CHAPTER -I

INTRODUCTION

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Seasonal Migration is a common phenomenon in many organisms, terrestrial as well as aquatic, and considerable effort has been spent to understand the evolution of migratory behavior and its consequences for population and community dynamics. Seasonal migration is certainly not a new phenomenon in India. However, the magnitude of rural labour circulation is of recent origin, and a direct consequence of structural changes in the economy. Seasonal migration could be largely distress driven and stimulated by the partial or complete collapse of rural employment generation, economic difficulties of cultivation and absence of alternative employment opportunities in underdeveloped regions of the country. In reality, it has become an integral part of livelihood strategies pursued by a large number of poor people living in agriculturally underdeveloped areas.

Seasonal migration has played a crucial role in allowing rural people to cope with the consequences of agrarian distress and devastated rural economies in many parts of India. It was suggested that migration helped to raise the migrant household’s standard of living (Rao, 1986). The study of Rani and Shylendra (2001) revealed that seasonal migration is mainly due to weak resources, as the cultivable land is small, less fertile and dependent largely on rain-fed cultivation. Moreover, due to inadequate farm and non-farm employment opportunities within the village, most of the households are compelled to migrate during the lean agricultural season to supplement their farm income. argues that migration is due to pull and push factors. Pull factors refer to better employment, higher wages, better life conditions, and good health and education opportunities at destinations. On the other hand, migration is impelled by push (distress) factors at home such as lack of employment, low wage rates, agricultural failure, debt, drought and other natural calamities.. Deshingkar
(2003) explains, debt cycle as a push factor of the social expenses like marriages and festivals, and need money to repay it. Deshingkar et al. (2006) study in Bihar observes migration. Furthermore, she found that people borrow money for investment in agriculture, repayment of previous debt, meeting hat migration reduced 50-75% of dependency level to moneylenders in migrant households of Muzzaffarpur.

Migration theory put is that migration is stimulated primarily by economic implications. The theory explains that the decision to migrate would depend upon expected higher wages (real wage differentials) and the probability of successfully obtaining an urban job. Lee (1966), theory argues that migration is due to pull and push factors. Pull factors refer to better employment, higher wages, better life conditions, and good health and education opportunities at destinations. On the other hand, migration is impelled by push (distress) factors at home such as lack of employment, low wage rates, agricultural failure, debt, drought and other natural calamities.

As the economic, political and social activities have intensified in Bahir Dar town (the capital of Amhara Region), it has become the destination of many labour migrants. A large number of seasonal migrants work in urban informal sectors as casual labourers, and porters, and are employed temporarily in the construction and service sectors. Similarly, thousands of people migrate from their rural homeland villages to urban centers for employment. This type of migration is undertaken in both normal and poor agricultural seasons in order to diversify household incomes and as coping strategies against various risks. Recent years, unemployment, frequent crop failure, indebtedness, inadequate credit facilities, lack of alternative opportunities, droughts and poverty level in rural areas has been increasing, thereby leading to despair or distress conditions in the rural sector. As a result, the rural poor, labour and marginal and small farming communities are on the move, temporarily leaving their homes in search of employment and livelihood in other prosperous rural and/or urban areas in the country (Smita, 2007).

1.2 ORIGIN AND HISTORY OF SEASONAL MIGRATION

Seasonal Migration history is both a prominent part of Global Labour History as well as crucial element of Global Economic History. The study of Global Labour History
would be unthinkable without the unfreeze migration (slavery, indentured labour, forced migration, military migration), seasonal migration and so on. In the study of Global Economic History migration movements play an important role alongside other demographic factors. To fully understand the causes and effects of migration and settlement processes in the current globalizing world, a long timeframe and a global perspective are essential. Historical migration studies have long focused primarily on the European and Atlantic worlds. Since 2005 in a programmatic and long term project, the IISH aims to broaden the perspective to include the full migration experience of the non-Western world while proposing both a short and long term series of studies to further this goal. To this end the IISH in collaboration with the history department of the University of Leiden has launched the Global Migration History Programmed. See also the current Global Migration History projects. Seasonal Migration from Jharkhand to other states is no exception. Indeed, De Haan (2002) has argued that circular out-migration from Bihar, the state from which Jharkhand seceded in November 2000, is at least a hundred years old. In the late 1800s, West Bengal, the Andaman and Nicobar Islands, Assam, Bhutan and even Burma attracted migrants from Jharkhand. These 'aboriginal', 'tribal' or 'jungli' hill people of Chotanagpur were preferred in railway and road-building projects, and especially tea plantations, where they were considered 'more industrious and tractable than other classes' (Government of India 1861: 2). By 1895, at least 50 per cent of workers in Assamese tea plantations came from Chotanagpur (Badgaiyan 1994: 177).

