

Impact of Men Emigration on Women in Agriculture
A Study in Selected Districts of Telangana State

*A Thesis Submitted during 2021 to the University of Hyderabad in partial
fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of*

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

In
**Centre for the Study of Social Exclusion & Inclusive Policy
(CSSEIP)**

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DECLARATION

I, **G. SUNITHA** hereby declare that this thesis entitled **“Impact of Men Emigration on Women in Agriculture: A Study in Selected Districts of Telangana State”**, submitted by me under the guidance and supervision of **Dr. V. Srinivasa Rao** is bonafide research work. I also declare that it has not been submitted previously in part or full to this University or any other University or Institute for the award of any degree or diploma. I hereby agree that my thesis can be deposited in Shodganga/INFLIBNET.

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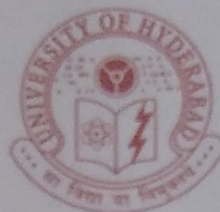
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CERTIFICATE

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I. Research Paper Published in the Following Publication:

1. G. Sunitha. 2021. "Impact of Globalisation on Tribes in Telangana: A Study among Lambadas." In *Disadvantaged Tribes of India: Regional Concerns*, edited by V. Srinivasa Rao, 296–314. New Delhi: Rawat Publications.

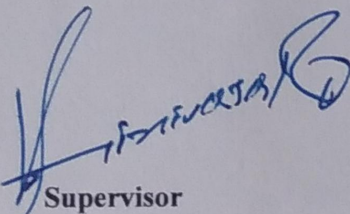
II. Paper Presented in the Following Conferences:

1. G. Sunitha. 2017. "Women Empowerment through NREGS: A Study in Erajipalli Village in Nizamabad District of Telangana State." Presented paper in National Seminar conducted by Jaipur, IIS University, ICSSR, and CRIT on Women's Employment, Entrepreneurship and Empowerment: Sustainable Pathways to Egalitarian Society.

2. G. Sunitha. 2018. "Women Employment in NREGS to Tackle the Agricultural Unemployment in Humnapur Village Nizamabad District, Telangana." Presented paper in a national seminar conducted by Yes We Can Organization, Deeds, UN Information Centre for India, and Bhutan on Women in the Changing World of Work: Planet 50-50 by Promoting UN SDGs, the Global Agenda 2030.

Further, the student has passed the following courses towards the fulfilment of coursework Requirement for a Ph.D. was exempted from doing coursework (recommended by Doctoral Committee) based on the following courses passed during her M.Phil. programme and the M.Phil. Degree was awarded:

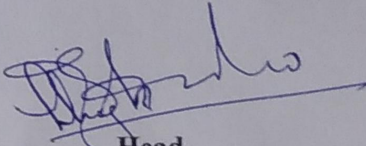
Course Code	Name	Credits	Pass/Fail
EI701	Processes of Exclusion and Social Groups	4	Pass
EI702	Social Exclusion: Theoretical Perspectives	4	Pass
EI703	Research Methodology	4	Pass
EI704	Study Area	4	Pass



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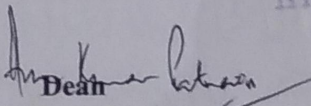
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Acknowledgement

It is hearty gratitude to thank my research supervisor Dr. V. Srinivasa Rao, Centre for Regional Studies (CRS), for his astute guidance, constructive ideas, and irrefutable suggestions, which have been the greatest driving force behind this research work.

I express my sincere thanks to Dr. Sripathi Ramudu, and Dr. Rani Ratna Prabha is Doctoral committee members of the Centre for the Study of Social Exclusion and Inclusive Policy (CSSEIP). I express my heartfelt thanks to my teachers Dr. Ajailu Niumai, Head of the CSSEIP, for their excellent suggestions during my research work.

I thank all my PhD classmates and students for their overwhelming support and cooperation during the process of my data correction.

I thank all my supporters and fieldwork respondents for contributing to data collection. I thank my friend Sravani, Ajay, Praveen, Ramya, Rajesh, Nikhil, and Sarala Akka, who supported me in collecting data without trouble.

I thank my Siva Kumar sir, from CSD helping me extract NSSO unit-level data, and Dr. V.J. Susheela, former Deputy Librarian and IT Services at IGML Library, for helping in purchasing the 64th round unit-level data from Delhi, NSSO office.

I thank all my friends Kowsalya, Ram and the office staff of the Centre for providing support to complete my research. I am ever grateful to all who have helped and encouraged me during various stages of my research.

I thank my family members for their constant support and motivation during my research work.

Finally, I thank my Lord for providing all of those I needed and above persons in my life to help me to complete my research work.

G. Sunitha

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List of Abbreviations

AIRCRC	All India Rural Credit Review Committee
AoA	Agreement on Agriculture
AP	Andhra Pradesh
BC	Backward Category
BPL	Below Poverty Line
CACP	Commission for Agriculture Costs and Prices
CEM	Country Economic Memorandum
CFC	Chloro Fluoro Carbons
CSRE	Crash Scheme for Rural Employment
DC	Deccan Chronicle
DDP	Desert Development Programme
DES	Directorate of Economics and Statistics
DPAP	Drought Prone Areas Programmes
DSCA	Director of Samakhya Co-operative Association
EEC	European Economic Community
ER	Economic Reforms
EU	European Union
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organisation
FCI	Food Corporation of India
FEPR	Female Earner Population Ratio
FPE	Feminist Political Ecology
FYP	Five Year Plan
GATT	General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade
GCC	Gulf Cooperated Council
GCWA	Global Conference on Women in Agriculture
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GNP	Gross National Product
GoI	Government of India
GP	Gram Panchayat

GR	Green Revolution
HP	Himachal Pradesh
HYV	High Yielding Varieties
IDE	International Development Enterprises
ILO	International Labour Organisation
IMF	International Monetary Fund
IMN	India Migration Now
IRDP	Integrated Rural Development Programme
KARA	Kerala Agrarian Relations Act
KGF	Kolar Gold Fields
LFPR	Labour Force Participation Rate
LPG	Liberalisation, Privatisation and Globalisation
MDG	Millennium Development Goals
MEA	Ministry of External Affairs
MFAL	Marginal Farmers and Agricultural Labours programme
MGNREGA	Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act
MNP	Minimum Needs Programme
MP	Madhya Pradesh
MSP	Minimum Support Price
MSP	Mahila Sasakthikaran Pariyojana
NCA	National Commission for Agriculture
NDP	National Domestic Price
NELM	New Economics of Labour Migration
NEP	New Economic Policy
NFHS	National Family Health Survey
NGOs	Non-Government Organisation
NIP	New Industrial Policy
NREP	National Rural Employment Programme
NSSO	National Sample Survey Office
NTM	Network Theory of Migration
NTPC	National Thermal Power Corporation

OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
PCP	Pentachlorophenol
PDA	Preventive Detention Act
PDS	Public Distribution System
PIREP	Pilot Intensive Rural Employment Programme
PRA	Panchayat Raj Act
QR	Quantitative Restrictions
RBI	Reserve Bank of India
RLEGP	Rural Landless Employment Guarantee Programme
SAARC	South Asian Association for Regional Cooperation
SAP	Structural Adjustment Programmes
SAPTA	Saarc Preferential Trading Arrangement
SC	Scheduled Castes
SCCPs	Short Chain Chlorinated Paraffins
SDG	Sustainable Development Goals
SE	South East
SFDA	Small Farmers Development Agency
SGRY	Sampoorna Grameena Rojgar Yojana
SHGs	Self Help Groups
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
ST	Scheduled Tribes
STD	Sexual Transmitted Diseases
TBT	tributyl tin
TCP	Tetrachlorophenols
TFP	Total Factor Productivity
TN	Tamil Nadu
TNT	Transnational Migration Theory
TOMCOM	Telangana Overseas Manpower Company Ltd
UAE	United Arab Emirates
UN	United Nations
UP	Uttar Pradesh

URAoA	Uruguay Round Agreement of Agriculture
USA	United States of America
WB	West Bengal
WDR	World Development Report
WES	World Economic System
WFPR	Work Force Participation Rate
WR	White Revolution
WTO	World Trade Organisation

Chapter 1

Introduction

Agriculture is a primary and vital source of life for a human being. In India, half of the population survive on agriculture as an employment and source of livelihood. Agriculture is not static, and it fluctuates in the production of both food grain and non-food grain crops (Parikh, Acharya, and Krishnaraj 2004). In addition, modernism and mechanisation in agriculture abolished feudalistic agriculture. That's how labour decreased. To multitude this, soils also eroded due to pesticides (Bravo-Urata *et al.* 1996). Upon this, India does not support agriculture like other developed countries. The formal avenues also do not reach them (Rao and Varghese 2006). These things force the rural poor to emigrate for employment (Dev 1990). 64th round of National Sample Survey Office report also (NSSO), says that the leading cause for migration is lack of employment opportunities in a rural region. Sundari (2005) provides the reasons for agricultural unemployment: environmental conditions such as floods and droughts. Institutional credits were also lacking; that is why they approached the money lenders, which led to farmer deaths (Dev 2002). Besides escaping poverty and needs such as children's education and health (McEvoy 2008), migration evolved and gave fruitful results.

When we see the picture of rural India, it indicates agriculture and its vulnerable conditions in the family of farmers in present status. The deaths of the farmers and their heinous conditions with the environmental changes, globalisation, economic reforms, capitalism, and neoliberalism. The employment problems with agriculture and unexpected, unwanted and unseasoned rains and ruins the harvested crops. Before harvesting, the crop's whole fruit was lost by droughts and deluges. The family status of the farmers was ruined with diverse conditions of agriculture as given above reasons, leading to emigration (ul Haq, Jahangeer and Ahmad 2014). That is why the social changes with the emigration study were conducted in this thesis. When we see the definitions and types of migrations, the migration within a country is called internal migration (ul Haq, Jahangeer and Ahmad 2014). To another country is called international migration or emigration, which are studied in the second and fourth chapters. In both conditions, the persons' absence in the family is there. But if only the husband migrates, the remaining persons in the family hold multiple

responsibilities. It indicates that married women lead tough life when husbands leave home. The remained persons in the family, especially women holding the family and agriculture needs. Still, the pressure that remained with women were neglected. When women stay along with their husbands, they have to bear the caring, nurturing of the family and basic needs, but when the husband is out of the village or home, the burden becomes cumulated or added (Thung and Sari 2018).

In migration, the migrants decide based on needs, i.e. household, to move out with a total family or a single person who is the breadwinner. Generally, unskilled labour prioritises moving alone in migration to another country, whether women or men. The total family do not drive, and the rest remain back at home to hold all the responsibilities of agriculture and household (Mendola 2006). So the study of left behind person's worthy of understanding and studying. My thesis concerned migrants' wives, who stay at home and carry out the agriculture work.

In that case, women work doubles to men (Budig 2006). The skills and accessibility of women employees are related to men. In this sense, they are replacing the men. The joint typed operations of women such as transplanting, weeding, and processing were replaced by technology. Women are trained to do men type work but pay fewer wages than men (Rao and Varghese 2006). And earn more but calculated them as lower than men. Women are equal in doing all sectors of work and in work capability. Still, they remained backstream because of India's patriarchal and religious systems. Agricultural wages, employment, and poverty are also the causes of women's backwardness (Chakravarty 1975). They are also victims of caste and gender employment issues in the northern part of India. Women do not gain a name like men by earning equal wages even though they do similar labour. They supplement the family needs but are still unregistered (Chowdhry 1993). That is why priority is given to international and national sector policies.

From the above understanding, agriculture and emigration are concerned with women—their priority individually given by the policies presented here. Sustainable Development Goal (SDGs) of the United Nations (UNs) proposes elevation of poverty that focused on agriculture in the first goal. It reports 805 million people were hungry and malnutrition by 2015, through agriculture only possible to eliminate poverty and hunger.

The eighth goal of SDGs is economic growth and employment also says agriculture is the pro-poor engine in a rural region. The third goal of SDG speaks about gender equality¹. Columns 1, 2, 3 talk about the migration of national and international people and their protection and security. With this, one can estimate the importance of the concept used in the present thesis. And Skeldon (2008) reiterated in his article that the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) are education, poverty eradication, health, environment, gender equality and governance. 18 specific goals are to achieve the MDGs made out of these eight goals. Gender equality is of primary importance to every country as directed by the UNs for 360-degree development. Skeldon (2009) says economic growth is the process of development. He says that the SDGs also discuss the product and elevation of poverty, health, food, and sanitation, gender equality because the causes of evolution and migration are the other way to grow.

Perception of poverty reduction, economic improvement and growth of agriculture is the primary source of development. But the agriculture is lagging because of improper irrigation facilities. Unsuitable irrigation facilities led to low crops and low employment, leading to non-farm work. Rao (2011) says that instead of substituting non-farm work with agriculture, one can choose the synergy of agriculture and non-farm employment. The author also suggests that the government was spending a budget on drought areas but not on flood-prone regions to manage the wastewater properly. He found the involuntary dislocation, which was 84 per cent in 1993 due to irrigation facilities. It is called distress migration. He says the distress migration differs from expected seasonal migration. This automatic migration of males again impacts rural employment of agriculture. The distress migration is associated with mining, industry and irrigation. But the irrigation related issues are sorted out by providing the natural resources in rural areas. From the above reasons, migration is because of the low employment in local regions and agriculture issues.

Food and Agriculture Organisation (FAO) suggests that robust agriculture requires technological development in Microbiology and Nanobiology. Bt-cotton came to India in 2002 and brought drastic changes in agriculture with low pesticides and investment. Organisation found that the irrigation was not supporting the Indian farmers because 60

¹ It was not mentioned as one of the separate goal of the SDGs but included as columns 1, 2, 3 in goal three.

per cent of the land was not irrigated. Only 18 per cent of the land was used for 40 per cent of the world's food needs. That is why Dev (2005) says the government invested five per cent of Gross Domestic Product (GDP) on malnutrition of the country in various forms. So instead of spending on this problem, they can solve the irrigation system to solve the food crisis issues. Thus we can control migration by increasing irrigation. Because of conditions like irrigation issues, low crop production, and technology, men migrated for employment, and women took the additional responsibility at home. Where agriculture is a collectively performed activity, women do it alone during their husbands' absence. Leder *et al.* (2019) say females and all family members together perform. That is why it is a big challenge for all in the household during their absence. In addition, women face humiliation and inequality; still, they take individual responsibility from a family group. Still, society does not identify women as equal in gender.

The present thesis, *Impact of men emigration on women in agriculture: A study in selected districts of Telangana state*, focused mainly on agriculture, migration to another country such as gulf countries and its effect on women. Because in present conditions, migration to gulf countries is a higher and significant topic in the social issues in Telangana districts. As shown in Table No: 1.1, the migration is because of agriculture backwardness and for a better future and education. But unskilled labour is migrating for employment to other countries more in percentage. Due to the lack of employment facilities in agriculture, men migrate to other countries. Though women migration is prevalent, men migrate for employment, whereas women migrate after marriage, as given in the table.

Table 1.1: Reasons for Migration of the Male and Female in 2007–08 (percentage)

Reasons for Migration	Male	Female
Employment	55.9	2.6
Marriage	1.4	61.2
Studies	6.8	2.3
Others	35.9	33.9
Total	100	100

Source: GoI 2007–08

The present issue is that cause of migration to other countries is agricultural unemployment. The emigration of men because of agriculture and other factors which

impacted agriculture. So the study is primarily focused on studying the interconnection between them and other factors that influence emigration at the secondary level. Women who remained at home checked at the tertiary level of the understanding. From the account, primary data was collected in three districts in Telangana state known for emigration. The first chapter of the thesis introduces the idea and women status studied and emigration of rural people due to unemployment in agriculture. The second chapter discusses agriculture and emigration. The impact of agriculture on emigration is concerned, which means interconnection between them. The following chapter meant understanding low-agriculture and factors for agriculture together on women employment. In the fourth chapter, the information given about the emigration of men caused agricultural employment issues for women. Finally, the fifth chapter provides information about the empirical analysis of the collected data in Telangana state based on statistical information and case studies in identified districts. In the sixth chapter, discuss the conclusion of the thesis.

Emigration is a crucial task to understand. Before understanding it, emigration and the agricultural women who live back at home are a significant part of the study; how these are part of exclusion or inclusion is to be understood below.

1. Status of Emigration and Agriculture Women

Women, disabled, Scheduled Castes (SCs), Scheduled Tribes (STs), employment, poverty and the old aged are under discrimination, which comes under the exclusion. Thus, the people in poverty were excluded from society economically, socially, and politically. Their state of life is under vulnerable conditions. Todaro (1986) says migration is a strategy to escape discrimination and poverty. Poverty was caused by low agricultural employment in a rural region. And economically, migration is a development activity (Waddington and Sabates-Wheeler 2003), but it is a livelihood strategy for poor people. And they say the decisions taken during critical conditions lead to migration.

Migration is an individual's rational choice to increase their welfare or utility by moving to other places using their potential (Skeldon 1990) and to escape from the struggle at the origin place. The social and political forces of discrimination are exclusion causes of migration. The migration is temporarily based, but settlement is a permanent type. Racism

and fascism² are measuring reasons for the leading migration, followed by labour shortage at origin place—the new ethnic groups formed in the migrated area during Britain's declination of economic stability. The migrants from Germany, Dutch, and Holland, Indonesia, to Britain were excluded in the name of the ethnic race. They were banned because of lower economic or capital support, and the membership took off from them. Colonialism and capitalism were causes for racism in developing countries which was cause for emigration (Bovenkerk, Miles, and Verbunt 1991; Roopnarine 2003). The deprivation of the immigrants is higher than within the country migration (Stark and Taylor 1989). The migrants from other countries were excluded because of anti-emigration, non-ethnic, and stereotype ideology. They were exploited at the worksite, paid low wages, and banned because of the capitalistic idea of residents (Roopnarine 2003). Migrants are poorly treated in emigrant countries, and they cannot walk in the streets at night. The women feel it is unsafe due to stereotypical culture (Bilan n.d).

Poverty is also one of the causes of deprivation. The concept of poverty is social, economic exclusion from the mainstream. That is why extreme poor are diversified to migrate to move away from poverty. Kothari (2002) classified migration into three divisions: micro, meso, and macro levels of studies. In macro, unevenness is caused by speed and form in development. At the meso level, the patterns and regularities of economic and social inequalities and micro are household decisions based on situations and conditions. He says the people in poverty were not migrating, but people faced socioeconomic discrimination. Though the inferior people were discriminated against, they were not migrating. For them, migration was a development strategy. He says that non-migrants also developed economically in the rural region than migrants. That is why others discriminated against the migrants at work sites because of poverty and improper house facilities, insufficient remittances for the family, etc.

Some people stay at home because of low education, lack of skills, knowledge, opportunities, no network, age, and disability. He says migration is not always a positive result. It also gives negative results or worsens because of house rent and other effects in

² An authorisation and nationalistic right wing system of government and social organisation. In general meaning extreme authorisation oppressive, or intolerant views or practices.

the migrant regions. Women were gaining the power of authority, overtaking decisions in and outside of the household. But the poverty of feminisation was increased, remittance issues, irregularities, and reproduction problems also increased. The dropout rate of the children from schools and the socialised culture of migration impacts them. The loss of youth is more in rural areas due to migration (*ibid*).

Lucas (2005) says urbanisation is higher in developed countries; comparatively, the emigration percentage is higher in Africa than in Asia, followed by South America. He says male emigration is higher in Africa and Asia, but in South America, women migration is higher. The migration per cent is higher in young aged. The reason for migration was to gain higher income for the family's welfare. In search of income, people migrate for temporary purposes but later stay back for a lifetime. When they return to their original place, they cannot find employment due to old age. That is why economists cannot estimate whether migrants were sojourners or domicile. The same information described Connell (1986) differently and found a U-shaped curve of poor people's migration. It indicates migration always does not increase steeply, but it alters according to rural socioeconomic conditions.

Waddington and Sabates-Wheeler (2003) say economic migration is a development activity. He says migration is a choice to escape poverty due to lack of employment opportunities and develop the social status at the origin place. The comparison of migrants and non-migrants is estimated to find the lifestyle change. The study was conducted to compare them together. He discovered that non-migrants were in poverty, and migrants improved their status—the pro-poor people were forced to migrate in search of a livelihood strategy. The non-migrants were becoming poorer. He says the decision to relocate could be voluntary, but the involuntary forces prevailed on them. Agriculture's seasonal or environmental issues enforce circular migration, whereas severe poverty leads to permanent migration. It indicates the inclusive part of the study, but extreme poverty is a whole part of the study.

Where emigration is the ultimate reason to escape exclusion but after emigration also found the exclusion of them. For instance, Triadafilopoulos (2004) says the exclusion of the people was limited to the rural region, but they were also facing at migration region,

especially in Canada and Germany. He says exclusion is based on race from origin place. He says the concept of race entered after the commercialisation, globalisation that means economic agriculture. Mafukidze and Mbanda (2008) say women migrated because of war, political instability, and harassment at home. They were also discriminated against at the relocated destination area for not being from that particular place.

That is why Thomas (2012) says structural changes in society causes the discrimination and exclusion of people from the origin only. He says entered colonialism adopted the local area's culture, economic, and political concepts. After ending colonialism, the influential people who were slaves transformed into another form and excluded innocent people at their origin. It indicates that discrimination or exclusion is a never-ending procedure.

The understanding from the above-given shreds of evidence indicates that the ultimate reason for exclusion could be emigration since the decision for minimum livelihood strategy. But after migration also the exclusion of the people are there. But as per Waddington and Sabates-Wheeler (2003), migration is a development activity. Development is an inclusive part of the study, but Lucas (2005), Mafukidze and Mbanda (2008), and others say it is also part of exclusion. And Thomas (2012) says it is exclusion and transforms from one structure to another.

The present study is conducted to understand the women status in the rural region after the emigration of their husbands to other countries such as Gulf nations. The international countries that conducted studies found that women were deprived and underestimated. They face problems in agriculture and at household in all activities with children. But Kothari (2002) and McEvoy (2008) focused on the positive and negative approaches of the women after the emigration of men. And also, it is playing inclusive activities like women were gaining the power of authority over House Hold (HH) issues and economic issues. Arun (1999), Fonchingong (1999), Bovenkerk, Miles and Verbunt (1991), Stark and Taylor (1991), and Mefukidze and Mbanda (2008) studies conveyed a negative impact on women by the male's migration.

The present study of migration status to other countries is taking in part of exclusion. To escape from poverty or discrimination, migration has been chosen by

cultivators. That is why it is an inclusive part of the study and women's studies after the husband's emigration. The substitution of women is taking in a positive approach at the origin area. In comprehensive studies, women are excluded from the structural society as given below in the sub-section of agricultural women. That is why studying agriculture women after husbands' migration to the Gulf countries in Telangana is a challenging task. Before going into the literature review, will understand the core concepts of the thesis: emigration, agriculture women, and emigration in agriculture.

2. Emigration

Emigration is a familiar concept all over the world. The sudden increase of population in urban regions of developing countries is quite common due to migration, generally in European countries facing the migration issue because of lower economic support (Bovenkerk, Miles and Verbunt 1991), wars (Mafukidze and Mbanda 2008; and Lucas 1997) and sudden environmental changes like floods and tsunamis. But in developing countries, it is a strategy and grows slowly. It is caused by agricultural issues (Lucas 2005; and Waddington and Sabates-Wheeler 2003). It is a livelihood strategy to escape from poverty, discrimination (Bovenkerk, Miles and Verbunt 1991), low employment in agriculture (Waddington and Sabates-Wheeler 2003; Lucas 2005; and Kothari 2002), commercialisation, globalisation (Triadafilopoulos 2004) and colonisation caused by culture, economic and political issues. Migration is severe in rural regions, and poor people are working with agriculture and struggling for minimum life, as given below. It provides a depiction of the severity of the issue.

For the landless and marginal farmers in constant debt, migration is the only choice for livelihood. Migration comes as a boon for several people who get better fresh opportunities and send remittances home. Some analysts advocate internal mobility as a necessity for lifting people out of poverty. Remittances play an essential role in ensuring food for many rural poor households and thus constitute an efficient strategy for facing adversities such as low agricultural productivity and the inherent risks and instability of farming activities. Moreover, remittances may serve as insurance to improve or counter crises, thus limiting adverse effects on food security (Razi 2014, 4).

Authors gave the reasons for emigration throughout the world like Waddington and Sabates-Wheeler (2003), Bovenkerk, Miles and Verbunt (1991), Lucas (2005), Kothari (2002) and others. They say it is an attempt to move out of poverty and exclusion. They

have provided macro reasons for emigration. But Razi (2014) has given micro level, reasons for emigration in the rural region, and how migration occurs.

When we see the definitions, emigration is also termed international migration, which refers to searching for decent work from the lack of opportunities at home (Piper n.d). Mobility concerns poverty-ridden countries to destinations with expectations and dreams (Dalen and Henkens 2013). It is also defined as the product of decision-makers, their families, and communities. And also can be said that it is to make the equilibrium of developed and underdeveloped countries (Castles 2009). The historical structuralism paradigm considers international migration a flight from misery (De Haas 2010). In the case of Africans, migration to other countries is a cause of lack of development and is a threat for the product. The Africans entered illegally and exploited the resources (Castles 2009). And the neoclassical microeconomic theory of migration says that mobility to the developed economic country expects beneficial returns. The value of money is significant for the emigrants. It depends on the person's education, experience, skills, destination, and sending areas probability of getting employment (Jayaraj 2013). And this theory perceives the migration and development nexus as balanced growth between sending and receiving countries, earnings. It is like allocating agriculture labour from rural to an industrial sector, within or across the borders (De Jong, Chamratrithirong and Tran 2002; and De Haas 2010).

Emigration is classified into two types: traditional migration, where the migrants settle abroad only. The other is contract-based emigration, where the migrant has to return home after finishing the contract period. The contract-based migrants leave their families at home region. It witnesses balance of payment, labour market, savings, investment, income distribution, and regional economic development (Prakash 1998).

Emigration is a multi-causal effect of environmental, social, economic, and political factors (Thung and Sari 2018). It took place because of disturbance in the seasons and environment (Barbour, Adams and Lorenzen 2014). The migration from one country to another depends on the rainfall deficit and the network. The dry area may be different, and socioeconomic factors affect the migration (Nawrotzki, Riosmena, and Hunter 2013). For instance, the Mexican emigrants have decided based on the financial difference

(Cooray and Schneider 2016). In the case of Ireland, it has attracted immigrants with the developed policies (Vracic 2019). And also the irregular maritime migration is caused by fast globalisation (McAuliffe and Mence n.d). In rural migration to other countries, the main reason found is the diversity of the income sources and the limited employment opportunities in the agriculture sector (Cooray and Schneider 2016). It is increased based on economic options and networks available (Ortmeyer and Quinn 2012).

In addition, the push-pull factors are essential factors to understand emigration. This act as a catalyst for emigration. Distance, network, the attraction of higher wages, better living conditions are pulling factors. Push factors are poverty, unemployment, inequality, weak institutions (Jayaraj 2013). Fazal (2016) says economic distress is the push factor, and the pull factor is wage differences from the home region to the destination area. Kuldkepp (2020) found that the pull factor is democratic, freedom of religion, open societal structures, low paid lands, and high paid jobs are essential for emigration.

The push-pull theory of migration explained the causes for poor agricultural conditions—environmental conditions in the sense of rainfall shortage, soil erosion, and advanced technology. Developed technology use machinery in agriculture and leading to unemployment. The long duration of seasonal unemployment in agriculture leads to debts for minimum life. It can push the rural poor for hunting the opportunity to fulfil the family's needs.

When we see historical background or the emergence of emigration throughout the world, it started almost the same time during the 1960s and 1970s. Arnold (n.d) says India was the first country to send emigrants on a contractual basis. From the mid-1970s to the oil booms, they were the foremost expectation of unskilled labour. They work in construction, oil booms and the service sector. The contract remains for three to five years, and they can renew it. They also have family emigration and permanent migration along with a contract basis. In 2004, half a million emigrants cleared 90 per cent of the Gulf migrants. In 2008, there were 4.5 million Indians; among them, 70 per cent were unskilled, 20 per cent were white-collar jobs, and 10 per cent were professional employees.

When it comes to Ghana, they recruited labour in 1950, 1960, during the country's crisis (0.2 million). The corruption misguided the country's policies and sent back Togo

and Nigerians' skilled and non-skilled labour. Morocco, Turkey and the Philippines also have started migrating to other countries since 1960 and 1970s to the European Union (EU), the United States of America (USA) and oil boom countries (Castles 2009). The Romans emigrated to Germany, France, and Hungary, Serbia and Turkey preferred cross borders for agriculture and small factory migration. It started in 1969–1970 (Ciobanu n.d). From Pakistan, internal migration was there from the 1950s and 1960s. The emigration started to gulf countries from the 1970s only from skilled and unskilled labours. The unskilled labour is from agriculture, but they have minimal agricultural land. Survival is non-farming activity. So they chose emigration (Hasan and Raza 2009).

The transformation of the emigration in Europe, the USA has taken. The emigration peaks reached in Scandinavia, Europe, and the USA in the 19th century. It indicates the migration started earlier in this region (Boyd 2018.). The emigration was in the 19th century went into peaks during the 1880s. The technology developed, and the transport system was by rail, steamship, and telegraph (Piper n.d.). Scandinavian countries such as Sweden, Norway, and Denmark. Sweden faced overpopulation and poverty due to food scarcity and started moving within the country and international migration. But after 1930, America began to push out the other migrants. The Napoleon war and the policies increased to restrict the emigrants. The other reason was semi-political or political, which oppressed the churches at the destination area (Kuldkepp 2020).

In the second half of the 19th century, when we see national migration in India, Uttar Pradesh (UP) migrated to other countries because of the colonial rules, indebtedness, and deterioration of the economic condition, 1857 mutiny (Lal n.d). Emigration has had a significant and positive effect and impact on households (Thung and Sari 2018). From UP, the female demanded migrants work in various country places in industries from 1881 onwards. The caste system uprooted, and the people were migrating to other districts because of the damaged village economic system. At that time government of India initiated and insisted on immigrating to other countries except for Mauritius. The migration took place from both genders (Lal n.d). And the migration of East Indians to the Caribbean, the leading cause was World Economic System (WES). The development of the colonial industries and slavery reduced slowly. That is how the labour shortage happened. So they

required labour from outside, such as East Indians (Roopnarine 2003). So, the migration of work from other country chosen.

That reveals the painful situations and the emergence of emigration in countries. Since the thesis mainly concerns understanding emigration and agriculture women as the following information provided.

3. Agriculture Women

In developing countries, women status varies from developed countries. As the corporate sector increases with the globalisation of the market, the subsidies are reduced for agriculture. In developed countries, the farming system shifted men to women mostly. The role increased and became women centred. But in developing countries, the corporate sector devalues women with lower wages and makes them dependent on men for financial support. They used females in production as reserved labour but did not give sufficient wages despite women working equally to men (Sachs and Alston 2010). That is why women are called wives of farmers in India, though men and women do agriculture.

Beijing's fourth world conference 1995 on women, mainstreaming brought many more researchers, policymakers, organisations towards women centred issues. UNs, World Bank turned the focus on women empowerment. The terminology of words has changed from women development to women and development (*ibid*). The studies have developed on women as family heads but could not find such families. The institutional, organisational, and structural studies have focused on women as material to understand developing formal economy. But in the international economy, marginalised women in a traditional economy were heavy for the family to run financially. After this, formal economy to informal, and wage labourers turn to casual labour in agriculture (n.a. 2002).

As we know, the rural region has seasonal work in agriculture for a few months a year. Rural economy-wide, it was always constant, never changing the employment opportunities. That is why women worked as a subsidiary for the household, but the primary goal was to take care of family and domestic activities. Another impact was that the shrinking or stagnancy of agriculture was leading to self-employment. For instance, 83 per cent of the women and 67 per cent of men work in agriculture as wage labourers and

cultivators respectively during 2004–05. During 1972–93 men employed in agriculture was 90 per cent but in 2004–05 remained only 67 per cent whereas women constantly remained in agriculture. The decline of the men employment was more than women found (Srivastava and Srivastava 2010).

FAO also finds the share of agriculture in the economy indicates the fraction of women workers present in agriculture. Suppose the country has 10 per cent of the share of agriculture in the country. The women fraction would be 30 per cent such that 70 per cent of countries in the world contain 50 per cent of women workers in agriculture (Lagakos and Waugh 2013). For instance, women's employment was higher in England, but studies covered only two per cent of them. During the inter-war, the women who worked in agriculture were neglected (Verdon 2009). In the same way, various other countries also do not prioritise women in agriculture.

