this study advocating that the internal migration have the potential to address these critical gaps found in the district.

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