Chapter I

Introduction

1.1. Conceptual foundation of the study

The history of human migration is as old as the human civilization itself. Migration has played an important role in shaping and reshaping the trajectory of our civilization. Currently, in our contemporary world where around 3 per cent (according to United Nations Department of Social and Economic Affairs (UN DSA) 232 million) of the population of the world is living overseas and another 740 million or 10 per cent of the world population are internal migrants who have moved from one region to another region within their country of birth (Münz, 2013). Human population particularly youth is more mobile than ever before. The expansion of information and communication has connected the world, made the exchange of information, goods and materials and human population much easier. With such a large volume of migrants and mobile population, which is expected to increase in future, migration is definitely a decisive force reshaping our world at present and future.

In the discipline of population studies, migration has often been understood as a redistributive force of population from the area of surplus to the area of deficit. With the variation of time and space related definitions, a permanent change of residence obtains more focus in migration related studies, compared to the mobility of population. In the classical literature, migration is
understood as a part of rural-urban transition in which the participant group shifts their place of residence, it is considered as an equilibrating force which eases the pressure of surplus rural or agricultural population (de Haas, 2010; Hagen-Zanker, 2010). Although, it is found universally in all of the studies that, each segment of population doesn’t participate in migration process equally and it is biased towards age, sex, education etc (de Haan, 1999). Thus migration can’t be understood solely as a factor of population redistribution. Again, it has been found that, often, labour migration does not evolve as a permanent change of residence of the participants. At the household level, usually young adult household member migrates, leaving behind rest of the family members. Young adult members of the household from rural areas usually migrate alone and stay connected to their left behind household, send remittances, make visits or come back after their work gets over (de Haas, 2010). Therefore, migration process is needed to be studied as mobility of a household member, in connection with the left behind household at the area of origin (ibid).

Household is the immediate beneficiary of the remittance that these migrants send. A household is a place where a group of people, usually members of a family, stay together and share economic and psychological aspects of their life. David Canning (1994) in his study notes that the family is one of the most robust institutions in existence. It survives when all other social relationships disintegrate. Household or family works as the basic unit of society where people stay with a deep emotional and psychological bonding and provides a sense of security to the members. It has been argued that members of household or family act jointly within a broader institutional framework, with their set of resources, react in unison towards any adverse situation to achieve better socio-economic security and mobility (Scoones, 1998). Therefore, economic
decision related to migration process and gains or losses involved in the process requires to be understood in connection with the household, where migration decisions are made within the socio-economic context of the point of origin.

One of the main reason of ignoring migration as a part of household livelihood is an oversimplified understanding of household economic characteristics. While discussing about the economic condition of the household, the only the main source of income is considered and the dynamic and diverse reality is ignored (Chambers, 1995). For instance, in rural areas, agriculture is the prime source of livelihood. Most of the households in developing countries like India are considered as peasant’s household that depends on agriculture. Although it has been found that a peasant household also combines various sources of livelihood together, often they take up animal husbandry/livestock farming along with agriculture, they engage in cultivation or wage earning on other’s farm after finishing their own farm related work, or they earn wages as labourers in the non-agricultural sector. Even in urban area, households may take-up more than one earning activities, if income from one source is less, uncertain or fragile. Therefore, diverse sources of household income are not an exception but very much a part of the reality of day to day life (Ellis, 1998). Migration may also be a part of the same combination, that household take-up for their survival (Ellis, 2003).