For instance, in America, educators identified that Arkansas women were improved and enterprised in agriculture during the 1980s. They have increased power over off-farm and on-farm activities. 11.7 per cent of the country's economy was supported by women through agriculture. 30 per cent of women participated in off-farm activities to support sudden changes in farm activities, and women also supported organisations to agriculture activities developed by women. Government initiation also found that women were in need to get encouragement through policies but could not succeed. The comparative study conducted during 2005–06 found that women lacked the motivation for work in agriculture.

This kind of gender gap is evidenced in part of the society in the world. In the agriculture sector, women carry different activities, and men have some other activities. And women are also constrained to reproductive activities and primarily for household activities. The gender gap was defined by the actions they operate in their daily lifestyle. The gender gap indicates the equality of activities they perform. For instance, women carry out five activities and men carry out five activities those were equal in percentage, but a variation of gender still exists. That is why the deletion of the gender gap only brings a change in human behaviour (Radel and Coppock 2013). We need to understand the responsible factors so the focus is targeted precisely.

Two factors are responsible for dividing labour in agriculture and the household.

Family production benefits all members of the home. That is why everyone takes responsibility for household agriculture. The other factor is that men have extra work according to their power and capability, so women were assigned to support them. That is how the tradition created men as the family's primary breadwinners. They have to carry extra responsibilities (Brumer 2008). It indicates the participation of women in economic activity as a supportive role. It also does not change their lives, but other factors decide it. Sachs and Alston (2010) say women were segregated based on ethnicity, race, age, citizenship, and gender in developing countries.

In support of this, Giarracca, Teubal and Brena (2008) add that the reason could be patriarchy. In the patriarchal society of culture and tradition, property inheritance shifted to son after father. The father and husband also take the headship of the family. Though women take a significant part in agriculture or economic activity, they cannot be head of household. In Argentina, the land was cultivated by women, but headship remains with men only. Because in developing countries the women are subordinated to men in all activities.

Besides economic factors to determine the participation of men and women, but the religious, cultural, demographic, and reproductive factors were forcing women to take part in work (Srivastava and Srivastava 2010). The need for women labour increased from 1951 to 1971, but the wages were not changed (Martha 1989). The validation given by Lagakos and Waugh (2013) women was low in productivity in agriculture compared to men. Martha (1989) says that is a reason to get lower wages than men for equal work hours. They also do not have agricultural development or control over overproduction. It varies within the same class or different classes, male and female. In using pesticides, high yielding varieties for agriculture, females were replaced by males.

When we see calculatedly, employment was critical for women and improved the capability and well-being to empower among mainstream (Srivastava and Srivastava 2010). And the wages of women were central to the household economy, and it was helpful for the family's nutrition. And the headship of the family increased with women labour wage support (Martha 1989). That is why women did not accept being free of work. They take marginal work also instead of being free. The marginal workers in women increased

from 10 per cent to 26 per cent from 1991 to 2001. Whereas the primary workers reduced from 86 per cent to 79 per cent. Sometimes, women were acting as cultivators (Vepa 2005).

But Martha (1989) says women can have control through owning property, rights, or production means if, in India, women possess the land property, where they failed. For instance, Prabha (2000) finds in Gadaba, women of Orissa are very busy with all activities from household to agricultural activities. They work for 16 hours a day, with six hours of economic work. They also carry out children nurturing and weekly market activities. When males perform heavy activities in agriculture, women support them with weeding, harvesting, and other animal rearing activities. But they are not accepted to possess the land.

In addition, due to the modernisation of agriculture, adopted machinery and technology to cultivate the crops. Modernisation reduced the number of labour works, and machines do all jobs which man used to do. And the remained decisions regarding corporations, technicians, and agronomists and managing money are taken care of by men because women and children do not have the financial capability. Women were humiliated by sons and daughters since she is not earning money though she does many activities at home (Brumer 2008). But it is not her mistake because marriage and sex have become an ethnic factor that prohibits women from economic activities (Sundari 2005).

Srivastava and Srivastava (2010) found that generally, agriculture work is covered and done by men and women together. But in 2000–2001 statistical reports of agriculture shows that from 11 per cent of land cultivation, nine per cent of land occupied by women only which later increased to 13 per cent. In Southern states, landholding is higher such as AP and TN. And Vepa (2005) finds in AP, low developed districts such as Warangal, Mahaboobnagar, Vishakapatnam, and Nalgonda have more female labour than more developed districts of East and West Godavari. The agriculturally prosperous districts do not allow women to work as labour.

Not only that, Srivatsava and Srivatsava (2010) also find that there are three types of employment among agricultural women like cultivators and casual work in agriculture and non-agricultural work. In agricultural work is 90 per cent and non-agricultural work is 10 per cent. And employment days for rural women are 184 per annum whereas a man's

227 days. Because now the casual work decreased and self-employment increased among women and men in a rural region. Self-employed women in the agricultural sector increased to 41 per cent in 32 years of duration. And the national commission found more than 95 per cent of women received lower wages in the unorganised sector. And in agriculture, women's wages are 69 per cent of the male wages. And found that women are forming the nine per cent area of the land. But still, they do not have organised support from the public and any others because they do not own the lands. Kerala, AP and TN occupied more land. And importantly wage gap was higher for women and men in the non-agricultural sector than for agricultural works. That is why self-employed work was high in non-agricultural sectors of the women as 49 per cent in 2004-05. The reasons for poverty in women have given as illiteracy, educational qualifications. And found that women from SCs, STs were more employed than others because they do not have any social taboo for work. The employment opportunities were also high for them.

Along Srivatsava and Srivatsava (2010), with Vepa (2005), rural women in India, 33 per cent were cultivators, and 47 per cent were agricultural labourers. In one decade, 1991–2001, the percentage of the women's workforce increased to seven per cent, and among them, men were only three per cent, indicating the replacement of men with women but still not considered substantial. It was identified by paying different wages for men and women. As per the 1998 economic data, 34 per cent of the women were non-agricultural workers. Rest were agricultural workers—some owned land property and worked in both places, such as households and enterprises. In Meghalaya and Haryana, the women's work has increased to 24 hours per week, but payment was only 60 per cent, and some were not paid. Kerala, WB, and Haryana had high wages, but southern states had low wages. In Punjab, women employment was significantly less.

As Chakraborty (2007) says, women are considered weaker than men in all countries, including health, education, employment, and allied sectors. As per Gandhi's ideology, women have gifted an equal part in society with comparable mental capabilities. So they need equal opportunities with men. Article eight of the UN charter says there should not be restrictions for women eligibility for education and participation in any employment activities. Unfortunately, women did not record positive results in 130

countries in 1995. They earned meagre wages though they worked more time. They were half of the population but made one-third of income only.

In addition, women in India had to stick to household work and take care of the children. Statistically, labour force and work participation were decreased from 1993–94 to 1999–20 among both genders. But after 1999–20 to 2003–04 the participation of the labour work was increased (Kaur and Kaur 2011). Only 279 women were employed to 1000 men overall in India. 278 women to 1000 men in rural regions, whereas 204 women to 1000 men in the urban areas (Hazra 2011). Women in 2003–04 mainly were self-employed and non-profit or unpaid employment. Only four per cent of the women were employed adequately in agriculture, and 64 per cent were unemployed. The employment difference was higher in the rural areas than urban. Comparatively, wage differences can find in agricultural works for women and men. This was cracking the traditional thinking (Kaur and Kaur 2011). It indicates the poor employment status of agricultural women.

Author Arunachalam and Kalpagam (2008) say that generally, women are not counted inside and outside the home. The author explores economic reforms and changing technological employment. He finds that women's work participation is higher than men, but it is invisible and economic development is also higher than men though their wages are lesser than men. For instance, Dasgupta and Sudarshan (2011) show that the agricultural sector's wages varied across the states. The wages range between 45/- rupees in Jammu Kashmir, the lowest of all states, and 100/- Rupees in Kerala. The difference in wages depended on the status of the local wages in agriculture. It indicates that the condition of J&K was poorer than in other states. NSSO also identified the gender gap with wage differences in males and females.

As per Nee Maulick and Ganguli's (2013) view, 70 per cent of the women produce 50 per cent of food commodities. They contribute two-thirds of the total workload but earn only 10 per cent of the country's wealth. Arpita Sharma (2013) says in a rural region, women labour was 89 per cent, but the economic contribution was significantly less, which indicates the low wages to the women labour. She says women labour in third world countries was higher than in developed countries. They work in two to three income generated employments at a time. Sharma also states that those things were illiteracy, male

domination and landholding, the right of the male person in the family, etc. Besides, Raj, Goutham, and Bharadwaj (2013) in rural regions, 40 per cent of the cultivators were leaving agriculture on average. It was imperative to maintain agriculture in India in these situations since it is a buffer for a large population and leads to migration.

It indicates 90 per cent of the women paid less for their labour and were not satisfied with the work conditions. The discrimination of women increased the global economy due to a sharp fall in household income and increased women unpaid domestic work and domestic violence. And according to Dev (2005), women development is possible with proper strategy and encouragement through the provision of resources such as money. The money which appropriately invested in the policies and projects. They should be encouraged by education in a rural region, market resources and agriculture, training regarding the market and their necessities. Besides that, sensitisation towards women brings change. He found that males were showing more sensitivity towards women. In Rajasthan, women development programmes were conducted in 1988 and have proven to succeed in reaching their goal. And he says accountability, transparency in the implementation of projects, and convergences of projects for women are essential in the rural region. Whereas n.a. (2002) work found that, in the Philippines, incentives were made for women in agriculture. Thailand, Brazil, Ghana, and Indonesia also started programmes for women in agriculture, such as gender-sensitive training extension programmes for trade in agriculture. In India, women were identified as organised wage labour in fisheries but not in agriculture.

The studies were conducted to understand the agricultural women status, but in reality, women have remained in the same situation in holding the family and agriculture. The wages were not equalled or increased because they were always lower than men. Though women shifted from men type of activities, they never changed their family status. She was humiliated by her children also because of her headship and economic holding in the family. The introduction to agriculture women, emigration has been provided. The following pieces of evidence help in understanding emigration in agriculture. Since in rural regions, agriculture is prevalent. The rural people are emigrating means the changes in agriculture only.

4. Emigration in Agriculture

Agriculture and emigration both are different variables or concepts. They are crucial factors in the present lifestyle of the rural region people. The primary source of a rural human being is agriculture. It is affected by the environment, industry, overpopulation, unemployment, lack of opportunities and various reasons. That is why rural people choose international migration to escape from this effect of agriculture. Some choose to develop agriculture and improve their lifestyle in the rural region through earned money.

Praveen Kumar (2014) says climate change is the reason for migration. Due to floods and droughts, agriculture gets the effect. He says by 2025; cereal will decrease to 2.5 from 10 per cent due to climate change. He says migration is an economic crisis factor and an economic development factor. The migrants from agricultural labourers improve their finance for the development of the agriculture in a rural region, children health and education by the earned amount. He also says population pressure was the main reason for migration because of limited natural resources for high population growth. Decreasing in size of the land was making the small and marginal farmers from big landholders. Who was economically low in status and not adequate for minimum survival in the rural region. That is why farmers' deaths have increased. It was also the catalytic reason for migration.

Kalkoti (2014) says economic changes widen the gap between industry and agriculture. The surplus labour of the household and the cultural norms of gender division of work in the rural region was the reason for migration. Koo (1961) says the wages of the manufacturing sector people and agricultural employees were varied though they were equal in work. For instance, the cultivators get fewer wages where the same job effort; industrial sector people get more salary. It denotes the gap in wages.

Mohapatra (2014) reveals deprivation, poverty, starvation, crop failure, landlessness, inadequate agricultural production, and unemployment are causes for migration. These are pull factors. The author said when the push factor was central, there was no other solution to the rural poor than choosing the migration.

Besides the caste system, the low economic status of cultivators and the landlessness feeling of the rural people were driving forces to choose migration. The

cohesiveness of development in education and industry was a positive force for the rural people to earn money and survive. Post-independence, the changes brought in the society were helping the improvement of the migrants. The other reason, they are migrating to escape from shameful lifestyle at landlords, adversity caused by monsoons, famine, starvation, droughts and especially from the exploitation of the landlords. They were advised to migrate and have casteless life. Mohapatra (2014) says the migrants from Bihar improved their lifestyle in the village by paying debts and educating the children with remittances.

The above understanding indicates emigration is to escape from the issues raised in a rural region. Dev (2006), in his article, speaks about the plans implemented by the Government of India (GoI) every five years. As per the plan of GoI, to achieve 10 per cent GDP, agriculture should develop a minimum of four per cent per annum. To get that, the Indian government should minimise problems raised such as adulterated seeds, lack of insurance facility, revenue resources, cost of pesticides, and risk of market and uncertainty of marginal farmers. He says that plan of action executed for them was not proper; that is why India faces agricultural production problems. They were also facing the difficulties of taking credits from banks and choosing the moneylenders, which were risky. That is why small and marginal farmers were attempting suicide instead of choosing life. He also says agriculture-based infrastructure, industries, and other extension services were very important.

Mohapatra (2014) also says that migration varies from place to place, women to men and time to time. The socioeconomic conditions and necessities like sanitation, drinking water, domestic facilities, and health and education facilities are necessary to reduce migration in rural areas. The umbrella method of facilities is to be provided for migrants to combat migration.

Implementing the policies for the migrants is not enough because political support is also lacking for socioeconomic and political development. For their product, the interventions like health care and education facilities are provided in a rural region. Vocational teaching should provide to rural students. The implemented programmes like Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (MGNREGA) should work

full-fledged. The irrigation facilities, fertilisers, and seeds provided to improve agricultural production, thereby reducing the risk. The government is also providing facilities like horticulture, floriculture, and fisheries. The second most important is a dairy form which is to be offered by the government.

The above-given data helps to understand the status of women in general conditions and how she treated in the present conditions. Her economic situation does not change society until socio and psychological thinking changes. The difference was found, but they still need more attention to meet social and financial well-being. The status of women in agriculture and emigration was also discussed. These are two essential lifestyles of people are studied from available data of sources. Migrants are better after emigration, but government initiatives are still needed to secure them from primary threats. The literature review is given below about emigration, agriculture and gender with agriculture.

5. Literature Review

The literature review study covered the books, articles from various journals to understand agriculture, emigration, women and changes in emigration. The understanding helps in the area of selection and the gaps in the literature in the concerned area. It is divided into three types thematically—the review of emigration, gender in agriculture, emigration in Telangana related to women. The study has done based on the chronologic method within the thematic approach. A literature review has been done to understand the available information sources on the topic. Through the literature, the gaps found it and thus helps further to find research problem, research questions and objectives in the present thesis.

5.1. Emigration

Castles (2009) says that emigration and socioeconomic activity are related to each other. As the financial resources increased, the opportunities increased, and the mobility also increased when communications followed them. Thus emigration contributes to the development of the country. According to the economic, sociological idea, it decides emigration based on relative cost differences in wages and benefits.

Germany, France, Netherlands, Belgium were industrially developed countries; they accepted the Italian immigrants, but after 1973 restrictions have made to stop the

emigration because the oil booms were dried. Emigration was seen as an economic activity, but the statement has changed afterwards.

He says that developed countries try to exploit the underdeveloped countries with cheap mobility of labour capital. And he finds that the oil crisis started in 1973, and governments started the low wage payment and integration of development. The transition approach started, and standard labour usage led to immigration. From the over-population and emigration, a hump has formed. And free labour movement of Rome treaty 1957 established. Started European Economic Community (EEC) and framed into the European Union in 1993. In 2000 they wanted low and high skilled labour was based on economic and political development. And Europe used to take forced labour and sometimes paid work from the 1950s. The Angola war took place between the west and the soviet bloc. That is for power and economic control in the new nation-states.

During the conversations about the north emigration, Africa was concerned about the policies to stop internal migration by providing economic development in a rural background. But the international migration is considered as the public order, national sovereignty instead of economic growth. In 2006, 39 countries from 50 developed countries received emigrants from Africa. And within Africa, internal and international migration has taken place for an improved lifestyle. These migrations in Africa was economically based and expected in factories, mines, plantations and the service sector. He says globalisation was a fundamental shift in economic, political and military affairs. It brought the latest changes in developed and developing countries, as given below.

The other reason could be that social transformation occurred in developed countries, closed old industries, restructured new labour forces, and declined communities and social order. In developing countries, social change was concerned with agriculture, the decline in local, social hierarchies and rural livelihoods.

He also said that emigration was brain drain, brain circulation, and social remittances such as social attitudes and home skills. And it is a force for the development, ideas and resources. Temporary or circular emigration stimulates growth, and product reduces emigration. Modernisation, privatisation, and globalisation have been introduced in the countries, but the values and ethics remained the same in developed countries

because the political power has to entertain. And the emigration brings the change in the development of infrastructure, the difference in the institutions, improvement in the living standards, improvement in the governance, maximisation of investment on friendly climate. Emigration alone cannot be helpful for development; it also needs the social and political strategies that help maximise growth and reduce poverty. And in the final part, emigration is an aspect of social transformation such as religion, economic and political change.

Lu, Liang and David (2013) found that the Chinese emigrated to Europe and the USA illegally in a high percentage. In some periods, the governments have changed the rules, for instance, Italy, Mexico, the USA, and Denmark, which have the physical capital. The village and kinship networks helped them join the emigrants illegally. They have used the forged papers to emigrate. The airways, waterways have been used to migrate illegally. They say emigration reason for the Fouji was that it was a corner to other countries and had more networks. Another reason was to establish household economic assets in the home region.

Elsner (2013) says the member countries got permission to work in the EU from 2004. Lithuania is a new member country (the UK, Sweden, and Ireland have given the consent but not all the countries) because they were afraid of wages, depression, and unemployment. As the emigration permission has got, the wages also positively impacted, but the bargaining for salaries increased. For one per cent of men, 0.6 per cent of the wages increased. The Lithuanians emigrated for permanent migration; the wages steadily increased, not suddenly. Still, the salaries for women were lesser than men though they represented more than men. However, the yield of the work from women was higher. Besides, age and education, and skills have directly proportional to wages.

Cooray and Schneider (2016), in their article empirically examined, write about the corruption in recruitment in the country, which was leading to emigration. The political factors are mostly playing a role in recruitment. The direct impact was there on emigration.

Vracic (2019) says women from the field area were not interested in sending their husbands and children to other countries, but the situations forced them. That is why they want to educate their children. Harassments of the women after the husbands' emigration

by society and within the family were discussed. Women were depressed, and panic attacked because their husbands were not sending remittances due to extramarital affairs. Financially, how do they overcome the tensions by making the group discussion all together at the workplace? He also says Western Balkans from the Irish sending their remittances and developing their region. And says the networks, developed skills, and economic wealth impact regional non-migrants. In addition, he says that the government expects talent and time for the country development.

For instance, Montenegro, Albania, Bosnia, Herzegovina, Macedonia (Western Balkans) lost their population in the 1990s. The countries were keeping the bad reference on origin country with permanent emigration. Kosovo people and other countries want to permanently leave their country from a young age. And Ireland was a developed country with Google, Microsoft, and other technology attracting the population. The talent of the Western Balkans was used by the Germans and Irish with a proper plan of action, so the emigrants were permanently settled where it was not a good sign for the home country. That is why the home country needs to have the networks and policies to have circular emigration.

Kuldkepp (2020) discussed the ethnicity or identity of the Scandinavian countries and reasons for emigration as sociological and psychological issues. He finds the Scandinavian countries had their churches as catholic, Baptist and Penthecosth at destination area. They did not allow their children to adopt other languages, cultures and systems. They have started their newspaper also. Many newspapers came up, so outsiders later started reading them in their language, so the language has changed. Over the generations, the identity was fading away. So the Scandinavians again started hunting for their ethnicity in America and sent money to the origin area to find themselves in ethnic groups. When economically they were strong, the opposition came from the natives and issued notices.

Piper (n.d) discusses the policy implementation for the emigrants, the violation of their rights by human rights activists and institutional deficiencies questioned. He says emigrants are development agents, and emigration should not become right. The emigrants

expect decent work, here or there. Human rights and governance have to fight for the institutional or transnational campaigns for labour standards.

When it comes to the decision to emigrate, it is not individual interest. It has community influence which was imitated by the economic benefit and adventurous life after the experience of the others. The status of the community and financial position are influencing factors. In Luncavita, Galati, the industry developed, but fishing and agriculture also developed simultaneously. That is why the doors of emigration opened from the village despite good opportunities. Feldru, in Transylvania, the climate was not supportive, and agriculture was down. The mountain areas were not suitable for agriculture, so the living conditions habituated to animal husbandry also caused migration. The climate conditions do not help for the animals also for gross and all, for instance in Feldru people.

Since 1989, the culture of emigration has started because of the agricultural conditions in the country. The Roman Catholics have sent contacts and invitations to emigration. Thus ethnic groups played a significant role in the network. Feldru, the Pentecostal group of Christians, supported each other in the emigration network. Religious people played the part. The network has trust, ties, and reciprocity in exchanging the network benefits. And the return migrants' way of style has intensified, and the community people have installed a business to transport business to other countries by the migrants. It has become the communal culture of emigration and migration as a life strategy in Luncavita.

The above-given literature is concerned about the state of agriculturists after the emigration and vulnerable status. The emigrants do not have security even after emigration also. So emigration is not seen only from a positive perspective, but also a negative impact. The following given literature is about gender in agriculture. It is to understand how women status in agriculture.

5.2. Gender in Agriculture

Bardhan (1985) says women status impacts the caste ranking and community ethnic ranking. According to these, women kept at the end of the corner or confined to some work. Especially in rural society, economic hierarchy plays a significant role. Economically self-

sufficient people lost their lands in mining and dam construction. Due to that reason, they had to come to daily wage in agriculture, which means the economic status of family and hierarchy of landholding or asset in community or society impacts the women status.

The author says the agriculture's wage labourers were predominantly tribal groups and untouchable communities. They do not have patriarchal domination in the household. They sell their labour to earn wages due to restlessness. These women get exploited sexually for money at the market due to commercialisation. They were discriminated against by their class people also. Still, their labour was not recognised in the family, so they chose the cottage and backyard work, which was not countable if they said they had endless workdays.

The author says the women were dominated by a male family member, though they could bargain in the marketplace. Still, they had to depend on a male person because of the asset holding. Women landowners of agriculture dominate the labourers of land and dependents of agriculture. Their daughters study higher education for higher status and get married for salaried jobs. Still, they were also becoming the victims of dowry murders.

She also discussed the emulation thinking of the lower caste women, who were neglected by society and family. They studied till the household threshold only. They had to work in public and sweep the roads for lower pay. Men humiliated the women as they were mud workers and were confined to gobar work.

The author speaks about the push-pull mechanism of grabbing cheap labour. The labour-intensive economic tool changes the form of delivery for the low paid labour from low castes such as agriculture to constructing reservoirs. If the employees refuse to work for a down payment which means push back by withdrawing from work, the problem could solve. She speaks about the causes of wage rates in Kerala. The demand for employment was less, and employees were more due to low investment and High Yielding Varieties (HYV) in agriculture like Punjab, Haryana. In this case, the push-pull mechanism does not work out.

Martha (1989) dealt with the rural development programmes in the 1950s and indicated the basic infrastructure. The 1960s concentrated on the rapid growth of rural

development through agriculture. In the 1970s, rural development intensified as equity orientation, and the 1980s also followed similar growth, infrastructure building, and equity phases. Small Farmers Development Agency (SFDA) was significant and vital. It was concentrated especially on small, marginal farmers, which came into force in the fourth and fifth FYP periods.

He says farmers could not develop through the SFDA due to the uneven availability of funds and marginal farmers credited, as per their needs. To curb this, the committee framed to survey the availability of credits to the farmers. All India Rural Credit Review Committee (AIRCRC) suggested making a separate programme for marginal farmers, which the centre Agricultural Labours frames along with SFDA with the consultation of the planning commission. Thus in four and five FYPs, Marginal Farmers and programme (MFAL) have come. Till 1972, these programmes worked separately, and in 1973, SFDA came into force to procure both marginal and small farmers. Raja Gopalan, Director of Samakhya Cooperative Association (DSCA), AP, said that it provides all requirements for women, but only 10 per cent of women were accessing. He says the reason is the poor accessibility of women because they were not holding the land in their name.

It also discussed the disparity in adopting modern technology. This technology was not accessible to the marginal farmers as it was in imaginary facilities and credit facilitation. He also spoke about K.S. Mandal equity-oriented rural development in India and its origin, shaping and consequences.

Duvvury Nata (1989) said two-thirds of the country's women took part in agriculture. They worked from sowing to harvest and participated in household decision making too. But still, they were invisible. In the new millennium of new technology in agriculture, the fruits are not reaching the rural women. The betterment of their agricultural parties and methods were far from them. It can say as invisible hands and unheard voices. This article discusses that women chose agriculture as a course for job opportunities because they have preferred medicinal crops as the primary option where they could not achieve good results.

Prem Chowdhry (1993) says Haryanvi women do all works except digging, driving and ploughing. After the colonial period, women from all the castes and classes performed

equal work. There was no disparity. He classified them as wage labour, landless, cultivator, or landowner classes. The extensive or capital intensive cultivators use female household labour, not substitute the chemicals. The author calculates the percentage of work done by men and women. He says that women perform half of their time in household work from all other classes, whereas men spend little time at home. Women from all other courses perform light and heavy agricultural activities in different percentages. He gives the light and heavy activities they perform in detail, such as construction and reservoir activities, ploughing, weeding, harvesting, gleaning, threshing, and manual labour works. Those also serve food for work programmes that are skilled and non-professional works.

He says women perform double-fold work such as animal husbandry and agriculture. They gained a socially and economically supervisory position. Psychological factors also made them participate more in agriculture. But after Green Revolution (GR) and White Revolution (WR), women's condition was ruined by inferior workers. They were paid less than the men though they worked equally. They get a lesser number of days of employment than men. Chaudhary says the capitalist form of agriculture made women inferior in socioeconomic conditions. Cultural work ethics has succeeded in downgrading women contribution to hard work. During GR, the female labour increased more because women do all jobs like sowing, transplanting, pesticide control, irrigation etc. He says women struggle escalates the output in lower wages. He discussed the social status in the society in agriculture work also.

Working female labour in their land increases their status if they work for others termed lower in position. The wealthy persons of agriculture use household females to increase the holding in size. The bigger the zamindars, the more the women work. That does not mean women of that household were withdrawing from the cultivation work of others. They work in other's fields also. In Haryana, WR started in the 1970–80s. Women's workload increased, such as taking care, feeding animals, dung removal, mulching, making ghee, curd, etc., but still, they were underestimated. Though milk production became commercialised or industrialised, they were not recognised as primary workers. Women work in their fields and work in others' fields to run or substitute their household contributions.

In Haryana, women were born and married to take responsibility for the family and participate in agriculture and animal husbandry. After the migration of male persons for employment, the workload of the women increases. Men come during harvest and other seasonal work, but women do not withdraw. It means whatever the conditions, women's workload never reduces. Women's work was culturally and ethically felt correct because of their cultural beliefs.

Charles Fonchingong (1999) studied agriculture concerning women during the Structural Adjustment Programmes (SAP) in Cameroon. As per the concept, after implementing the programmes, projects change women labour, lifestyle etc. However, during 1999, they were facing a crisis, so they were forced to borrow loans from International Monetary Fund (IMF). And loans started following the SAP to increase their crop production by commercial crops and food crops. Before SAP, the women concentrated on food crops and family burden, and men focused on commercial crop production. But after SAP, women had to cooperate with men in crop production besides their food crops for market and commercialisation.

Due to the commercialisation of the food crops, the family and crop production burden increased on women. This contribution in cash also increased, and the women took care of the family's needs. Children and families need fulfilment by women themselves without depending on a man.

Women worked more than rural women in urban areas because of land availability. So they have to produce multi-cropping, sharecropping. So it means through the development of programmes and projects, employment increased and family responsibility.

Arun (1999) discussed women's agricultural production and land rights in Kerala. In Kerala's, the direct access to the women's land started with a welfare perspective. They cultivated cash crops instead of general agriculture to meet family needs. But still, women faced the lacuna in resources due to social, economic inequality among gender. Saradamoni (1983), in the same article, says that land-owning of matrilineal families was taken away in the year 1960 due to Kerala Agrarian Relations Act (KARA). Patrilineal women do not possess the land because they were married by giving dowry through selling lands.

The author conducted the study in Moorkanand and Ummanoor in Kerala. In Ummanoor, labour displaced because of the shifting of the cashew nut industries moved to other states. It discussed Nair's women and their property rights that was the idea of matrilineal and matrilineal marriage. It was protecting their land properties. The author says that they did not have the authority to control the household's income and decision-making through matrilineal. They were the second person to decide when there was no husband at home to make their own decisions. Still, some women were not interested in authority over this. He says that women in Kerala were aware of everything because they watched the news on TVs, listened to radios, and read newspapers. He said that women could not access the credits and loans from the banking sector for boar pumps. In any case, they have the facility to take flexible banking services but lack collateral security.

In Moorkanand, marketing facilities and resources were lacking to meet their needs. In addition, he says the labour wages decreased. He also discussed government policies towards agriculture in Kerala, which were essential.

Rao (2001) says women participation in work was determined by the nexus of class or caste hierarchy and norms of participation. The taboo of working indoor and outdoor played a role in women's participation in work. He also discussed the lack of women participation in employment due to cultural customs and technological development since they used to work during sowing and reaping. However, the remained machines do work. He adds the different authors' thoughts and views and says domestic work was also included, but they did not count it.

He also finds the fluctuations in women employment in different decades. Most of the decline of employment reasons seen in the particular decades was displacement for better jobs or changing lifestyles in urban areas. He reviewed the study of women labour and underestimated during the 1970s. He said very few studies were available on women earning wages and status. He also found that they supported other businesses, such as transport, animal husbandry etc. In addition, he said in northern states, and women employment was caste and gender-based. Due to that reason, they cannot access employment. He says that in the 20th century, agricultural cultivation shifted to cash crops,

and those were women based employment. Especially tobacco, cotton found greater recruiting for grading, destemming, stripping etc.

He says analytically, in 1985, there was high demand for male and female employment than their requirement of the family needs in wheat, jowar and rice cultivation. There was increased employment as increased in HYV. The case of TN and AP was contradictory to this. He says gender division of labour was not there in rice cultivation employment. Anybody can do any job in these states. That is why men were shifting to women employment, and women employment also reduced from earlier status. During that time, women have received property through land legislation for women. He said if there was no uniform civil code, this could be impossible.

Parikh, Acharya and Maithreyi (2004) say women were eliminated since childhood from schooling to employment; they should get exceptional care and allowances for their empowerment to get into the mainstream. A new concept of development is defined as constructing capabilities and eliminating poverty and gender inequality by providing policies and programmes that are integral to national development. The author says making this kind of policy and allowing women to make policy. So that they can understand their problems, which helps them know the actual problem and solution, making them participate in preparing, implementing, and monitoring women-related schemes. Women development programmes were not disadvantaged to women, which mean not impacted adversely, but they were left behind in covering their views and problems. The reason also could not trace which caused the lower employment opportunities through the specific schemes than the other schemes.

In his article, Nitish Jha (2004) discussed the gender disparity in holding and deciding on productive, reproductive and community work. In Bali, women take part in deciding household activities. Nieces, nephews also take part altogether to share work in agriculture. All the family members contribute to household and agricultural activities and economically contribute together. Women and children also got the freedom to decide for the home, but the community level was not allowed. The male member of the family took the community and agricultural-related decisions. In Balinese, women were not considered less and not given full authority to make decisions.

Women do physical labour such as *subak* work, arranging water for irrigation of the crops. They only substitute men's work and complement the men in physical work, not deciding. Sometimes decide the *subak* after that adult male member represents the public. An adult male member of the family must represent the irrigation in the community. If a widowed woman was practising agricultural activities, she could not express her decision in the community council. Sharecropper of the male member represents instead of her. In Balinese, male members never carry the paddy/rice on their head and female on her shoulder, meaning their social factors in making decisions.

Jamie P. McEvoy (2008) studied rural women status in Mexico after leaving the male out-migration to Mexico. It was empirical data collected from the Villanueva of 18 respondents out of 35 households. He found the financial, social status of women. Females in the rural region remained the only source of caring and raising the children after the husband's emigration. He found there were equal chances of improvement after the emigration of their husband to the USA. The emigration decision was taken for three reasons: employment facility and good wages because they receive low payment for more work at the origin place. The second reason was the lack of agricultural facilities because of droughts and low rainfall, so they could not harvest as much as they invested. And the third reason is for children education.

