

# IMPACT OF OUT MIGRATION ON INFORMAL LABOUR: A STUDY OF BOLANGIR DISTRICT OF ODISHA

Manas Ranjan Bharas<sup>1</sup>, Subal Tandi<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup>PhD Research Scholar, Department of Sociology, Sambalpur University, Jyoti Vihar, Burla, Odisha, India

<sup>2</sup>Faculty of Sociology Government Autonomous College, Rourkela, Odisha, India

## ABSTRACT

*In Odisha, out-migration dominates migration for economic reasons. This paper discusses the causes and consequences of out-migration. The article is based on both primary and secondary sources to study. This paper finds that the poor are frustrated and depressed, especially in the lives of the rural people in particular. The people migrate to other states due to poverty and job opportunity; as a result, migrant people are deprived at their workplace. Our results have numerous potential policy implications, including the design of typical social; security schemes for Odisha.*

**Keyword:** Migration, Frustration, Depression, Deprived, Workplace

## 1. INTRODUCTION

Migration is an essential component of the fight for survival by the rural, which entitles both the cost and economic wellbeing of migrants and societies. Agricultural production can meet all the basic needs of rural peoples, so seasonal and temporary migration for employment has become the most durable components of living strategies of people staying in rural areas in India (Deshingkar, 2003). The person from poor rural areas who follows the single cropping pattern depends on their livelihood's seasonal migration. The agricultural sector is the primary sector that gives enough food and the country's mass population. But as mass Indian follows the single cropping pattern, old methods for production and dependence on monsoon don't get job or food grain for the whole year. These mass unemployed people are forced to migrate to the cities to add some income to the mass population and fulfil their basic needs. Seasonal migration is working as a poverty-reducing and growth-producing factor for the rural poor. Seasonal and temporary migration has a significant impact on the livelihood of poor people across India. The low level of literacy, unskilled workers, lack of job opportunities at the origin forced these rural mass populations to migrate to the cities in search of better life and employments (Deshingkar et al. 2008).

## 2. ISSUES OF MIGRATION IN ODISHA:

The industrial sector's contribution to the State's GSDP was estimated at 33.45% in 2014-15. The

service sector contributed an estimated 51% to the GSDP in 2014-15. According to the 2011 Census of India, about 61.8% of the working population are engaged in agricultural activities. However, apart from all these positive indicators, the State suffers from interstate and intrastate migration issues. Migration has been considered a persistent problem of Odisha for a long time. The State suffers from distress migration mostly from southwest regions, including KBK districts. According to the 2011 Census of India, Odisha has got a working population of 17,541,589; among them, 61% are primary workers, and the rest are marginal workers. It had a rural unemployment rate of 8.7% and an urban unemployment rate of 5.8% as per the 68th National Sample Survey (2011-2012). The State witnessed the falling share of the agriculture sector to overall GSDP and fluctuating trend of growth rates for the last few years. Even though Odisha has been blessed with all-natural and mineral resources, ten out of thousand workers migrate to other states in search of work every year.

Chattejee (1998) study was based on the traditional Harris-Todaro version of Rural-urban migration of rural labour where the migrant labour risk is neutral. The intended migrant labour will enjoy higher utility if he finances his cost of migration from his savings rather than taking a loan from the professional money lender. In this model, the labourers of the formal urban sector are unionized and charged entry fees on the outsiders. Here outsiders are the labourers who have come to the urban area from the nearby

rural areas have a job in the formal urban sector. They all are seasonal migrants who migrate only in the agricultural slack season where they cannot get jobs in The agricultural sector.

Premi and Mathur (1995), in an analysis of migration to cities, is strongly related with migrants from urban areas; long-distance migrants affect all six dependent variables very well. The lifetime migration educational background is not very important. The work participation rate of males in the age group 15-29 correlated with in-migrants.