The fate of the Polish nation has in many aspects been tied to the history of Germany and was deemed as falling within its sphere of power. Twelve million Germans grated to the South of the country at the end of the Second World War as a result of the reparation of the Eastern provinces. Between the 1860s and 1914s, 1.7 million Poles moved to Germany to work in the agricultural and industrial sectors. This was necessitated by 6 million Germans immigrating to the United States between 1880 and the 1930s. The Polish seasonal labourers moved from village to village doing agricultural work. They were prized workers because of their good work ethic. The works carried out by Poles were paid less and they had to endure worse conditions than German agricultural labourers. Finally, years of devastating caused a lack of working men power. Agriculture suffered from a labour force
deficit which was supposed to feed the nation. The labour force was received from abroad and from prisoners of war and concentration camps. Between 1939 - 1945, there were 7,8 million foreign workers in Germany. This number was made up of Poles, Soviets, French, Belgians, Italians and Dutch. Around 30% of the German labour forces were foreigners. Hard agricultural work was carried out by 300000 of Polish prisoners.

Seasonal migration has emerged as an important livelihood strategy for at least 20 million people in India living in areas where there is a lack of local opportunities to diversify out of agriculture. When the WIRFP started in the early 1990s, the project team described its clients as 'farmers who migrate'; it now views them more as 'migrants who farm'. Migration is now at least as important as farming in the livelihood strategies of the poor (Jones and De Souza 2004). The migration season is usually between October-November and the beginning of the monsoon rains in June-July. Migrants are typically away for periods of one to six months. Migration is mainly rural-urban to cities such as Vadodara, Surat and Ahmedabad in the State of Gujarat; Indore in Madhya Pradesh and Kota in Rajasthan. There is also rural-rural migration to high productivity agricultural districts within and beyond the project area. Most of the farmers in this region practice rain fed agriculture, much of it on marginal and degraded land. There is little scope for irrigation. Infrastructure and service provision is poor and alternative livelihood opportunities extremely limited. Most of these areas have only limited roads and are weakly integrated with markets, during the dry season (November to June).

Abstract Using longitudinal data this work analyses historical fertility between 1834 and 1914 in an Alpine village situated in north-east Italy, characterized by scarce resources and by an economy which passed from being traditional and based on closed subsistence to becoming open and integrated. During the initial period studied, this territory can be described as a natural fertility context, where Malthusian preventive checks were long-run mechanisms adopted to overcome the limitations set by the environment. In later years, seasonal migration started to play a predominant role in the community. The influx of seasonal migrant labourers into Leh-Ladakh is not a new phenomenon. It existed prior to the integration of Ladakh into the Indian Union. Historical accounts of migrant labourers streaming into the region to engage in various tasks have been recorded by various
historians (Norberg Hodge 1991, Rizvi 1996). Skills such as woodwork and carpentry, painting, crafting of musical instruments and ornaments; accounted to have been sought by the local Ladakhi community were carried out by people from various places like Nepal and Kashmir, especially the Doda region. Members of the Mon community were also such migrants till they got assimilated into the local populace. The local King of the Ladakhi community brought individuals with specific skills

Every year the poor from Orissa, West Bengal, Jharkhand and Bihar migrate to work in the brick kilns of Howrah District. These labourers migrate in semi-bonded conditions due to acute shortage of sustainable livelihood options in their native places. Moneylenders and contractors further compound the socio-economic condition of these labourers because of exploitative practices. Middlemen or labour contractors emerged as a set of exploiters. Their job is simple: They coax the poor people and farmers of these poorest areas of the country into migrating for work to other states where the rich industrialists, brick-kiln owners or road contractors savour the cheap but skilled labour. These labourers do not qualify as migrants under the Inter-State Migrant Workmen's (Regulation of Employment & Conditions of Service) Act of 1979, since they migrate on their own volition.

In Sweden for example ethnic minorities and foreign seasonal workers have been studied by ethnologists' since1970s. In Finland this only begun in the 1990s because prior to this Finland was a donor country. Historians and ethnologists have, however, carried out research about Finnish emigrants in Russia, America, Australia and Sweden since the 970s. At the moment Finland is a receptor country, receiving migrants from among other nations and countries Turkey, Iraq, Somalia, Morocco, Russia, Estonia. Seasonal migration started from the sample villages in the year 1991, when Niran Bag of Bhalukuna village migrated with his family. It was truly a response to starvation and lack of job opportunity. During 1992-93, while rural poverty rate at the national level was 37.2%, in Orissa it was 49.9% (Human Development Report, Orissa 2004). The spatial dimension of poverty in Orissa concentrates maximum number of poor in the southwest region as compared to the coastal region.

