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DESIGN AND DEVELOPMENT OF MIGRATION IMPACT

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ABSTRACT

Migrants are not always tied to jobs, according to this notion. Second, migration surveys only reveal the primary cause for migrating at the time of departure. Secondary economic motives could be concealed, as in the instance of married women who would explain other reasons for their relocation. Another issue is that migration statistics refers to migrant stocks rather than fluxes. The study of migration has become one of the most dynamic and significant aspects of human beings in the current globalisation and liberalisation landscape.

Keywords: Design, Migration, Impact, Development.

INTRODUCTION

Human nature dictates that people move from one place to another in quest of better opportunities. While certain locations and industries lag behind in terms of population support, others advance, and people migrate to take advantage of these new opportunities. Several factors contribute to the geographic inequality. Some are natural, while others are man-made. It's understandable that investment would be drawn exclusively to developed areas.



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DESIGN AND DEVELOPMENT- IMPACT OF MIGRATION

On Migrants and their Families

Poorer migrant workers have less rights in the destination areas, either from their employers or from the government. They have little personal belongings and live in deplorable conditions in the destination places. Migration has both bad and beneficial repercussions for migrants and their families in the source locations. Despite the fact that migrants receive a greater wage/salary as a result of migration, the disparity in living standards and negative effects on health, education, and family members have a depressive influence on migrants' well-being. As a result, the conclusion is confusing in certain ways.

On Living Conditions

Agricultural and non-agricultural migrant workers live in appalling conditions. There is no safe drinking water or sanitary sanitation available. Despite the Contract Labour Act, which states that the contractor or employer must provide sufficient housing, the majority of people live in open places or improvised shelters (NCRL, 1991; GVT, 2002; Rani and Shylendra, 2001). Laborers who relocate to cities for work, aside from seasonal workers, dwell in parks and pavements. Slum inhabitants, the most of whom are migrants, live in appalling conditions, with insufficient water and poor drainage. Food is more expensive for migrant workers who do not have access to temporary ration cards.

On Health and Education

Workers who work in tough conditions and live in unsanitary settings face serious occupational health issues and are susceptible to disease. Those who work in quarries, building sites, and mines face a variety of health risks, the most common of which are lung ailments. Accidents are common because the employer does not follow safety procedures. Because of their temporary status, migrants are unable to participate in a variety of health and family care programmes. They do not have access to free public health care facilities or programmes. There is no maternity leave for women workers, forcing them to return to work virtually soon after giving birth. Workers in tile industries and brick kilns, in particular, face occupational health risks such as body discomfort, sunstroke, and skin irritation (NCRL, 1991). Because there are no nursery schools, children frequently accompany their families to work, where they are exposed to health risks.



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They are also deprived of an education: their home-schooling system ignores their migration patterns, and their temporary status in the destination places disqualifies them from attending school there (Rogaly et al. 2001; 2002). The lack of men in male-only migration adds to material and psychological instability, resulting in demands and negotiations with extended family (Rogaly et al. 2001; 2002). Male out-migration is seen to have an impact on women's participation in the directly productive realm of the economy as workers and decision-makers, as well as their level of interaction with the outside world (Srivastava, 1999). However, given the patriarchal structure, women may face a number of issues, which are exacerbated by the uncertainty around the time and volume of remittances, which are essential to the insecure home economy. As a result, women and children from low-wage households are pushed into the labour market under difficult conditions. As a result, the impact of migration on women can be both positive and negative, although patriarchy's powerful influence limits women's liberty (Teerink, 1995; Menon, 1995; Rogaly et al. 2001). Male migration has a particularly negative influence on girls, who are frequently burdened with increased home chores and the care of younger siblings. The lack of male supervision makes it even more difficult for them to obtain an education (Srivastava, 2001).

Women and male members of their households have been seen to engage in migratory streams in a number of instances. It is common for younger siblings and older children to accompany and work alongside their parents in such situations. Typically, family migration involves the younger members of the family, leaving the elderly to shoulder additional responsibilities while also fending for their subsistence and other basic needs (Mosse et al. 1997).

On Source Areas

Changes in the labour market, income and assets, as well as changes in the pattern of expenditure and investment, are the most significant effects of migration on source areas. Although seasonal out-migration may have the effect of smoothing employment across the annual cycle, rural out-migration may create labour market tightening in particular conditions. However, empirical evidence from out-migration zones rarely supports this (Connell et al. 1976; Srivastava, 1999). This could be due to the fact that out-migration is common in times of labour surplus. There is also evidence that out-migrant male labour is being replaced by female and even kid labour.



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On Remittances and Effect on Sending Areas

While the influence of out-migration on the labour market has already been discussed, another source of change that has to be considered is changes in income, income distribution, and spending and investment patterns. Although we do not have direct evidence of the value of migrant remittances, the NSS surveys on migration, consumption, and employment/unemployment provide some indirect evidence. These studies show what proportion of out-migrants send remittances and what percentage of households get remittances and rely on remittances as their primary source of income. 89 percent of permanent out-migrants sent remittances in 1992–93. The percentage of all rural households receiving remittance income is also rather high – one-quarter to one-third of rural households receive remittances in different parts of the country. It's worth noting that remittances are only one type of resource flow that occurs as a result of migration; the other is savings carried home in cash or kind by migrants. According to field research, the majority of seasonal migrants either send money home or bring money home with them. Migrant wages account for a significant amount of household cash income in many circumstances (Haberfeld et al. 1999; Rogaly et al. 2001; Mosse et al. 2002). Cash incomes, on the other hand, may not always contribute to migrant households' resource base, as some may be utilised to pay off previous obligations (NCRL, 1991; Mosse et al. 2002).