In addition to lower income, one important aspect of poor households is that the source of income on which they depend is fragile. The nature of employment on which they depend is scarce, irregular, and seasonal, which does not provide adequate stability. Therefore, it has been argued that, for a poor household, searching for stability and economic security is more
important, rather than aspiring for higher income. Evidences from various parts of the developing world suggest that diversification of income sources has become a norm, rather than exception, especially in rural areas to counter poverty and the risk of income failure. In most of the Rural Income Generating Activities (RIGA) sample countries, between 30 and 60 per cent of rural households depended on at least two sources of income to make up three-quarters of their total income (Rural Poverty Report (IFAD), 2011; Davis *et. al.*, 2007). While, India is the home to the largest number of poor people in the world, Arjun Sengupta committee found that a large proportion of population is susceptible to become poor; this segment was called ‘vulnerable’. According to the committee ‘poor and vulnerable’ included 77 per cent of the population (Desai, 2014). Diversifying the income portfolio in different sources may reduce the risk of income failure of the household compared to depending upon one source. In agricultural sector, in general, income generation is affected by several disadvantages, such as uncertainty of production, seasonal variation in income affected by seasonal cycle and uncertainty of price of produce (Chambers, 1995). Therefore, income instability is a real problem, confronted by a household, dependent upon agriculture, particularly small and marginal landholders (Ellis, 1998). It has been found that, in many parts of the world, seasonal migration to other agricultural zones or circular migration has been an option to mitigate this challenge (McDowell and de Haan, 1997). Diversification of sources of livelihood or income may be a deliberate strategy of household, in which, the household makes its income portfolio by deploying its labour force in a different area by continuing economic activities at distinct places. Households may combine migration and income from farm, off-farm or non-farm activities with migration and remittances (Scoones, 1998). As it is explained by Ellis (2003)
“migration, understood as a spatial separation between the location of a resident household or family, and one or more livelihood activities engaging the family members, it is a salient feature of the livelihoods of the majority of households in low income countries”.

Thus migration may lead to three kinds of diversification at the household level – ‘diversification of income portfolio, diversification of economic activities, and diversification in deployment of household labour-force. The major thrust of the study is to understand the process of diversification at household level with migration, in a predominantly rural and agricultural state like Bihar.

While returns from peasants’ commercial agriculture were becoming less certain, daily cash requirements increased under the economic stringency of Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP). In addition to the removal of agricultural subsidies, government removed subsidies on educational and health services. School fees and user fees at health centers became a high priority in peasant household budgets. Price inflation reached rural consumers through rising import costs of agricultural inputs, and enticing consumer goods that private traders brought to village markets (Bryceson, 2002). Market liberalization, from the perspective of the rural consumer, has tended to expand choice but at arm’s length, for much of the tantalizing merchandize came with unaffordable prices.
1.2. Reorienting livelihood opportunities in rural area

1.2.1. Reorienting peasantry

To understand the migration process as a part of the livelihood diversification dynamics of agricultural households, it is necessary to build an understanding of the context in which they are living. Peasantry has been the prime form of organized agricultural production in rural areas of developing countries. A peasant household shows four main characteristics in common, as identified by Shanin (1976). First, they share the pursuit of an agricultural livelihood combining subsistence and commodity production. Second, their internal social organization revolves around the family as the primary unit of production, consumption, reproduction, socialization, welfare and risk-spreading. Third, they are externally subordinated to state authorities and regional or international markets that involve class differentiation and transfers of tax and profit. Fourth, they reside in rural settlements, be they widely dispersed or nuclear villages, and they are often identified with a traditional conformist attitudinal outlook relative to more urbanized populations. Moving away from agriculture in rural area has been called as ‘deagrarianization’ by some scholars. Deagrarianization is defined as a process of: (i) economic activity reorientation (livelihood), (ii) occupational adjustment (work activity), and (iii) spatial realignment of human settlement (residence) away from agrarian patterns. Overt and measurable manifestations of this process are: a diminishing degree of rural household food and basic needs self-sufficiency, a decline in agricultural labour relative to non-agricultural labour in rural households and in total national labour expenditure, a decrease in agricultural output per capita in the national economy relative to non-agricultural output, and a shrinking proportion of the
total population residing in rural areas. However, in a developing country like India the process of reorientation of livelihood can’t be understood with such simple and smooth framework. Neo-classical economic theory sees development or modernization as a linear and universal process consisting of successive stages (cf. Rostow, 1960) who considers ‘deagrarianization’ as a positive sign of development. It postulates that that material progress usually has been associated with the gradual but continuous transfer of economic agents from rural based traditional agriculture to urban oriented modern industry”. Rapture in peasant economy has been understood as an inevitable outcome of process of development or modernization and rural-urban migration has been understood as a constituent part of the whole development process, by which surplus labour in the rural sector supplies the workforce for the urban industrial economy (Lewis, 1954). In a developing country like India, decrease in agricultural output have taken place with faster pace, compared to the decline in agricultural labour or a shrinking proportion of rural population. It is necessary to understand the specific nature of ‘deagrarianization’ in the Indian context through some macro level indicators, to understand the entire phenomena of migration.