Seasonal workers to Finland history and national identity some Finnish examples
talks about Finland's history and the action of Finnishness. This article helps to understand Finnish feelings toward foreigners Matti Klinge's world resourced A Brief Finnish History, translated into 20 languages, gives a lot of information about Finnish identity and Finnishness and the national, cultural awakening (Klinge, 1992, 45-89). Today the Swedish berry picking industry has become dependent on foreign seasonal migrant workers from Thailand, China, Vietnam and Eastern European countries such as Poland, Ukraine, Lithuania and Latvia among others. The foreign migrant workers measures up to more than 80 percent of the labor force in the berry picking industry (SBIF, 2010). Since the year 2000 there has been an increasing number of Thai berry pickers; in particular rural people who are farmers from the North-east parts of Thailand.

1.3 CONCEPT, MEANING AND DEFINITION OF SEASONAL MIGRATION

The concept of seasonal migration is most usually associated with agricultural labour it often involves change in residence for short or reasonably long period though migrant labourers are found everywhere in the world India has probably more migrant workers than any other Asian country; these are involved mainly in the harvesting of plantation crops such as tea, cotton, rice and sugarcane (Lahari 1984) the seasonal migration of rural labour is thus as important ingredient of rural to rural migration in India seasonal migration of agricultural labour seems to be promoted more by the ‘push’ factor rather than the ‘pull’ factor. It is a well known fact that agricultural labourers move out in the off season in search of livelihood because of lack of opportunities in the place of their origin.Levels than those not sending migrants. On the other hand, Kothari's (2002) review of migration studies finds that migration can both reduce and perpetuate poverty. Nevertheless, the dominant perception of migration among policy-makers, academics and officials in India continues to be that migration is only for survival and that migrants remain poor. The image of the migrant continues to be that of a powerless, impoverished and emaciated person who is trapped in poverty.

Deshingkar et al. (2009) defined seasonal migration as a temporary move from and followed by return to the normal place of residence, for purposes of employment. This study reveals that some households barely manage to raise themselves above existing survival
levels, while others accumulate wealth over time. However, what is clear is that most would be worse off if they were depending solely on local employment. In this context, the present paper which is based on a field experience, deals with some of the important migration issues as mentioned above. The main objective of the paper is to examine the nature and characteristics of seasonal migrant households. Secondly, it focuses on evaluating the forms of migration, and finally, it analyses the wage, work conditions and the expenditure pattern of earnings from migration.

**The Seasonal Migration Cycle:** Labour contractors provide cash advances to poor families in villages during the lean post-monsoon months, in return for which families pledge their labour for the coming season. Migrations begin around October–November with migrant families spending the next six to eight months at the work sites, and then returning to their villages before the next monsoon. Once the rains are over, they again prepare to leave their villages. This cycle is typical of the lives of hundreds of thousands of the poorest rural families in many parts of India (see Figure 1.1). This type of labour mobility is seasonal for two reasons: (i) because of the uneven rhythm of the economic activities over the year – peak periods alternating with slack periods, and (ii) because of the open air character of production processes, which makes it necessary for work to stop with the onset of the monsoon. This seasonal migration cycle overlaps with six to seven months of the school calendar, which means that children who are enrolled can go to school only from June until November, after which point they usually drop out (see Figure 1.1).
According to Smita (2007) broadly defined seasonal migration on the basis of three elements: (i) a lack of alternatives in origin areas which force entire families to migrate in search of work, (ii) work which is based on indebtedness generates little or no surplus for the labourers at the end of the season, and is merely for survival, (iii) work which involves large-scale violation of labour laws.

**Defining the population:** as with any analysis of population characteristics, an examination of farm workers and their families begins with a discussion of definitions. Two separate sets of policies - those which are a part of labor law, and those which govern the provision of migrant healthcare - are relevant. Answer: It can refer to animal behavior or to the behavior of some human travelers who head North during the summer months to places like Colorado or Alaska and spend their winters in Florida, Arizona or Mexico. They are often called Snowbirds.

**Definition of seasonal work:** Article 3.c of the directive refers to employment in a sector or
“activity dependent on the passing of the seasons.” It remains unclear which sectors and activities can be categorized under seasonal work and if the directive refers to natural seasons or any period of greater employment needs.