By the husbands' emigration, women could improve in a rural region by constructing a house, buying cattle, land and making deposits. However, they preferred more to buy cattle instead of purchasing the ground because after investing in production also not able to harvest the cost of investment.

He also talks about women's issues in agriculture. During the husbands' emigration as they carried the work in agriculture. The primary crop production in the village was chilli but was almost in losses. He has given the information regarding the changing lifestyle of women after the husband's immigration. Depending on the husband's remittances to the village, they faced poverty.

He found the number of women taking part in agriculture increased as a feminisation of agriculture³. Feminisation took place because of the start of large scale businesses like vegetables and fruits. The commercial sector, which is neo-liberal economic development caused by small-scale agriculture, decreased, and policies made that did not allow small-scale cultivators due to privatisation. That is why it was complicated for them to handle their small scale agri-business.

World Bank Group in May 2007 reported that in South Eastern (SE) Guatemala, male out-migration was 70 per cent, and 90 per cent were in the US only. It notes that women who remained at home hold the burden of the family and agriculture. It says that the husband's emigration brings self-efficacy, empowerment, and self-control. It divided the women into three groups: single women whose husbands emigrated, second type women, and a mate who relocated along with husband and third type of single women without husbands. The paper speaks about the division of labour.

Regarding agriculture, labour was utterly taken care of by the women only. It was difficult for them due to a lack of knowledge in cultivation. Due to lack of knowledge, women could not work and produce as males produced a profit in a crop—the comparative study was conducted with two types of samples. For instance, women and husbands cultivated and earned more profits in SE Guatemala than the single women who were widowed and wives of emigrated men. In comparing single women, widowed women were more prosperous than the emigrant husband's wife.

Women decision making power increased after the male out-migration. The widowed women could take all decisions independently, but type one women were not like them. Compared with the single women and women with husbands, the single women were

³ The feminisation of agriculture has multiple meanings. It can refer as an increase in rural women's, or rural and urban women's, participation rates in the agricultural sector. It can also be measured as an increase in the share of the agricultural labour force that is female. A higher female share can in turn be the result of a higher female activity rate and/or a decrease in men's participation rate in agriculture. Moreover, the feminisation of the agricultural sector might be the result of the under enumeration of women as unpaid family labour in the past, combined with their greater visibility as agricultural wage workers or own-account farmers in the current period (Deere and Diana 2005).

more autonomous in taking agriculture decisions. They took care of the load of agriculture work, and problems were also raised due to poor communication and knowledge. Due to communication problems, women could not call labour for work, so they could not cultivate total land. They could not communicate with dealers at the harvest time and sell out the produced crop product. All households used the wage labourers for the agricultural work, but the single women needed more labour than the women with husbands. Inheritance of property by women was not there since it was male-dominated culture. Women owned their names but were overwhelmed by the male person of the family only.

He says the male was the primary source of information for women to learn agriculture. Some women knew the work from the husband, and they were yielding better production. Some women learnt themselves from others who could not deliver the proper presentation of the crop.

Sachs and Alston (2010) say that women played significant roles in agriculture. They cultivate the crop for family, rear the animals and plants. However, they were invisible in occupying the property, possessing other properties, capital or land. They reviewed Campbell, Bell and Finney (2006) article and said that understanding gender relations in agriculture was conceptualised through class, ethnicity, race, gender and relationship, etc. Most of the articles focused on household situations. Still, some concentrated on women in agriculture.

He found that after the global agro-system, the women were forced to work in non-traditional crop production to repay their debts. Women were moved in flower crops in Colombia, grape work in Chile and green beans in Kenya. Most of them keep women in that positions because they can pay less than men. They were replaced by men who sought supplementary income. The support for the traditional method of agriculture was retarded due to commercialisation. The government and trade groups were also not supported by conventional crop production. In commercial agriculture, women employment increased, which led to corporatisation. Due to this reason, women were leaving agriculture and moving towards non-agricultural work. This kind of glocal force applies in developed and developing countries. He also talks about the condition of western countries and women labour in non-agricultural activities and non-agrarian movements.

Akthar and Azeez (2012) say employment plays a pivotal role in the present Indian context to reduce poverty and migration. Employment is the primary resource of the development of the nation. According to the 2001 census, 400 million were strong workforce which constitutes 39 per cent of the total population of the country. A minimum of 183 days in a financial year did not work for these workers. 52 per cent of the male and 26 per cent of the female who works in a financial year, it indicates lesser than half of the women do not get employment in a financial year. Total rural women workers were only 31 per cent from 1971 to 2001, which indicates the inadequate number of women in employment.

Maya Prabhu (2013) talk about the marketing of treadle pumps to farmers in India. International Development Enterprises (IDE) was a marketing agency in India since the 1980s. It entered with the intention of development and cooperation to both genders. That is why it concentrated on low-cost production with new technology and distributed treadle pumps in UP, WB, Meghalaya, and Assam. They have used different irrigation methods such as drip irrigation and sprinkler irrigation systems. He finds women were holding employment when husbands migrated for jobs to other regions. So treadle pumps gave to the female and male farmers. He says women were not moving to the market region. So male farmers bring the treadle pumps on behalf of women. He also found the disadvantages with the IDE methodology of transforming information through the male agents only. Due to male agents, the information was not reaching the women at home because the advertising agent discusses with farmers at pan shops and tea stalls, where women do not go. Treadle pumps were small technological instruments. They prepared to reduce the workload of the farmers in small scale agricultural activities. They were helpful to women in horticulture, floriculture and other allied activities. The conclusion is that it was tough for a market system or advertisement to reach women in a rural region, whether technology or any other technological instrument. We need to have a proper plan and strategy to make it prosperous.

Primary data was collected from Sitamarhi in North Bihar of India to understand the patriarchal residents. He finds, women were not allowed to talk in front of the elder brother-in-law and father-in-law as per the local customs. That is why women met the

agents through an indirect channel. Agents speak to the male persons, and male persons convey the information to the lady. Thus, IDE could meet the minor change in socio-economic differences in two years.

Praveen Kumar (2013) says women are invisible and silent partners in his article. Women do more than 75 per cent of food production. They work in various activities such as food production, food security, poultry, horticulture, sericulture, apiculture, dairy, piggery, fishing, skilled handicrafts, woodwork, etc. They put their complete efficiency and skills in different stages of agriculture such as crop selection to land preparation, seed selection, planting, weeding, pest control, harvesting, crop storage, handling, making and finally processing.

The author says women were the backbone of the agriculture of India. In agriculture, seed selection is a critical stage where women are the central part of the Himalayas. It defines them as productive workers. The author says women work for 15 hours a day, whereas men only work 7–8 hours. Later they work at home three folds to the agricultural work.

For the first time, he says women recognised as Kisan, implementing the scheme, Mahila Sasakthikaran Pariyojana (MSP). The author recommends various things, such as 1. Women friendly technological developed tools, techniques, 2. A cadre of women extension agents to provide the information to the farmers regarding agriculture and other fields, 3. Agricultural credits should be given to women farmers and exceptional advances created by banks, and 4. Since equal development of both genders is an international approach, the government of India was expected to have a concentration on equal distribution of the policies, projects and programmes.

As per the FAO (2015) report, sex is different from gender. Sex indicates biological features, but gender is sociologically determined, which means men can be women and women can be men by their deeds and social works. This article says that reducing the gender gap reduces hunger and poverty by providing equal employment opportunities for men to women. FAO reports that reduce the gap among both genders. By providing equal opportunity in production, labour resources availability and market management. Though women took part in the production, they were not entering market management. He says

they provided enough resources through continuous labour to agriculture but minimal production. So closing the gap in the gender disparity requires achieving equality. By reducing the gender gap, we can find social and economic changes such as family welfare and nutritional balance, children's health, bargaining power in the market, clothing, education, and allocation of money for food, health, household needs, etc.

FAO discusses land rights and women tenure in achieving equality in natural resources. The report says acquiring land property was possible through legitimate procedures, projects and policies. Legitimacy supports women by giving lands and other assets, but family, marriage, and kinship institutions did not accept their legality because they followed traditional customs. Equality was possible when women themselves developed independence and local community leaders and bureaucracy.

It also says the role and status of women in agriculture implied by age, region, ethnicity and social class and others throughout the world. As per the article, women lack control over contract farming because they do not control the land resource. But 70 per cent of women work was done by labourers in contract farming. Contract farming needs large scale quality produce. As per data findings, women can work longer hours than men.

Fisheries and aquaculture was the primary sector in part-time jobs for women. As per data gathered in 2008, 45 million women were employed, and 135 million people were used in post-harvested work, secondary employment. In India, 24 per cent of women depend on this work. Women lag in production when compared to men because of technology resources. The research found controlling plots, managing the children and men labour, draught, animal labour and fertiliser etc. Though women worked fields in more, output was minimal.

The given information from the literature indicates the status of women in agriculture changing with men's state of condition—their lifestyle changes with their husband's lifestyle. The male workload never changed according to women, but women's workload changed. Her lifestyle changed socially, economically, psychologically and community level. So many factors also forced them. The literature from Telangana is studied to understand the state of agriculture and emigration concerning women status, since the primary data was collected from Telangana as per statistical information. Before

collecting preliminary data, it is imperative to understand the status of Telangana and women in agriculture concerning emigration and agriculture.

5.3. Agriculture and Emigration in Telangana with Relation to Women

National Commission for Agriculture (NCA) discusses tendu leaves in AP and business during 1983. These leaves are a minor forest source of the Telangana region, their economy during the unseasoned. The nearest village people collect it from the forest. It also focused on the local people's struggle in doing this labour. The government initiatives and acts implemented for the forest were also discussed (V. G 1984).

Balagopal (1993) discussed the conditions of droughts and deforestation in Telangana state. And they have not been curtailed because of the government's wrong policies to protect rainwater wastage. When rain falls were less than average, the government declared those areas as drought-prone areas. Telangana region was also proclaimed as one of the drought flat areas. According to World Bank economic resources, the landlords and rivers destroyed Telangana geography from the Telangana region to AP.

Meenakshi and Polemann (1994) collected primary data on rice production in AP and Maharashtra of jowar production. In Maharashtra, the geographical difference in AP is given, such as Telangana and Rayalaseema are dry areas, dependent on tank irrigation method whereas coastal Andhra on river irrigation. In upper coastal Andhra, production is lower than in the lower coastal region. It also focused on the production of the crops after the GR comparatively. The data was covered returns from the production and prices over it. The technology used in agriculture was also discussed. The impact of production and technology discussed—the consumption of food grains based on the costs, technology and employment complexity. Labour usage increased significantly high in the coastal region since the production increased. Productions were directly proportional to wages. He says the prices were not making much inference but the consumption of economic investment in crop production.

Jadhav (2010) discussed with reasons for the backwardness of Telangana in this article. First, feudalism was in Telangana, whereas castist feudalism was in AP. The backwardness of Telangana because of the Nizam's rule, whereas in AP, before

independence, colonials were ruled. Colonials have developed the delta region of the coastal area for their prosperity, which was used post-independence period by the local slaves of colonials used their resources and became royals. He also discusses the reasons for the geographical, economic and social backwardness.

Hans India newspaper, on 5 July 2017, the article discussed the backwardness of Telangana agricultural issues. In five decades, from 1955–56 to 1996–99, the progress in agriculture and economic development was decreased in Telangana but increased in AP. It reports per capita income of output was also lower in Telangana than in AP. The credits were insufficient, the irrigation system was improper, and the Telangana people depended on tanks that dried up over time. It also found a problem with electricity which caused vast debts. Thereby farmers shifted out from agriculture. The youth did not show interest in taking up their job in agriculture. They have migrated by quitting agriculture. It reports that per-unit charges were higher in non-farm labour than farm labour. That was the reason to face labour shortage in rural agricultural employment.

On 9 May 2016, Hans India reported that Rajasthan, Maharashtra, Telangana, AP, Odisha, Jharkhand, Chhattisgarh, and UP were under severe droughts. The Telugu states were faced painful drought conditions. They could not get the drinking water in three decades of duration. In Telangana, 231 mandals out of 443 were declared as drought-prone areas. These reasons forced them to migrate.

When it comes to migration in Telangana is discussed in the below-given articles. Deccan Chronicle (DC) (2015) newspaper focused on the chronic emigration in the Telangana region due to droughts caused by the low rainfall. Especially Mahaboobnagar, Nalgonda, Medak and Adilabad are reporting more migration. Employment was also lacking, and MGNREGA was not prosperous in providing unseasonal employment. DC reports the migrants to work as security guards, watchmen etc., for Rs. 500/- per day. Whereas in a rural area they were not able to earn Rs. 100/- even per day. It also reports the causes of the increased crime rate in an urban region. Adilabad, Nizamabad, Warangal and Medak reports more than 60 per cent of the crime rate due to migration. They concluded that droughts attacked agriculture and the social life of rural India.

Sasikumar and Timothy (2020) say that in the 1970s, the oil booms developed massively in Saudi Arabia, and the population was lower. And the nationalisation policies were designed in the country, but the origin people did not want to work in soft and semi-skilled works. That was the reason India became the significant labour sending country. That is how the emigration from Asia and Africa has invited. In India, agriculture employment during the 1980s, 70 per cent declined to 60 per cent in 1999–2000, and 49 per cent in 2011–12 and manufacturing developed slowly, but construction work moved faster. That is how India became the most significant labour sending country. 8.9 million Emigrants in 1999 and 22.3 million by 2013. Low skilled 0.6 million to 0.8 million every year sends migrants to Gulf Cooperated Council (GCC) countries. The poorest states send emigrants from UP, Bihar but Karnataka and Kerala reduced the migration. Thus from India, Saudi Arabia receives one-fifth of the total migrants, Oman 58 per cent, the United Arab Emirates (UAE), Kuwait, Bahrain, and Qatar receive 36 per cent each. India also gets the highest proportion of remittances globally because of labour migration.

Teja (2019), in his article Despair in search of livelihood: The saga of the Telangana gulf migration, discussed the migration to the six Gulf countries and the experiences of the migrants. The skilled and unskilled employees have the opportunities over there. They have positive and negative experiences with the migrants. For instance, the unskilled labour, Veeraiah, went from Nizamabad district and worked as 100 camels' keeper. He did not get proper food from employers, and they beat him severely. His mother died, and his wife was hospitalised, but employers did not even permit him to come back to their home place. He requested the involvement of the Indian government to help him.

He says that Telangana sees a high amount of migration to Gulf countries of unskilled labour. The reasons were lack of employment in agriculture, poverty, debts because of infertile agriculture, better future and identity. The salaries are higher over there than in India as per them. It gives riches in a faster time than rural employment. And every month, 10,000 members emigrate from Telangana state to Gulf countries. As per the Ministry of External Affairs (MEA), by December 2018, there were 85 million migrants in Kuwait, Saudi Arabia, UAE, Oman, Qatar, and Bahrain. From North India, UP, Rajasthan

and WB. He also says that fraud travel agents provided the working visas. That is why the Telangana government opened the Telangana Overseas Manpower Company Ltd (TOMCOM) in 2016 to resolve gullible migration. Despite having TOMCOM opened recently, it has registered cases against fake travel agents under the Preventive Detention Act (PDA), 1986. There were 15 illegal agencies in Telangana and 507 throughout India. 3000 members were in jail because of the lack of information on law and order. 2000 members of emigrants died in the destination area till now. In addition, the emigrants were getting issues over there and recorded dead instances.

Sur and Tallam (2020) discussed the Covid-19 severity in gulf countries as the migrants in Kuwait were hit by Covid-19, and in Oman, the emigrants' state was better. The Gulf countries migrants return to home every day 2000 members for two months. The migrants said that the employers pay them only half of their salary, and 4000 Telangana migrants were strict to the rooms. The significant migrants were from Hyderabad, Karimnagar and Nizamabad.

India Migration Now (IMN) (2020) discussed migrants in gulf countries work in construction, business, manufacturing and domestic works. The migrants from Nizamabad, Karimnagar from Telangana and East and West Godavari from AP.

As per migrant welfare organisations, three million migrants were in gulf countries till 20 May 2020. Historically migration from Asian countries to Gulf countries started in the 1970s. But from the south part of India began in the 1970s and 1980s. In the 1990s, they stopped because of restrictive immigration policies by gulf countries. Again resurged in 2000 with a rise in prices. Telangana and AP were significant in sending migrants than the north part of India. Adilabad, Medak from Telangana and YSR Kadapa from AP. And the policies made for the return of migrants. The migrants who came back because of the failure visas work in MGNREGA.

TNN (2020) says Covid-19 task force committee chairman Marri Chenna Reddy said 8.5 million Indians migrated to gulf countries. Especially from Telangana state, 1.5 million migrated and worked hard and sent 6500 crore rupees of remittances per annum.

Teja (2020), in his article for the newspaper, the news minute, writes that according to International Labour Organisation (ILO), Telugu states such as Telangana and AP migrated to UAE, Saudi Arabia, Oman, Qatar, Bahrain and Kuwait. 2.7 billion labourers throughout the world migrated to these countries. It is 4/5th of the world workforce reside in these countries. And 8.7 million Indians migrated and three million from both the states together. 0.75 Million emigrants return to the country due to Covid-19 issues in the destination area. The members from the Nizamabad district, Bheemgal and Kamareddy, said that the condition was not suitable for Gulf employees in the destination area. KCR also promises them construction or other works in Hyderabad if they return to the country.

The review of literature on agriculture and emigration in Telangana and women discussed migration causes and agriculture status. It is concerned with the causes, historical background, and progress of the emigration and the severity of migration. But there are no studies on women in agriculture when men emigrated. The literature is available on the backwardness of the Telangana state, economically and socially, but no data of women concerning agriculture and emigration.

6. Research Problem

In India, emigration has started before independence during the colonial period. It was in the form of indenture migration. Research scholars have contributed to the studies in Indian migration, experts, and other organisations concentrated out-migration, internal migration, economic development issues, remittances studies, network, how they have influenced the migration and international cyclic emigration. The migration to other countries was studied at a global level, and they have concerned with the agricultural women and emigration influence on them. But the studies of Indian migration to other countries concerned process and historical background, remittances, emigrant lifestyle, and hardships. The agriculture women never touched in any studies of the Indian migration studies. In the absence of a husband, the woman's responsibility must be fulfilled. The lessons from the migration of India revolve around indenture migration and their struggles and other studies concerned about the gulf migration.

Through the understanding from the literature review, the women from the rural region have remained uncared. Various authors have discussed women status after the

husband's emigration, but no studies conducted in India. The strengths and struggles of women have to be recognised in society, family, and government. They are taking a significant part in household activities and agriculture activities. They are the primary source of the economy when men are out of the home due to emigration for employment. Men are called the primary breadwinner, but women carry the backbone of agriculture and household activities during the men's emigration. According to McEvoy (2008), women face economic, social issues during the husband's absence in the village while carrying the agriculture activities. They faced divorce problems from the husband side. For the comfort in agriculture activities, women got second marriage though they were not interested. The respect she deserves for her hard work was not received because of society's narrow-minded nature, community, family, and individualistic perception.

As per the World Bank report (2007) on women in agriculture, they were double rolled in maintaining the agriculture and household with more work. They carry social, economic and agricultural workloads during the husband's absence. The studies were carried in western countries like Mexico, Guatemala, and Uruguay. When men emigrated to better the family, women's role expanded significantly in agriculture. The impact of emigration on women was not studied.

Macro-level studies focus on flows, magnitude and future benefits. And study focus on the impact of migration of husbands on left-behind women, decision making, individuals, households, and well-being. My study tries to fill the knowledge gap of the status of emigrants forgotten at the micro-level. It gives a deep understanding of the case studies which can help the policymakers. The thesis explores women's micro socio-economic state and explains the post emigration of men on women at home. Post move satisfaction of the women predicted from the field conducted in Telangana state. The micro-level subjective and empirical study in Telangana will provide gaps in the literature in emigration studies.

7. Research Questions

Research questions are framed based on the research problem and available literature information. In addition, the questions are crafted to get the answers to the respective objectives of the thesis in the coming chapters.

1. What is emigration, and how is it interconnected with agriculture concerning women?
2. What are the factors influencing women in agriculture?
3. What are the changes in agriculture due to the emigration of men on women's social, economic and employment status?
4. What is the impact of men's emigration on women in agriculture in Telangana state?

8. Objectives

The objectives are framed based on the research problem and questions to craft the thesis in a framework. Overall, understanding the objectives helps to carve the idea.

1. To study emigration and its influence on agriculture
2. To analyse the factors influencing women participation in agriculture in India.
3. To study the impact of men's emigration on women in agriculture.
4. To study the impact of men's emigration on women in agriculture in Telangana state.

9. Methodology

This study is descriptive and narrative. It explores the women's role in agriculture and her employment, socio-economic and psychological condition. The study was conducted in a qualitative and quantitative method. Literary data is collected from journals, books, census reports, other reports, etc. Statistical reports were used to select the districts, i.e., collected from the Directorate of Economics and Statistics (DES), NSSO 64th round and extracted the emigration status of Telangana state from a unit level data source. The reason to use 64th data is that they have not provided NSSO data of the migration in 2011.

9.1. Working Population

Three districts selected for the field analysis are Nizamabad, Karimnagar and Medak. Conducted pilot study and literature review also reveal that unskilled and agricultural men move to gulf counties or other countries on cyclic employment. Wives remain at home to hold the family and agriculture.

Table No.1.2: District-wise Distribution of Migrants as per 64th Round (2007–08) NSSO data (Percentage)

Name of the District	Total Number of Migrants	Percentage of Migrants
Adilabad	211123	14.35
Nizamabad	185890	12.63
Karimnagar	169929	11.55
Medak	122375	8.32
Hyderabad	140718	9.56
Rangareddy	157145	10.68
Mahabubnagar	158889	10.8
Nalgonda	105309	7.15
Warangal	121391	8.25
Khammam	98403	6.68

Source: Extraction of 64th round NSSO unit-level data

These are three cultivator emigration districts moved to other countries. Adilabad and Mahaboobnagar show the highest migration, but they are not suitable for study. This is because they are moving to other states or within the state migration. They prefer seasonal migration. The total family with children and wife take mobility during lean season of the agriculture and come back again to carry out the agriculture work during the rainy season to till harvest. It is also cyclic, but every six months, come back home with total family. Hyderabad and Rangareddy occupied with no agriculture because of over-population and urbanisation. In Adilabad, inter-state migrations like TN, Bangalore, and other places for employment. Some of them were sending their children to hostels during holidays, and during the good season for agriculture, they returned home.

9.2. Target Population

The target population in this study are agricultural women, wives of emigrants. According to the 2007-08 census report, three districts were selected for primary data collection. Two districts were selected based on more agriculture labour and cultivators as emigrants, and the other has the least number of agriculture labour and cultivators as emigrants. The selection of the mandal, has been done based on the flow of the emigration. The Gram Panchayat (GPs) and villages are selected based on the census 2011, and those should have

a flow of emigration to another country. The highest and lowest census villages have been used for the sample collection.

Table No.1.3: Sample Respondents of the Field Data

Name of the district	Name of the Mandal	Name of the Panchayat	Name of the Village	Respondents or Migrant Wives	Case Studies
Karimnagar	Kathlapur	Thandriyal	Thandriyal	52	5
		Thandriyal	Ippapalle	49	5
	Gambhiraopet	Dammannapet	Dammannapet	51	5
		Mallaredipet	Nagampet	51	5
Medak	Medak	Burugupalle	Burugupalle	52	5
		Rayanpalle	Rayanpalle	51	5
Nizamabad	Mortad	Palem	Palem	62	5
		Tadla Rampur	Tadla Rampur	45	5
3	4	7	8	413	40

Source: GoI 2011

9.3. Tools and Techniques Used

The tools used are the case study method, schedules with open-ended and closed-ended questions and interview method. The case study method gives a deep understanding of the respondents with particular events that happened in their life. Those will provide excellent inputs to understand the study. In the interview method also used, spot questions depended on the situation. This method helps to get authentic information in primary data collection. The interview method is a feasible method to get data, preferred to find information from the agriculture women. Microsoft Excel and Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) are helpful to analyse data quantitatively.

10. Chapterisation

The present work has been divided into six chapters, as given below. The chapters are prepared to understand content in general to a specific manner. The first four chapters are based on secondary data and, through literature, tried to understand emigration, agriculture and women clearly and how they are interrelated to the issue carved in the thesis.

Chapter one titled *Introduction*. It discusses the marginal status of agricultural women and emigration. The scope of the topic provided. It gives the details of the

methodology, the significance of the study, the research problem, questions posed for data collection and objectives.

Chapter two of the work is titled *Agriculture and Its Influence on Emigration*. This chapter gives an understanding of agriculture and emigration. This profound the interconnection between emigration and agriculture. It provides a general description of it. It also includes information about the status of agriculture, the conditions, forces, and situations leading to international migration—the changes in the family after the emigration of the family member or emigrant. A deep understanding is given in forth incoming chapters regarding women’s status in socioeconomic and agriculture employment. It also finds reasons for the emigration of men.

Chapter three named, *Factors Influencing the Women in Agriculture in India*. This chapter concerned the women status of employment in agriculture. Factors are technology, economic reforms, liberalisation, privatisation and industrialisation, rainfall, irrigation facilities, and environmental changes that influence agriculture and women employment. The changing employment status of rural women in agriculture impacts the household socio, economic, and psychological conditions. The workload on women within the home and outside, for instance, the agriculture field, also focused.

Chapter four of the study is *Impact of Men Emigration on Agriculture and Women Employment*. It gives a deep understanding of emigration in India. Its effect on agriculture in the rural region thereby offered women social, economic, and employment. Gender issues are focused on. The impact of emigration on women’s role in holding the family and agriculture provided. This chapter provides a deep understanding of women’s role in agriculture, which means a cultivator, agriculture labour, self-employee in their agriculture field, etc. Gender division of labour, emigration outcomes and its impact on women who remained at home were discussed.

Chapter five of the work is entitled *Impact of Men Emigration on Women in Agriculture in Telangana State and Empirical Analysis*. The first part discusses the profile of Telangana from the reports and journals. It gives complete-fledged information on agriculture, women status due to migration to another country of men in Telangana state of a rural region. It provides knowledge of agriculture, women employment status in

agriculture in Telangana. The second part offers the data analysed from primary data collection. It focuses on rural women who participated in agriculture, sample respondents—agricultural employment status and its drift over a while.

After the male emigration and how women balance the absence of husbands, the socioeconomic and psychological changes after the male emigration were focused on. The respondents' view of men's emigration concerns the increased responsibilities, burdens of family, agriculture and community levels, and the power she gained through male emigration. Outcomes of the emigration, women's state of vulnerability, changed household status in economic and material resources, changes in the gendered division of labour discussed.

Chapter six of the work is named *Conclusion*. It brings the conclusion of the findings of the work. It also provides the recommendations needed for improvement. The conclusion of the chapter connotes a connection between agriculture and emigration. That impacts women—understanding the concepts provided in the present chapter. The interconnection between the concepts makes sense for a deep understanding of the implications for women. So in the second chapter, Agriculture and its influence on emigration, discuss the status of agriculture in the first. And its impact on the emigration of men in the latter part.

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Chapter 2

Agriculture and Its Influence on Emigration

The word agriculture, after all, does not mean “agriscience,” much less “agribusiness”. It means “cultivation of land”. And cultivation is at the root of the sense both of culture and a cult. The ideas of tillage and worship thus joined in culture. And these words all come from an Indo-European root meaning both “to revolve” and “to dwell”. To live, survive on the earth, care for the soil, and worship, all are bound at the root to the idea of a cycle. Only by understanding the cultural complexity and largeness of the concept of agriculture can we see the threatening diminishment implied by the term “agribusiness” (Berry 2004, 285).

Globally, the change in agriculture has been taking continuously because of several factors; emigration is considered one of the influential factors. The cause and effects of international migration are poverty, agriculture, rainfall, unemployment, education status, etc. The macro-level emigration studies include census reports and published government and organisation reports. They can study only out layer of emigration but not deep into their issues. The causes and push-pull factors of migration to other countries for employment were discussed in the introduction chapter. But the causes of emigration were concerned with the overall effect. This second chapter examines the agriculture-related causes of international migration and push-pull factors and their impact. The agriculture and struggle in agriculture discussed first as given below and later part enter into emigration and connected with agriculture roots to emigration reasons.

Indian agriculture is changing production and culture. The rural setting identifies Indian society, and it is defined as timeless and unchanging. Agriculture is the main occupation for rural India, so many are poorer, affected, and worse off by agriculture. Dynamics of market controls agriculture in India (Gupta 2005). Berry (2004) and Gupta (2005) emphasised that agriculture is affected by the market, industry, and environmental changes. Thus it changes the lifestyle of the rural people who are main dependents on agriculture. As the threats increases, lifestyle changes. That is why emigration increased. Other factors are also leading to migration to other countries, but in the rural region, emigration is prevalent, and demand raised the issue of the scholars and scientists. The present chapter mainly discusses with interconnection between agriculture and emigration, which is cyclical. Primarily in the background of agriculture specifies with history or prior

understanding of agriculture. The cavity of agriculture and troubles faced by the rural people were discussed. And it leads to the emigration of men. The men's emigration brought change mainly in agriculture and left-behind women in agriculture. After the husband's emigration, wife's and the household's role changes. The reduction of one person in the family may vary in various activities. Women carry those activities, and how it affects them is discussed.

1. Background of Agriculture

India is a soil that has Indus, Ganges, and Brahmaputra rivers, and these rivers flowing places are good soils for cultivation (Mann 1929). It is a densely populated country that faces a land-man ratio (Kesar 1992). Agriculture and income are interconnected along with population (Mellor 1976). Agricultural productivity and rural employment based on seasonality factor, farm labour, and lean period of agriculture make more unemployment (Kesar 1992). And the production fluctuations in food grains were due to uneven or no rainfall and technological issues caused, and these are significant challenges in the development of agriculture (Gandhi, Zhou, and Mullen 2004). India can develop 3.5 to four per cent GDP, but the electricity, fertiliser, transport, and other necessities made obstacles to them. The institutional development also makes somewhat delay in evolution (Mellor 1976). Same time India exported food grains and cereals when food was scarce and faced malnutrition issues. That is why Majmdar (2006) questions how India can be malnourished when exporting food grains?

That is why the MDGs also discussed connection with agriculture and children health, sustainable development, malnutrition, eradication of poverty, primary education, and modernisation. It also mentioned agriculture is the primary source of rural poor to bring in the mainstream. So modernisation should have high-yielding agriculture. But modernisation and agriculture both are challenging tasks to carry—the reasons. The environment deteriorates agriculture and market failure. The deterioration of the domain leads to global climate change (Hazra 2013). Moulik, Dholakia and Shukla (1990) say agriculture depends on various factors. Factors such as rate, the pattern of agricultural growth, cropping pattern, farming technologies development, efficiencies, the economics

of energy utilisation, government policies, agro-climatic conditions, inter and intra farm variability.

When India was moving into such trouble, non-agricultural organisations were interested in developing agriculture for non-agrarian necessities but did not entrench into the rural background. Because for them, agriculture was necessary to create the non-agrarian organisation needs with the help of resources from the agricultural surpluses. Because agricultural slowdown limits non-agrarian capitalism (Mody 1981), it significantly hindered capitalistic industrial development. This capitalistic thought process affected the country's empowerment. For instance, India's production was 2.8 per cent while China's production was two per cent during the 1950s. India had two-third of China's population, and production was also more. It was the fourth-largest food producer in the world. So China had chosen a socio-political view of development when India moved in a similar way of production during the up and downs of the environmental changes. In that situation, Indians had no food sources during good seasons of environment and lousy weather seasons. Because of these reasons, Indian people suppressed more than Chinese (Mellor 1976).

From History, India is the soil of agriculture. Mann (1929) says during 1924–25, which means before independence, Indian people were dependents on vegetation, animal hunting, and later on agriculture. Kurosaki (1999) says institutional development was a matter of national development because agriculture is one family's collective work or village. As the truth reveals, the rural community mainly depends on agriculture, and the urban community indirectly depends. As per Mann (1929), 226 million hectares of land were cultivated, and each family got 1.8 hectares of land. Each village acquired only seven acres of land. Everywhere in India, they used to produce with the help of minimum instruments and less labour. During this period, rice and wheat production was significant and were also exported. But British government followed industrial or commercial cultivation like tea, coffee, tobacco, and others. They have cultivated using complicated methods and millions of acres of land occupied. Most of the area was under the control of Britishers and minor in Indians. During the same period (Kurosaki 1999), the uneven rainfall always affected Indian agriculture. And in the 1920s, crop concentration fluctuated,

in the 1930s decreased, and from 1930 to 1950s, the crop concentration increased. He says the impact of market, commercialisation, technology, and irrigation fluctuated in India and Pakistan land's productivity and yield.