1.2.2. Decreasing importance of agriculture in India and Bihar

The last three decades have witnessed a sharp fall in the contribution of agriculture in national economy including decreasing workforce participation in agriculture, although, the decrement of latter has not been analogous to the first. In 1980-81 the share of agriculture and allied activities in GDP was 35.7per cent, in 1990-91 it decreased up to 29.5per cent, in 2000-01 it decreased further to 22.7 per cent and in 2010-11 it was merely 14.6 per cent. The contribution of agriculture (alone) has decreased further. In 1980-81 the contribution of agriculture was 29.8 per
cent, which decreased up-to 24.9 per cent in 1990-91 and 18.7 per cent in 2000-01 and in the starting of current decade it reached at 12.4 per cent (Planning Commission, 2015). In a state like Bihar which is considered as least developed and industrialized region of India, the contribution of agriculture and allied activities is merely 22 per cent in year 2010 - 13 (according to 2004-05 constant price) decreased from 34.3 per cent in year 1999 – 2004 (Economic Survey of Bihar, 2014-15). Proportion of farmers have also decreased drastically at the national level; in 1981 proportion of farmers in workforce was 37.8 per cent, which came down at 35.2 per cent in 1991, further decreased to 31.7 per cent in 2001 and in 2011 census year it was merely 24.6 per cent. From 2001 to 2011, an absolute decline in the number of farmers has taken place from 127.6 million to 118.6 million. Total cultivators in rural areas have declined from 40 per cent in 2001 to 33 per cent in 2011. Although in the same time period, the proportion of agricultural laborers also increased in the workforce, in the year 1981 it was 22.7 per cent, which increased to 23.8 per cent in year 1991, 26.7 per cent in 2001 and 30 per cent in 2011. During the decade 2001-11, the Census results show a fall of about 9 million in cultivators and an increase of about 38 million in agricultural labourers. Therefore, a large proportion of farmers who quit cultivation have not moved to urban or industrial sector. They actually get assimilated in the rural workforce as laborer. It shows that the decline in agriculture or rapture within it has increased the number of rural laborers or a foot loose workforce (Salve, 2014). The 70th Round of NSS survey conducted in 2013 shows that an average household of cultivator receives merely Rs.3081 from cultivation and Rs.763 from animal husbandry. The household which possess the land holding 0.41 to 1 hectare earned merely Rs.2145 monthly from agriculture and Rs.629 from animal husbandry and those who possess the land holding 0.01 to 0.41 hectare earned merely Rs.687 monthly from agriculture and Rs.621 from animal husbandry. In India, 80.8 per cent of land holdings are below
1 hectare and around 64.8 per cent of holdings are below 0.4 hectare in 2009-10; clearly income from cultivation became very less for most of the households depending upon agriculture (MOSPI, 2014). In the state like Bihar where average size of holding is merely 0.4 hectare compared to 1.16 hectare of national average and where more than 90 per cent of landholdings are marginal, income from farming may be lower than national average (Source: Ministry of Rural Development). Such thin output from agriculture indicates a vast and pervasive underemployment in agriculture sector, holding a vast number of surplus labour-force, surviving of precarious nature of livelihood source.