**Seasonal Migration:** The process of moving for a period of time in response to labor or climate conditions (e.g., farm workers following crop harvests or working in cities off-season; "snowbirds" moving to the southern and southwestern United States during winter).

### 1.4 TYPES OF MIGRATION

Migration takes place in many forms, including so called forced and voluntary movement. In the 20th century economically motivated migration (voluntary) predominated and in response to the gradual hardening of policies to migration, unofficial but voluntary and economically inspired movement also became more evident. While precise figures for the people moving for economic remain elusive, it is estimated that over 200 million people move every year to find work and a better life of these 30 million are so called unofficial. Economically motivated migration assumes other additional permutations too, some people move with the intention of setting and beginning new lives. Others move to countries with the intention of staying long enough to earn sufficient money before returning home, some move with contractual agreement and hence coverage for the period of employment. Others move in a more unregistered way, but find work and stay for periods of indeterminate duration. Each of these forms of economically motivated migration has the capacity to present its own new challenges. Some of those challenges are related to where people come from, where they go and how they move. Many of their challenges are also a function of national policies and social attitudes to migrants and their living conditions.

It would be irresponsible not to acknowledge that the number of people forced to move for reasons of conflict and political repression also grew over the course of the last century and has continued to take diverse forms. People continued flee across borders and become refugees with UN protection, while at much the same time millions of others were forced to flee from their own borders, often without any international or national protection. The social and health care implications of forced migration are always severe and far-
reaching. Over the course of the last fifty years international tourism also became an increasingly dominant form of movement across borders. The World Tourist Organization estimates that by the year 2010 more than 10 billion people will be travelling for purposes of leisure, and a large part of this movement will involve long-haul flights across different ecological and health zones. Health policies with regard to tourism have been more relaxed than with other type of migration, but the health implications of tourist travel should not be discounted, for they are often involve considerable morbidity.

The letter part of the 20th century also saw international education become a source of organized migration and a major industry that in the United States of America alone amounts to more than $12 billion a year. In Europe and Australia it is also becoming an important source revenue and involving inter-cultural travel that inevitably brings with it implications for health for students who move into new and often difficult psychological conditions. The migrating people, whether emigrants or immigrants or foreign seasonal workers, have been of marginal interest to American anthropology and ethnography in European countries for a long time. Migration has proved a special research area in other social sciences; however it meant more or less there too a neglected field of inquiry (Fejös, 1992, 44). Finland has been always described as a meeting point between East and West Europe, where different cultures meet. The geographical position of Finland between Sweden and Russia has undoubtedly an impact on the way the minority situation and migration from and to Finland is to be characterized (www4). The migrating people, whether emigrants or immigrants or foreign seasonal workers, have been of marginal interest to American anthropology and ethnography in European countries for a long time. Migration has proved a special research area in other social sciences, however it meant more or less there too a neglected field of inquiry (Fejös, 1992, 44).

1.5 CAUSES OF SEASONAL MIGRATION

Motivation factors and impacts of seasonal migration in Ethiopia, the study underpinned by the Sustainable Livelihood Framework, both urban and rural areas as places of destination and rural villages as origins of migrants have been considered. Data were collected using a questionnaire survey, key informant interviews, focus group discussions,
and household case studies. Shortage of farmland, debt, lack of viable non-farm activities locally, and the desire to earn additional income are the major reasons for seasonal migration of labour. Social networks and information flows are also important factors in migration. The research found that single men are predominantly involved in migration while the participation of women is negligible. The earnings obtained have allowed rural households to supplement their income from agriculture and indirectly contributed to overcoming the problem of farmland scarcity. The timing of movement which coincides with the agricultural slack season at home makes the impacts of seasonal out-migration on agriculture minimal. Rather than viewing it as a livelihood option of the rural poor which contributes to reducing poverty and improving the livelihoods of the poor, migration is still perceived negatively, and there has been little awareness of its significance (Woldie Asfaw, Degefa Tolossa & Gete Zeleke, 2010).