Since agriculture is institutional development, it was slow in the process. However, it was a core and essential sector of the country. Half of the GDP was from agriculture only. The highest expenditure of Indians was on food. Thus when there was low development of agriculture, investment in food reduced, and industry also got the effect. So the capital intensive industry has been started, which was beneficial for a certain number of people. It affects the employment status of the country. Due to that reason, agriculture was lower, but the industry got more preference in the strategy of Indian development. In addition, the massive community development programmes and the GR brought a change in Punjab, AP, and the western part of Gujarat (*ibid*).

The new varieties of crops increased, and produced output declined during the 1960s. The growth of the agriculture production was two per cent when there was a 2.5 per cent of population growth rate. The income of the population increased because of industrial development. The exact time the USA injected food grain aid, the industrial growth was again decreased. It also included calamitous drought during 1965–67. The lack caused a reduction to 19 per cent of production. So the use of fertilisers was increased instead of increasing the land cultivation. Because it evidenced that in 1947, agriculture stagnated, and from 1950 onwards, the growth of agriculture improved than population growth which was the positive perspective of the country. The death rate decreased, and agriculture production increased. But last decades of colonialism, India's output fell down, and population growth was also in a negative proportion (Mellor 1976). Because during the 1950s, an agricultural transformation took place. It led to modification or development in the market economy and encouraged national income (Kurosaki 1999). It means agriculture was twined with a market system.

For example, the banks and other institutions supported rural sector activities such as agriculture during 1950–60. The credit tapped from them for the capital investment in non-agricultural investments such as industrial fertilisers and other agricultural needs. In the form of taxes and other forms such exchanges etc., and grabbed from them. It was

called capital intensive investment. It was all political play. With this, agencies supplied credits to rural households. They have classified into 11 categories: (1) government departments, (2) cooperative institutions, (3) commercial banks, (4) insurance banks, (3) provident fund bodies, (6) professional money lenders, (7) agricultural money lenders, (8) landlords, (9) traders, (10) relatives and friends, and (11) others. They borrowed from cooperative institutions such as primary credit societies, marketing societies, central banks, and land development banks under cooperatives during the 1960s (Mody 1981). The economic support system has evolved for cultivators, and production was affected as given below.

And Abel (1970) also says during 1961–65, agriculture decelerated, which was the third FYP period. The HYV came up. The GR developed, and grain productivity increased. One-third of the land productivity has increased. Intensive improvements have been concerned. But the high technology and GR was helpful for big farmers and landlords, not small cultivators and landless labourers. In addition, the politically and economically fatty people exploited tenants, for instance, in Kerala and WB. The increased wages were not satisfied to agricultural labourers in Tanjore. But the description emphasises that there was no fault in making any policy by the government, but the expectations have not reached the level. The political leaders at the panchayat level misused technology and productivity. And artificial institutional changes brought out the victims of agriculture more.

The other evidence that the deceleration of agriculture during 1964–65. But from 1967–68 non-food crops started along with food crops, and different yields also increased during 1967–68 (Srinivasan 1979). India turned from importer to exporter in 1968. Prospects say production increased more than population. As directed by technology, food supply depends on many factors like new and better crop varieties, irrigation, fertilisers, and pest control (Abelson 1987). During this period, the consumption of fertilisers such as phosphates increased to 230 per cent and nitrogenous fertilisers to 90 per cent. The land productivity increased to 58 per cent, and the wage rates also increased from 100 to 150 per cent. In later years, India dropped its level from an exporter to an importer of food grains because of uneven rainfall. So, irrigation was necessary for such agriculture conditions and proper rainwater usage (Abel 1970).

During the 1970s, three-fourth of the population lived in rural areas, 80 per cent of the Indian people. Out of them, 72 per cent engaged in agriculture work. They were 300 million people who were 50 per cent of the people under poverty, Below the Poverty Line (BPL) (Sambasiva Rao 1983). As given below by Mellor (1976), food production was like this. He says that during 1968 GR was also introduced, and miracles took place in wheat than rice in the 1970s. 1972–73 was severe fertiliser shortage. He says during 1971–75, food production was constant. Surplus years were 1949–1950, 1954–1955, 1960–1962, 1964–1965, 1970–1971, 1975–1976, and poor harvest years were 1957–1958, 1965–1967, and 1972–1973. Thus, agriculture was affected by external factors and brought a change in livelihood.

For instance, the decrease in agriculture was a cause for change in the livelihood of the rural people. The dependents on agriculture were reduced, but agriculture and its contribution to national income also have no difference; the growth was always had single-digit (Dhar and Kallummal 2004). That is why the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT) in 1986 September of Uruguay round has given preference to agriculture as market access, domestic support, and export competition (Gulati and Sharma 1994). And World Development Report (WDR), 1986 also says that food production was higher in developing countries than in developed countries because of technology and the GR during 1970–85. Same time World Bank 1991, Country Economic Memorandum (CEM) for India, discussed the policymaking in agriculture. As the report suggests, the monsoonal changes, inflation, international indebtedness, and India's grim economic condition forced them to adopt the stagnant and structural adjustment policies in 1991 (Sen 1992). During 1992–97, the labour force was four per cent, but the GDP was only two per cent. The WTO Uruguay Round Agreement of Agriculture (URAoA) discusses the subsidy provided by the European Union (EU), the USA and Japan, and developing countries (Rao 2001). So, the grants started in India in 1990 in support of agriculture. Still, that help did not reach the farmers or cultivators because marketing agents and business running people were misused (Dhar and Kallummal 2004). As mentioned here, Indian subsidies were not reachable to needy people like foreign countries because of malpractices in the administration with wrong intentions.

The countries provided subsidies for farmers. The facilities provided for the production, but developing countries like India failed to provide the infrastructure and minimum facilities. Though they allowed subsidies to the farmers, it was not the correct way to encourage farmers and agriculture. Accurate measures should fill the shortfalls in agriculture. Such as the Minimum Support Price (MSP) was not suitable for the production of the crop. The Food Corporation of India (FCI) failed in taking care. The export banned and import duty kept zero which caused the downfall in the prices of the crops (Rao 2001). Because of 1990 liberalisation, before independence, there was no improvement in agriculture production, but during the colonial period, growth was found. Pakistan and India had introduced significant crops for the development of the country. There were 12 significant crops in Pakistan and 18 in India. The production was increased in Pakistan than in India before independence because of canal network preparation in Indus Basin. Then onwards found better results in Pakistan than India due to the GR in the 1960s. Later, it stagnated without any acceleration of development in crop production in Pakistan (Kurosaki 1999). Thus, India remained back only in production compared to Pakistan and China.

That is why the experts gave suggestions, which were implemented by the government of India for the diversification of agriculture, from lower level to innovative methods of cultivation. Majumdar (2006) defined agriculture diversification is called rural diversification. Harinder (2013) also reiterated the importance of agriculture to remove poverty, malnutrition, and hunger. To increase productivity, we need technology and other resources. The world needs to develop 70 per cent of agriculture by 2050 to provide enough food for all. He says Total Factor Productivity (TFP) was low, depending on soil type. And the production in India was significantly less than what we required because of the lack of technology. That is why we can cultivate only one-third of China's output. Besides, Kurosaki (2002) says that economic and technological development accelerates agriculture. The market development indicates the improvement in agriculture. Technological development leads to the market development of agriculture. So, the mixed crop developed after the innovative changes in agriculture. The stagnant and dynamic changes have come in agriculture with technology and market development. For instance, 0.5 per cent of the increment in agriculture was found before independence, but after

independence, it changed. The shift of the agriculture process in the same land with mixed crops and technology improved crop output by 20 per cent. The agriculture transformation was the main task to increase in the development. Ranbir (2007) said the conditions changed in Haryana and Punjab after the GR, altering the culture and economic life of the rural masses. The road and transport system developed. Urbanisation increased, the food system changed, and home decor items and the masses' daily lives changed with economic development—the change in the cultivation methods from jajmani system to the land lease system. The shift in capitalism leads to neo-capitalism.

And also found during the sixth FYP, the commodities increased from agriculture production by the GR. The technology was used to improve productivity in agriculture and found more productivity. The wheat production was more than paddy with GR and technology but a low growth rate in pulses. And the investment of energy for paddy and pulses was inadequate compared to wheat production (Moulik, Dholakia and Shukla 1990). By understanding diversified technology, we can see improved agriculture and productivity. The innovative production methods were making changes in productivity, but the land has not increased in the output. Thus the innovative techniques of cultivation impact land farms severely. That is why Majumdar (2006) suggests the adoption of technology in crop cultivation should be environment friendly because of the challenges of earth and the environment.

When we see India, the north and southern states played a terrible role in agriculture. Northern states have increased the cash crops and food grain production, whereas eastern states increased the food grains. The improvement found seven per cent where there were two and half of the national agricultural development in the 1980s. This performance succeeded because of the tenancy, minor irrigation, and agricultural infrastructure allowances. Despite this, India was unable to contribute equal growth of agriculture because of the regional disparities. In the 1980s, the government investment was down, but still, the production was in peak stages. Because the public investment declined and private investment increased in agriculture. Thus, it led to soil erosion and degradation of ecology at the rural base. It has led to an increase in the use of fertilisers and pesticides. The production of this decade shows an uneven proportion of investment

and output (Sen 1992). Later, private investment improved during the liberalisation, macroeconomic period (the 1980s). And the growth of agriculture steeply increased along with the women employment also increased (Rao 2001).

Several programmes undertook to empower or develop agriculture by developing the market and resources. Still, the government could not create because of strict security of resources, inadequate marketing facilities, etc. In FYPs, importance gave to agriculture along with irrigation and other achievements. But there were no successful results. That is why improved social change only improves community behaviour and the environment. Agriculture became the source of innovative changes. That is why the approach towards a narrow economy instead of a sociopolitical policy aimed to narrow down the disparities (Kesar 1992). And Majumdar (2006) also says food security neglected where livelihood and employment were concerned. Because then only purchasing power of the person increased when they got proper jobs and livelihood security. He says agricultural growth and food security are possible when we give equal preference to farmers, cultivators, and land farms and elevate regional growth and productivity disparities. And dry regions should be considered in small and medium based irrigation projects where food and poverty were insecure. He also says we must concentrate on employment through agriculture instead of IT or other sectors, food security, forest, organic farming, horticulture, fisheries, animal husbandry, and other allied activities. That is why parliament has initiated a manual labour scheme for rural people in 2004, i.e., MGNREGA, since employment was in trouble, especially in the rural region, due to agriculture issues.

Sen (1992) suggested that government policy concentrated on oilseeds and other sectors, increasing imports. That is why strategic, systematic input improvement was needed to keep agriculture horizontal development. Fertiliser subsidy was to bring the inefficient fertiliser industries down. If it encourages domestic fertiliser, fertilisers increase and encourage the farmers to use more domestic fertilisers only. The above study of agriculture emphasises that agriculture transformed with technology and innovative cultivation methods. All these happened to develop the industry because agriculture was self-sufficient before independence. When comparing China and Pakistan with Indian production, India was in the primary production stage, but the macroeconomic thought

process changed as China government. China also gave importance to industry but balanced between agriculture and industry. In contrast, India started industry for the population well-being, but the desires changed. And the plan of action has shifted to commercialisation. That is why it is essential to understand the connection between agriculture and industry.

2. Industrial Growth

The development means industrialisation (Omvedt 1990), but Chakravarty (1975) proposes agriculture first. In the part of a mixed economy, the state gives importance to agriculture and related development activities. But the economic development of India has given preference to industrialisation. The government's investment in agriculture provides a positive approach. Still, indirect decision-making is affected through taxes, subsidies, and other procurement activities supporting private or other preferences such as industrialisation. Industrialisation led to the development strategy. The strategy leads to agricultural adjustment from changes. If it cannot adjust, agriculture has to face problems. Oligopolistic changes in the mixed economic development approach and structural changes bring in the market such as industry and agriculture. In the diverse economy of India, agriculture and industry are interdependent. That is why new economic policy gave priority to multi-sector development in the part of industrialisation (Gupta 1977).

In an agricultural country, industrial development leads to complications, but the country's development depends on various factors such as service, industry, manufacturing, and agriculture. In a mixed economy of India, agriculture cannot make changes, so we need initiatives for development. Omvedt (1990) says Marxism described development during European industrialisation; the elite people determine the idea of development. Middle-class people follow an ideology. Rudolph also stated that the model of Nehru, which was concerned with industrial development, was in favour of English speaking middle-class people. These people started urban-oriented industrialisation. Kulaks, Baniyas, Brahmans, part of the middle class and depended on machinery. They were concerned with industrialisation. Nehru's model has preferred industry and agriculture, kept in private hands. Socialism also bothered about state security; in that part, they gave priority to industry only with the inclusion of capitalists. Only Leftists and communists

always worried about equalitarianism. In equalitarianism, they focus on agriculture and lower status people. Liberals also placed their faith in capitalists, whereas neo-Marxist in developing countries followed the necessity of development, which means machinery and industrialisation.

When we turn to different modes like industrialisation in the country, agriculture has to pass through several issues. Two kinds of hindrances have been faced by agriculture: primarily international taxation subsidy issues for free trade and bias against agriculture by the government at every stage of agriculture like marketing, production, imports, exports, consumption, and input-output income issues of agriculture. The developed countries gain properties by introducing liberalisation, but developing countries like India cannot earn profits because India lacks sufficient land availability (Sen 1992). And increased industrialisation caused the negligence of agriculture. Due to levies, semi-feudal landlords and kulaks brought sharecropping, and other small farmers subordinated them. Because of this, un-organised employment increased. They were 90 per cent of the population, and they were exploited (Omvedt 1990). The protective industrial policies increased the non-agricultural employment but were negatively impacted. Developed countries provided more subsidies to keep the cheap food accessibility, whereas developing countries were discriminating the agriculture. They were not considering the input-output ratios of agriculture. The banking sector also approved the industrial sector from agriculture, slowing down in development. The developing countries also failed to adjust the economic exchange rates when the international borrowing exaggerated—inflation not controlled by the exchange rates (Sen 1992). The unemployment increased in agriculture because unemployment was directly proportional to the agricultural labourers to total agricultural labourers (Kesar 1992).

The new economic policy started during the seventh FYP (1985–1990). The government prioritised industry but immediately called for agricultural development because of a lack of confidence in industrial development. During 1955–65 the growth of industrialisation was 6.2 per cent but later in 1965–75 decade industrial growth decreased to 3.3 per cent because of agricultural preference. Small scale industries owned small farm markets. The extensive industry decided the rates and costs based on demand and supply.

So automatically agricultural industry was affected by the changes in the market economy. India has made minor adjustments for industry and agricultural development; constraints caused on final goods' export and imports. Because cereals, food grains, and commercial crops increased. Same time it was also helpful for non-agricultural development (Gupta 1977).

The development of industry in the agricultural country leads to various troubles like commercialisation, capitalism, employment scarcity at the rural background, urbanisation, etc. change needs sacrifices. The sacrifice of the rural environment is the development of Indian society. Industry and agriculture are both different and opposite concepts. Still, the industry always depends on agriculture, but agriculture is self-sufficient, but the development of innovation leads agriculture to rely on industry and technology. But it has to pass through the troubles.

3. Troubles in Agriculture

Agriculture scarcity was making economic issues and making employment troubles because 60 per cent of the people were spending their economy on food and 85 per cent on agricultural necessities (Mellor 1976). Since independence, agriculture was one of the factors affected by so many issues and troubles. It has been affected by the environment, rats, moisture, and rain. They also had the problem of warehousing. During harvest, lots of crop gets damaged because of defective storage (Choyal 1983). Apart from that, industrial development has the trouble as given below.

The industry used non-renewable fossil fuels, whereas agriculture was soil-based and renewable. The idea of industrialists brought labour from agriculture to the modern collective life of urban areas. Both industry and agriculture need large-scale labour and investment (Omvedt 1990). For that, reforms have been introduced—the reforms of 1990, liberalisation and globalisation. From then onwards, the preference for agriculture was neglected, and lending money for the farmer was ignored through the banking sector (Majumdar 2006).

The government provides varied investments in agriculture. The fund for farmers was not steep but declined, which was fluctuated. Due to these reasons, agricultural output

declined. The non-agricultural products were also reduced. These interchangeably impacted each other on the consumer price index; thus, it affected the agriculture and agriculture market. That is how non-agricultural products' up-gradation leads to pressure on crop production (Gupta 1977).

Because the sharecropping cultivation method needs more manual labour, this method differs from other cultivation methods like commercial cultivation, and the sharecroppers were affected more by this. They did not prefer more fertilisers, pesticides, irrigation, and other necessities like general cultivators because of the lack of marketing chemicals and the lack of money in the hands of cultivators (Salam 1981). But Mann (1929) says the small landholders work as tenants to zamindars which was very difficult for them to work with high capital and investment. Because of the expensiveness of the working capital. But still, they could not escape the zamindars for food.

In the 1980s, 80 per cent of the rural population depended on agriculture. Poverty, unemployment, instability, and starvation were higher during this period. The industrialisation and urbanisation development started increasing because of these reasons (Rao 1983). And service sector also grew in an urban region. Male workers from agriculture dropped to 71 per cent in 1999–2000 from 77 per cent in 1983. Because the service sector attracted them, they left agriculture because of good wages. UP was the most significant state to have more migrants from agriculture (Gupta 2005). The given information helps to understand that the capitalist ideas of industry and marketing negatively affected agriculture. So, how the impact was there would find through the following study.

4. Impact of Agriculture

Land use of agriculture remained the same in the duration 1983–87 from previous years, but the production decreased because of over cropping and misuse of ecology. During this period, employment in agriculture has reduced because of the growth of the industry and service sector. Another reason was that the monsoon diminished and was poorly affected. That is why agriculture-based industries were stagnated and decreased. And also, there was no chemical and fertiliser improvement. Same time the prices of agricultural food grains

and accessories were increased, and the international market interfered. The first three FYPs have shown the positive increment of agriculture with population growth, but in the 1980s, the change of agriculture was positive but unequal proportion to population growth. And the liberalisation increased the non-agriculture based labourers. The small scale industry development again least bothered with the protection of agricultural employment because they replaced the machinery. Thus, the unemployment increased after the non-agricultural employment activities, indicating the country's under-employment and unemployment (Sen 1992).

Besides, material needs arranged from the peasantry were called primitive accumulation, which was necessary for industrial development. Rural-based surpluses such as food, fodder, and labour grabbed China's Maoism. For the survival of capitalist peasantry, primitive social accumulation was a base need as Europeans used the Indian resources for their economic development (Omvedt 1990). The rural accumulation was grabbed for capital development only, but there was no mutual help between cultivators and capitalists. It was always a one-way procedure that is why cultivators became the development worriers.

Thus, increased prices and global liberalisation helped to grow big landlords and wealthy farmers. The increased prices only increase the output and exports. These exports increased not because the land productivity increased. But the consumption of food was reduced in the domestic country by increasing the prices of goods. Through this landless, tenants and small and marginal farmers strive for minimum needs of agriculture and food prices. Thus the poverty has been increased (Sen 1992). An advanced group of people was picked, then the racial, middle class, and low castes. They chose the peasantry, which was lower and middle in the castes hierarchy and backward class women (Omvedt 1990). John F. Kennedy indeed says, *'the farmer is the only man in our economy who buys everything at retail, sells everything at wholesale, and pays the freight both ways.'*

During the GR, an era of techniques, the peasantry was used as cheap labour as capital and input. Rural labour also accumulated good wages from the industry and tried to find their familiarity and influence in an urban region. Thus the urbanisation was remained increasing (Omvedt 1990). Behavioural changes have taken place by the changes in

agriculture. For instance, people of the Bijapur feel like hybrid seeds. They were weak, dependent, delicate, and susceptible to diseases as modern agriculture. They compare themselves by nature, indicating agriculture's delicacy and depends on nature. Modern agriculture was like learning the English language. The same way modern agriculture replaced the traditional knowledge of agriculture such as seed preparation and manure preparation etc. That is why rural people adopted new techniques and could not perform if the agricultural assistant was unavailable. They were hesitant to commit to the old agrarian methods (Vasavi 1994). They chose the other employment routes to forsake the family, leading the life to find employment. It is called emigration for employment sources.

Because of the above-given reasons, migration to other countries or international migration occurs. The low rainfall areas also have to produce crops to acquire food for all. But in some locations, lands were barren due to droughts and other regions due to floods and high rains. Despite waterlogging soils in some areas, they did not succeed because of improper floodwater management. The author says the scarcity of water or irrigation problems leads to temporary based migration from non-irrigated regions to well-irrigated regions. But the lack of land for cultivation lead to permanent or cyclical emigration of the male persons in the family. That is why the workload increased on the family's remaining persons, such as women. It is called unprecedented or distressed migration. It is an involuntary type of migration. There are no forces for mobility at the earlier. If we could allocate resources in the local region, this kind of migration would have been reduced. In addition to this, in 1991, the industries developed. The development in the industry causing migration was called inherent migration. But because of the lack of agriculture due to overpopulation, the resources were insufficient, leading to migration, called the inevitable migration. For instance, Gujarat faced inherent migration that is intra-state (Shah 2001). But these were leading to emigration, which means to go away from our country.

When we see the reasons behind emigration, low agriculture is the cause of migration from developing countries to developed countries. And this was also lead to cyclic emigration with the government's support, as given below.

5. Background of Emigration

The demographic dictionary defines emigration as spatial mobility between one geographical unit and another involving a permanent change of residence. The physical transition of an individual from one society to another is also called migration (Sekhar 1997). In his article, Anwar gives the view of Beijer as he says migration is a concept that is not dealt with alone. It is a phenomenon to understand with socio, economic and demographic forces. It is studied by each department, such as anthropologists, psychologists, methodists, and social scientists in different technologies. Here we are concerned about the only effect of agriculture on emigration (Anwar-Ul-Haq 1974).

It was anticipated to tackle the environmental tremors, come out of the stress from the unemployment and dissatisfaction from the income dystrophy, and attack the remittances and development (Gioli *et al.* 2014). In India, emigration is higher than in any other country in Asia (Kesar 1992). And emigration is selective because they show unique character than other villages (Grasmuck 1984; Rigg 1989). Also, a survival strategy for the poor and wealth accumulation (Sekhar 1997).

Emigration is with an expectation of better life and the possibility of better future satisfaction. It also studies the types of migration such as international, national, temporary, and permanent. The migrants are concerned that the place suitable for the residence is essential. That is why satisfaction for permanent migrants is higher than for repeated migrants. Because temporary migrants were working more in low waged employment whereas permanent migrants work for increased wages and ultimately shifting from agriculture to non-agricultural employment for the development. But in repeated migrants keep agriculture as one of the secure sources of work. Expected net objective and positive net returns from migration. The probability of migration increases based on the destination area than sending area. Education, experience, and occupational skills improve the likelihood of migration. And in developing countries, migration and gender roles are based on institution and culture (De Jong, Chamratrithirong and Tran 2002).

Tilly's theory has classified migration into a career, local, circular, and chain migrations. This migration developed during colonialism, and they adopted culture and

tradition. Circular migration is employment-based. Chain or career migration is voluntary (De Wind and Ergun n.d.). King (2012) says Tilly's theory is nothing but trust network theory. Tilly Charles says that 'It is not people who migrate, but it is network'. Personnel and family networks play a role in emigration. The strength and weakness of migration depend on ties. The present study of the thesis is also based on this type only. The unskilled labour goes for employment in other countries but is not settled permanently. They come back again after every two or three years. And after one or two months of stay at origin place, go back for employment. It repeatedly takes until their intentions are fulfilled. So it also comes under cyclic international migration. IOM (2008) says skilled labour becomes permanent residents after emigration, and students are working as temporary labourers for leading minimum life. The studies say that there was no unskilled labour in permanent residents. They acquire skills but are undervalued. The unskilled workers were called low skilled or semi-skilled labour, which changes according to situations.

The migration classification was based on distance. A medium distance migration is an inter-district migration, and long-distance migration is inter-state and international. There are three types of movements in internal migration: rural-rural migration, rural-urban, and urban-urban migration (Mukhopadhyay 1980). Migration is dependent on distance than available opportunities. People generally prefer shorter distances (Parida, Mohanthy and Raman 2015). They classified internal migration into in-migration and out-migration. Both in-migration and out-migration are for employment only, but in-migration is complex (Pilplai and Majundar 1969). Because transport is cost-effective, cultural barriers also do not make many issues in the migration. The network to migrate is also more accessible. In Kerala, inter-state migrations were there, and in WB, inter-district migrations were more. The migration rate is higher in WB than in Kerala because of developed industrialisation. Long-distance migration was also seen in WB (Singh 1984). 27 states reported migration, i.e., intra-national and inter-national migration. Punjab, Kerala, TN, and AP have a higher global migration rate (Parida, Mohanthy and Raman 2015).

Migration is a gendered or masculine activity (Gill 2012), but women's mobility also benefits family welfare in developed countries. Gender-related migrations were

studied by Prabha (2000), Sen (2004), Bhatt (2009), Lee (2010), Preiblich and Grez (2010), Radel, Schmook and McCandless (2010), Sevoyan and Agadjanian (2010), Cerruti and Gaudio (2010), Agadjanian, Yabiku and Cau (2011), Mohapatra (2013), and Rao and Finnoff (2015). These were mainly concerned with female migrations and gender division of studies in migrations, and some were also concerned with agriculture labour divisions. Almost all were out-migration studies only. For instance, Gray (2009) conducts on out-migrations and Gist (1955) conducts on in-migration. Sachs and Alston (2010) say women were termed farmers and farmer wives, but they were invisible in access to land, capital, and identity in agriculture. This article discusses the emigration of women and doing agriculture work in Mexico.

There was male migration is higher than female migration. Female migration was taking place for economic purposes only. And there were marriage migration and associational migration based on cultural barriers. In both cases, rural-rural migration was higher than rural-urban migration. The medium distance dominated other migration during this period (Mukhopadhyay 1980). Females migrated on the purpose of marriage and stayed along with husbands, but males migrated for business or employment purposes only (Singh 1984). As per the NSSO report 64th round (2007–08), the migration of the people from rural-urban was higher, and was for available employment opportunities were more heightened. As per the report, the migration from urban-rural was lower than rural-urban migration. Women's migration was more permanent than males' due to the marriage system. The remittances were higher for men who migrated to other countries than within the country (Business Standard 2010). Jokisch (2002) also says that most migrate because of marriage only in female migration. Women migration was discussed in this article in TN. Women are 75 per cent in-migration because of marriage, sex, and domestic work. In Italy and other countries, women migrated for domestic jobs brought from the African countries. But Kesar (1992) says male migration was higher than female migration. And the size of a farm at the origin place was indirectly proportional to migration.

In 1961, urban-urban migration was higher when compared with rural-rural migration. In 1961, urban-rural migration was higher, whereas, in 1971, rural-urban migration was higher and long-distance migration. Urban-urban migration has gone down,

but rural-urban migration has gone up short distances (Mukhopadhyay 1980). Kao (1965) conducted a study in an indirect approach to determine the agricultural and non-agricultural population growth and economic changes during 1951–61. He finds that the migration of non-agricultural employees increased because the payment was higher. Emigration was not the first step, but it started as internal migration, and later it has taken steps to emigration. That is why it is crucial to study the internal migration in the first stage and subsequently lead to international migration in the country.

As mentioned in the previous paragraphs, emigration has not suddenly been decided. But it started as internal migration out of starvation for food. The Indian government insisted on migrating. And the (Roopnarine 2003) East Indians indentured to the Caribbean countries were from a lower caste in a hierarchy (85 per cent) and Muslims (15 per cent). That is why definitions of emigration are given below before entering into the emigration.

The emigration definition in recent times is not based on its volume dynamics. Still, it depends on the concept of mobility, such as circular, permanent, or family and student migration. It is mainly associated with a definitive residence or spatial emigration. Present-day emigration definitions differ from traditional ones because they have different motivations, meanings, and impacts. They have been influenced by the source and host country and controlled intermediaries and agencies. In the 1980s, skilled emigrants such as nurses and Information Technology (IT) employees chose immigration. In the European market, emigrants from the artefact and agriculture undervalued seasonal workers. They re-emigrate in economically motivated situations were called false migrants (Popjakova and Plesivcak 2009).

As per NSSO definitions, part of emigration “a migrant having a more or less permanent settlement in the place of enumeration, irrespective of whether they are having any contact with the native place is treated as a permanent immigrant, i.e., for a person to be a permanent immigrant both the conditions of permanently leaving the native place and permanently residing in the place of enumeration are to be satisfied. On the other hand, a sojourn to a place different from the native place may continue for years without a permanent settlement-such migration considered as temporary migration” (GoI 2001, 33).

International recommendations define two types of migrants by the time criterion. Long-term migrants are people who move to a country other than their usual residence for at least a year so that the destination country becomes their new country of usual residence. In other words, a person must have (a) had a usual place of residence in one country, (b) crossed an international border and entered another country, and (c) established a new place of usual residence in the country of destination for at least 12 months. A more accurate, “classical” definition implies all the above criteria: a long-term migrant is “a person who moves to a country other than that of their usual residence for at least a year (12 months) so that the country of destination effectively becomes his or her new country of usual residence. From the perspective of the country of departure, the person will be an emigrant, and from that of the country of arrival, the person will be an immigrant” (UNECE and UNPF 2011).

The present thesis studies repetitive emigration in Telangana to other Gulf countries. That is for two years contract minimum and later progresses according to the family’s interest, migrant, and needs. It is called contract-based emigration by the emigrant and employer company or country.

The definition of emigration, NSSO and internationally defined emigration as complex and multidimensional. The two-edged concept of push and pull factors (Mukhopadhyay 1980). The definitions of emigration were different in the 1961 and 1971 censuses. In the 1961 census, if the birth and residence of enumeration should be other for that person called an emigrant. Whereas in the 1971 census, the location of birth and the current status of the person is to be different (Singh 1984). It is also defined as a diversified livelihood strategy (De Haas 2010). And to meet the family desires, or to escape the natural calamities, meet aspirations, or move away from the unprofitable risks of agriculture (Singh n.d).

But the psychological status of the emigrant at the time of starting, the stage of indenture migration was so pitiful. They did not want to move away from the country because psychologically, traditional in thinking of customs and cultural activities. They follow the Hindu method of funerals to get moksha. They never knew whether they come back or not, but it was vital for their families to survive. The funerals where it happens, where their souls roam around if they die in an unknown place without proper Hindu method of funerals, it was their concern. They cannot experience their children’s happiness every moment; also, still, they need to fulfil all the needs of the family (Lal n.d.).

The above data reveals that women are in high time to burden and disturbance from society and community members because of the emigration. Emigration is not directly discussed because emigration started after the internal migration throughout the world. The next part helps to understand the driving forces of migration to other countries.

5.1. Reasons for Emigration

The reasons, causes, or driving forces of emigration are discussed below as the emigrants choose to emigrate based on their interests or family interests. The emigrant households of origin countries drastically developed after the emigration. So the non-migrants were attracted to emigration. Thus (De Haas 2005) remittances acted as a safety net for people. It becomes a barrier for political careers and the product of capital flows. And Elsner (2013) says wage differences of destination and origin countries. That is how (Jha and Singh 2014) the mobility of the emigrants may not make productive, but with the economic support, they may overcome the poverty (De Haas 2005; Skeldon 2009). That is why the emigrants stay long in the destination area and become catalysts. Kerala (Skeldon 2009) is the best example of this.

Man-land ratio pressure induces in agriculture. Such induced stress lead to continuous emigration for better wages. However, emigration and economic development interrelate mutually. The socioeconomic life of the migrants affects them positively and negatively (Kesar 1992).

Push-pull factors were acting as the catalyst of emigration. Push factors were income and employment inadequacy. Pull factors were higher labour wages. The political factors are also driving forces to understand the openness to immigration and emigration in countries with economic market development (IOM 2008). The network also acts as a catalyst for emigration. The web links previous emigrants or non-migrants with kinship or friendship to increase migration. The connections make it easier, cheaper, and better for nearer and dearer and decrease migration risk (Jayaraj 2013). And the development of emigration in terms of socioeconomic conditions leads to aspirations through policies and assistance such as liberalisation (De Haas 2005).