However, it appears that migrant households' income and consumption levels are often higher than those of similarly situated non-migrants (Sharma, 1997; Krishnaiah, 1997). As Mosse et al. (2002) point out, migrants are not only placed differently at the entrance point, but their diverse status also leads to different trajectories, so changes in post-migration average earnings may only provide a partial picture of the varied setoff changes. (Rogaly et al. 2001) gives some evidence of seasonal migrants' salaries improving as a result of migration, but other studies are needed to back up these claims. Migration has a modest influence on income and asset inequality. In the ethnographic study mentioned above (Rogaly et al. 2001), evidence of decreasing inequality is found as labor-household incomes rise relative to non-labor-household incomes. In another scenario, Mosse et al. (1997) argue that these inequalities are exacerbated since the migration process is differentiated, resulting in amplification of income and asset inequalities.



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Consumption, debt repayment, and other social obligations are the most common uses for remittances. These are effectively the "first charge" on migrant earnings. The data on investment, on the other hand, is mixed. Migrant households frequently invest in housing, land, and consumer durables, and migrant income is also utilised to fund agricultural working capital requirements. Although there is little evidence of additional beneficial farm or non-farm investment, a number of studies do report that a tiny fraction of migrant and return migrant households do so (Oberai and Singh, 1983; Krishnaiah, 1997; Sharma, 1997; Rogaly et al. 2001).

The significance of rural out-migration in the material and social reproduction of rural households, as well as the existing connections in which they are situated, is an important related problem. Circulatory migration, in particular, helps to the stability of rural production relations, according to Standing (1985). He claims that circulatory labour movements have 'safety valve' characteristics and "has often been a mechanism preserving or at least easing the demands on a social mode of production." Households may be able to escape underemployment and pay debt and other commitments without having to liquidate possessions through temporary migration. 'Relay migration' can also be viewed as a means of ensuring a household's survival. Indeed, the lengthy history of rural out-migration in several of India's source areas, along with agricultural and rural stagnation, appears to support out-stabilizing migration's effect. However, labour circulation and other types of rural outmigration might cause pre-existing production linkages to be disrupted. The labour market appears to have the most impact on source areas, with recent research indicating that more mobility of rural labour households is leading to a less isolated and more generalised agriculture labour market, as well as upward wage pressure. Furthermore, there is evidence of some influence through improvements in migrant households' resource base (Srivastava, 1998).

On Destination Areas

There are a variety of reasons why migrant labour is used in destination areas. While local labour shortages are one key reason for immigrant recruiting (Singh and Iyer, 1985; Oberai and Singh, 1983), practically all available research demonstrates that labour control and wage cost reduction methods are just as essential. There have been numerous instances where the same areas export and import labour to the same industries. Migrant labour is preferable since it is easier to control and get labour from



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them under challenging circumstances. Furthermore, firms may simply add or decrease labour supply at little cost, and migrants can work long and flexible hours. Because of the involvement of contractors and middlemen in recruitment and monitoring, the migrant workforce's flexibility is bolstered. Another result of the process is the segmentation of the labour market, which leads to increased control over both migrant and local labour. Finally, wage payment arrangements that emerge in businesses that rely heavily on migrant labour are well-suited to avoiding minimum wage laws. As a result, employers save money on labour costs as a result of migration.

The labour market outcomes provided by labour immigration permit a certain type of growth and accumulation in the destination countries, albeit on a 'low track' to capitalism. The primary justification for expanding informalization, two-way labour mobility, and segmentation, according to Breman (1996), may be found in the type of mercantilist capitalist development seen in India, much as international migration is closely linked to the structure of international capitalism (Sassen, 1988; Piore, 1990). Capitalists work in unstable marketplaces and are heavily reliant on traders. Entrepreneurs use labour immigration as one of their preferred tactics for shifting risk and cost of production to workers. Another motive for further informalization is to keep businesses out of the eyes of the government. As a result, the majority of businesses in the informal sector are unregulated. Furthermore, in such tourist destinations, employers rarely provide anything other than the minimum pay. Migrant workers must fend for themselves in terms of health, shelter, and other fundamental needs. Although the poor living conditions of workers are the result of employers failing to internalise the legitimate costs of hiring workers (in violation of numerous laws), society perceives the resulting urban congestion as the result of unplanned mobility. As a result, the theoretical costs of population mobility have been studied in the context of substantial costs imposed by population concentration in large cities. The social, political, and other consequences of immigration, particularly when it involves linguistically, ethnically, or regionally distinct groups, have received little attention in the growing economic literature on internal migration, but they are prominent in the sociological and political literature (Weiner, 1978).



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CONCLUSION

The divide between rural and urban areas widens as a result of industrialization, causing a movement in the workforce to industrialising areas. There is a lot of discussion about what causes populations to shift, from those who highlight individual reason and household behaviour to those who cite capitalist development's structural logic (de Haan and Rogaly, 2002). Furthermore, multiple studies reveal that social, cultural, and economic factors influence migration, with radically different outcomes for men and women, various groups, and different regions.

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