Migration for livelihoods is an inevitable phenomenon in Indian context. Two significant causes of migration especially from rural to rural and rural to urban migration are relevant. Firstly, uneven distribution of natural resources leaves many people either landless or marginal farmers. As per the results of NSS (National Sample Survey) 49th round survey in India (1998), landownership has a direct relationship with migration. Households having low access to land are more likely to migrate than the households having high access to land. In rural India, still a large group of people depends upon agriculture as their primary source of income. In the absence of irrigation facilities, rainwater plays a crucial role in agriculture productivity and agriculture labour days. The seasonal nature of agriculture keeps many households away from their primary source of livelihood. That resulted in livelihood diversification into the off farm sector and migration. Secondly, economic reforms took place in India during 1991 in response to the severe crisis in the balance of payments. As a result, India became more open to market forces including foreign direct investment. During the 90s, the overall growth rate was around 6.0 that placed India among the fastest growing developing countries. On the other hand, regional inequalities increased. While industrialization and the green revolution concentrate in few states like Gujarat, Punjab, Maharashtra; states like Bihar and Orissa are continuously dealing with the curse of poverty. That resulted in migration from underdeveloped region to developed region (Union
A country in which migration has become the dominant socioeconomic phenomenon in a period of less than 8 years, special emphasis is placed on seasonal migration, which has become increasingly popular in many Eastern European countries. Our findings indicate that poverty is a main push factor of migration decisions. Additionally, network effects and migration experience appear to be crucial for Moldovan migration flows. Concerning the choice of seasonal vs. permanent migration, we find that neither young dependent in the household nor marital status seem to influence the migrant's decision of whether to leave seasonally or permanently. The main causes of seasonal migrants (Dennis Görlich, 2006). In the East Mesa study respondents could give more than one reason for their seasonal migration. In addition to climate, (in order of most often cited response) respondents own health or husband's health, visiting friends, and traveling through the area (tourism) were other circumstances which led to seasonal migration to Arizona. A smaller percentage of mobile home residents than travel trailer residents cited climate as the main reason (Sullivan and Stevens, 1982).

In Chautauqua, seasonal migrants also could supply more than one reason for seasonal migration. These included: proximity to family, health, and recreational opportunities. Thus, tourism did not seem to play a major role in why seasonal migrants chose to migrate. No studies, however, asked how the specific community was chosen. Community choice may be influenced by tourism (Wiseman, 1980). When asked why they migrate, seasonal migrants most frequently responded: to escape the cold winter in the Snowbelt states. Not surprisingly, snowbirds planned their length of stay in the states they visited based upon the length and severity of the winter in the north. In Chautauqua, climate was the principal reason given by 74% of the seasonal migrants (Krout 1983) and in East Mesa by 90% of the travel trailer and 86% of the mobile home dwellers (Sullivan and Stevens, 1982).

1.6 TRENDS IN SEASONAL MIGRATION
Between the 1860s and 1914s, 1.7 million Poles moved to Germany to work in the agricultural and industrial sectors. This was necessitated by 6 million Germans emigrating to the United States between 1880 and the 1930s. The Polish seasonal labourers moved from village to village doing agricultural work. They were prized workers because of their good work ethic. The works carried out by Poles were paid less and they had to endure worse conditions than German agricultural labourers. Finally, years of devastating caused a lack of working men power. Between 1939 - 1945, there were 7.8 million foreign workers in Germany. This number was made up of Poles, Soviets, French, Belgians, Italians and Dutch. Around 30% of the German labour forces were foreigners. Hard agricultural work was carried out by 300,000 of Polish prisoners.

Currently, the main migratory outflow from Poland is short-term work. Polish seasonal migration for work for a maximal period of three months a year constitutes a striking example of this form of outflow. In 2004, approximately 307,000 work permits were issued for seasonal work in Germany, as compared to 292,000 in 2003, and 131,000 in 1992 (Kępinska, 2013) labels seasonal migration from Poland “incomplete migration”, points out that “migrants increasingly focus on one particular aim: namely earning money in the host country and spending it in the home country, and characterizes “mobility of this kind [as] a split living set-up, with economic activity pursued largely in the host country and family life taking place predominantly in the home country were preferred in railway and road-building projects, and especially tea plantations, where they were considered 'more industrious and tractable than other classes' (Government of India 1861: 2). By 1895, at least 50 per cent of workers in Assamese tea plantations came from Chotanagpur. Estimates that by 1921 nearly a million tribal’s, one third of Chotanagpur’s tribal population, had seasonal migrated.

Camodian demographers point out that those born during the marital twenties (1920-29) numbered nearly 2 million in 1996 and ranged in age from 68 to 77. As they move into their late seventies and eighties their lifestyle choices are expected to have a significant impact on the economy, particularly through increased demands on the health care system. Quantitative research has shown that this cohort is the most prevalent among seasonal migrants. According to national statistics, seasonal migration is expected to grow. Based on the 2007 data on migration attitudes and desires, Minasyan et al. (2007) predicted an
increase in the potential permanent and labor migration from Armenia. Another study of migration in Armenia, showed that 36 percent of respondents wanted to leave for labor migration, about 43 percent of which preferred Russia for that reason, compared to only 22 percent of those preferring USA. Meanwhile 17.3 percent in the study wanted to leave the country on a permanent basis (Zhakevich, 2008).