The other reasons for international migration were (IOM 2008) the mobility of the skilled, unskilled labour, education and marriage migration, changes in the economic migration transaction between the countries. The revived financial market opened because of liberalisation within the countries. And Skeldon (2009) says the driving force of emigration was the economic growth of the destination country.

As per the Network Theory of Migration (NTM), the family is the unit to decide to improve the capital or wellness of the family. NTM explains the network links with migrants at destination area and relation with non-migrants at origin area (Jayaraj 2013). Communication and network also play a role (Piplai and Majundar 1969). Age, gender, and household resources are causes for immediate emigration decisions, such as owning the land, owning a house and infrastructure (Jayaraj 2013). Ciobanu (n.d.) says the migration networks are bonds between the migrants, non-migrants and old migrants at destination and origin area with the help of friends, family, and shared community members. And the stability of migration is ethnicity, religion and friendship of the networks. The network is not static; it changes accordingly. The out of boundary people also become the network sometimes. These work out from the origin to the destination area. The web is helping to share information regarding jobs and opportunities. It has group influence. Dalen and Henkens (2013) say social forces are family, friends, spouses, children's needs, and networks at the origin or destination area. Work, income, and social contacts influence the unintended migrants, such as social networks in the Netherlands.

So the community also influences the individual personality. Opportunities given from industry were to personal character, so emigration indirectly affects the individual. Vergalli and Moretto (2008) say each emigrant was part of the network. The community is the primary network. How strong and more prominent the community ties among members, emigrants get better chances at destination area. And he says when emigration starts establishment, the family called social system moves away and economic, income, school education and other community activities arise. The breakdown of the joint family system starts taking process.

Socioeconomic and political conditions were the other reason (Sekhar 1997). Regional imbalance led to poverty. Also, depending on the types of crops cultivated, industry, cropping intensity, and degree. And a crisis of natural disasters (Kesar 1992).

In some cases, local and patriarchy is a primary step towards migration decisions because of employment insecurity. For instance, Shiv Sena, Lochit Sena follow this kind of tradition. Here, there are no cultural, language barriers. In patriarchy, they prefer to get employment in their own set of people. Thus it is restricting the skill and knowledge for the development of the industry. In some areas, they refuse to work for only residents, which is also wrong. For instance, in Europe, opened employment for intelligence and skills during the interwar period. In three decades, they were in the peaks of development. In India, some political concerns do not prefer by local people based on loyalty and capability. They like to invite their castes, class, and set of people for employment. There was no need for economic development, migration inflow increased (Piplai and Majundar 1969). The reasons for migration has been studied. The impact is given below to understand the intensity of migration and the consequences.

5.2. Impact of Emigration

Post move satisfaction depended on the type of mobility. The repeat or temporary emigrants come back home because of inadequate facilities in the destination area. The first move becomes difficult, but the frequent movements increase the satisfaction because of expanded networks to find employment and other facilities (Jayaraj 2013). In the 1980s and 1990s, emigration brought empirical and heterogeneous changes. The help of the political and economic conditions leads to investment in entrepreneurship (De Haas 2010).

Emigration impacts family, agriculture women status, remittances credit to the family and market in the country. The inequality also may decrease or increase within the developed and developing countries. Skeldon (2008) says emigration has positive reports on development, but it is not entirely true because all the world countries were not choosing emigration.

Emigration changes the family structure and decision-making status. The adjustments take place (Singh n.d). With the husband's emigration, the married woman

took temporary headship, and she was proud of taking responsibilities and hardships in family and society (Thung and Sari 2018). The first step of women empowerments starts with this. Still, emigrants exploited and abused their wives. The women especially face lots of exploitation. The policies also do not consider women in migrant issues (Thung and Sari 2018). The women who remained at home also formed with different femininity. With the support of the relatives and family, they become loyal supporters to the primary breadwinner of the husband's family.

Emigration brings the individual or family, or community development. But in the development theory is about balanced growth versus asymmetric development paradigms. The return emigrants have termed receivers of knowledge, technology, and money—modernisation and development expected from the return emigrants. In Europe also happened similarly after the return of the emigrants, rooted in the Second WW and evolutionary thinking. After the 1970s, emigration has become the national economic development, especially in the Pacific and Asian countries (De Haas 2010). The remittances influence developing countries with positive development and reduction of poverty. For instance, in Kerala, the remittances in 2000 elevated 12 per cent of the poverty (Skeldon 2009). The west Asian countries also occupied more than 50 per cent of the Keralites only. The high oil price in 1973 caused labour migration to the accelerated economic development of the home region. The remittances were also very high in India (Prakash 1998).

The other impact is development. Emigration and remittances contribute to social, political, and economic support. For instance, the remittances accrued from emigration invest in the business sector, which is suitable and profitable. That enables financial investments in household activities (De Haas 2005).

The person's emigration intends first to develop the family, the community, and the country. The country gains through the exchange of currency and the usage in different activities, directly leading to societal development. Based on primary data, several studies have been surveyed to understand the remittances for construction, housing, saving, development, poverty reduction, and increasing immovable properties, etc. The village

societies were setting equal communication to the urban region because of the developed market system, brain drain, and economic power in construction (Arango *et al.* 1996).

These also increased society's financial status and immediately made migration is the leading source of economy in the community—the remittances are used in education to train them to get suitable employment (Skeldon 2008). But De Haas (2010) says the remittances are primarily used to repay the debts and later for children's education, for marriage such as bride prices, funerals, feasts, and other ceremonies.

International remittances are to diversify economic status, increase the household status, protection of people from the destabilisation of the market (De Haas 2010). That is why the definition of development is complex because it has the same contradictions and tensions. The development of some people brings inequality among the society, and short term development leads to long term inferences and is destructive (Skeldon 2008). The definition of the developing country means economic factors mixed in status. The non-developed economies are lower than the developed economies, but economically, they are middle in position, not wholly lowest. That is why the emigration from developing countries is higher than the undeveloped countries. And (Skeldon 2009) the emigration of some countries impacts non-emigrated countries also in the form of labour markets, vacant labour, and new housing.

And remittances are strong transnational social bonds and support the wishes of those left behind at home. They invested in non-productive investments such as education, small business, and housing, leading to the non-migrant development indicating decreased income inequality. However, it is different for space and time (De Haas 2005). The income of the new emigrants is lower than the non-migrant households, and long term migrants have higher income status than other migrants and non-migrants (Thung and Sari 2018).

The remittances on non-productive things like health, sanitation, food, schooling, housing are inaccurate. These lead to well-being, social capital, productivity and freedom of choice, and participation in public debate. However, it means the expenses on non-productive activities imply economic inequality. For instance, the investment in land

purchase from poor backgrounds makes a financial difference, and buying outside the village brings regional differences (De Haas 2010).

The impact of absorption of the returned migrants is that they are not interested in working in old employment as wage labour. Instead, they start a business. The investment and savings of the migrants spent on construction of the houses, savings and open new productive activities like a business. The non-migrants were facing poverty issues after the spurt of the emigrants. The transport, communication, trade, commerce, education, health, and services charges have increased because of the emigrant development. It impacts non-migrants. The price of commodities and land has been raised suddenly with an inflow of remittances. Land rates have increased steeply, which was the problem for fixed income holders and non-migrants from middle-class people (Prakash 1998).

For instance, Western Balkans from the Irish, sending their remittances and developing their region. The networks developed skills, and economic wealth impacted regional non-migrants. And the government expects talent and time for the country's development. The talent of the Western Balkans was used by the Germans and Irish with a proper plan of action, so the emigrants permanently settled where it was not a good sign for their home country. That is why the home country wants to have the networks and make the policies for circular emigration. Because Ireland developed with Google, Microsoft, another technology, attracted more people (Vracic 2019).

The other significant impact was that the villages did not shift to the town or get urbanised, but the village became the town. No city reaches India, but the Indian system ran town culture (Gupta 2005). This urbanisation and industrialisation break down the joint family into nuclear families and others. The nuclear family becomes the channel or satellite in urban areas to support the rural people. They become shared families by sharing the income and expenditure with near kins and affinal relatives (Rawat 1986).

From the above understanding, in the rural region, the workforce in agriculture reduced and non-agricultural work increased, and then the migration was increased. That is why India needs to concentrate on rural agriculture and non-agricultural employment resources. The work has carried during 1972–73, and in 1983 was analysed, the non-

agricultural employment increased. Female workers engaged in agriculture work reduced to 10 per cent during this period, and male per cent raised. In the 38th round NSSO report, the female workforce increased to 2.6 per cent and the male workforce reduced to one per cent (Dev 1990). If there were no surplus labourers in the origin place, the pull factor of high wages outside impacts them. When regional labour demand falls, migration's time character and intensity depend upon seasonal migration's pattern, on outflow and inflow (Kesar 1992).

Jokisch (2002) says in Chuguin, the emigrants started to buy agricultural land and pastures for their parents and wife who remained at home. And they were surviving on the cultivation of land. They were facing agricultural labour scarcity after the emigration of males because of the loss of labour. And also these areas showed development with the construction of the houses. Sometimes women were also emigrating along with husbands or fathers. The mother (grandmother) remains at home to take care of the children.

Besides, Transnational Migration Theory (TNT) supports this idea with change in the livelihood with the extra effort and extra labour of migrants with the connection of across the space. It takes within the global fields of unequal powers. The rural background is strict to agriculture and takes diversification if needed to increase the capital base. To constitute this, emigrants give surprises, make circular migrations on occasions, festivals and terms. It continued until economic savings succeeded in the transnational migration of one person. The total family or household has to go through tribulations such as humility based on gender, patriarchal pressures, communal support, issues etc. (Rubinov 2016).

For example, the Mexicans immigrate to the USA for one to two years only, cyclical and seasonal, short duration of emigrations. The cyclical migrants from Mexico were business-oriented during 2009 and 2010. In the USA unemployment issue was solved with their emigration (Ortmeyer and Quinn 2012).

The emigrants maintain social, political, and economical communication with the origin countries. And these were indirectly focused on immigration, despite not being the immediate goal. For instance, the international migration from 1990–2005 reduced compared to 1975–1990. The developed economies showed robust immigration, but the

developing economies like India, China, Mexico, and the Philippines have demonstrated low emigration (Skeldon 2008). That is why the emigrants have to think about returning to their origin country. Because families get controlled, adjusted, encouraged, and supported, emigration re-adjust the financial and household needs. But in reality, family members were not interested to send them away from family. The logic of the emigration of them was that they were broad. And as the emigration development increases, more emigrations occur (De Haas 2010). That is why the emigrants are much young and single (Thung and Sari 2018), and they were in demand at destination and origin (Skeldon 2009).

The turn after the emigration of the member in the family changes the role of the other family members. The responsibility, authority, headship, and mediating household changes greatly. The alterations in existing domestic labour arrangements (Singh n.d). Women become helpless in the absence of the husband; they cannot speak in public. Emigration brings socio-cultural change. It makes a difference in the kinship, like breakage in kinship and communal bonds for imported items—the sociocultural status changes as the economic and market influence from the destination area. The collective solidarity gets broken, and village life and agriculture are impacted (De Haas 2010). That is why in developing country the decision-making status of women depends on institutional and cultural aspects. That may erode them, depending on the type of society (Jayaraj 2013).

The impact of migration and their remittances on non-migrants, their families, was studied. The micro and macro issues were resolved with remittances—the new problems started in the family and agriculture systems. Let's see the role of the women in the home region, particularly after the husband's emigration.

6. Changes in Female Roles-Residence Arrangements

With the emigration of a family member, all other persons get into emotional contracts to get a better life and contribute—migration of family members pools the family's insecurity. Family makes sacrifices, and migrant benefits from them and pay remittances. The head of the family has to adjust, and they have to make an emotional balance. Head of the family and third party called remittances configured in three dimensions. The responsibility to use improved technology for agriculture and marketing was demanding because of

remittances. The name and fame of the emigrant remain with the status at village only. Though he may have influence and social connectedness, the social status remains with household status. It is a mutual contract between them (Stark and Lucas 1988).

For instance, the father or mother or else the wife of the migrant to hold up the family economic and social welfare. Because the responsibility shifts from one person to another person. The role of the women changes with the husband's absence. In taking care of the family and upholding the economic, market, social, and psychological balance of the family. That is why women or wives of migrants' lifestyles automatically impacts greatly (Rawat 1986). That is why Khalaf (2009) says nurturing children without a husband and creating an environment for children was a problem for women. In-law's management was the biggest issue.

According to age and migrants' position, women role changes in the family. If the husband is the head of the family, the headship may shift to women who remain at home. Guardianship of the family shifted. The kinship support mechanism increases. The residence arrangements change immediately with male emigration. Family dissolution, child absenteeism, the psychological stress of women, rise in suicide rates, and breakdown of the traditional family system are also affected. Of the sociological changes observed among women, 46 per cent were independent. It may also lead to marrying another person for the family's emotional and sociological needs. Management of household activities, agricultural and business changes took place. Most of them closed their business. Agriculture was taken care of by the nearby relatives in Maharashtra. Medical care for women, property disputes were there. Loss of money and assets occurs. A threat to personal safety was there (Sekhar 1997).

Generally, women's status changes with their husbands' emigration, but if there was any old age person or literate person in the family, they hold the headship. Women have taken household livestock decisions, but significant and pastoral economic holding is under men's hands. The remittances brought by emigration were also not held by women. They were rarely allowed in community-related issues. The family's financial capability has changed, and the children's education improved. The drop-out rate of the children in sample villages decreased, totally from the migration in Yasin and Hunz villages. The

migration had a remarkable impact only on the economic, social, and education fields (Gioli *et al.* 2014).

Due to emigration, agriculture was neglected, leading to environmental issues, no innovations in agriculture, and overburdened women's workload who remained at home. They perform the necessary agricultural works only. Emigration may not always be a labour lacking process in the domestic region but also empowers the women capability by adopting the overburden during the absence of a male person in the family. Sometimes agriculture was not the priority, with no political and environmental incentives to agriculture production and remittances. The sharecropping system was increased. The extended family, extra-familial, and reciprocal relations were maintained to acquire the labour (Jokisch 2002).

Smallholders depended on wealthy landlords for capital and other arrangements. The comparison between migrant and non-migrant agricultural production was that non-migrants were cultivating properly, but migrants were not concentrating on agriculture with the remitted amount of emigration (*ibid*).

Emigrants were buying cultivation land but not concentrating on reverting the land. In contrast, the non-migrants increased buying cultivation land and production too. International migrants used remittances on daily necessities, later pasture land, repayment of debts, etc. rest money spent on agriculture and buying agricultural land. In comparison, non-migrants give more preference to purchase farmland and agricultural production. Because the ground in the Canar region has low productivity, and soils were not qualitative. The land they bought was used to construct houses and kept for re-sale. Women who remained at home were working in agriculture and dependent on agriculture only because most of the men who emigrated used to fly to New York with the wrong way. They had caught, and visas cancelled, and they were becoming indebt. They were not seen and talked to husbands for years in that situation. They have to depend on only easy and familiar work, agriculture. When the debts were clear and remittances enough for survival, women still worked in agriculture because they felt it was a cultural custom and procured food (*ibid*).

The other burden of the women when the husband is away from family is that communication with migrants by telephone and letters only. Which means they were losing physical emotion. So children's education lacks discipline. Poor performance in studies, psychological problems, and bad habits increase. It increases more burden on women and spends festivals and occasions without a husband (Sekhar 1997). In some areas, when men migrated, women remained at home, taking responsibility for the children and family burdens with lower agricultural wages (Jokisch 2002). They work in agriculture in ploughing, applying agrichemicals, etc. When it comes to the upper Canar region, women were decision-makers and active in management during the migration of males. Here, women cannot plough and apply agri-chemicals because it is gender-specific (Jokisch 2002) if a family member's suffers from severe illness, marital and psychological problems occur. But the traditional ways of society preventing this trauma and relatives comfort them by family dissolution. But after the husband return, the social and talkative power increases. So the power of the women also gets increased (Sekhar 1997).

Through migration, disseminate cultural changes, social, economic, and political issues. Civilisation spreads through emigration. It changes policies. The early phases of migration have the dual activity of agriculture and remittances observed. When migration improves, the labour shortage problem arises in domestic agriculture. That is why the migrants need to maintain agriculture with remittances. In support of this, women and children prefer to work in agriculture to keep control of food needs and scarcity. But immigrants show interest in constructing houses and selling the agricultural land out. And after return to home also, they do not work in agriculture. That is why the Canar region faces labour scarcity (Jokisch 2002).

In migrated areas, inflation was prevalent. It was because of the housing and trade hiked rates. If they prefer local people to employ in the industry, migration-related inflation could be reduced (Piplai and Majundar 1969). But Kesar (1992) says migrants and non-migrants are equal in status after migration. It indicates the lower economic level to improved position can see in migrants. That is why they are similar to non-migrants.

The impact of migrant husbands' income and education on wives is part of the study to understand the remaining women's status in the village. They were not so rich to change

their traditional roles. That is why they did as they did earlier when their husband was there with them. Six per cent of the women stopped working, and 94 per cent of women engaged in household work and others. Still, the work of the women is not accountable to the husband. Husbands' income status does not make much difference in the women labour who remained at the village.

Here, women's education does not change household activities. The husband takes care of remittances, economic issues, and family property issues. The women were also allowed to make decisions regarding financial and household issues, but the labour was still not changed. As such, they needed to balance the household needs and somebody for self-satisfaction. But 86 per cent of women stopped working because husbands wished to take care of children and household necessities. They obey him because the husband is the breadwinner of the family. The report shows that 24 per cent of women worked and contributed to the joint account. Some of them held to have a healthy lifestyle. 70 per cent of the women were satisfied with the remittances of their husbands, and 30 per cent were not (Khalaf 2009).

The breakdown of the family was taking place, which is called the fluidity of the family system. Family may break into small household units. Those are complete or incomplete or simple or extended. The husbands' absence in the family either becomes an incomplete family or extended with the join of the migrants' parents (Rawat 1986).

The understanding from the above study reveals that the impact of agriculture is leading to emigration. The emigration of a male is making many more changes status role of the women, children, education of children and headman ship, etc. In the absence of a family member who is the husband, main breadwinner, holding family leads a particular burden on women and gives liberty to develop herself in society with her own decision. It can be a good impact, but the physical absence of the husband leads to mental and psychological changes in children's growth and the wife's health. Agriculture has an impact on emigration and emigration making the change in agriculture also but taking care of by women but not men. Emigration is not alone has an impact on agriculture—still, various other factors impacted, for instance, urbanisation, industrialisation, liberalisation, economic reforms in the country. The short sight of an environment causes low agriculture

and micro and macroeconomic changes like consumer price, market price, and others. It discusses in the forthcoming chapter.

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Chapter 3

Factors Influencing to the Women in Agriculture in India

This chapter mainly discusses the influencing factors or issues to agriculture. These issues are not only affecting the socioeconomic status of agriculture but also affecting women and their employment. Notably, women work in agriculture as agricultural labourers, cultivators, and other ways. How women are important in agriculture and their employment change by all those factors are discussed. Because without employment Bharath Nirman is not possible to achieve. In transition status, informal to formal and unorganised to organised sector employment and the legal change in the transition expected. Many articles and works discuss women as devalued and dependents on men for minimum needs. Though they work the whole day at the household, they are invisible in the economic and social works. But Rao (2011) says economically active means those who perform domestic, non-domestic and reproductive activities. It indicates 100 per cent of women are active economically.

World Bank report of 2007 says agriculture is the primary source of lifestyle in the 21st century to eradicate poverty and fundamental development. Three-fourth of poor people live in a rural region. In developing or transforming countries such as India, China, Morocco, Indonesia, and Romania, 2.2 million people work in agriculture, and 96 per cent from South Asia only. However, they earn only seven per cent of GDP. And there was no more agriculture as a source of development but increased poverty among the rural region. As per the report, agriculture contributes differently in the various rural background of the world. It was a source of development and instrument for poverty reduction. Mainly rural world depend on agriculture which was 70 per cent of the total world population, such as Sub-Saharan countries. In developed or urbanised countries, only five per cent of the GDP contributes to agriculture. For instance, people come under this from Caribbean countries. However, Western or developed countries prioritise agriculture and provide more subsidies than India. In Europe, the UK, the US, Germany, labour productivity was high and contributed to high agriculture GDP. He says that the non-agriculture sector, with less

labour gaining high GDP. But in India, dis-proportionate protection was given to agriculture since they prefer domestic industry (Rao and Varghese 2006).

The GDP and development are based on environmental conditions. India and China always wanted to see high GDP than any other countries in each plan of action. They have signed for energy, agriculture, and afforestation for a peaceful environment in collaboration. (Bawa *et al.* 2010). Because the development through agriculture makes a change in the life of rural background. Kadiyala *et al.* (2012) say from rural regions, 58 per cent of livelihood source of employment was agriculture, which creates 55 per cent income to the country. Animal husbandry was one best economic sources of employment in allied activities. 80 per cent of rural women were engaged in agriculture. In addition, women were empowered with jobs in agriculture at the rural level.

Gandhi also says villages are the central importance for the nation's development. It is because the primary livelihood source of the village is agriculture. But now agriculture is undergoing so many external effects. During independence, 70 per cent of the population was dependent on agriculture, but currently, 53 per cent of the population worked under agriculture and allied activities. In addition, Dandekar (1986) says agriculture dependents increased. Still, the agricultural workers were reduced because agriculture transformed. At the same time, uneven environmental changes affect agriculture, such as unseasonal rainfall, droughts because of low rainfall, and floods due to over rainfall and irrigation problems due to the government's un-proper plan panchayat level and central government. In addition, a farmer was suffering because of credit issues from the banking sector. It is a long process to take credits from banks and unaware of crop loans and other facilities created by the government for them to take credits. That is the reason they approach moneylenders instead of banks.

As per the World Bank report 2007, agriculture, natural resource conservation and the environment were intertwined. Jost *et al.* (2016) also say that poverty and low resources change the availability and difficulty in agriculture practice. The attributes were about policymakers declining the investment in agriculture. The support for farm agriculture in 1995–96 was good, but later it was degraded. Rao and Varghese (2006) say other reasons were tariff per cent on raw material or product and edible products. It also says that the

edible oil expenditure was steeply reduced due to failure of market intelligence, alertness, and inability to raise import duties promptly.

Mathur, Das and Sircar (2006) say 60 per cent of the Indian population mainly depend on agriculture. Agricultural production was affected by several factors like electricity, usage of fertiliser subsidy and public investment. At the same time, exogenous factors such as rainfall and population were also affected. Besides, the government expenditure on the rural sector specifically for irrigation development, water management, storage and marketing process was not increased, indicating the government's short site towards them. However, it was not providing sufficient employment, so rural regions faced underemployment and unemployment issues, leading to poverty.

Since agriculture is a private activity, public investment has a critical role to play in creating the infrastructure in terms of irrigation, roads, markets, storage facilities, electrification and technology development, besides education and health. Therefore, not only is there a need for sizeable public investment, but also it should have a definite content and focus (Thamarajakshi 1999, 2293).

Thamarajakshi (1999) says the need for agriculture development; we need to focus on other necessities. As per the above understanding, because of environmental changes, agriculture is under threat. The public sector should concentrate on the above-given things to eradicate hindrances in agriculture. The critical focus should keep along with investment.

When it comes to rural women, they work in domestic and agriculture activities. Women do not get a payment though they work in agriculture since it is family land. But nowadays women are paid if they work in other field area and sometimes exchange their labour. The reason was, exchange system of work changed to employment for wages. And women employment constantly fluctuates based on the geography of agriculture and environmental conditions. In addition family, responsibilities force them out of their career development. Other external forces also affect technology, economic reforms, and overpopulation, leading to urbanisation and industrialisation. The changes in technology lead to modification and diversification of agriculture which is the cause for changes in women status of employment and socioeconomic condition. The employment and wages strengthen them, so understanding these are given below.

1. Technology

The person to land ratio is high in India, so we need to properly use our resources and socioeconomic surplus. The forest department restricts the captivity of forest land, but per capita, total cultivable land was increased (Sharma 1993). It indicates the forests captivity increased for cultivation but not the production percentage with innovative cultivation methods. That is why technology should be added to agriculture.

The reason, technology changes agriculture with the help of outsources; for instance, Afghanistan improved the irrigation system (Groninger and Lasko 2011). The improvement in technology causes an increase in the use of fertilisers, a variety of seeds and pesticides. It causes to increase in productivity (Klein and Whipple 1974). And after the adoption of the technology, innovative biotechnological pesticides and fertilisers in agriculture, infrastructure developed. For example, western UP and Punjab adopted farm agriculture rather than common agriculture because of labour shortage. They also adopted the commercial agriculture system in eastern states because of low fertile lands. Kerala also adopted it because soils eroded because of soil overexploitation by using more pesticides (Sharma 1993). But Valpasvuo-Jaatinen, Rekolainen and Latostenmaa (1977) say the use of fertilisers in agriculture impacts the life of algae and other parts of the environment like soil erosion habitats and familiar personality. The use of phosphorous and nitrogen in agriculture threatens groundwater, the primary source of life. The fertilisers change the drinking state of water and lead to death.

In Bhutan, social and political effects have impacted more, forced pressures, and implemented new changes. New crop varieties have been introduced. Cash crops have introduced in 1961, such as cardamom and others. With the introduction of science and technology, agriculture enters modern agriculture (Young 1991). Genomic seeds have been changed through biotechnology and produced 6000 crops in 100 million hectares of land. As per Nath (1986), with the evolution of GR, wheat-growing states like Haryana, Punjab and UP have increased their production and industries also developed in the urban region with agri-production.

In addition, Sharma (1993) says agriculture makes economic development through production and changes social stratification. For instance, during pre-independence, the zamindari system or landlord system was entered, called the land tenure system. They were middlemen between tenants and the government. They were superior over the land, and they lent money. They extracted more interest from tenants and cultivators. Because of landlords' extraction, tenants adopted the GR and shifted from subsistence agriculture to commercial agriculture because marketing and other facilities were available. Some states in north and northeastern regions such as Orissa, UP, Punjab, Haryana and Bihar have still adopted subsistence agriculture. Due to the zamindari system's absence and socio-capitalistic forces, the peasants also adopted capitalistic agriculture.

World Trade Organisation (WTO) established Agreement on Agriculture (AoA) in Uruguay. AoA removed Quantitative Restrictions (QR) on imports and raised virtual concerns for the farmers from 2000–02. Because of these, commodity prices decreased, and the death rate of farmers has increased since 1999–2000 in AP, Karnataka, Rajasthan and Punjab. It also discussed the diversification of programmes with significant safeguards and clauses. The diversification to mitigate the agricultural issues, for instance, GR, self-sufficiency of food, agriculture price policy and MSP and monopoly procurement. MSP came into force with the Commission for Agriculture Costs and Prices (CACP) recommendations. However, it supported in cultivating wheat, rice and related cereals and pulses. Hence, high productivity was found in UP, Haryana, Punjab, AP and TN. In three years, the production increased, and the government announced Public Distribution System (PDS) in 1997. The government also implemented the MSP, watershed development programmes developed for small and marginal farmers. And also, liberal imports, constricted subsidies, CPR reduce farmers' dependence on farm incomes and prevent them from making unsustainable levels of infrastructure. The CPR-based income diversification strategy insulates that small and marginal farmers practise high energy-intensive cultivation and render them less vulnerable (Damodar 2001).

After the GR, introduced important technology with new industrial policy 1986 and seed policy in 1988 introduced in innovative technology. The use of technology increased the production cost. It was tough for small farmers. The GR increased output through many

more climatic changes and economic fluctuations. These surpluses developed the market sector in agriculture (Bhattacharyya, Abraham and D'Costa 2013). But the market sector of agriculture did not bother about cultivators because the final goods were not affordable to the poor.

Technology changes agriculture production, output and negatively affects fertilisers and innovative technology. The natural formation changed, and artificial methods were implemented to provide food for all as the population increased. But have negatively affected the livelihood source of agriculture. In the same way, economic reforms are also one of the main factors to impact agriculture, which we read below.

2. Economic Reforms

The government of India plans Economic Reforms (ERs) to develop poor people holistically. They concern mainly cultivators because most of the population depends on agriculture. It brings to the mainstream from an oppressed position with the help of government funds and a plan of action. That is how ERs are helpful; those started in India in 1992 and China in 1979. Guruswamy, Abhishek and Vishal (2003) found that Gross National Product (GNP) improvement was equal in the first decade for China and India after implementing the reforms. In the next decade onwards, China's GNP doubled, but India remained in two to three points of improvement from previous records. China was always concerned in a holistic manner such as literacy, health, economy, and life expectancy, but India was concerned only with GNP. After decades, the growth of China increased more and more, but India decreased drastically or sometimes increased.

ERs for agriculture from the government sector reduced to eight per cent during the sixth FYP. Agriculture production was reduced to three per cent from four per cent of GDP after 1980–90; it was also reduced but not increased. In FYPs, India considered irrigation a prime priority because it was crucial for improving agriculture production. That is why mainly concerned with small, minor and major projects. Pesticides and fertilisers were also increased in production, but the output did not increase because of irrigation problems. The wages also reduced during this period because wage earners increased to 46 per cent of males and 34 per cent of females (Thamarajakshi 1999).

The land ratio to the persons in India was very high because of a lack of resources. The population was increasing but not land. Productivity did not increase where there was scope to improve by using technology. But land cultivation area only increased by exploiting the forest region. But they failed in adopting innovative methods of technology. World Bank report 2007 also says knowledge of agriculture was widespread; the private sector investment in research and development of countries. However, only nine per cent supported agriculture, financed by the government and private sectors together. Both sectors failed in reaching the needy cultivators—marginal and small farmers, depended on money lenders and big farmers during the 1990s than the 1980s. Dandekar (1986) finds that agriculture dependents remained the same per cent. The cultivators and agricultural labourers decreased, and Zamindars occupied 40 per cent of the land. In addition, Dev (2003) finds that small and marginal farmers' dependency on money lenders was higher during the 1990s than in the 1980s. That is why the flow of big farmers on credit was not reduced.

Employment in agriculture was 70 per cent during the 1990s, but there was low employment before that. During 1983–84, there was a contribution of 50 per cent, but now it is 60 per cent. During 1987–88, droughts attacked, but there was no scarcity of employment. It indicates the fluctuations in employment in agriculture. But when the government took initiation, the employees did not suffer comparatively. Because the government implemented the Sampoorna Grameena Rojgar Yojana (SGRY) scheme. But later, the expenditure on programmes has reduced since states and centres share. That is why they sometimes mismanage and criticise each other to share the economy in the scheme. And the government of India was providing less than 1.5 per cent of the budget on social sector development (Dev 2003). Dandekar (1986) finds that agriculture decreases as National Domestic Price (NDP) and agriculture dependents remain the same.

The reforms brought the programmes are given below. The government of India initiated (a) individual beneficiary oriented programmes aimed at Small Farmers Development Agency or Marginal Farmers Agricultural Labours (SFDA/MFAL) then supplemented by the Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP); (b) programmes for additional wage employment opportunities, such as the Crash Scheme for Rural

Employment (CSRE), Pilot Intensive Rural Employment Programme (PIREP), and the Food for Work Programme; (c) programmes for the development of ecologically disadvantaged areas such as the Drought Prone Areas Programmes (DPAP) and the Desert Development Programme (DDP); and (d) Minimum Needs Programme (MNP) aimed at raising the level of rural living through a more significant provision of essential social consumption and rural infrastructure. The food for work programme started in 1977 with cumulated food grains to create employment. Later in 1980, it was renamed as National Rural Employment Programme (NREP) ((After the implementation of NREP, poverty decreased (Bhattacharyya, Abraham and D'Costa 2013)) and in 1980–85 government special funds were released. The Rural Landless Employment Guarantee Programme (RLEGP) was initiated in 1983–84 to employ up to 100 days every year to at least one member of every landless household. Agriculture was un-appeared in 1986–87 budget. IRDP started during 1978–79, and other blocks were covered with SFDA, MFAL, and DPAP (Dandekar 1986). The Lewisian structural change occurred because of the MGNREGA spillover effect of employment, and push-pull factors caused this effect. The wages have increased remarkably, and machines have increased because of labour shortage (Mehrotra *et al.* 2014). As given here, the projects came up to support farmers but failed. Maulick (2009) says the scheme was not correctly implemented because of a lack of professionals, poor quality of work, flawed social audit process and also found administrative negligence.