### 3. RESEARCH'S OBJECTIVES:

1. To discuss the causes and consequences of out-migration of Bolangir district of Odisha.

### 4.METHODOLOGY

Data concerning migration and the volume of migrants is derived from the secondary sources, such as D-series of census publications in India, records of various government offices such as Chief Planning Officer, Turekela Revenue Office, Office of the District Labour Commissioner, Records of village Khagsa panchayats,

### 5. RESULT

#### 5.1. Sample Selected

The present study relates to the socio-economic conditions of migrant workers with particular reference to Turekela block of Bolangir district of Odisha. 100 migrants respondents from Khagsa and Laljhara villages of Khagsa panchayat of Turekela block. The total male worker constitutes 63(63%), and female workers are 37(37percent) out of 100 respondents. In this sense, the highest number of sample surveys from Other Backward Caste (32 percent) and Schedule Caste (18percent), followed by Scheduled Tribe (38percent) and 12percent from General Caste.

#### 5.2. Age Composition

Age plays a vital role in determining the interest in doing jobs. The study have taken interviews from 100 respondents.

Table No.1 Age composition

SI No	Age Group	Frequencies
1	20-30	40
2	30-40	45
3	40 Above	15

4	Total	100
---	-------	-----

Source- Field Survey 2019

The above table shows that the age group of the selected village is divided based on sex and age-wise. 20-30 years of young workers (40percent) than 30-40 years workers (45percent) and more than 40 respondents (15percent). The highest number of respondents is 30-40 years of age group such as (45percent). But in the age group 40 above (15percent), this means the age group is low. According to this data, the villages' highest percentage workers belong to the 30-40 age group.

#### 5.3. Educational Facilities

Education is an integral part of the human being. Without education, man is still living like an animal. The universalization of primary education is the main objective of SSA. So in order to make the people educate there are two educational institution namely primary schools and two Anganwadi centre in the village.

Table No.2 Education

SI No	Education Status	Respondents
1	Literate	83 (83 %)
2	Illiterate	17 (17 %)
	Total	100 (100 %)

Source- Field Survey 2019

The above table shows that educational status of informal out migrate workers. Out of 100 respondents, 83 percent were literate, but they held only primary level academic status. There were 17 percent of illiterate respondents.

#### 5.4. Infrastructural Facility of Two Selected Villages

Table No.3 Infrastructural Facility

Sl. No	Particular	Yes/No
1	Primary School	Yes
2	Anganwadi	Yes
3	Club	No
4	Electricity	Yes
5	Concrete Road	Yes (Half)
6	Mobile Tower	No (Irregular)
7	Jor (Small River)	Yes
8	Panchayat	Khagsa

9	Purchase Centre for Paddy	No
10	Temple	Yes
11	Shops (Glossery)	Yes

Source- Field Survey 2019

The village under study held the following infrastructural and others facilities provided by the State or state agency. From the focus group discussion, they were not satisfied in the above

infrastructural facilities in their villages. They demanded hospital, weekly market, paddy mandi and club.

### 5.5. Landholding status of the migrant households

The landholding status of the migrant households indicates that 28% of the migrant households are landless, and they depend on agricultural and non-agricultural wage Labour.

**Table No.4 Land Status**

Sl.No	Social Category	No. of Migrant (in percent)						Total
		Landless	Up to 1 ac.	1 to 2 ac.	2 to 3 ac.	3 to 4 ac.	Above 4 ac.	
1	OBC	4	8	7	7	4	2	
2	SC	15	3					
3	ST	36	2					
4	GC	1	2	4	3		2	
6	Total	56	15	11	10	4	3	100

Source- Field Survey 2019

Due to drought in both the districts under study, there is low agricultural production. Once there is crop loss, the marginal farmers and small farmers resort to selling or mortgaging their land to the money lenders. In this process, a large number of marginal and small farmers become landless agricultural labourers. In the study, 56% of the migrant of the landless category possess the land, and 15% of migrant families of up to 1 acre have 2 to 3 acres of cultivated land. Despite the above quantity of land, half of the land is unsuitable for cultivation due to it being high land, low rainfall etc. So the food grains produced from their land possession cannot meet the food requirement of the households throughout the year.