1.2.3. Possibility of labour absorption in another sector

On one hand, the condition of agriculture is worsening; other sector is also not sufficiently strong to absorb the surplus labour-force. The comparison of series of NSS surveys shows that there has been significant decline in the employment share of agriculture (from 64.8 per cent of 1993-94 to 48.9 per cent of 2011-12). There has been a small increase in the employment share of manufacturing, which remains exceedingly low (from 10.5 per cent of 1993-94 to 12.8 per cent of 2011-12). Some service industries – trade, hotels and restaurants, transport, storage, telecommunications, finance, real estate, business services – have increased their employment share by a combined 7.3 percentage points (from 11.1 per cent of 1993-94 to 18.4 per cent of 2011-12). These are sectors which would include a good number of secure jobs, but also include large numbers of insecure, low-wage jobs. At the same time, another source of middle class jobs, namely, ‘community, social and personal services’ (largely public sector, and therefore relatively secure employment) saw its share fall by 1.2 per cent points (from 9.4 per cent of 1993-94 to 8.2
per cent of 2011-12). Only one sector has seen a dramatic increase, namely, construction
(from 3.1 per cent of 1993-94 to 10.6 per cent of 2011-12). This is a particularly sweated sector,
in which nearly the entire workforce is informal and insecure (MOSPI, 2014).

The scenario of formal employment is continuously deteriorating (World Bank, 2011). The
proportion of regular wage/salary earners in total employment has hardly grown – from 15.4 per
cent in 1972-73, it has grown to 17.9 per cent in 2011-12. The share of the organized sector in
total employment reached 17 per cent by the mid-1970s; it declined thereafter to about 12 per
cent by 2004-05 before returning by 2011-12 to 17.9 per cent (Desai, 2014). More importantly,
according to NSS 68th round survey within the organized sector, the share of informal workers
(those without employment stability and social security, such as ‘casual’, ‘contract’, ‘apprentice’,
etc.) rose from 41 per cent in 1999-2000 to 58 per cent in 2011-12. That is, the majority of the
organized sector workforce consists of informal workers. Indeed, practically all new employment
in the post-reform period, particularly from the late 1990s till 2004-05, has been either in the
unorganized sector or in the form of informal jobs in the organized sector. Thus there has been a
continuous deterioration in the overall quality of employment (World Bank, 2011; MOSPI
2014).

Self – employment, in the absence of any secured employment in organized sector, is being
celebrated as an option of employment to stabilize the sources of livelihood of household.
However, the productivity of such activities is very low. This can be illustrated with a few data
from the National Sample Survey’s reports on unorganized sector enterprises (in manufacturing,
trade, and other services, but excluding construction). The NSS estimated that there were 58
million such enterprises in 2010-11, employing 108 million workers: i.e., less than two workers per enterprise. Of these ‘enterprises’, the great majority (49 million) were ‘Own Account Enterprises’, with no hired workers (i.e., just family members) (NSS, 2011). These units are starved of capital. In the year preceding the survey, the owners added the following paltry sums to their fixed assets other than land and buildings: plant and machinery: Rs 701; transport equipment: Rs 1,064; tools and other fixed assets: Rs 838; software and hardware: Rs 11; information & communication technology equipment: Rs 122; capital work in progress: Rs 55.

The survey found that 51 per cent of the enterprises were either stagnating or contracting over the previous three years. Although, there are well-off self-employed shopkeepers, doctors, chartered accountants, lawyers, consultants, engineers, beauticians, tuition providers, yoga instructors and the like. However, the very fact that the averages are so low tells us of the condition of the vast majority of petty proprietors. The value added per worker in these enterprises was a meagre Rs 58,000 per year, just 7 per cent of the figure for the organized factory sector. In fact, in rural unorganized sector enterprises, the value added per worker is only Rs 37,000, i.e., much below the corresponding figure for agriculture (Desai, 2014).