The yields per acre are low in India not because our soil is incapable of yielding more, but because our agricultural inputs are low, our agricultural practices are not modern, our agricultural management is poor, our farmers lack capital and credit, and want of functional literacy restricts their capacity to understand and apply science and technology to their cultivation. Motivation for maximisation of agricultural production has been lacking in many cases, partly because of low prices and because cultivation is not always accompanied by ownership or even by the security of tenure and regulated rents in the case of tenants. Unless all these factors are tackled, and on a simultaneous and coordinated basis, we will not be able to break the back of the agricultural problem. (Rao 1967, 335).

As Rao (1967) said, the government policies changed the agriculture system with economic reforms. The Indian policies shifted from the main goal to others but were not focused continuously like China government. For improvement, constant support is necessary. Until we support farmers in complete management of the environment and

finance, no reforms can prosper. And industrialisation was the most significant change in society to develop the country economically, but it impacts agriculture, as given below.

3. Industrialisation

Bhattacharyya, Abraham and D'Costa (2013) say agriculture and industry are interlinked in the labour force, food supply and other resources like goods, raw material, and financial support. Thus agriculture is the driving force to the industrial sector. On the other hand, they say the service sector is most favourable in India but consumes more employment from agriculture and industry.

The days after independence saw the emergence of territorial industrial complexes in the older economic regions with the maritime metropolitan nodes. With an already existing industrial base in the urban centres since the colonial days, post-independence industrialisation has resulted in an accelerated concentration of heavy industry and other allied industries in the older economic regions (Kundu 1983, 43).

The Census 1951 and 1961 of India found industrial development variants and widened the rural and urban region population gap. The urban region started increasing with the establishment of industries. Kundu (1983) adds metropolitan cities accelerated with big industries after independence only.

South Asian Association for Regional Cooperation (SAARC) announced under the Saarc Preferential Trading Arrangement (SAPTA) rounds and New Industrial Policy (NIP) on 24 July 1991, proposes for industrial development (Kumar 2000). As the talk proceeds industrialisation started in 1990, it was 20 years of duration, and the employer contribution of industry and service sectors increased to 28.1 per cent and 57.3 per cent respectively. In the 12th FYP, India planned to transfer the employees from agriculture to non-agricultural, industry, and service sectors. And 53 per cent of the people depended on agriculture, which produced only 15 per cent of GDP. From 1993 to 2000, there were 51 million agricultural workers, but during 2000–2005, 22 million workers were grown up. The workers were increased, but no structural changes and agricultural growth were found. From 2005 to 2009, 10 per cent of the farming workers were reduced. 2009–2012, 13 million non-agrarian employment increased, and 27 million agricultural employment decreased. The non-agricultural employment increased in the 2004–05 decade from 15–39 million, totally

from 11–17 per cent of employment has increased in an organised sector called the manufacturing industry (Mehrotra *et al.* 2012).

Agriculture jobs shifted to sub-sectors such as business, food, health and other textile and service sectors from 1999–2000 to 2011–12. During this period, 22 million agricultural employment increased. And 10 million rural women employment increased. There was no structural change among them, but they were burdened by overwork at home and agriculture (*ibid*). In addition agriculture work was reduced from 1974 as such only 60 per cent because of the seasonal employment. Because the outsiders were admitted for seasonal jobs and seasonal work was reduced for locals. Exactly when mechanisation came into agriculture reduced the number of employees used in agriculture. Since mechanisation increased, large farms of agriculture also increased, but the employment was decreased (Klein and Whipple 1974).

Mazumdar and Neetha (2011) found that male participation in employment shifted highly towards construction from agriculture during the industrialisation period, whereas women shifted to manufacturing in 2004–05. The other shift of the agricultural workers was too unorganised and non-agricultural employment. In 2009–10, women's employment in construction reversed because of MGNREGA. It became a contractual basis of employment because construction work was always the temporary type of employment. Mehrotra *et al.* (2012) say the cause of the contractual basis of employment increased with labour laws, and concerns were the transition between formal and informal employment. The main emphasis did by the government to shift from unskilled informal work to an organised and unorganised sector. He says this type of employment was productive, whereas agriculture productivity was low. World Bank (2007) also says transforming countries like India and China have different subnational geographical boundaries. And the critical structure of the structural transformation of agriculture was the entry of new stakeholders into it. But the development indicates the threshold of smallholders into the agriculture market. This diversification of agriculture led to migration because of the poor performance of agriculture.

The widened gap between rural and urban regions transformed agriculture into industrial sectors. The increased industrial sectors were dragging the rural poor to the urban

area not re-allocated in a rural part. Overpopulation, decreased size of agriculture, decrement of soil fertility, new opportunities of agriculture, and distressed migration were the reasons for diversification, making trouble in agriculture. It is also called agriculture fallow. And the political economy is playing a significant role, i.e. low investment in agriculture policies, more tax payments and high concentration on urbanisation.

Agriculture-based industries and small scale industries were concerned with techniques and industrial development. Thus, it maintains the relationship between the urban and rural regions and market development (Nath 1986). But for industrialisation, raw materials were used from agriculture, but the finished goods were not reachable to farmers because of high cost (Bhattacharyya, Abraham and D'Costa 2013). In a mixed economy of India, reforms brought no tax payment for the farmers. They have remitted direct and indirect tax payments. No tax on fertilisers and subsidies has been given indirectly. Free electricity and water were provided (Balakrishnan 2000). But still, farmer suicides were associated with the credit facility of the corporate sector of the government. This sector has made changes in providing crop loans differently so that small and marginal farmers can get loans at some per cent after the liberalisation. The procedure to get a loan from a banking institution was very long, difficult for small farmers. That is why they chose the money lenders (Bhattacharyya, Abraham and D'Costa 2013).

In addition, excessive protection of industry in government sector policy made many more changes in agriculture. Because the concern towards agriculture reduced, that is how rural economy reduced from the agriculture sector. The swing of the economy towards industry causes low returns from agriculture, and inputs for water, power, and credit was difficult (Balakrishnan 2000). Rao (1996) says the Indian government did not deliberately allow the optimal avenues and allocations to agriculture in his article. The liberalisation of agriculture was possible in third world countries by macroeconomic reforms. It gives protection to agriculture exchange and keeps away industrialisation. It contributed 30 per cent of GDP. World Bank reports (2007) that European Union (EU) and Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) also reduced their preference towards agriculture development. And they intensified to extract the surplus to encourage industrialisation, not even supporting the technological changes.

Industrialisation brought down agricultural activity by encouraging industrial development. Though it was not intentionally disturbing agriculture, cultivators, and agricultural labourers. Agriculture came across the change process. The reforms made in India with international issues, such as liberalisation, privatisation and globalisation, brought economic activities. Thus, the Liberalisation, Privatisation and Globalisation (LPG) shows the change or effect on agriculture.

4. Liberalisation, Privatisation and Globalisation (LPG)

Liberalisation, Privatisation and Globalisation (LPG) are three essential elements of New Economic Policy (NEP). Globalisation means free trade between foreign and domestic economies without import and export duties. It allows foreign technology and skills. Privatisation means holding the economic activities ownership into the private sector instead of the public sector. Liberalisation means authorised by the beaurocracy of the corporate sector. The main intention of bringing the globalisation into Indian economy was to elevate the economy, unemployment and poverty through providing technology and skills. The technology may increase or decrease employment by the use of machinery. If positively perceived, technology innovation may help women, agriculture, and other sectors to reduce the trouble. But after the implementation of LPG, ownership shifted to the private sector. They prefer to sell their products to rich people because they can gain profits whereas poor, rural regions were occupied more but cannot afford it. Thus the LPG is driven by some people only. On agriculture, it affects a negative perspective—for instance, the liberalisation bringing a hike in fertiliser and pesticide prices. The subsidies were reduced. Since India has 90 per cent of small and marginal farmers in a rural region, it negatively affected them (Naidu 2006).

Sharma (1993) says that traditional and modern sectors work together in a mixed economy. When the contemporary sector works, traditional sector workers, moving towards the modern industry. Thus it dominates. And also author says agriculture is private sector activity. In northern and northeastern states slowed in production because of the lack of marketing facilities. As per state-led growth theory, the free market economy was widened in developing countries and discouraged agriculture because of insufficient capital support. Free markets do not invest in agriculture production but invest only in the

industrial sector, depending on the necessity of society. Sharma says liberalisation was introduced in the 1990s. It is pretty the opposite of state-led growth. Economists say that for developing countries, free trade is suitable. World Bank and IMF also supported this. In developed countries, monopoly and oligopoly, economic activities do not disturb, but in developing countries, these make disturbances. Rao (2011) says that the investment has increased due to liberalisation, but output has not been changed or remained the same. That is why indebtedness increased among farmers.

Bhattacharyya, Abraham and D'Costa (2013) say before liberalisation; the government started developing reforms from 1950 to 1960, the GR period 1970s and the anti-poverty period 1980s. Theoretically, liberalisation was thought to advance agriculture, free trade, and exchange, which helped the industrial sector. But after this reform, agriculture growth and development was not increased. In addition, the investment of agriculture production increased except for paddy and wheat pesticides, and fertiliser costs increased because subsidies decreased. Uncertainty of developed countries started using the developing economies like India as an investment of government sector. Liberalisation began in 1991. The industry started it by macroeconomic failure. When China began a new economic policy for agriculture, the Indian government planned to invest in the corporate sector, driven by liberalisation.

Privatisation was not named in any of the policies but used in various names. Paul Rosenstein-Rodan gives the reason behind the unnamed privatisation. He says in privatisation, the ownership shifts from the public to the private sector, but no change has been seen to the general public. But it is heard in some places because some policymakers and foreign delegates want to use privatisation. Through which they attract more investments. Because, profits are more in the private sector than the public sector (Trivedi 1993).

Whereas globalisation brings employment opportunities and reduces poverty, but skills are essential to have. Rural region people are almost illiterate, unable to compete with the mainstream population. Therefore, globalisation fails to provide employment opportunities for all and reduce hunger in rural (Balakrishnan 2003). It also brings newness in society, culture, tradition and cultivation. However, it makes rural people stubborn,

which negatively impact them. Through the entrance of globalisation, local markets get affected by the opening of new markets, but transport distance and the difference would be reduced (Jovanovic 2010).

Besides, the globalised economy changes the concentration of agricultural production, a retail market system that affects various circumstances and spaces. Workers were divided based on race, ethnicity, gender, and age in a globalised marketplace. For instance, in Costa Rica, Sri Lanka, Mexico and Canada, women were segregated from men's work. Agri-food also differs in production because they have changed according to global standards. Furthermore, women also underwent gender, age, citizenship, ethnicity, marital status and race. That is why women withdrew from the marketplace of agriculture production. They settled as agricultural labour and flexible workers temporarily and in multiple locations. These kinds of forces devalued them and were more exploited. Through the entry of globalisation, the corporate sector concentrated more on women employment, especially in developed countries, because they could get a flexible career. Women were replaced quickly with a low amount of wages. For instance, women work for flowers in Colombia, grapes in Chile, and green beans in Kenya (Carolyn and Alston 2010).

After globalisation, the competition between countries increased. To compete with the world of food grain production in economic development, it needs to take new activities. The result should support domestic purposes. Export demanded production such as horticulture, floriculture and others (Minocha 1995). Dev (2003) says globalisation caused an increase in horticulture from agriculture called diversification of agriculture, but it was affected by the infrastructure to warehouse production.

LPG negatively impacted agriculture as they progressed in the Indian economy, agricultural economy decreased. The employment system also changed, and women impact was higher. The development is always a positive approach, but rural livelihood is negatively affecting, whereas some positive changes. Their manual changes brought modifications are different from environmental changes because ecological changes affect more agriculture.

5. Environmental Changes

Climate is one part of the environment. It varies according to different geographical places. It was affected by temperature, humidity, vegetation and rainfall. The unnatural environment created by human activities emits Chloro Fluoro Carbons (CFC), methane and other chemicals. Burton, Gomez and Love (2011) say the environment affects the outcome of the product, and industry affects the environment and water.

For instance, changing environmental temperature by three degrees makes a difference in production. The soil type, fertilisers, and others are similar, but they have different temperature conditions of three degrees, and agriculture production change was also found. Cereal, cotton, rice, and wheat production were reduced (Kumar 2007). The pollution of the soil was also making many more changes. Brammer (2008) says that the arsenic quantity was high in the soil in some parts of India and Bangladesh. 50 million of the Indian population were suffering from arsenic issues which consumed food items. The ground changes its' reaction with bore well water containing ferrous chemicals; thus, it was harmful. The cultivation of agriculture contaminated by arsenic water causes parrot beaks and other health issues.

That is why farmers adopt innovative technology or irrigation methods to escape climate change during sowing. By changing these, they have obtained 83 per cent of production. But in Punjab, farmers were suffering because of erratic and uneven rainfall. For instance, they were suffering because of fertility issues, and the technology used fertilisers, electricity limits, labour scarcity and cropping system of wheat and rice. Through GR innovative methods, agriculture attacked by the fertiliser issues. Groundwater got affected. Primarily they have adopted changing cropping patterns, but they could not find any difference in the production and groundwater issues. That is why they have adopted the tillage water conservation method and changed the cropping system (Ojha *et al.* 2014). With the introduction of technology and machinery, machinery's costs increased. For small and marginal farmers, and tariffs were also difficult. And big farmers have reduced the farming system and adopted others like the cash crop system. So, the agriculture system changed, and the quality of production reduced. That is why the author

says that farmers need to have social learning of agriculture and the agro-ecological system beyond this.

Because free tariffs were a great hindrance to developing countries like India, exporting more and losing their profit. As per statistical calculation, importing country is poorer than exporter country; this way, a developing country is under trouble. That is why Sankar (2006) says the importing countries specify standards to developing countries, higher than the ones appropriate. That is the reason trade liberalisation might not be beneficial to developing countries. Structural reforms and technological up-gradation are necessary to cope with the trade and environmental policy regime. As per new policy liberalisation, prosperity needs to have a sound environmental policy and welfare for trade. For instance, leather and leather products added with restricted chemicals such as pentachlorophenol (PCP), azodyes, formaldehyde. Chrome VI, Short Chain Chlorinated Paraffins (SCCPs), tetrachlorophenols (TCP), nickel, phthalates, specific flame retardants, disperse dyes, extractable chromium, biocides, tributyltin (TBT) and N-methylpyrrolidine.

That is how the changes in the environment bring variation in using fertilisers and pesticides to increase agricultural production output. However, the use of harmful chemicals transforms lands into fallow soils. The background associated with temperature, rainfall and irrigation are discussed below to understand the impact on agriculture and women employment.

6. Rainfall and Irrigation Facilities

Irrigation management is necessary when there is insufficient water facility for agriculture and to improve crop production (Deshpande and Narayanamoorthy 2001). Summer monsoonal rainfall was 75–90 per cent in India. It was because of the heat process in the land-atmosphere and ocean. This monsoon positively and negatively affects the environment and agriculture (Choudhury and Gosh 2014). In developing countries, 85 per cent of the water need for irrigation. But it was producing only 40 per cent of output through it. Water scarcity increased because it needs for both agriculture and non-agricultural sectors. The industrial sector was developing faster, and water sources were not raised. The groundwater overdraft rate exceeds 56 per cent in North-West India. World Bank reports

(2007) that climate is getting changed every day and incoming 50 years temperature may increase to two to three degrees. The temperature was uneven in different geographical regions. That is why only four per cent of the land was irrigated in South Asia.

Irrigated rural areas encourage more people to engage in agriculture, and urban regions mainly surround these villages—almost irrigated areas accumulated with more cultivators and agricultural labourers. Lack of irrigation facility makes more labourers than cultivators, indicating the devastated condition of the small and medium cultivators to a downstream position. Increased irrigation absorbs the increased labourers, but it stagnates for years. The labours do not demand employment. This kind of pressure can see in the states like AP, Karnataka and TN. Because in South India, rivers are seasonal and climate-based, which means rainfall based. TN and Kerala have high rainfall effects, but Karnataka and AP lack rainfall effects (Guilmoto 2002).

Likewise, changes occur in the environment with a change in climate effect. For instance, in Ghana, Jost *et al.* (2016) say that agricultural practices are changing because of climate change, soil degradation, and male migration leading to a labour shortage. In addition, he also finds the climatic changes such as erratic rainfall, droughts causing diseases in agriculture practices. Lieten (1992) says manual efforts also can bring change. For instance, after land reforms in WB, the production increased, not because of increased land productivity but the increased irrigation, fertiliser, and land endowment.

When we find Kerala, it spends more funds on irrigation than any other government. It has been spent on minor, major projects and brought changes. But the reforms were not appropriately utilised because an area of production decreased (Lathika 2010). In Maharashtra, the government spent enough funds for irrigation, but the amount of water reaching the needy cultivation was less. That is why the amount adequately paid because the need for bad spots of a water facility needed more irrigation facilities (Deshpande and Narayanamoorthy 2001).

When we see the irrigation potential in India's water was increased to 1.8 per cent during the 1990s. The public investment in agriculture reduced during 2000–2001. It was also too lower than the 1990s investment. During the 1990s, private sector investment was

included, but it was also lower than in the 1970s, 1980s. Dev says during 1996–97, a fast track project was installed to complete the irrigation projects that were not completed earlier. But the progress of the programme was too slow. The 10th plan has reduced allied sectors concentration than the ninth plan (Dev 2003).

The other cause for the stagnation of income, development of the country during the war period was resources lacuna. It was a big obstacle to the improvement of production. During the 20th century, agriculture was the most significant income sector. It was supporting other manufacturing and industry. But because of the interwar, there were lacking resources for agriculture. Roy (2007) also finds that population growth was cumulated with this problem and cannot provide sufficient food because of poverty. He also gives another reason for the farmers or peasants' incapability of paying taxes was semi feudalism. And he also says that merchants and landlords were against the peasants. Besides, British rule was the main reason for the imperfect economic growth, such as institutional obstacles and the domestic market challenging to reach the farmers.

Rainfall and irrigation are intertwined effects on agriculture. When there is no rainfall, irrigation facilities should be there for agriculture to move out of starvation. In the case of India, the country can concentrate on projects but has an improper way of using government funds. So the target area is not focused correctly. Agriculture permanently gets changed by the modification in the system. Same time women are associated with agriculture and gets affected by the changes in agriculture. The effects of technology, economic reforms, industrialisation, LPG, and environmental changes like rainfall and irrigation on women, discussed below.

7. Impact on the Household Socio, Economic and Psychological Conditions of Agriculture Women

Gender is a process and structure which was determined biologically by sex, space and time. And in the process, women were socially recognised. But they were identified by gender, ideologies and relations. If it was constructed based on socioeconomically, culturally and politically, the gender responsibilities and roles were changed based on time, conditions and duties were ascribed additionally (Gioli *et al.* 2014).

Organisations, governments, UN groups of organisations, World Bank, and state and local governments were mainly concerned with developing policies and conferences on women. The organisations thought that gender development issues might bring gender equality. The studies also changed from women development to gender issues in conferences, seminars and workshops (Carolyn and Alston 2010). Before the advent of women studies, women participation in work decreased. Later it reversed, and the economy also changed from subsistence agriculture to household and modern industry. Two decades took for understanding the women's contribution of employment in agriculture in the macro evaluation of data. From 1990 onwards, NSSO surveys and 2001 onwards census reports emphasised women and their economic activities (Mazumdar and Neetha 2011). In support, Rao (2011) articulates that the primary source of economy in Telangana state was agriculture. Men and women take part in agriculture and women per cent was higher than men.

Chakravarthy (1975) discusses employment and women status in all sectors from rural-urban. They were equal in all sectors, but the factors such as patriarchy, regional, and religion were inhibiting. But women lagged because of poverty and unemployment. Though they worked equal to men, they were discriminated against. Geographical based agricultural wages, employment, and poverty impact the oppression of women. The preliminary study was conducted in Karnataka, Rajasthan, TN, UP, MP, Maharashtra, Haryana and Gujarat. Found a higher number of women population but less per cent of agricultural labour. The Reserve Bank of India (RBI) and NSSO conducted a survey and found that women were underestimated legally by giving lower wages than men in all the states. Their status in the family income was also lower only.

Though awareness was lacking, women contributed to the capital market and development. For example, women were not bothered about the capital market and other related issues in a rural region, but they participated in agriculture and allied activities (Mathew 2012). They learn marketing activities from husbands, and men learn from Non-Government Organisations (NGOs) and trainers. They, too, can decide on food supply to the family, whereas men have the power to decide on the primary source of staple food supply (Jost *et al.* 2016). For instance, farm women and non-farm women were compared

in part of the study to understand the capability. Found change in the Arkansas women's lifestyle status in America. They have contributed with husbands by taking part in farming activities. They were very much active in agribusiness, marketing and other activities related to agriculture. The power of making a decision was getting increased by 2006 when compared with 2002. It was interconnected with output production, like, in 2002 the contribution in agriculture was less but in 2006 was increased (Albright 2006).

When we try to calculate the estimations also going wrong, for instance, women in the rural region who work for agriculture were unpaid such as cultivators' wives or daughters. They work as cultivators or supervise the cultivation. Women workers were also unpaid in the urban region, especially in manufacturing and other service sectors. So both types of women also counted as equal to unpaid agricultural labourers, which was wrong. And 43 per cent of them worked in community and personal services in 2007–08. These people termed the traditional agriculture production system, but it was also incorrect (Mazumdar and Neetha 2011).

Capability wise women were lagging because men and women were practising an almost similar cultivation method. Still, women and general farmers did not operate new techniques like the micro irrigation systems except youth. Women do not do mulching banana, coffee type of cultivation because of lack of labour and economic benefits. However, they have adopted a new variety of cropping, inter-cropping, soil conservation methods etc. women were not evenly moving along with men because of the lacking of money, permission from husbands, transportation issues, and infrastructure and communication problems (Jost *et al.* 2016).

Women also get affected by the changes in the environment and natural resources both in rural and urban regions. After the land reforms also agricultural land was in the hands of a male if there was the land in the female hands that was drought-ridden, over waterlogging, pest ridden lands. Because women were invisible in water management though they were proficient in irrigation management of agriculture (Davidson 1993). Besides, geographical and theoretical issues change women's living style, which is challenging for them. The challenges of the global agriculture system also affected them (Carolyn and Alston 2010).

Several reasons we have seen in the study of women and affected by the hindrances to come to the mainstream. So the changes in socioeconomic and psychological conditions associated with women employment are discussed below to understand.

8. Women Employment Status and Change

Women employment is a critical factor in understanding the change or improvement of their lifestyle. Women always do work at the home or outside the home but paid employment vital element to understand economic and social well-being. But Mazumdar and Neetha (2011) say entering women into paid employment is not an indication of development, empowerment or vulnerability. But it was an extra burden for her to manage in and outside works without wages which were very difficult. But Rao (2011) says wage employment improves the potential of the women in the household.

Women were entering into employment for family. There are two types of earners in a family: primary earners and secondary earners. Primary earners are the main support of the family needs and necessities. Still, secondary earners enter when an economic source is an insufficient—mainly secondary source of the economy by the married women and sometimes children and old aged. When family needs are balanced, women withdraw from employment and re-enter with the help of education and others to balance the household necessities. It indicates household responsibilities and other factors force women to stay back at home and come into economic activity (Mathew 2012).

Not only that, there are so many other reasons to have paid or unpaid employment. For instance, NSSO classified Female Earner Population Ratio (FEPR) into three categories: self-employed, regularly salaried, and casual employees. A high per cent of people are self-employees. These labour do not get paid. But self-employees who have their accounts do get paid. The labour who work as helpers also does not get paid. Only 25 per cent of the population have their accounts. In rural regions also FEPR was born, changed or substituted for unpaid labour because of family needs. Unpaid labour was self-employment and family agriculture work. Whereas cooking, cleaning and child care and other domestic jobs were under unpaid employment (Mazumdar and Neetha 2011). And casual employment was not unattractive but increased after migration which paid daily

wages. The women, who enter into employment for the first time, get low payment comparatively because they take part in low-paid work. In Kasargod, women employment was higher, but the proportion of increment decreased because of lower wages due to distressed agriculture. But liberalised agriculture affects women differently than men (Mathew 2012).

Not only that, Budig (2006) discusses the self-employment of gender. He says women earn more than men comparatively. They work two times more than men, like taking care of household work or are carrying out this self-employment. They choose it when they do not get waged employment or are not satisfied with the outside employment. Though they were working, women did not find encouragement from the family members and others in society, for instance, men.

But the southern and northern parts of countries' governments and trade groups stopped supporting traditional crop cultivation and commodities. That is why subsistence family system cultivators had to suffer for a longer duration, leave their livelihood, and emigrate. Thus, the women's employment increased by substituting a male person who left or emigrated for employment. That is how women employment gets into feminisation in the corporate sector. In some instances, women enter non-agricultural employment (Carolyn and Alston 2010). But feminisation in a rural region is considered a distress driven context. It was the catalyst for women because men emigrated from low-paid agriculture to industrial jobs. But in Kerala, as education, health, and social sectors developed, women employment increased, and men employment decreased. Feminisation was high in industrial and export-based sectors. In feminisation, women occupy more positions than men because they shift men employment and unique places provided to women. But weak benefits were there to women employment (Mathew 2012).

And the women labour was increased during the 1964–65 and decreased during 1977–78. It was because of the agricultural production area and agricultural output. FEPR changed according to this. As per the author's view, the existence of women earnings started in agriculture during poverty. The theory proved the demand and supply of agriculture during 1956–57 and 1964–65. The need for agriculture was during that period, and the labour supply was also high. The days of employment of participating in agriculture

were found through the production and output. The FEPR was dependent on the participation ratio of the year of production. Lower the production and lower EPR of females and males. The female EPR was down during the lousy harvest year than the excellent harvest year of agriculture production. It was also not similar in all the country's states and duration. The number of days of employment of the women in 1977–78 was low though higher the agricultural production. Compared to other years, the women's labour was less, but the workdays increased for those who participated. The reason was the increment of agriculture (Sundari 2005).

In the 66th round from 2004–05 to 2009–10 women employment was declined because of economic reforms. 55th round women employment has displaced the men. And female labour participation affects positively during liberalisation and globalisation (Mazumdar and Neetha 2011). During 2009–10 to 2011–12, there was a decline in the women's workload in rural areas because of mechanisation, increased wages of women because of children's schooling, manufacturing sector concentration increased in the provision of labour (Mehrotra *et al.* 2014).

The number of women in the agriculture sector increased from 1972 onwards. The households' dependents and women participation in labour were also highly increased. The absorption of labour was lower, the cause of economic issues. When men migrated for profitable work, women were more involved in agriculture during the 1971–81 decade. The non-farm work of the men in destination places and farm works for women was increased. The visibility of women in the market was connected with cultural norms, and entering into the labour sector was due to economic necessities. And female-headed families increased because of the socio-cultural changes in the household sector in South Asia. And economic changes have been bringing change in the patriarchal system (Kazi, Bilquees, and Ann 1991).

Mehrotra *et al.* (2014) gave the other reason that during 1999–2005, farmer suicides were prevalent, which is why alternative women employment started. Unexpectedly old aged women were more in employees. Suddenly from 2004–10 female labour force was reduced because of increased school enrolment, mechanisation in agriculture and decreased child labour. Especially UP, Bihar, Chhattisgarh, AP, Karnataka and WB. In addition,

during 1999–2005, self-employed women in agriculture were increased, and this was almost old age only joined. And agriculture employment reduced during 2009 because of heavy drought in the country, and women shifted to the urban region for employment.

As the environment depletes, agriculture is also affected by soil erosion, irrigation drains and reduced groundwater. Agriculture and food are connected with the community and environment (Albright 2006). That is why environmental protection, resource availability, agricultural development and external issues are interconnected (World Bank 2007). The impact of climate change affects the water condition in the environment and how women face water scarcity issues in agriculture production (Carolyn and Alston 2010). In agriculture, the female labour of the family is used differently. The reason is, they are very flexible to operate according to environmental effects (Rao 2011).

Sometimes women were not paid and used as family labour, self-employed employees, and kept as weak labour in low wages. Rao (2011) says women wages have changed for every decade according to situations, undertook in the region, such as the violent Maoist struggle in the 1970's salaries have increased. During the 1980s, wages have decreased because of commercialisation and liberalisation. He says post-liberalisation period, women's wages could not support as before.

He also finds that the wages of agriculture depend on demand and supply. For instance, in Telangana state, women work in their land and at the same time work in others' fields also. Landlord women do not work, but they supervise the agriculture work and jeethagadu. They do not keep regular workers but recruit them when they need them. There is no employer-worker relation in Telangana state, but they have a network as wage workers. Jeethagadu gets paid once a year but not daily wages or weekly wages. But the labour who recruited for work and paid daily or weekly basis. The wages change according to the season. For instance, if they harvest or flour or work altogether in the village. The labour was scarce, and work was more. That is why suddenly wages increase. As seasonal employment completes, the wages get reduced. It is called the demand and supply method.

The wage paid employment was low during 1974–75 for women, so they have chosen self-employment. And in 1977–78, agricultural production was high, but women's employment was low because they relied on self-employment and withdrawal of women.

And the entry of women into employment during this period was without interest, and lower wages for women were encouraged (Sundari 2005).

In addition, Mazumdar and Neetha (2011) find during 2009–10, decreased paid work participation rate of women. But when compared with men participation, it increased. He says 15 per cent of women received the wages for employment, 55 per cent of a female were wage employed. It means 85 per cent of the women are financially dependent on others since they do not have wage employment. He also finds from 1993–94, male work participation decreased regularly, but women participation increased positively. But after that, from 2004–05 to 2009–10, women workforce was reduced comparatively. During this period, women's unpaid labour decreased and was substituted with paid labour, indicating the increased value for women production in family needs. And suddenly the number increased to 50 million from 10 million employees. And also, unpaid labour turns into casual labour, and MGNREGA is a part of this. Through the help of this programme, casual labour employment increased in agriculture. And (Mazumdar and Neetha 2011) productive labour of the women was unpaid because they were following the patriarchal family tradition. Klein and Whipple (1974) say one-fifth of the women worked as agricultural labourers and others were self-employed and unpaid family employees.

Self-employment, which is entrepreneurship, encourages women if the family understands the women and gets motivated by family members and society. But Rosti and Chelli (2005) find that women's entrepreneurship almost failed to think they have equal talent but did not have equivalent experience in doing business during LPG in current employment. They were constantly discriminated against just because they did not have experience. Rosti also says that the subordination under some bosses does not give any satisfactory work to women. For instance, in Italy, women face this kind of situation. But because of discrimination, the satisfaction level of women decreased. He also says poverty or unemployment condition of women leads to self-employment. Outcomes of migration bring poverty and take into urbanisation and urban slums (World Bank 2007).

In developed countries, the farming system and farmers declined. Women employment increased, and in the traditional agriculture system, women had their power and capability, but women were undervalued and uncared in the corporate model of

agriculture. Their status was reduced. The women worked for floral work employment; now, men also worked (Carolyn and Alston 2010). But nowhere have we found devaluation of men working in women employment type. But they were praised as they were working hard for family needs and necessities.

Men emigrate from distressed agrarian regions to non-distressed regions for employment and women, such as Wayanad. Male withdrew from employment because of lower employment provision. Most males only migrated for employment. When men migrated for employment, women took part in various employments. Self-employment gives more remuneration than others though it was not regular in payment (Mathew 2012). Agriculture and women were susceptible to understanding society. They changed by the changes in the environment, whether sudden or unexpected or expected, means reforms brought in policies. The shift in agriculture not only affected the farmers and but also impacted food availability to the universe. The next chapter discusses the adoption undertaken by farmers to escape from poverty and hunger, which is emigration.

Globalisation and fulfilment of the good life are leading to migration. The migration from 1965 to 2001 was found in drought-prone areas of TN because of the lack of agricultural employment. Northeast monsoon supported TN, and all the rivers dried up because of drought, and Karnataka refused to release water. That is why it is a drought-prone area. The drought caused temporary employment and agricultural labour from Madurai, Salem, Dindigul, Theni, Tirunelveli, Villupuram, and Ananathapuram districts to industrial towns Tiruppur and Coimbatore and even to a metropolitan city, Vizag, Chennai. The southern part of the Salem district was scarce of water resources and tanks dried. 70 per cent of the population is dependent on agriculture. The famine and unemployment due to inadequate irrigation facilities lead to migration. Theni, Dharmapuri districts of the state were from 1980 gross is also dried up. That is why the cattle also were died. After the migration, the debt was increased but not decreased because the city and town area cost of living was higher than in rural regions. Though they earn more income, the borrowed amount would not reduce. The gap between income and expenditure was not reduced after the migration also. But little for savings were found (Sundari 2005).