### 5.6. The annual income of the migrant households

The field study reveals that the annual income of migrant women is more in Comparison to the

women-headed households. In the case of migrants, the annual income varies from Rs1500/- to Rs 8000/- in the Bolangir district. But in the case of Women Headed Households (WHH), it is within Rs 1500 to Rs 4000 only, as the women in the villages do not get wage work except in agricultural work in the rainy season, which is not very remunerative. Some of them are also engaged in Matibuha work (earth lifting work) but limitedly. Table 6 also depicts that the women from other castes and very few women (only 1%) from S.C. and OBC have income, and the others have no income due to social restriction. In the case of S.C. women, the practice of untouchability in the village hampers the possibility of wage activities. Similarly, in the case of OBC and other caste women, due to social prestige, they do not go outside the village for wage work.

**Table No.5 Monthly Income Status**

Sl.No	Social Category	Income of Migrant workers(in percent Monthly)						Total
		Below 2000	2000-3000.	3000-4000	4000-5000	5000-6000	Above 6000	
1	OBC	15	3	5	2	4	2	32
2	SC	18						18
3	ST	38						38
4	GC	5	3	1		2	1	12
Total		76	6	6	2	6	3	100

Source- Field Survey 2019

### 5.7. Place of Migration

In Bolangir district, frequent droughts have resulted in the temporary displacement of many females from their traditional work-base. The present study covered 80 women who have migrated to different places within and outside the State of Orissa.

**Table No.6 Place of Migration From Turekela, Balangir**

Sl.No	Place of migration	Frequencies	Percent
1	Chennai	44	44
2	Telangana	66	66
Total		100	100

Source- Field Survey 2019

The above information is as per people's version of the place as the respondents do not know the actual location of migration. The above table indicates that 44% of women migrate to Andhra Pradesh and 66% to Hyderabad (Telangana). Andhra Pradesh is the most attractive place for migration for the migrant labourers of both districts because there are many brick kiln factories and crores of bricks manufactured each

year. To fulfil the worker requirement, the village middlemen motivate the villagers to go to Andhra Pradesh by giving them advance loans. Secondly, as the migrant households are acquainted with these factories being regular workers, they feel comfortable migrating there.

### 5.8. Timing of Migration

Short term migration appears to be a primary livelihood strategy for both males and females in Bolangir districts. In the villages, the migration period starts in the month of July-oct. It continues till Nov. After the advance money (Baina) is given to the migrant labourers by the Sardars (labour contractors/middlemen). The families who have completed the paddy cutting and harvesting earlier migrate early. The migrant households migrate group-wise based on the advance money taken from a particular Sardar. In this way, the families, including the women, migrate to the destination between July and November. Our study revealed that migration flow is at its peak in July, and it comes down in November. In Bolangir district, 46.25% of migrant households have migrated in October. During this period, as there is no other agricultural activity after harvesting or any other alternative work in the village, labour migration occurs.

**Table No.7 Timing Of Migration**

District	Time of migration from village			Total	Return Time to village			Total
	July	August			Nov			
Balangir	45	55		100	100			100

Source- Field Survey 2019

All the migrant households come back to their respective places from April to June before starting the monsoon to initiate their agricultural activities in their village.

### 5.9. Types of Work and working hours

All the migrant families interviewed are engaged as chhanchua or pathuria (brickmaking) work in the brick kilns. In this work, the whole family (minimum three members) is involved as a team. If a family has only two members, they take one of their relatives to complete the team. The older children accompany their parents in this work so that one family can make the team by itself. In brick making work, there is a division of labour

among the males, females and children. The male person is engaged in digging the clay, shifting the clay to the working place, mixing the clay and making bricks with the help of brick frames. The women are involved in making the clay dough. Both women and children shift the raw bricks to dry under the sun and then keep it in the raw brick bhati. There is no specific work timing for chhanchua families- if the family makes more bricks, they can get more money. So the chhanchua families try to make as many bricks by working 12 to 13 hrs (from 6 am to 12 am – 3 to 10 pm) in a day. In some cases, the migrant women who make more money in advance work for 16 hrs in a day to complete the target. As an illustrative case, the work schedule of the women and men in A.P. is as follows –