1.3. **Historical experience of out-migration from the state**

The current phenomenon of labour migration from the state of Bihar can be traced back to colonial period. This region started to experience labour out-migration at the earliest. This phenomenon is largely attributed to the pattern of regional inequality and underdevelopment fostered in colonial period. In the latter half of the nineteenth century, when the British Raj stabilized, law and order and civil administration improved. In this period, some developments in
irrigation facility and improved trade due to improved communication networks (roads and railways), led some agriculture development and specialization in cropping pattern in the western tracts of India, while the eastern region, where the population pressure was highest, could not experience such kind of development (Derbyshire, 1987). The Zamindari System of land settlement, in which the Zamindars were having the right to dismiss the rights of tenants in case of their incapability to pay high demands of rent, led to a much skewed distribution of land and a large proportion of landlessness among peasants. The commercialization of agriculture also increased without any increment of production, increased their misery further, which led them to migrate to the different parts of the country, particularly towards the eastern region of India and even foreign countries for their survival (Sharma, 2005).

Out-migration from Bihar in colonial period started as mostly non-permanent migration for wage work, which be separated into two important streams; interstate and international (Davis, 1951). The main stream of overseas out-migration from Bihar started mainly after 1834, when the slave trade was abolished. To replace the need of slave mainly for plantation, out-migration of Bihari laborers were promoted and mediated by colonial rulers to plantation countries (Kondapi, 1951; Mangat, 1969; Tiwari 2003). Bihar became a favorable soil to recruitment laborers as Bihar the population of this region was denser, less secure, and ready to accept cheap terms and more accustomed to work on wage (Davis, 1951). The labor system was indentured and laborers were called as coolies. Laborers were usually placed under five years of contract; at place of work their personal freedom was very restricted, they were bounded to do all the assigned work and treated almost like slave. There were no means to them to escape from the hardship at the place of work, as they were not allowed to withdraw from contract (Mangat, 1969). Slightly due to
some legislative reforms, started after 1870, the indentured system was finally abolished and replaced by a more moderate system of their recruitment. The new system was called as kangani or sardari system, which involved a short term contract period (usually 30 days). In this system, the recruitment was mediated by a head of migrant, who used to go to the home district to describe the benefit of wage work to their native community. Kangani used to provide many entitlements such as food cloths and transit etc. for their recruitment. The Kangani system came to decline usually after 1930s, when the plantation economy declined (Marten, 1923). Most of workers gone to the countries located between the latitude of 20° N. and 20° S, such as Mauritius, British Guiana, Trinidad and Tobago, South Africa, West Indies, Fiji and Kenya etc (Davis, 1951).

According to census report of British India 1921, Bihar was the state sending the largest volume of out-migrants whose flow was directed almost entirely to Bengal and Assam. Tea cultivation in Assam and North Bengal began in 1840 and flourished upon the imported labour force especially from Bihar and Orissa of that time. In 1931, Assam and North Bengal was employing 82 per cent of all workers in estate crops (Davis, 1951). The system of recruitment of laborers was that of indentured and kangani system. According to Immigrant Labour Reports, 1921 was the peak decade of their recruitment when 769000 new migrants entered to Assam. As the communication Assam to rest of India was very limited, the workers was akin to virtual prisoner in foreign country and treatment to them was as bad as faced by indentured laborers in overseas British Colony (Davis, 1951). According to census report of British India 1921, Bengal was receiving highest volume of migrants, around 19 lakhs of emigrants and around 66 per cent of them were coming from Bihar and Orissa of that time. Migrants were going to industrial areas of Hooghly,
Howrah, 24- Parganas and Calcutta to find employment. All the migrants coming to industrial area were not employed to industry but many of them got included in service providers of their traditional caste trade (Marten, 1923; Chattopadhayay 1987). The importance of migration in that time can be outlined by the volume of money-order remittances sent by out-migrants, which varied from 421 lakhs in 1915 to 666 lakhs in 1920 (Marten, 1923). The flow of periodic labor-force was also very important character of migration of that time. Migrants were going between March and November into agricultural and industrial area of Bengal and come back towards the end of year for the cultivating season in their home area (Marten, 1923 and Yang, 1979). The improved communication through railways made it possible the seasonal and periodic migration of this type (Yang, 1979). The circular migration was critically important for agricultural laborers and marginal farmers of Bihar for their bare subsistence. When the peasants and laborers were not able to get enough from cultivation, this migration was playing an important complementary role to fulfill their minimum needs (Yang, 1979 and de Haan 2002).