Seasonal migration in India are lacking, a growing number of micro-studies have established that seasonal migration for employment is growing both in terms of absolute numbers but also in relation to the size of the working population as a whole. The National Commission on Rural Labour (NCRL) puts the number of circular migrants in rural areas alone at around 10 million (including roughly 4.5 million inter-State migrants and 6 million intra-State migrants). But the departments of rural development, agriculture and labour are not geared to dealing with migrants and just regard them as external to the systems that they work with. According to the NCRL, the majority of seasonal migrants are employed in cultivation and plantations, brick-kilns, quarries, construction sites and fish processing. Further, large numbers of seasonal migrants work in urban informal manufacturing, construction, services or transport sectors, employed as casual labourers, head-loaders, rickshaw pullers and hawkers (Dev, 2002).

1.7 SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT AND SEASONAL MIGRATION

The “new economics of labour migration” theorists, it was found that migrants from the least endowed communities, from the best endowed communities, are likely to invest in agricultural land. This pattern is related to variable prices of land and the composition of the participants of the Canadian guest worker programme, most of whom are poor. The article draws attention to the importance of considering composition of migrant workers in an analysis of the impact of migration on community development. Development is analyzed in the article from both the “growth” and the “quality of living” perspectives and it is found that regardless of the perspective used, the nature of the community affect the impact of migration on development. People remain unemployed after the agriculture season, and in the absence of an appropriate institutional arrangement, seasonal migration plays a vital role to provide gainful employment opportunities. Finally, income from seasonal migration
meets the consumption and productive needs and stabilizes households' economy. Outcome of migration is determined 'by peoples' access to resources, the… environment, intra household relations, wider social relations,

In Orissa or Andhra Pradesh. Today, the wage negotiation is done between the workers and the maistries officially registered by the sugar mills. In the village of our investigation, the maistries would get a loan of 100.000Rs-150000Rs from the Mills through the bank. This amount is utilised to a great extent for the distribution of advances to the worker. The maistries are remunerated by the sugar mills on the basis of a bonus based on the production amount (10Rs/ ton) and by a withdrawal from the workers' enumeration through a deduction from the harvest of each pannai (set). Each Sunday, an amount of 500Rs for food is given by the maistry to the pannai. However, from one season to another or from one pannai to another, the harvested amounts are highly variable; such variations stem from different factors: the quality of the cane production (fertilizer, irrigation…), the absorption capacity of the sugar mills, the number of places of harvest and their proximity; some pannai change from one place to another 20 to 40 times during the year;so here we come to that  pannai can change their work as per their benefits

Seasonal work programs are increasingly advocated by international aid agencies as a way of enabling both developed and developing countries to benefit from migration. Under the RSE, up to 5000 workers from eligible Pacific Island countries are recruited to work in New Zealand for seven months per eleven month period and can return in future seasons if recruited again. The employer pays half of the return airfare from the worker's home country and provides stipulated minimum hours of work at hourly or piece rates typical of those received by local workers for equivalent work in the same period and region. Typical jobs for RSE workers are pruning trees and vines, picking apples, citrus and grapes, and picking and packing kiwifruit. Employers also arrange internal transportation and accommodation, provide training and equipment, and look after other aspects of pastoral care for their seasonal workers. these agencies as boon for the migrants for their progress and developing john Gibson and David McKenzie(2009). Ills development occurs over time. As McKenzie and Gibson (2010) found, it wasn't until the second year that village leaders in Tonga started to mention improved skills as a benefit of the RSE scheme.
However, the development and utilisation of newly acquired skills is something that Pacific states are starting to think about as a contribution that returning workers can make to economic development. For example, many of the workers have small plots of land that could be developed through the planting of new crops or increased planting of existing crops - e.g. pawpaw, limes, pineapples, mandarins, oranges (Evaluate Research, 2010). This is an area that could be explored further as customary land still plays an important role in sustainable livelihoods and acquiring of the seasonal migration’s these skills they earn sufficient money.

The study investigated that seasonal migration is a crucial livelihood strategy in the semi-arid zones for the resource poor households. It has improved migrant households’ wellbeing by generating working days, reducing insufficiency and vulnerability as it is suggested by Scoones (1998: 5-7) for the analysis of livelihood outcomes. Improved wellbeing at the households’ level further extended to influence the social institutions at the community level. However, improper migration policy and government schemes have minimized the benefit of seasonal migration. Therefore, Haberfeld et al. (1999) suggested, unless the government policies benefits the poorest, seasonal migration should be promoted as a free market mechanism.