**Table No.8 The Daily Schedule Of Migrants**

	Work of the male	Work of the Female
4 am	Mixing of sand and mud	Arranging the bricks
5 am		
6 am		
7 am		
8 am	Eat	
9 am	Digging of Mud	Cleaning of house, cook, arrange the bricks
10 am		
11 am		
12 am		
1 AM	Lunch & Rest	Lunch & Rest
2 am		
3 am		
4 am	Brick Making	Brick Making
5 am		
6 am		
7 am		
8 am		
9 am		
10 am		
After 10 AM	Eat & Sleep	Eat & Sleep

Source- Field Survey 2019

### 5.9. Wages

The wages are paid after the completion of work. In the case of brick making or chhanchua work,

the wages are given to the family head, i.e. male household head. There is no individual payment to the working members of the family. Before moving out of the village, some migrants agree with the Dalals on wage per 1000 bricks. But at

the worksite, one chhanchua family gets Rs100/- per working adult and Rs 70/- for working children in a week. So one family can get Rs 270/- to Rs 300/- per week depending on the number of working members of the family. As the brick counting and payment is made at the weekend, the advance payment is made accordingly. The final counting is done at the end of the season when deductions of all previous advances are made. After the deductions, the chhanchua families is left with an amount of Rs1000/- to Rs 3000/- as savings. In some cases, because of health or other related expenditures, they return home without any savings at all.

### **5.10. Gender Inequality**

The study found the rising number of female migrants who are not given equal importance compared to men in migration since they are still not received as similar actors worthy of being accounted for. Thus while viewing women migrants as dependants, female workers always ignore their economic contributions as compared to male workers.

### **5.11. Heath status of the migrant women**

The health status of the migrant women is generally weak due to their low economic Status. In addition, in the changing environment at the migration site, the food habits, Water, sanitation and the workload adversely affect the health of the migrants. They are affected by different diseases like diarrhoea, dehydration and fever frequently. The factory manager provides medical treatment to them in case of sickness in the nearby hospitals, but that is not adequate. The migrant women do not have money to purchase nutritious food and good medicines to recover early. In addition to this, to avoid the manager's scolding and loss of wages, the women migrants start work even before fully recovering from any sickness as they have to complete the target within a due period. As this process is continued several times repeatedly, they become chronic patients, which become severe after coming back from the migration place to their native village.

### **5.12. Exploitation at Working Place**

In the worksite, though the owner of the brick kiln factory and the other staff do not directly give the women any physical torture, but indirectly they are responsible for the following:

- A. Compulsory work for 12 to 16 hrs every day
- B. Hard work resulting in frequent fever and poor health condition
- C. Working under the sun results in fatigue
- D. Language abuse while taking rest in case of illness or during pregnancy
- E. Unsuitable and unhygienic shelter's place

## **6. REASON OF OUT MIGRATION**

### **6.1. Drought**

Drought is another reason for migration in the Bolangir districts. Drought is seen to be the underlying cause of a number of related severe problems including debt, impoverishment, starvation and migration. The marginal farmers and landless agricultural workers faced with low agricultural yields and lack of alternative employment opportunities within the villages are forced to look for alternatives elsewhere. If drought takes place in a particular year, then the households are bound to take loan in order to meet the basic necessities of the households. In order to repay the loans and to avoid the wrath of the moneylenders, they take advance from the Dalals or labour contractors. It makes them more vulnerable as they sink further into the vicious cycle of debt. Finally they are forced to migrate to repay the Dalal. In the process they lose their bargaining power both in terms of official wage rates and better working conditions at the worksites.