The eastward trend of out-migration remained important till the decade of 1950s and in the decade of 1960s a westward wave of labour out-migration originated (De Haan 2010). The green revolution started in the north-western part of India, created an unprecedented demand of laborers in agriculture. Starting in the early 1970s with a small trickle to the rural areas of Punjab it soon took the form of a flood during the next one decade. Soon the influx of migrants spilled over to the neighbouring state of Haryana (Karan, 2003). According to 1971 population census, immigration to rural area of Punjab has increased from 8 per cent in 1961 to 13 per cent in 1971 (Laksminarayan, 1982). The evidences from census show that the proportion of Bihari migrants in Punjab has increased continuously amid 1971 to 1991. In 1971 there were 8005 migrants
come from Bihar, whereas, in 1981 and 1991 this figure had gone up to 57132 (6.20 per cent of total in-migrants to Punjab) and 88388 (7.88 per cent of total in-migrants to Punjab). Among males, migrants from Bihar constituted 13.5 per cent of total in-migrants of Punjab. The need of manual work in the agriculture of Punjab was fulfilled by mostly migrant workers (Singh, 1995). A study conducted by Laksminarayan in 1979 in Ludhiana district shows that manual workers employed for paddy harvesting was 18.7 man days per acre in that year, out of which 13.76 days were accounted for by migrant casual labourer (Laksminarayan, 1982). The rising trend of out-migration stabilized in the decade of nineties; labour demand saturated in the area of green revolution because of the changes in cropping pattern and mechanization of agriculture and slow rise of wage rate in green revolution areas (Singh et. al., 2000).

Since last few decades, not only pattern and flow of out-migration has changed but, the other aspect of out-migration has also witnessed some makeable shift. The process of seasonal and circular out-migration has shifted to permanent out-migration; a study conducted by Karan (2003) in three district of Bihar shows that in 1982, only one-fourth of out-migrants were migrated for longer term at their place of destination, while in 1999 their shear increased to three-fourth of all migrants. This is because more and more migrants are taking up non-agricultural work in small and big towns as labourers in a variety of occupations like those of security guards, rickshaw pullers, coollies, etc, which require long-term migration (Sharma, 2005). The recent development in telecommunication has also affected the process of out-migration. Since virtually all migrants have or have access to mobile phones, it has become common for farmers in Punjab to call villagers in Bihar directly when they need labour for harvesting. At the same time migrants are able to maintain their contact more fictively with their
left behind family (Rodgers, 2011). Migration is now viewed as definite stage of life-cycle of people of Bihar, as male member of household approach to a certain age, they send away to earn. The remittance has been playing a critical role to support livelihood in the state (Dishingkar et. al., 2006).

1.4. Need for the study

At present times, villages are no more secluded and self-sufficient. State, market and civil society have become strong forces which are connecting and increasing the inter-dependency of villages and rural society with the rest. At present, any major change in rural society can hardly be seen in isolation of decreasing importance of agriculture and peasantry as a way of life. Evidences from the studies conducted at different parts of the developing world suggest the decreasing importance of agriculture on one hand and diversification of household livelihood as a result of this (Ellis, 1998; Bryceson, 2002). In India also, macro level data suggests the crisis in agricultural sector and the spread of non-agricultural sector in rural areas (World Bank, 2011), but acclaimed studies have not come up to show the process of diversification unfolding at the household level. Some studies indicated that managing different sources as a part of livelihood, is the strategy of the poor. Again few other studies indicate that wide formal employment in urban or non-agricultural sectors has left no option at all for the poor households, except to manage different sources together, to ensure that the risk associated with one source can be reduced by the other. Migration is also needed to be understood as a result of the entire context which is leading to diversification of household income (de Haas, 2008). As opposed to macro data, the evidences gathered at micro level suggest that the proportion of out-migration is much
higher than evidences from Census or NSS data suggest (Deshingkar and Anderson, 2004). Therefore, migration and remittances are playing a larger role in reshaping the rural economy and society than we are expecting. The study is conducted in the area of Bihar where migration has been the part of the household livelihood strategy historically and it is still prevalent and the process of diversification has been studied with focus on migration and remittances specifically.