1.8 SEASONAL MIGRATION PROGRAMS

The aim of this literature review was to identify pre-departure and reintegration services for temporary migrants and the impact of these services. In relation to reintegration services, it focuses on services that support building economic livelihoods, income generation, skills and employment prospects. The primary focus was on literature relating to the New Zealand Government’s Recognized Seasonal Employer (RSE) Scheme and the Australian Government’s Pacific Seasonal Worker Pilot Scheme (PSWPS). This review also explored Canada’s Seasonal Agricultural Workers Programme (CSAWP) and the Philippines.
temporary migration scheme to the extent that any lessons learned might be relevant to good practice and opportunities in the South Pacific region.

- **New Zealand's Recognised Seasonal Employer scheme:** The New Zealand Recognised Seasonal Employer (RSE) Scheme was established in 2006 and started in 2007 by the Department of Labour. Inter-Agency Understandings (IAU) were developed with five “kick-start” Pacific states - Vanuatu, Tonga, Samoa, Kiribati and Tuvalu. An IAU was signed with the Solomon Islands in 2008 (Clark, 2008). Since that time the scheme has expanded to include workers from the Federated States of Micronesia, Nauru, Palau, Papua New Guinea, and the Republic of Marshall Islands.

- **Australia's Pacific Seasonal Worker Pilot Scheme:** The PSWPS was a three-year pilot scheme announced by the Australian Government in August 2008 with the first workers going to Australia in February 2009. The broad objective of the Pilot was to examine whether a seasonal worker program could: Pacific seasonal workers are recruited from Kiribati, Papua New Guinea, Tonga and Vanuatu to work with horticultural enterprises in Australia who cannot find enough local labour to meet their seasonal harvest needs. Approved Employers can choose to recruit Pacific seasonal workers for a minimum of six months, five months or four months (Department of Education, Employment and Workplace Relations (DEEWR), 2011).
- **Canada's Seasonal Agricultural Workers Program:** The CSAWP has been operating since 1966. In 2010 there were 27,359 workers from Mexico and the Caribbean requested under the scheme (Human Resources and Skills Development Canada, 2011 cited in Preibisch, 2011). Workers are employed for up to eight months.

- **Philippines temporary migration:** Around 800,000 temporary migrants leave the Philippines annually. The process for migration is managed by the Philippine Overseas Employment Administration (POEA) that oversees recruitment and placement of workers overseas. “The POEA publishes an updated list of overseas job openings, recruitment agencies' contact information, and the number of vacancies available through their website. The POEA also provides a quality control service by rating the status of the private recruitment agencies.

- **Under Canada's Seasonal Agricultural Workers Program and the Philippines:** Seasonal migration in the Pacific, the United States and Canada is dominated by men and demarcated by gender with the nature of the physically demanding work appearing to have driven this (McKenzie and Gibson, 2010; Encalada Grez, 2011). However, as Preibisch (2010) found in relation to Mexico the situation was also likely to be shaped by history and culture that saw men as breadwinners and women at home. She found however that employers caused the situation due to their determined preference for male farmhands.

- **Seasonal Agricultural Worker Scheme (SAWS):** SAWS are a quota-based scheme to allow farmers and growers in the UK to recruit overseas workers to do short-term, low-skilled agricultural work (planting and gathering crops, on-farm processing and packing, handling livestock). The workers should be paid at least the agricultural minimum wage and will be provided with accommodation by the farmer or grower who employs them. SAWS is run for the Home Office by 9 approved operators who recruit suitable people and place them on farms - S & A Davies and Haygrove Ltd are the operators based in Herefordshire. The Home Office expects the worker to leave the UK after a maximum of 6 months, when the 'permission to stay' is finished, but they may re-apply for the scheme again after three months outside the UK.
• **Children education work place:** As mentioned above, the objective of Jyotishka project is to mainstream children who are living/working in the Brick Kilns. Please find here with a list of children who have returned from Amardaha panchayat of Howrah District, West Bengal, after the Brick Kilns season. During October 2009 to June 2010 we have provided bridge course to these children and now they are ready for mainstreaming in schools.