The role changed by the women after certain conditions. The employment status has been modified and increased to do all kinds of employment. The effect on the face is different, and the robust nature of the women is discussed. In the overall chapter, the changing factors of agriculture were led to change in women status, and employment are discussed in this chapter. Individually these are the main causal effects on agriculture, causing the irregular production of the crops and losses. Employment is also not available to the agriculture dependents. That is why the rural men are choosing emigration in diverse conditions. Impact of men emigration on agriculture and women employment is forthcoming chapter. It has a complete description of the women and the impact of emigration from literary pieces of evidence.

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Chapter 4

Impact of Men Emigration on Agriculture and Women Employment

“Women’s role of production is the key to an understanding of the degree of the power they wield and status they enjoy in society” (Sharma 1982).

The study of the emigration of men impacts women who work in agriculture. The investigation turns from the agricultural factors affected by LPG, environmental changes, economic reforms, rainfall, and other factors, which dominate the lives of human beings and lead to emigration in the rural region. The effect of emigration in a husband’s absence does not leave the women as they are. They take extra responsibilities in the absence of a husband, but the women recognition has been missing in the society, thought burdened after husband’s emigration. As we have seen the agriculture has an impact on emigration. The cavity in agricultural employment is leading to emigration in the second chapter. And in the third chapter, we have discussed other influencing factors of agriculture and women employment. All these were an impact on rural women. The present chapter provides the implication of the emigration of husbands on agriculture women, left behind, after the husband’s emigration.

The present chapter discusses the introduction to emigration and emigration status in India in a deep understanding. The study makes us understand that emigration is not sudden or evolved in steps. Then it also gives the knowledge of emigration in India, the evaluation and changes, the reasons are also discussed. The types of emigration also provide information on what kind of migrations are there in the universe. The next part of the chapter explains women’s status in agriculture compared to the men emigration and how her status changes occur. The impact of emigration is also studied here to estimate the position of agriculture after emigration to other countries, whether changed or not. It also makes us understand the anthropological view of kinship on the emigrated family. The person’s loss due to emigration makes many more changes in the family, same time suddenly person’s emigration makes adjustment issues in the family. So the consequences after the emigration of the person being studied. And kinship and network in the community are helpful for the family of the migrant is understood through available literature. This chapter reflects the fifth chapter from the available literary evidence.

1. Emigration

Once upon a time, migration was the stepchild of demographic studies, but now it is a significant study. Later, socialists and psychologists have started studying the course as a subject. Emigration and immigration studies were prominent because of WW I and WW II, destined to emigrate more persons to other states and countries. But in India, emigration studies developed because of push-pull factors affected by different contexts.

Emigration is the expansion or integration of the world economy (Jaiswal 2014). In part, globalisation is the cause of emigration for employment. It is also called forced labour moving from one county to another country or one place to another (Ahmad and Khan 2011). Migration is generally from north to south which is called developing to developed economies. It is confined and recorded by many works as northern parts of the country as developed to attract migrants, and the southern part of the country is developing so out that migrants are moving away (Skeldon 2008). In the global impression, the poorer countries are developing called south and developed countries as north (Skeldon 2009). So transnational migration is called emigration.

Migration is a distressed peasant decision, and it was just because of the absence of the rebellion peasants in ancient India. It is the suppressive authority of the state or suppressed by feudalism or natural calamities of nature. It is also defined as the peasants' first answer to famine (Lal n.d.a). Guilmoto (1998) described migration as a broader concept, and it cannot happen in one step. It takes place in stages such as shifting residence from short-term to long-term. One reason is migration like refugees, marriage, and socioeconomic and political factors. Rele (2002) defines migration is as the consequence of socioeconomic factors. It is the process of change in the social system. Keshri and Bhagat (2012) say during colonisation as slaves, and in the 19th and 20th centuries, globalisation made shifts in the population's movement because of industrialisation. Bhagat (2017) defines it as a change of residence from the usual place for six months or more.

And emigration is defined as the associational study of social and socio-psychological approaches with physical and biological nature. These are structurally and functionally connected (Anwar-ul-Haq 1974). It includes the destination and origin country. The movement from the non-developing countries to developed countries. The

existence between the more affluent and more impoverished countries (Skeldon 2009). The developed countries have opportunities for unskilled labour. The approaches give different opinions about emigration as per their view of understanding. We cannot always assume emigration to be a positive approach because it may favour some regions.

The concept of emigration and evaluation is discussed by different authors as given here. De Haas (2010) says the development of migration studies was like a pendulum. It started in the 1950s and 1960s with an optimistic approach. Later, the neo-Marxist ideology of pessimism during the 1970s to 1980s brings back. The transnational studies and livelihood approaches keep migration studies in development studies. The economic study approach has to study migration as a conceptual framework and integrate it with other studies. The social theory, structuralism and functionalism paradigms, pessimist, optimist paradigms, and development theory contain balanced and asymmetric paradigms. Neo-classical theorists say migration is a positive perspective; they send remittances to the origin place. Neo-classical migration theory talks about post-move satisfaction, employee satisfaction, living environment satisfaction rather than generalised utility maximisation strategy.

The structural paradigm says migration is the flight from misery. The capitalist society encourages migration inflow, but it never structurally resolved the origin area issue. During the 1950s and 1960s, the dominant theory also says that migration is suitable for non-migrants because migrants bring money, knowledge, ideas, and attitudes. Many countries are pessimistic about sending low-skilled employees to developed countries because it is brain drain activity. Cumulative causation theory says that it is the negative approach perspective, i.e. notable welfare inequalities and capitalistic development because the developed countries are using cheap labour and depending on core countries that exploit their material, capital, and human resource (*ibid*).

The pull factor of emigration is easy to access to move away and network development. Good salaries or the value of money is better than in India. The reasons for emigration are unemployment in the rural region, agriculture stagnation, failure of the state-level institutions. The less educated, semi-skilled, unskilled became unemployed. That is the reason they prefer to go for gulf migration. In addition, the family, friends,

community members, relatives, and return emigrants were supporting as network agents. They are also builders of confidence (Naik 2019). The other reason for emigration is that they could not get alternate employment during the lagoon. The banks also could not provide the source of income in need, so emigration was raised among the villagers. The skills to work in other activities also lacked them (fishers at the lagoon, chilika, Orissa) (Robson and Nayak 2010). The adoption of emigration from climate change has been the strategy. It is an outcome of the failure in the environment (Upadhyay and Mohan 2014).

Sociologists say that the individual's attitudes and characters decide to emigrate (Dalen and Henkens 2013). The migration motive is materialistic such as self-interest and doing something different (Bilan n.d.). That is why the villages near metropolitan cities have more influence than others and have emigrated more. The socioeconomic and demographic characteristics affected them (Cooray and Schneider 2016).

New Economics of Labour Migration (NELM) has responded to neoclassical migration theory. This theory focused on households as a unit of analysis. The family comprises people with income expectations and minimises the risk. It says that the migration decision is not individual but a household decision. So the family helps in risk aversion and encourages economic development. Micro research of the sociologists, anthropologists, and geographers says that poor society in the neo-Marxist society did not fit into the back but tried to overcome poverty and develop (De Haas 2010). That is why they decided on migration, based on socio-ecological conditions of the environment. The complexes in biophysical activities lead to water depletion and soil exploitation and affect the harvest of the crop (Thober, Schwarz and Hermans 2018). The decision is individually made, but the other family members take the final decision (Bilan n.d.).

Harris and Todaro (1970) say emigration is the labour export in the migrant region. The rural background people are not surplus with the employment in the agriculture sector which is the cause of low wage employment. And in another way, the migrant region also becomes unemployed when there are shadow prices, which does not reduce unemployment. He also says that when agricultural goods exported from the rural territory and manufactured goods from the urban region are equal, migration may not require. Equilibrating wages in migrant areas and origin places are also reduced migration.

Waddington and Sabates-Wheeler (2003) say emigration is central for well-being strategy though some see it negatively. It is a livelihood strategy to improve the socio, economic, political, and physical activity and escape poverty and vulnerability. The accumulation of adverse effects, poor livelihoods, and food insecurity lead to emigration. The economic activities are affected, and other things get affected, such as Nath (1986) says the aspirations and attitudes have to change when an individual emigrates. The culture and traditions are attributed to adjust accordingly for employment and opportunity at destination area. For instance, the Sikhs migrated from India to England. They went against their rule and removed beards and moustaches to attract ladies from London. They had to learn English and change their food habits accordingly, which was traditionally unacceptable. In addition, Mosse, Gupta and Shah (2005) also say culture also makes a more important factor here. They say emigration does not go with tradition but goes with modernity.

That is why emigration is an essential step. Once mobility is removed from the home region, the situations and conditions move out of hand. The external forces work on the person as a migrant and family. Vergalli and Moretto (2008) also conceptualise emigration as a critical issue that depends on socioeconomic factors and ethnic and individual behaviour. It also depends on economic or wage differences between destination and origin areas. The flow of emigration also decides wage equality.

In addition, Rao (1973) concludes by Stouffer explained the theory of migration opportunities, and it is directly proportional to the distance of the destination and home region. The proportion of in-migrants determines the opportunities. The place of migration has more flow from one part based on possibilities. In support, Vergalli and Moretto (2008) say that migrants try to move in a lump of a wave to benefit and move back to the home region immediately when he crosses the verge.

Throughout the discussion of emigration, the success of emigration is concerned. Because any activity needs to be successful, it is called the correct step in lifestyle. Emigration, after making decisions and looking for communication, who benefits and why? If some people benefitted, why did some other people not benefit? It is an important concept. Waddington and Sabates-Wheeler (2003) find wealthier families more benefitted

by emigration and poor people emigrate more but not benefitted. The income and wealth of the family determined factors to understand the impact of emigration. Rich people emigrate for improvement of their economic status. Skeldon (2008) also reiterates the same concept: rich people go for more extended and long-distance migration, but poor people prefer short distance migrations and less time. He says education is a direct proportion of migration.

That is why the decision is made to emigrate, which is crucial in the emigrant lifestyle. Anwar-ul-Haq (1974) says that decision-making depends on social and socio-psychological factors. As individuals and collectively considering the local community level opportunities for employment and income. The stress, deprivation level at community, specific constraints, and motivations, aspirations of psychology or by inspired by others, attitudes adopted by society or individual are forces to emigrate from origin to destination. Akanle (2012) also says that migration decisions took at the household and community levels.

Not only decision making but also communication and transport systems are essential for fruitful emigration in the home region. For instance, Yang (1979) conducted a study in the Saran district of WB. Rao (1973) also says that communication as mass media and other information enforces migration. In developed countries, communication is playing a role adequately, but in developing countries, it is inverted. Lack of transport and illiteracy are other factors that influence emigration in India. They can easily migrate to international regions because of the excellent transport system such as railway and roadway systems.

The enforcement of liberalisation and privatisation causes agriculture decrement and ecology changes. The socioeconomic life of the local people was affected. The ultimate decision was to migrate to increase their social status. Spain and Italy had the requirement of cheap unskilled labour with restrictive policies that were the main attraction for migration to Europe. The economic, socio and capital resources are forced to emigrate (Baizavicton and Gonzalez-Ferrer 2016). In India's case, job opportunities in agriculture were the driving force of migration from a rural region. From 1995 to 2009 duration 24000 farmers attempted suicide in the country (Gautham 2012).

And rural agriculture stagnated, which is why jobs were not created (Hazra 2012). The share of agriculture in GDP has come down to 14 per cent in 50 years of duration, and 66.2 per cent of males and 81.9 per cent of females engaged in agriculture as cultivators and agriculture labourers (Gautham 2012). Landless and marginal labourers of agriculture were under continuous debt due to the loss of crops. The lean and dry season of agriculture was the cause of distressed agriculture and traditionally kept cottages, and the agriculture industry could not absorb more labourers (Akthar and Azeez 2012).

Caste, class, and religion are also very important in emigration. For instance, this kind of emigration is expected in South Asia as the low caste people prefer short-term emigration. They leave agriculture and emigrate. Emigration brings a change in society with socio and economic development. For instance, in Europe and England, the pattern of development was seen (Biao 2004). Because the remittances make changes in social life as given below.

When it comes to remittances, migrants' remittances are assets. The country receives and sends the assets. That is how migrants play a significant role in socioeconomic and cultural change in society. The family, friends, and community respect the emigrants and treat them as heroes. Besides, 10 billion dollars per annum were remitted from gulf countries to India, which was 50–60 per cent of the remittances of the migrants (Ahmad and Khan 2011).

In the starting stage of emigration, the remittances were at the macro level considered as a source of currency and at the micro and meso level considered economic increment (De Haas 2010). The distribution of remittances to the urban and rural parts of the origin country varies. Within rural areas also varied with remittances, and different for rich and the poor people in the society. The remittances make a change in the economic life of the emigrant.

For instance, Ortmeyer and Quinn (2012), the duration of the stay depends on the debts and repayment forms. The deficits affect directly and indirectly the emigrant. Langridge, Franks and Franks (2008) say that experience of the individual emigrant modifies the behaviour with remittances. The changed behaviour contributes to the performance. And Brown *et al.* (2014) iterate the remittances affect poverty, development,

and inequality. The remittances are not pooled in the household for some duration of time.

Emigration brought a change in the economic life of the countries in the world. For instance, Nigeria from West Africa got attracted to employment, and millions of Africans also immigrated to other countries. Because the environmental changes like floods, droughts brought many more hindrances in the environment and led to society's disruption (Runde, Bandura and Hammond 2018). And also can move for development. It indicates migration is the development of economic activity (Rele 2002). That is why Faist (2008) says emigrants are called development agents.

In conclusion, the definition of emigration is vast as we cannot estimate it in one word. The definitions based on the third chapter provided factors such as LPG, ERs, environmental changes and industrialisation. It is an extensive study to understand the individual personal, social, economic, and psychological issues—the forces in the local area also significant causes for migration. Internationally the movements were widespread from European and African countries to developed countries. Within European countries also very frequent. Studying in India emigration is crucial. Because India is a traditional country and people follow customs and traditions, hindrances to move out of the origin area. The love and affection towards the origin area are immense. That makes it different from other countries.

2. Emigration in India

The emigration in India varies from region to region in all parts of the country. This thesis is not concerned mainly about the emigration of agriculturists but women's status in Telangana state after their emigration.

Emigration is not accepted as per Ancient Hindu Shastras and Quran also. Muslims can move for education and trade to another place in India. Still, emigration occurs just because the country cannot provide them with sufficient employment and opportunities. But the country is never incapable of providing assets (Ahmad and Khan 2011). Razi (2014) also says the government failed to provide sustainable facilities to the rural people. As per the author's view, the cause for emigration is not a pull factor but a push factor. Because of unsuitable environmental conditions in the rural region and employment

scarcity. The Sahiwal district people emigrated because of the low agriculture productivity only. Hasan and Raza (2009) say the emigrants were only from heavy rainfall areas or arid areas. Habib (2000) tells the deteriorated economic conditions because of the British Empire, peasants' debts and the power of zamindars or landlords increased the interest rates for tenants and emigrants. Rele (2002) finds that during 1931–41 there was no emigration in India, but after independence from 1951 to 61 onwards, emigration increased.

Developing countries like India face globalisation, technology, environmental, and changing demographics. The new technological inventions make a difference with increased jobs and dispersion in other countries. They act as the drive of development (Runde, Bandura and Hammond 2018). Gill (2012) finds that after the partition of India, Punjab went into so many changes politically, economically, and in agricultural activities. That is why they prefer transnational migrations to escape poverty or lack of employment. During the partition, migration was opportunistic activity, but now it is a regular activity for a family. Sekhar (1997) says that unskilled and uneducated, underemployed Kadappuram and Valavannur immigrated to gulf countries.

Because the increased temperature affects agriculture directly and leads to employment troubles in developing countries' rural regions, the economic differences and poverty to escape the people choose to migrate to an urban part or other countries. It makes the structural differences in the rural background. In 116 countries studied the effect of temperature and emigration with changes in agriculture conditions. The developing countries were affected lesser than the undeveloped countries. The temperature itself also impacts the frequency of emigration. It makes a difference in agriculture at the rural level. Because, the dependents on agriculture were more in emerging countries. The changes influence productivity in temperature because the share of the larger GDP of the country was from agriculture only (Cattaneo and Peri 2015).

The changes in the environment, temperature, and other social causes lead to emigration. But before that, in India, emigration started with contract or indentured labour. The indenture of the Indians was there in the starting period of emigration. From August 1984 to the end of 1985, 14 ships of Indian labour were sent to Mauritius. They sent on indenture, signed by the Vice-President in Council of the Government of Bengal approval.

South India was well known for emigration. From AP, Vizagapatnam and Godavari districts emigrated. Malayalis were from Malabar Coast, and Tamils from Tanjore and Coimbatore were sent. They recruited from North Arcot (Lal n.d.b). From UP, the female emigrants demanded work in various countries in industries from 1881 onwards. The caste system uprooted, and the people were migrating to other districts because of the damaged village economic system. At that time government of India initiated and insisted on migration to other countries except for Mauritius. The emigration took place from both genders (Lal n.d.a). North India from UP was high in indenture migration (Kumar 2016).

Indenture migration is also called slave labour supply. The indenture system of getting a signed agreement is known as girmitiya. It is signed jointly for labour. The deal was made for five years of labour in sugar gardens etc. the girmitiya was in Urdu, Kannada, Malayalam, Hindi, and Tamil vernacular languages (Kumar 2016). It started during British Empire in 1833 in Malaysia. The slaves from other countries left the work and did not want to return to old jobs. That is why the labour shortage was there. So they were indentured from India. Earlier, they took Chinese labour, but the Chinese rebelled against employers to become petty shop owners. And Indian government itself signed to send the labour, so it was easy for them to take it. But later, the violence of indenture took place (Lal n.d).

Not only the Chinese, but Indians faced various other problems. For instance, Singapore hired or indentured Tamils on a contract basis for two years to work in dirty, complicated, and dangerous areas. They were paid irregularly and changed their salaries based on employers' wishes (Hamid 2015). Then the government of India cautioned to the secretary for the State of India. The GoI abolished the indenture system of colonies in 1917. In the second half of the 19th century, UP had emigration because of the colonial rules, indebtedness, and deterioration of the economic condition by the 1857 mutiny. The tea plantation at Assam, Calcutta jute mills, and Bihar, the labour recruited working population, came from the united provinces (Lal n.d). The emigration in the north part of India was from Bhojpuri, and they worked on the plantation. Later, they immigrated to Burma as indentured labour (Jaiswal 2014). It indicates that there was internal migration in the country before indenture migration. That is why the study of internal migration and later the emigration in the second chapter.

As per Jha, indenture migration started in 1859 and stopped in 1911. From 1868 to 1871, the economic crisis was there, so emigration was blocked (Jha 2009–2010). The employers in Fiji rejected the indentured migrants during the famine and scarcity of employment (Shlomowitz and Brennan n.d.).

Free migration started at the end of the 1920s (Stanziani n.d). The development of free migration in India began after independence. Before that, also there was migration but refugee migrations and colonial slavery. Britishers have dragged the people and used them in different fields to work for Britain government. During the partition of India, people shifted to their likely places that were not considered migration but called settlements and shifting. But Jaiswal (2014) says the emigration in India, Asia, and Europe also took place during the colonial periods only.

After indenture migration, the emigration to Gulf countries started from India in the 1970s and 1980s. In the mid of the 19th century, the emigrants went to UAE, Kuwait, Saudi Arabia, Kuwait, Qatar, Oman, and Bahrain. 2/3rd of the Indian emigrants were mainly in six Gulf Arab countries: Bahrain, Kuwait, Oman, UAE, Qatar, and Saudi Arabia. India was the largest country to send emigrants to the Arab countries from Asia to the Gulf countries as the labour force. TN, Kerala, Karnataka, AP, Goa, UP, Maharashtra, Punjab, Gujarat, and Bihar were sent. Because the Gulf countries were employed free of taxes, GCC was called an unofficial ambassador of India. From India, more than a million people immigrated to gulf countries. The main reason behind the emigration to gulf countries economic conditions, poverty, and empowerment. Gulf countries were rich in crude oil and gases. They have 63 per cent of world reserves of oil and 34 per cent of the world's gases. The first emigration trend to the gulf was after 1973 from India as the oil prices surged. The emigrants were skilled, semi-skilled, and manual workers. They were from poor and rural people. They were also young, and adults in age take the primary responsibility of the family (Ahmad and Khan 2011).

Emigration in India, which is unskilled, means they were constantly reminded of contract-based migrants for economic purposes. It is called the indenture migration earlier, but later free migration. During the colonial period itself, there was indentured migration, and later part, after independence, the migrants with their interest decided to immigrate to

gulf countries. The migration in India made us understand the causes for migration concerning agriculture and effecting factors, and how it affects. The migration varies from place to place, and reasons also vary, and it also helped us understand the various classes' people are choosing migration for different reasons. It is sometimes sudden or psychological changes, or sometimes various other environmental changes are forcing. The group of migrations from one region also took place. It indicates the consequences in the particular region forced to migrate.

3. Types of Emigration

There are various types of migrations in the universe for multiple reasons, such as transnational migrations caused due to consequences of wars and environmental changes. An Indian study of migration's initial reasons could differ but later change according to society's environment and economic changes. The term international and internal migration is concerned with country boundaries. If the migration is within the country's boundary, it is called internal migration. Suppose that is out of the country boundary called international migration.

Throughout the world, migration is common either for survival or for development, education, or employment. The causes for migration theoretically have two factors: push and pull factors. Among them included many reasons driving forces caused to move away from the origin area to destination area are called push and pull factors. There are cross country migrations and within-country migrations. De Haas (2005) says worldwide, and there was immigration and emigration. It is also called international migration. These types of migrations started due to globalisation and decolonisation.

International migrations were not separated based on the type of migration as they are emigration and immigration. The present thesis concerns agri-labour migrations to other countries, called emigration. They studied by Nath (1986), Lindstrom and Saucedo (2007), Skeldon (2009), Lee (2010), Radel, Schmook and McCandless (2010), Cerruti and Gaudio (2010), Upadhyaya and Rutten (2012), Akanle (2012), Bell *et al.* (2015) and Kaur (2015).

When we see the environmental conditions, for instance, in Africa, 0.5°C of

temperature increased for 50 years, and droughts had to occur. Unpredictable rains and pastures ruined. The crops and cattle had to get affected by climate change. The erratic rains lead to floods and dry soils and finally desertification. And livelihood and food security got affected. East Africa and West Africa lies under the Sahara desert and Sahel. The international wars took place for the environmental changes and died several millions of people in the struggle war of climate change. Then the migration occurred, which is called adaptive emigration (Von Soest 2020). Above all indicates the type of emigrations is changing as given in chapter two. The purpose and destinations, distance, and time decide the kind of emigration. A clear definition and details of emigration gave in chapter two. The impact of emigration on agriculture was studied to understand the maximum effect on agricultural women.

4. Impact of Emigration on Agriculture

The changes in agriculture after the emigration are studied here in this portion of understanding. The academic support from various articles and journals on how emigration is impacting agriculture can see. Emigration can positively or negatively impact agriculture because the remittances from the destination area are essential in reaching the person. The ways of using the amount for the development of the home region also play an indispensable role. The study conducted in California indicated the importance of agriculture for the survival of human beings.

Fite (1999) has conducted a historical study of agriculture in part of economic history in California. He states that during 1848–49, the farmers left agriculture and went for gold and silver mines. Still, immediately they lost their cattle without food, and malnutrition entered the region because of lack of food. People were died due to a lack of food. Then they have started agriculture production, which was very beneficial, but suddenly land was barren. And production was reduced, but the European cultivation method of vegetables, fruits, and food was encouraged and succeeded in production. Diversified and intensive agriculture developed. In 1997, that single country earned through agriculture was 253 million dollars. It indicates the importance of agriculture in the universe. Though the country is financially wealthier, if agriculture loses its roots, the survival disappears.

That is why agriculture is essential, but how emigration impacts agriculture is

concerned here. The changes in the environment, such as low rainfall, hurricanes, droughts causing crop loss. The crop losses are leading to the emigration of men. The emigration impacted on origin areas. The labour loss and agricultural changes took place. The destination areas also faced labour issues (Radel, Schmook and McCandless 2010). Hazra (2012) says unemployment, underemployment, and poverty slowed agriculture. And family influences factors for out-migration and Hazra (2010) states that migration, poverty are reduced in the rural region. Narain (2012) tells the migrants from Bihar to WB, Maharashtra, Orissa, and other states were sending their amount to construct the household but not for agriculture and agriculture-related activities. So the remittances for agriculture were very crucial to understand through study.

In Biblicay migrants have not used their remittances on land cultivation as non-migrants. In upper Canar, Chiguin migrant invested their remittances on chemical sprays more than non-migrants. In lower Canar, Biblicay migrants did not spend on chemical sprays or land irrigation facilities (Jokisch 2002). But income and migration were in proportion as the remittances increase after the person's emigration, migration flow increases (Rhoda 1983). Remittances were very low among the poor migrants, and very few changes have made after their family's migration (Sundari 2005).

There is a positive impact of emigration on agriculture found. As per Turkhadde (2012), remittances of emigrants increase the income and consumption of the family; thus, agriculture develops with increased incentives and productivity increases. Hence the diversity of agriculture in the rural regions may take place. Emigration remittances fasten the agriculture of households. Sometimes the remittances may not act positively in the rural areas. The increased remittances do not make sense when they invest in non-form activities, housing construction, education, or health. Emigrants also drain the knowledge for the betterment of the locals by participation and discussion.

The emigrants make remittances to the members of their families. The findings on the effects of emigration on rural employment, agricultural production, and rural development strongly diverge. A second view considers that emigration can positively impact local, regional, and national development. Supporters of this view believe emigration to be a household strategy in which economic and social links between the

emigrant and their household were maintained. This view emphasises the benefits of transferring resources to rural areas, such as financial or in-kind remittances, and the generation and transmission of new skills and innovative ideas. Individual and collective remittances contribute to the subsistence and well-being of rural families. Investment of migrant's income in farm and nonfarm activities and even increased consumption may also create employment opportunities directly and indirectly (*ibid*).

The impact of emigration in agriculture is based on the studies varies according to needs and place to place. In India, people are mainly concerned with agriculture backup, but sometimes conditions are different. The following information on women employment after the emigration of husbands helps to understand their position.

5. Impact of Emigration on Women Employment

The study of India's emigration has been circular or repeated because India is dependent on agriculture because agriculture employment is seasonal. When there was no season, food scarcity and employment played a significant role. That is why the development is secondary for cultivators in India. The various class people prefer to emigrate for different reasons. But cultivators migrate for minimum needs. That is why agriculture is mainly needed to understand the basic concept of emigration in cultivators.

The studies also support the concept that agriculture work is a seasonal profession, and it has certain restrictions and cannot absorb more labour. The opportunities were shrinking in agriculture, so it was the driving force of emigration (Sundari 2005). Women contribution to agriculture increased, but the wages decreased because of marginalisation. Women work is underestimated because of faulty definitions. The feminisation of agriculture occurred in India and throughout Asian countries and developing countries. It was because of the emigration of men to industry for high wages from low wages of agriculture (Vepa 2005).

As per definitions, a worker is a person working or taking participation in physical or mental activity, which is economically productive (Narayana 1990). The women participate in agriculture and household activities that support the family after and before the husband's emigration but are not considered worthy. For instance, Ilakia men were

dislocated or emigrated for two-year contracts for unskilled wage employment. The shift of the married men from the village made heavily laden on married women because of forest and gross lands cultivation. They need to spend three to four days a week in cultivated land without returning home. At that time, women need outside male support for the stay. It was challenging for female-headed families in the village, but they performed all activities (Boyd 1981).

Agadjanian, Yabiku and Cau (2011) say the household status defines the success rate of the emigrants remained at home. In support of Anwar-ul-Huq and Anwar-ul-Huq (1979) say emigration impacts people's demographic, economic, and social life. But the emigration created urbanisation, unemployment issues, and overcrowding. And also has a positive effect on emigrant and non-migrant society. After evaluating these studies, many cultures and network issues were there. Vepa (2005), in his research, also finds that when husbands migrated, women were bound to work in household agriculture and turned to the cultivator.

In addition, Jokisch (2002) finds through an empirical study in Ecuador that men's emigration is higher than women's migration. The empirical research finds the difference between migrant and non-migrant in agriculture. The slight difference in buying lands increased in migrants but not in non-migrants. He found that women also had the right to own property. But they cannot take all decisions regarding agriculture until the husband or head of the family takes hold of them. He says no change in agriculture after the migration of the villagers to another place. The labour shortage and down production in agriculture was not found in migrant families because non-migrant families were doing equal production. It indicates that women did agriculture like before when their husbands were at home.

But in contrast, Radel, Schmook and McCandless (2010) say the emigration of men in Yucatan, the USA, increased the women's household labour and in agriculture. The takeover of agriculture increased, and women turned to cultivators. Legal rights on land shifted to women and decision making regarding land and agricultural activities taken by women.

Gray (2009) finds internal migration brought many more changes in women's agriculture. Bean diversity of production increased, cultivation of land increased. The land

in output raised with the use of pesticides after migration. The reciprocal labour decreased, and hired labour increased. It indicates the impact of migration varies from place to place.

During the 1991–2001 decade, the marginalisation of the workforce started. Then males shifted the low wage employment to women. So men migrated for high wage employment. If that is a high productivity region that was paying good wages, women were displaced by males where mechanisation occupied most of the work. From 1991 to 2001, women increased agricultural employment and replaced primary male workers, but they did not recognise as direct workers. Females forcefully entered into the household enterprise of agriculture when the husband migrated, but they did not identify as main cultivators. Women also carry out non-crop activities like fisheries, storage, forestry, livestock, and processing. They work more hours than men. In Gujarat and TN, unpaid work was lower than in other states (Vepa 2005). After seeing women's employment issues, we can find that their efforts were not identified. They also go through different issues like health, decision-making, and identity.

For example, migration brought psychological changes such as in Mozambique. The wives were more interested in having children than non-migrants and less successful. But the using of contraceptives more among the more successful migrants. They want to drag the husband's interest towards home and reduce dependency on others. That is why women want to have more children (Agadjanian, Yabiku and Cau 2011). To this added the following NSSO reports information as given below.

When we see the other ways through emigration, brain drain does not impact the rural region as given in the previous paragraph because the intelligent people remained in the urban area and emigrated, so the difference does not make sense in the rural part. For example, students immigrated to the USA in 1950, some members came back, but some remained there only (Skeldon 2008). And also another case, this immigration of unskilled is not a brain drain because the low education migration is income-based emigration. For instance, the remittances used to achieve their household needs and remittances from the USA used in agriculture productivity (Ortmeyer and Quinn 2012).

Labour Force Participation Rate (LFPR) or Work Force Participation Rate (WFPR)

declined during 2009–10 (15 and above aged taking part in employment). The rural male and female employment status increased in 1999–2000 decade than 2009–2010. 1980s women employment was decline because adult women were going to school. Rural women employment also slowed down because of self-employment. The latter half of the 2000 decade has shown the decrease per cent of women than men because the number of women schooling rate was higher than men. In addition, Mehrotra *et al.* (2014) say women increased as casual workers and self-employed from other employment. Agriculture also suddenly developed into 259 million in 2004–05 from 238 million employees in 1999–2000. The shift was not because of agriculture but the development in allied activities. The structural transformation has taken to a fishery, poultry, horticulture, sericulture, floriculture and dairy. In the next half of the decade, employment decreased to 245 million from 259 million. Next decade, the development of employment in agriculture through allied activities was reduced because women took care of animal farming and horticulture. When men migrate for formal employment to urban regions, women have to burden this employment in rural and household labour.

Sharma (1982) also conducted a study in Punjab state that was prosperous in agriculture, and HP is low profitable in agriculture. The comparison of the women status in two states to understand the role in Indian society. In both states, the males occupied land property, and a final decision was made by them only. The participation of women outside the household activities was significantly less. However, they participate in harvesting, weeding, making a decision regarding the irrigation to the field pumps and watering, and the change of crops. They also perform cattle herding, providing water inside the house, but they cannot come out according to culture and tradition. In HP, women could freely move because their husbands migrated to the army and other economic activities. Women carry out all agriculture, household, and children nurturing activities. But they have to depend on males for financial actions and final decisions. The standard of living was significantly heavier, and the labour burden was more because of a lack of money. In both areas, women carried out main activities and headship was given to women. But the economic actions were taken care of by male dominance only. The study reveals that decision making among the kin and outside household activities is essential.