Trend and pattern of economic development is now more biased towards big cities, more than ever before. Such cities have emerged as the major pool of migrants from the states like Bihar (Kumar and Bhagat, 2012). Studies universally show that in a country like India, those who migrate for economic or employment related reasons are mostly young and able bodied male (de Haan, 1999). Heavy out-flow of youth may lead to a situation, where female may outnumber male population and elderly may share a major proportion in population. Some studies show that heavy outflow of youth has the potentiality to alter the social and economic relation not in the society but also at the household level (Bryscon, 1998). Within the family, while female and elderly may participate in locally available activities, youth may be deployed to earn remittances. Young able bodied male may work as the human asset of the household, which may help it to overcome the locally available economic constraints and may connect to the fruit of development taking place at a distinct spatial unit (World Bank, 2011). Along with the diversification of household livelihood or income, the study focuses on the aspects related to labour force diversification also. It explains how the household is deploying its labour force at different locations and activities to earn its livelihood. From demographic point of view, such studies are required to understand the relationship of demographic endowment of the household and livelihood strategy. It is necessary to understand how with the process of out-migration, the
character of the household itself is changing and how a form of household has emerged whose nature is multi-spatial. From policy point of view, the understanding of the aspects of multi-spatiality of households and its livelihood is necessary to protect the right of migrants and their dependents. It is necessary to ensure that migrants and their household should not remain deprived from the assistance of the state at either places. The emerging combination of agricultural, non-agricultural activities and migration in rural areas is necessary for assessing the direction of development in future. From the research point of view also, recognizing the increasing hybrid nature of the household is important from economic as well as sociological dimensions. This study focuses on following objectives:

1.5. Objectives

1. To understand the pattern of livelihood and sources of income in the study area.
2. To understand how migration is leading to the diversification of livelihood of household and changing the face of dependency in rural economy?
3. To understand how the household has been adopting livelihood strategy vis-a-vis migration through its demographic structure and work force.
4. To understand the process of out-migration from the area of study and its determinants.
5. To understand the pattern of expenditure of remittances and to know how international migration provides the escape route from multifaceted experience of poverty.
1.6. Organization of thesis

Chapter I Introduction: This chapter introduces the concept of the study, need for the study and objectives.

Chapter II Methodology: This chapter defines the concepts and discussion on research design, data and methods.

Chapter III Review of literature: This chapter reviews literatures, and discusses livelihood framework, livelihood strategy and out-migration and diversification of livelihood.

Chapter IV Out-migration from Bihar: Evidence from Census 2001 and NSSO 64th round: In this chapter, secondary data from Census 2001 and NSSO 64th round, 2007 – 08 has been used to understand the overall scenario of out-migration and livelihood from Bihar.

Chapter V Socio-economic and demographic characteristics of the area of Study: This chapter discusses the socio demographic characteristics of the area of the study through some secondary sources as well as the primary data collected from field work.

Chapter VI Sources of livelihood and diversification of income: This chapter discusses the sources of income from agriculture, non-agriculture and remittances, tries to understand the importance of different sources and explains the diversification of income in the area of study.
Chapter VII Workforce in the household, its diversification and migration: This chapter discusses the deployment of the workforce in the area of study in different activities and use of household work-force in migration.

Chapter VIII Process of out-migration and use of remittances in improving household condition and securing its livelihood: This chapter covers the discussion of two important forms of out-migration from the area of study; internal and international, network of outmigration from the area and use of remittances for the improvement in the condition of the household.

Chapter IX Summary and conclusion: This chapter summarizes the findings and conclusion of the study.