1.9 **STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM**

Seasonal migration is universally recognized as an alternative livelihoods strategy for many poor households. Transnational migration of skilled and unskilled labourers has been widely studied and well connected with the macroeconomic stability. At the same time, domestic migration has been either overlooked or attracted little attention from academicians. In case of the seasonal nature of migration, 'the impact has been overlooked by students of migration' As a result, 'policy makers perceive population movements as a threat to stability or a challenge to established life style' (De Haan 1999). Similarly gunner Myrdal observes that in many under developing countries a part of the labour force does not engage in any form of works at all, most of these workers who work only short periods in agricultural sector. these countries have to face problem of disguised to refer to the mass unemployment. Ranger nurkse says that disguised unemployment prevails, especially in agricultural sector of an underdeveloped and over populated contrived.

as we have already mentioned the agriculture on which the bulk of the rural population in our country has to depend for the main source of sustenance which is itself largely dependent on the precipitation and destruction of rainfall failure of rain and consequent failure of agriculture greatly reduce the purchasing pour of this large of population recurrence of such situation called as droughts: droughts occur once in every five year in some parts of India {viz , in west Bengal ,MP, Kerala, coastal parts of AndraPradesh, Maharasra and inferior of south Karnataka, Bihar and Orisa.

The seasonal nature of agriculture keeps many households away from their primary
source of livelihood. That resulted in livelihood diversification into the of farm sector and migration. Secondly, economic reforms took place in India during 1991 in response to the severe crisis in the balance of payments. As a result, India became more open to market forces including foreign direct investment. During the 90s, the overall growth rate was around 6.0 that placed India among the fastest growing developing countries (Union Budget 2000-2001). On the other hand, regional inequalities increased. While industrialization and the green revolution concentrate in few states like Gujarat, Punjab, Maharashtra; states like Bihar and Orissa are continuously dealing with the curse of poverty. So far as seasonal migration problem on Indian is concerned the majority of the poorer live on the rural areas and belong to the categories of landless labourers, small and marginal farmers, rural artisans and backward classes and tribes; these people have either no assets with very low productivity, a few relevant skills and no regular full time or very low paid jobs seasonal. Essentially, unemployment in rural areas is seasonal coinciding with the post-harvest periods in each region at any given period of time. Unemployment is associated with all types or workers from the small, owner attributors down to migratory agricultural labourers for periods of time even during the agricultural season.

The absence of conditions on agriculture and its ancillary activities to provide full time employment during even the agricultural season this emerges as the distinguishing feature of the rural scene in India. The marginal productivity of the members of the family is negligible or zero from agriculture, their continuance in agriculture would add no food to the total, and the majority of the agricultural labourers and marginal farmers do not get enough work during the off-season. Consequently, they migrate from on sufficient food and limited sources of geographical areas to job opportunities areas. Every winter (November-December) a large group of people from Aland Taluka of Gulbarga district migrates to work in the brick kilns of place of city. They work in the destination for 6-7 months and return before the rainy season (May-June). This form of migration is termed as distress migration because it is in response to insufficiency and lack of job opportunity. Policy response towards migration is reflected in the form of employment generation schemes from both central and state government. While MGNREGA (Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act) promises to provide 100 days jobs to one interested
member of each BPL (Below Poverty Line) family, AAY (Antodaya Anna Yojana) aims to provide 35 kilograms of rice at a minimum and affordable price. On the whole, government policy is ignoring the contribution of seasonal migration as an alternative livelihoods strategy.

Migration has become the dominant socioeconomic phenomenon in recent years. Special emphasis is placed on seasonal migration, which has become increasingly popular in many Eastern European countries. Our findings indicate that poverty is a main push factor of migration decisions. Additionally, network effects and migration experience appear to be crucial for Moldovan migration flows. Concerning the choice of seasonal vs. permanent migration, we find that neither young dependent in the household nor marital status seem to influence the migrant's decision of whether to leave seasonally or permanently. The main groups of seasonal migrants are less educated men from rural areas.

Land taluka is one of the poorest Taluka in Gulbarga dist as compared to the neighboring Taluka of Aland. Human Development Report, aland (2004) identified two spatial dimensions of poverty as; it is a rural phenomenon and there is a significant regional variation in the poverty rate. The Southwest region of Gulbarga is relatively poor. Further, the report characterized this region as 'chronic drought conditions, high level of food insecurity and chronic income poverty resulting in absolute hunger, regular distress migration and periodic allegation of starvation death (Human Development Report). Now how can this difficult situation be tackled? How can rural marginal farmers, landless and agricultural labour and migrates be saved out of this situation? What are reasons of seasonal migration among labour today these are the most challenging problems of seasonal migrant’s migrant place.

1.10 CHAPTERIZATION:

1. Introduction.
2. Review of Literature.
3. Research Methodology.
4. Profile of Study Population.
5. Place of Seasonal Migration and living condition
6. Factors associated with the seasonal migration.
7. Pattern’s of seasonal migration.
8. Impact of Seasonal migration on Migrants and their family.
10. Conclusion