### **6.2. Influenced by the village level middlemen**

The village-level middlemen are the main actors in the migration process. During the lean period, they contact the poor households and give small amounts of money to tackle the problems according to their requirements. In lieu, they motivate them to migrate. As the respondents are already in debt, they migrate to repay the loan and advances. The Focus Group Discussions reveal that the households contact the village level contractors during the financial crisis. Marriages, deaths, festivals etc., require money that the contractors readily give.

The provision of advance money varies from Rs3000/- to Rs10,000/- depending on the number of working family members. The households can not get such a significant amount of money at a time from any other sources. The informal money lending system is too heavy for repayment, and there is no provision for the villagers to avail of

loans from any formal sector for personal consumption needs. In this situation, the Dalals of the brick kiln factories give them a chance to take advance money before work. This appears like an excellent opportunity to repay the loan from the money lenders, release the mortgaged land, purchase bullocks, and sustain their families.

### **6.3. Availability of government facilities at the worksite**

All the respondents said that no facilities from the government are provided to the migrants at the worksite. As they do not have any insurance or registration, on death, the owner of the brick kiln or the government gives no compensation to their family. The PDS entitlements are not transferable from their native village to the worksite, and hence they have to buy the provisions from the open market. The rate of rice, kerosene etc., is high, and the migrant families end up spending all the weekly earnings to purchase food items. Mother and child care facilities are also not available, and the migrant families do not get any benefit under the ICDS in the host location.

### **6.4. Conclusion and Suggestion Remark**

This study has shown that the pattern of out-migration of Odisha is high among the socio-economic and marginal groups for out-migration. The study has found several problems (unhygienic homes, gender inequality, health hazard and no government facilities) at their (workers) workplace. As we discussed, mainly lack of job opportunities and poverty force these rural people to migrate to another state of the country. It is a fact

That migration, as a process, cannot be stopped, but it must manage in short-run policy and check in the long run.

This study will help policymakers and government authorities make better decisions for the betterment of the rural poor. Therefore, the study will help policymakers understand and improve policies and strategies necessary to reduce this problem. This will help stockholders, researchers and policymakers to a great extent.

MGNREGA (Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act) programme has been introduced to give 100 days of work to rural masses of uneducated and unskilled people. But due to the failure of the programme, these rural

people are migrating to other states. There is no such good performance of the MGNREGA programme in India.

PDS (Public Distribution System) food grain is not sufficient for rural people all over the months, and there are other basic needs to be fulfilled. So these rural and poor migrate to other states. There is no literature covering PDS food grain supply and food quality compared to migration.

The lack of job facilities pushes the people to search for a job or migrate, whereas the cities' employment (both in informal and formal sectors) pull this rural person to migrate. Migration is not an easy process to earn money, and it is challenging to get a better job at the place of destination. The income of migrants is enough for their livelihood, or it is just hand to mouth; all the issues can be better understood through literature reviews.

A considerable tract of land has been left unirrigated as chronic drought-prone the region, and the percentage of irrigated area to the total cropped area is deficient. Most natives are landless poor, and agricultural labourers have been panicked due to their unemployment and underemployment.

## **7. ACKNOWLEDGEMENT**

It is warm thanks to the people of Khagsa and Laljhara villages.

## **REFERENCES**

- [1] Census, 2011
- [2] Chatterjee, B. (1998). Cost of Migration and Savings of Rural Labour in a Developing Economy" The Indian Journal of Labour Economics, Vol -41
- [3] Deshingkar, P., & Start, D. (2003). Seasonal migration for livelihoods in India: Coping, accumulation and exclusion (p. 111). London: Overseas Development Institute.
- [4] Deshingkar, P., Sharma, P., Kumar, S., Akter, S., & Farrington, J. (2008). Circular migration in Madhya Pradesh: changing patterns and social protection needs. The European Journal of Development Research, 20(4), 612–628.
- [5] Premi M.K., and Mathur, M.D. (1995 ). Emigration Dynamics: The Indian Context, International Migration Vol.XXXIII, No. ¾ 1995 pp. 636 -666
- [6] 68th National Sample Survey (2011-2012)