Through emigration, the social life of people changes in emigrants and their families. The joint family system breaks down into nuclear. For instance, Delhi occupied 75 per cent of nuclear families. Whereas in Calcutta of Bengal, the western mode was institutionalised. They have an economy based, class-based, employment-based, and region-wise different groups of people. The regional and social ties of the family system vanished (Piplai and Majundar 1969). The fieldwork was carried in Karakoram hills, where the natural hazards were tough to survive. Yasin and Hunza valleys studied in part of the work. The migration of men in the region was 99 per cent which was more than women. The migration of the men was temporary and cyclical, which was seasonal. When men migrated for employment to other areas, the workforce of the men shifted to women. And they had to carry both the works where they ascribed for household works and child nurturing. The social and economic status of the family has changed. They follow agriculture and pastoral work. A female held the financial holding of the family in major. The family workload increased, and they had to carry all the agricultural work. They accommodate male jobs also. Women did winnowing, threshing, weeding, and harvesting. After coming home, also men do not work, and women only carry out the work. If extra work was accommodated women take their children in company. But they prefer to take daughters more than sons. That is why most of the daughters dropped out of school to support their mother (Gioli *et al.* 2014).

The study was conducted all over India by the NSSO and National Family Health Survey (NFHS) data. Women empowerment and migration was a factor to understand. The parameters used were age gap, education difference between husband and wife, and decision making at household level and comparable level—the decision to purchase things, visiting friends and relatives, and the decision to migrate. The age gap between the couple was moderate to low, and the education difference was more. In Kerala, AP, Karnataka, and Maharashtra, women empowered than in other states. In TN, Women were empowered but moderate in education. In Gujarat, Rajasthan, Orissa were average in the empowerment of women. UP, MP, Jharkhand, and Bihar were low in empowerment and moderate education (Mohapatra 2013).

Sen (2004) also finds that women and children remain at home by taking care of

household and agriculture activities. They have a timeless past in history, called proletariat wives but not having headship of the family. Though the husband stays at other places, he only carries the headship of the family. All decisions lie with him regarding family or household. Men migrated for livelihood sources of the family, but females were not encouraged because they underestimated and called for reproduction activities. They were always exploited.

In Armenia, migration caused by Sexual Transmitted Diseases (STD) was prevalent. The migrant wives were prone to have STD health issues because of migrant husbands. The transmission of the disease was higher in high earning migrants' wives. The wives were not questioned because they were economically dependent on the husband. Lower income-earning migrants have common disease symptoms (Sevoyan and Agadjanian 2010).

The understanding of women in agriculture after the emigration is very critical. Generally, women in India were underestimated. Their work was not recognised as part of the economic activity. But after the husband's emigration, family holding capability has to improve by women suddenly. The changes in the family lead to so many communication issues and lead to going out in the community and having a communal talk and social issues. Psychologically she has to get adjusted. The kinship or community or relative's reaction to the family is fundamental because a single lady handling family without a husband is a big task in daily life. For instance, after the husband's emigration, women must depend on another male person to carry out the agricultural activity. But they get problems after the migrant husband comes home (Mosse, Gupta and Shah 2005).

6. Network and Kinship

The family is bound to have responsibilities and regulations to follow in the Indian nature of the household. Children are taught good deeds and evil deeds from childhood, which we should do and should not do. Thus the member of the family has their activities in the family. As the person enters into the family as a child, the responsibilities towards the baby grow in the family, and new activities start to develop by the total household. The whole idea is to understand when a person moves away from family for employment or a better lifestyle out of their home place. The person left by the family has to fill by someone, or the

total family has to get adjusted by the new environment.

In that situation, new kins may add friends or community members at household to carry out their activities as expected. Men, in general, do the agriculture work, but the men emigration impacts the total family. So then, how do women carry out all activities without a male person at home? How she communicates with others and how they respond to finishing her works is essential—the knowledge and experience of work carrying in agriculture and household activities. The responsibility of women suddenly increases with a load of work. Same time women had to decide the situation was whatever it could be before the husband's emigration.

The network and kinship system makes the migration more straightforward at the destination and origin areas. The ties at origin, kinship and friends are crucial for safe emigration (De Jong, Chamrathirong and Tran 2002) at source and destination. Kinship is fundamental in understanding the family's relationship in taking responsibility (Rammohan and Robrtson 2012). So we can conclude with the following definitions of kinship and network.

The kinship networks play a role in circling the migration (Gill 2012). And it also gets affected by circumstances and adopts changes. The web is vital in both places at home and destination areas. The community or nearest people network reduces the risk of psychological, economic, and social issues. They can occupy excellent employment and get adjusted by an already settled person in a migration ~~area~~. In the same way, the network in the home region is also significant to fill the gap of migrated person.

The emigrant family maintains the relationship with villagers and other kin after the emigration of the family member to fulfil the human resources. The changes in the community with the inclusion of membership changed. Because the emigration being in the primary stage could be cyclical or regular, but later, it becomes a standard process. In the north part of Africa, the latter part of the emigration changed from livelihood to a general issue (Guilmoto 1998). So the community members help was vital.

Sevoyan and Agadjanian (2010) find that the kins aware presence of STD disease awareness among the emigrants and disease transmitted in Armenia. Still, kins were

helping. It indicates how kinship helps or impacts migration, whether it positively or negatively impacts migration and essential for the family. Still, in reality, it is satisfying for family welfare.

Banerjee (1983) finds that networks role in migration procedure. He discovered that co-villagers, relatives, and kins played a role in a network system. Most of migrants were approaching kins such as father, brother and son. Co-villagers were not helping much because of caste constraints in the village. The other community members do not even seek help from co-villagers: relatives, blood relatives, agnates and consanguinity. Female support husband side relatives but not mother side relatives in the same way men support their parents' side relatives but not wife side relatives.

The mobility of the emigrant and kinship ties studied in the Mysore state. The kinship ties have changed after entering Kolar Gold Fields (KGF). The near and close kins are also connected with emigrants and migrant families—the economic and future emigration support. The emigrants also keep their immovable properties like land houses with kins to take care of at home region. The sons and daughters have not stayed with migrant families at Kolar fields. That is why caretaking and writing letters from illiterate parents are made to keep the near kins in contact with migrants. The family system breaks into nuclear families, or sometimes the joint families are formed at KGF with parents and unmarried siblings. The kinship ties were all dependent on the economic support of the migrant as per understanding (Ramu 1972).

The dependence of kinship on emigrants was high in Nigeria. The name and fame of the family increase with the migrant member of the family and expectations also. The migrant has responsibilities towards the kins and other relatives as per their traditional thinking (Akanle 2012). The empirical study in Thailand reveals that expectations, the family's income, and the dependency of household members were the main requirement for the emigration of men and women. Women migration gets decreased by the family dependency increases at origin place. But men out-migration increases as family burden increases. The financial requirement of the family plays a significant role in the migration of men or women. Affiliation networks and support from friends and relatives were crucial for women, but men were less effective. The cultural constraints give equal importance to

both the gender and responsibility of the family burden (De Jong 2000). The kinship varied from place to place. The kinship was not always supportive to the migrant family, but the community was also helping the migrant family.

The instrumentalised kinship is flexible and dynamic. Its boundaries are changeable; they are not exclusively determined by biological relations, as they are based on fictive affiliation. This fact facilitates the adaptability of the kinship to changing circumstances and increases its efficiency as an exchange system. The partners in the kinship exchange system are not a homogeneous group confined to traditional segments. They are, instead, a heterogeneous group with different levels of individual modernisation. Hence, individual modernisation does not differentiate between kinship oriented and non-kinship oriented types (Al-Haj 1995).

Chapter four of the thesis indicates the women status in the agriculture area is changing after the husband emigration to some other place. The social, physical, psychological, and political needs increased, and decision-making also. Sometimes has to be the family's guardianship without values and extra responsibilities. But her state of condition psychologically improves, but sometimes they are attacked by STD and psychological diseases. When the husband is out, kinship plays a role in the migrants' family. The relatives and community are majorly taking part in the women lifestyle.

It is varied in international countries and our nation regarding emigration status. Our nation's emigration is majorly caused by environmental changes causing the loss of agriculture and emigration. The remittances, used in agriculture, and whether agriculture improved after the person's emigration are given here. In this chapter, emigration affects women economically. It changes her psychological status within the family and outside the family. In agriculture, the women are encouraged to take over the responsibilities in the family holding but not given any property share or headship status. Sometimes decision making is issued, but crucial steps are to be taken by the family or emigrant husband. Kinship studies are unclear concerning migration studies, but the community plays a supporting role when the husband is out of the family. The next chapter discusses the primary data collection from Telangana state. The study examines the *impact of the emigration of men on agriculture and women employment and empirical analysis*.

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Chapter 5

Impact of Emigration of Men on Agriculture and Women Employment and Empirical Analysis

This chapter discusses the fieldwork analysis of the agricultural women after the husbands' emigration in Telangana state. It also discusses the causes of emigration, challenges, and consequences of emigration on women to uphold family responsibilities. As per anthropology, the nuclear family is formed with a wife, husband, and children. It also explains that every human being in the family has a responsibility. When one member steps in, such as the birth of a new baby, it brings additional responsibilities.

In the same way, one family member is left, the responsibilities are shifted to other persons or require an extra person to fulfil them. Or else the direction to be diverse. When the husband moves out, the husband's responsibility is fulfilled by any person in the family. That is taken mainly by the married women, wives in nuclear families. But still, women are not considered worthy to, equal to men. They are consistently underestimated by society and within the family. The field has been conducted in three districts of Telangana state as Karimnagar, Nizamabad, and Medak. Eight villages have been covered from these mandals to understand the impact of men's emigration on women in agriculture. Before entering into the field study, the demographic profile of the field area has been given. It helps to understand the region's geographic, social, economic, and agricultural conditions.

1. Demographic Profile of Field Area

Telangana is a land-locked state, the border of AP in the East, Maharashtra in the West, Karnataka in the South, and Chhattisgarh and Odisha North East. It was separated from the united AP on second June 2014 as the 29th state based on backwardness. It occupied 112 077 square kilometres. It is the 12th most populated state in the country with 35,193,178 residents as per the 2011 census. Rainfall is lower in Telangana state as 700 to 1500 millimetres covered in both (north and south) the parts of the state.

The districts Karimnagar, Medak, and Khammam showed improved crop production, but the Mahaboobnagar has low productivity because the canal provision is

unavailable. Vakulabharanam (2004) found that the small farmers do not have sufficient funds for digging wells or bore wells. The water in the soil is lower in the Telangana region. The disputes with the Andhra region and Telangana are also because of water turning to AP. The irrigation system is not connected well with the Telangana districts. But recently, the wells are improved with the support of private capital investment.

Table No. 5.1: Irrigation of Net Sown Area and Sources of Irrigation (percentage)

Telangana	1971	1985	2001
Canals	4.5	7.2	6.8
Tanks	9.1	6.8	6.1
Tube wells	0	0.3	10.5
Other wells	3.5	7.7	13.3
Others	0.5	0.9	1.4
Total	17.5	22.8	38

Source: Vakulabharanam 2004

The crops produced in these region are paddy (k & r), jowar (k & r), maize (k & r), sesamum (k & r), groundnut (k & r), sugarcane (k), cotton (k), red gram (k), soybean (k), castor (k), ragi (k & r), green gram (k & r), black gram, bengal gram (k & r), horse gram (k & r), sunflower (k & r), chillies (k & r), bajra (k), Korra (k) turmeric, tobacco (r), corn and others. As per the DES (2016), there are specific crops produced in kharif (k) and rabi (r) seasons (GoT 2016).

Table No. 5.2: Overall Average Annual Irrigation Growth at District Level
(percentage)

District	1970–2001	1971–1985	1985–2001
Nizamabad	1.4	1.5	1.1
Medak	2.2	1.8	2.2
Mahboobnagar	2.4	–	1.9
Nalgonda	2.1	1.6	2.2
Warangal	5.2	1.3	7.6
Khammam	4.3	0.5	7.6
Karimnagar	5	2.9	5.1
Adilabad	4.6	1.1	7
Rangareddy*	–	–	5.9

Source: Vakulabharanam 2004

It has 22 per cent of forest area. The net sown area is 42 per cent, barren land is six per cent, current fallow lands are 15 per cent, and cultivable waste, non-agriculture land or pasture lands and other fallow lands are together are 20 per cent. The sample districts receive rainfall from 800 to 1,150 millimetres. These districts predominantly have red soils, chalkas, red sands, deep red loam soils, and black cotton soils (GoT 2015).

The three rivers from the Telangana region catchment, the Krishna river and Godavari river, pass through. 55 per cent of the Telangana population mainly depended on agriculture work, but they depend on rainfed and ground water. The reason, it is a dry and hot climatic zone. In the sample districts, Medak comes under the state's central location, and Nizamabad and Karimnagar come under the northern site of the state. In 30 years of observation, 23 years, the Telangana was under drought-prone region only. Only some mandals were suitable for cultivation with good irrigation. It has an erratic and shortage of rainfall. There are no water sources in tanks, lakes, reservoirs, wells, and rivers (*ibid*). The selected sample districts are based on the studied emigration percentage given in the information below.

1.1. Karimnagar

Karimnagar is famous for National Thermal Power Corporation (NTPC), located in Ramangundam. It is surrounded by Adilabad, Nizamabad, Medak, and Warangal and in the east by the river Godavari. It is located middle of the north eastern part of Telangana, approximately between 18° 0' to 19° 0' North latitudes and 78° 30' to 18° 31' East longitudes. It has 57 mandals as per the 2011 census of India. Different kings have ruled it. It was ruled by the Chalukyas, Bahamani dynasty, Nizam, Asaf Jahi dynasty, and Qutub Shahis. It was under the rule of Kakatiyas before the independence of India. It is in 12th position in terms of area with 11,823 square kilometres in united AP. It has a total of 1059 villages and is within the 57 mandals of the district. And also in 12th position with population-wise with 37,76,269 people in the state and male are 18,80,800 and female are 18,95,469. It has a 319 density in square kilometres. The sex ratio is also more than the state sex ratio with 1008. And it has a 64 per cent of literacy rate. Since Karimnagar is a big district, two mandals were selected based on the distance covered, such as Gambhiraopet and Kathlapur based on the 2011 census.

Table No. 5.3: Households and Literacy Rate of the Sample Mandals and Villages of Karimnagar District (percentage)

Name of the Place	Population			No of HH	Literacy		
	Total	Male	Female		Total	Male	Female
Karimangar	44.64	44.31	44.98	46.44	64.15	73.15	54.79
Kathlapur	11.64	48.52	49.2	11.99	51.09	65.24	44.18
Thandriyala	10.15	2172	51.36	9.92	48.47	58.19	39.66
Ippalle	2.6	45.07	54.92	2.67	48.82	61.31	38.57
Gambhiraopet	12.41	49.2	50.79	11.93	61.26	71.86	20.82
Dammannapet	8.91	49.16	50.83	8.92	52.22	62.17	42.6

Source: GoT 2011

The information gave below. The district has black clay loamy soil, red clay loamy, and alluvial soils. The crops grown in the district are red gram, black gram, sugarcane, paddy, jowar, corn, groundnuts, red chilli, etc. (GoI 2011).

1.1.1. Gambhiraopet

It has bounded by Machareddy, Yellareddipet mandal, Mustabad mandal, and Domakonda mandals. It is near Kamareddy, Sircilla, and Siddipet cities of the Nizamabad district. They speak Urdu and Telugu languages. It occupied 156.91 hectares of land, and the total population is 46,878, with 23,064 males and 23,814 females. It is 69 kilometres away from Karimnagar. From this mandal, Nagampet and Dammannapet villages were selected for field analysis, covered below.

Table No. 5.4: Working Population in Agriculture from Main Workers in Karimnagar District Sample Villages and Mandals (percentage)

Name of the Place	Main Workers			Cultivators			Agriculture Labourers		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Karimnagar	42.11	49.75	34.54	19.2	21.53	16.25	40.33	32.62	50.11
Kathlapur	1.42	47.61	52.39	2	56.31	43.31	0.75	54.57	47.43
Thandriyala	10.59	49.85	50.15	9.07	54.66	45.44	8.61	59.47	40.53
Ippapalle	2.75	42.85	57.15	3.4	0.5	0.5	2.01	47.82	52.17
Gambhiraopet	5.96	54.41	45.39	1.2	70.89	29.11	1.1	58.89	41.11
Dammannapet	10.43	52	48	20.76	54.75	45.25	8.64	54	46

Source: GoT 2011

Nagampet is five kilometres away from Gambhiraopet and 68 kilometres away from Karimnagar. It is surrounded by Yellareddipet village, Machareddy mandal, Mustabad mandal, and Domakonda mandals. It has a 2,216 population and is covered with 1,102 males and 1,114 females.

Dammannapet occupies 1,429 kilometres of land, and the total population is 4,178. Among them, males are 2,054, and females are 2,124. It has a low literacy rate than the state, which is 52.03 per cent. It is four kilometres away from Gambhiraopet and 70 kilometres away from the Karimnagar district. It is bounded by Gorantla, Gambhiraopet, Samudralingapur, Mallareddipet, Korutlapet, Mustabad mandal, and Damakonda mandals. Another mandal is Kathlapur, which is given below.

1.1.2. Kathlapur

It has occupied 177.62 hectares of land. And it is 66 kilometres away from the West part of Karimnagar. It is bounded by Medipalli, Metpally, Korutla, and Chandurthi mandals. It has 18 villages and 18 panchayats in the mandal. In Kathlapur, Ippapalle and Thandriyal covered to study the impact of emigration.

Table No. 5.5: Marginal Workers in Agriculture Work in Sample Villages and Mandals of Karimnagar District (percentage)

Name of the Place	Marginal Workers			Cultivators			Agriculture Labourers		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Karimnagar	64.15	73.65	54.79	19.20	21.53	16.25	40.33	32.62	50.11
Kathlapur	12.25	44.5	55.46	2.7	56.75	43.25	38.98	57.65	42.35
Thandriyala	5.27	43.75	46.25	10.8	0.25	0.75	0.68	46.57	54.43
Ippapalle	2.52	52.17	47.93	-	-	-	1.9	51.51	48.49
Gambhiraopet	14.54	43.59	56.41	7.8	57.22	42.78	4.7	48.84	51.16
Dammannapet	5.2	51.12	48.88	7.8	42.85	57.15	8.9	0.50	0.50

Source: GoT 2011

Ippapalle has located 10 kilometres away from the Kathlapur and 85 kilometres away from the Karimnagar district. It occupied 778 hectares of land. It is bounded by Kalikota, Ambaripeta, Posanipet, Thandriyala, and Chinthakunta. And it is surrounded by Medipalli mandal, Chandurthi mandal, Korutla mandal, and Metpalli mandal. It has a high (1,042) child sex ratio than the state (939). Thandriyala is a large village in Kathlapur

mandal, and 1,157 families reside in the village. The average sex ratio (1,056) is also higher than the state.

1.2. Nizamabad

Nizamabad means the city of Nizam in the Arabic language. The king ruled it at the time of colonials in India. It is also known as Indur. The language is Telugu, but the slang is different. It is one of the 10 districts of the Telangana state. It bordered Karimnagar, Adilabad, Medak districts of Telangana and Maharashtra (Nanded), Karnataka (Bidar) state. Geographically it occupies 7,956 square kilometres. It is the lowest populated district in Telangana state with 2 551 33.5 million. It is women's highest populated district, in density is 321. The district has 36 mandals and has 719 Gram Panchayats (GP) with 922 villages. Culturally mixed, Hindus and Muslims are together because of Nizam's rule (GoT 2011).

Table No. 5.6: Households and Literacy Rate of the Sample Mandals and Villages of Nizamabad District (percentage)

Name of the place	Population			No of HH	Literacy		
	Total	Male	Female		Total	Male	Female
Nizamabad	30.16	29.46	30.86	28.22	61.25	71.47	51.54
Mortad	2.2	48.41	51.59	2.41	58.91	70.05	48.64
Palem	5.6	49.98	50.02	2.77	6.2	59.62	40.38
Tadla Rampur	4.8	48.33	49.67	4.8	5.09	56.26	43.74

Source: GoT 2011

Geographically it is located at Wiki Mini Atlas 18°41'N 78°6'E. It is the most tropical savanna zone. As per the 2001 Census, forest occupies 0.169 million hectares and barred, and fallow lands are 0.049 and 0.177 million hectares. The net sown area is only 0.205 million hectares, indicating the district's inadequate crop production. The land used for non-agricultural activities is 0.083 million hectares. Rice, maize, and jower are significant crops, and they produce turmeric, soybean, sugarcane, cotton, pulses, etc. They follow tubes, wells, tanks, and lift irrigation methods. In high percentage, the method is tube wells and filter points. Only 11 per cent of the households have more than two hectares of land (30 per cent of the area), 22 per cent covers, and finally, 66 percentages of the

households have less than one hectare of land, which is a high percentage (29 per cent area). The production is two seasons in a year (*ibid*).

This district is bounded by Adilabad, Karimnagar, Medak, Maharashtra, and Karnataka. It occupied 7,956 square kilometres. The density of the district is 321, and the sex ratio 1040. In Nizamabad district covered two villages such as Thadla Rampur and Palem, from the Morthad mandal.

1.2.1. Morthad

It is located 49 kilometres away from the district Nizamabad and is surrounded by Donpal, Sunket, Donkal, Kuknoor, and Kammarpally. It occupied 196.05 hectares of land. There are 2736 households in the mandal, and the total population is 11,123 members. It has 19 villages and 18 panchayats.

Table No. 5.7: Working Population in Agriculture from Main Workers in Nizamabad District Sample Villages and Mandals (percentage)

Name of the place	Main Workers			Cultivators			Agriculture Labourers		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Nizamabad	41.39	47.2	35.8	22.05	25.61	17.83	35.55	32.88	38.71
Mortad	2.86	47.7	52.3	26.79	54.6	45.39	32.36	55.98	44.02
Palem	5.51	50.44	49.56	30.04	60.62	39.38	26.27	66.28	45.12
Tadla Rampur	5.03	46.91	53.09	18.76	54.54	45.46	30.38	44.06	55.94

Source: GoT 2011

Thadla Rampur is located 10 kilometres away from Mothad and 49 kilometres from Nizamabad district headquarters. It is bordered by Metpalli of Karimnagar district and Nizamabad district. It occupies 641 hectares of land. There are 2,739 of population and households are 698. Female literacy is very poor that is 24.5 per cent, whereas male literacy is 72 per cent.

In Palem village, 803 families are there, and the male population is 64.22 per cent of the literacy rate, and female literacy is still less as in other villages of the sample. It occupies 1,660 hectares of land. The main villages are surrounded by Thorthy, Venchiryal, Donkal, Gandipet, and Rajarla.

Table No. 5.8: Marginal Workers in Agriculture Work in Sample Villages and Mandals of Nizamabad District (percentage)

Name of the Place	Marginal Workers			Cultivators			Agriculture Labourers		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Nizamabad	8.04	7.51	2.55	5.17	49.55	5049	0.57	44.38	55.67
Mortad	5.3	54.46	43.36	5.53	0.5	0.5	44.49	52.31	47.29
Palem	4.47	0.5	0.5	9.21	71.4	28.38	44.73	55.88	44.12
Tadla Rampur	0.08	0.5	0.5	7.14	100	-	28.57	0.25	0.75

Source: GoT 2011

1.3. Medak

Earlier, Medak called Methuku Durgam because of famous construction in Sangareddy town that is Methuku Durgam. Later it was known as Methuku because it produced fine and coarse rice. Methuku Durgam construction started by Kakatiyans but completed by Qutub shahis. That is why it has both Hindu and Islamic characters in construction. This district is also famous for the Roman Catholic Church, which was constructed for relieving hunger. It was ruled by the Bahamanis and Nizams and Kakatiyas, Mouryas and Sathavahanas. It has evidences of ruling of Badami Chalukyas, Rastrakutas, and Western chalukyas.

Table No. 5.9: Households and Literacy Rate of the Sample Mandals and Villages of Medak District (percentage)

Name of the Place	Population			No of HH	Literacy		
	Total	Male	Female		Total	Male	Female
Medak	35.86	35.88	35.84	31.80	61.42	72.64	51.37
Medak	2.33	43.56	56.44	2.41	45.26	59.55	40.45
Burugupalle	9.22	48.86	51.14	9.08	44.95	60.89	39.11
Rayanpalle	2.17	47.99	52.01	2.05	39.32	59.86	40.13

Source: GoT 2011

It is located in North West and mid-West of the state and occupies 30,754 hectares of land. It is bounded by Karimnagar, Nizamabad in the North, in the East Warangal and Nalgonda, in the South by Rangareddy, and in the West by Bidar district Karnataka state. It lies approximately between 17°27' to 18°19' North Latitudes and 77°28' to 79°10' East

Longitudes. The district occupies plains, uplands with boulder rocks, stones, open shrubs, dry channels, and ponds. It has red soils, sandy loams, sandy clay loams, black cotton soils, mainly clay lams and silty clay soils. Manjira, a tributary of the Godavari river, is the central irrigation in the district with major, medium, and low irrigation ayacuts (GoT 2011).

Table No. 5.10: Working Population in Agriculture from Main Workers in Medak District Sample Villages and Mandals (percentage)

Name of the place	Main Workers			Cultivators			Agriculture Labourers		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Medak	39.41	47.8	30.95	24.49	26.65	21.49	39.6	30.33	52.45
Medak	3.15	53.89	46.11	48.2	59.66	40.34	35.21	40.8	59.2
Burugupalle	8.78	53.16	46.06	49.26	55.81	44.19	34.12	43.86	56.14
Rayanpalle	2.28	54.4	45.6	61.15	61.48	38.52	27.27	43.43	56.47

Source: GoT 2011

There are 46 mandals in the district and 1,231 villages in the Medak district. Medak mandal was selected for the sample population collection because it has more emigrants, according to the population census, 2011 and the chosen villages from the emigrated region. It occupies 9,699 hectares of land. Burugupalle is a highly populated village, and Rayanapalle is one of the lowest populated villages.

Table No. 5.11: Marginal Workers in Agriculture Work in Sample Villages and Mandals of Medak District (percentage)

Name of the Place	Marginal Workers			Cultivators			Agriculture Labourers		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Medak	8.13	7.21	9.06	39.41	47.80	30.95	8.13	7.21	9.06
Medak	2.25	35.65	64.35	5.67	46.20	53.80	77.69	33.18	65.81
Burugupalle	11.99	38.47	61.53	1.94	53.84	46.16	13.59	38.60	61.40
Rayanpalle	2.44	11.02	88.98	23.07	66.66	33.33	21.25	9.6	90.4

Source: GoT 2011

Rayanpalle, the village, is 67 kilometres north of Medak district. It occupies 1,501 hectares of land. It is bounded by Khajapur, Shamnapur, Thoningadla, and Shalipet villages. It has a population, and all castes people stay together. They have agricultural land around the village, but water scarcity is the central issue. They have dug several bores but

no water. That is why they cannot cultivate crops seasonally. That is why there is no employment in agriculture. For work, males and females go to the road. They go to Kamareddy and Medak for construction and cement work.

Burugupalle is 59 kilometres north of the district headquarters. It has occupied 3013 hectares of land. It has Shankarampet mandal in the east, Kulcharam, Yeldurthy mandals in the south, and Papannapet mandal in the west. The village has a canal system connecting with the village lake, and also they have a bore wells connection, but water scarcity is high. The village has nearly 60 per cent of families with matrilocal marriages. The profile of the districts helps understand the agricultural conditions, which helps in the field analysis. The field analysis discusses the impact on the agricultural women, wives of emigrants.

2. Field Data Analysis

The observed field data from the Telangana districts of agriculture women left behind after the husbands' emigration. The data collected from Karimnagar, Medak, and Nizamabad have been discussed. It covered four blocks and eight villages, and the sample respondents were 413 members. These respondents were dependent on the emigration flow in the village—the selected respondents were based on the husband's emigration status. During the field work, whose husband was in another country has given priority. Four respondents interviewed, such as husband just came on vacation leave, and they go back again. Thus the respondents were irregular in all the sample villages.

Profile of the sample respondents includes the data collected from eight villages of four mandals in three districts, based on struggle, the changed lifestyle after the emigration of husband. The questions asked on the women's independence to decide, hold the agriculture work, and family. After a long struggle to uphold the family burdens, the women's identity was questioned. The impact and changes of the women after the husbands' emigration have been a concern to find.

The field work data has been divided into parts I and II. Part I contains the basic information of the sample respondents and related information on agriculture and emigration. In second part discussed with challenges, consequences of the husbands' emigration on women.

3. Part I

This part I includes the distribution of profile of the sample respondent such as age, literacy rate, livelihood, head of the household, type of house, and community. Basic information on agriculture and emigration also comes under this part because these factors support further understanding of the men's emigration and remaining agriculture work related to women status.

3.1. Age of the Sample Respondents

Table No. 5.12: Age Distribution of the Sample Respondents in Sample Villages
(percentage)

Village	18–29	30–39	40–49	50–59	Total
Dammannapet	15(29)	19(37)	14(28)	3(6)	51
Nagampet	12(24)	28(55)	11(21)	0	51
Thandriyal	12(23)	24(46)	16(31)	0	52
Ippapalle	18(36)	14(29)	14(29)	3(6)	49
Rayanpalle	17(33)	23(45)	11(22)	0	51
Burugupalle	15(29)	21(40)	15(29)	1(2)	52
Palem	15(24)	29(47)	24(39)	4(7)	62
Thadla Rampur	8(18)	32(71)	2(4)	3(7)	45

Source: Compiled from field data

The age groups of respondents were ranged from 18 to 55 years. The above 50 years group of people were four per cent, and there were three members from 55 years from all the villages of three districts. The high percentage, i.e. 45 per cent of them from 30–39 years group, second and third highest were 18–25 and 40–49 years group with 26 per cent and 25 per cent respectively. Thadla Rampur woman said that her husband emigrated more than 25 years ago. She was crying when asked about life after the emigration of her husband. She says, “What is there in life to say, nothing. Everything finished, no satisfaction of life because no one is there to share my sorrow and happiness when I need it. We just spent our lives with children, but after the end of our life, there is no money also left in life.” Because the payment is less for non-skilled labour, the remittances were spent on the family's needs and children's marriages.

Since the data collected from the agricultural women, emigrants' wives, and marriage age is 18 years for girls. That is why the age groups of respondents started from 18 the respondents. The husbands of respondents were left immediately after two months of marriage. These region population has specially given importance to emigration if they were in need or not. After the success of the visa, they search for a marriage proposal and get married, and leave the wives at home after 15 days to two months of marriage. That is why very young respondents were there in the sample, ranging from 18 years.

3.2. Literacy Rate of the Sample Respondents

The illiteracy rate was high in all the sample villages of the three districts, i.e. 44 per cent. The lowest is PG with 0.25 per cent, degree with two per cent on an average. The primary school occupied 19 per cent, and secondary school respondents were 22 per cent. The field found that women's literacy does not change, upholding the agriculture work after the husbands' emigration. The present generation, which means the age group of 18–40 years, preferred to give their land for tenant cultivation, and the above 40 years age group was doing cultivation themselves. When observed in education and agriculture, it does not change the life of women. Because the illiterate or five per cent of women who got wealth after a long time of husbands' emigration stopped working in agriculture and gave their land for tenant cultivation, the other women gave for tenant cultivation after the husband's emigration because of heavy loaded work.

Table No. 5.13: Literacy Rate of Sample Respondents in Sample Villages (percentage)

Village	PG	Degree	HSC	2 ^o School	1 ^o School	Illiterates	Total
Dammannapet	0	0	1(2.0)	8(15.7)	9(17.6)	33(64.7)	51
Nagampet	0	0	1(2.0)	9(17.6)	21(41.2)	20(39.2)	51
Thandriyal	0	0	36(69.2)	8(15.4)	7(13.5)	1(1.9)	52
Ippapalle	1(2)	1(2)	1(2.0)	12(24.5)	11(22.4)	24(49)	49
Rayanpalle	0	1(2)	1(2.0)	7(13.7)	10(19.6)	32(62.7)	51
Burugupalle	0	0	1(1.9)	5(9.6)	8(15.4)	38(73.1)	52
Palem	0	2(3.2)	4(6.5)	18(29)	7(11.3)	31(50)	62
Thadla Rampur	0	2(4.4)	6(13.3)	26(57.8)	5(11.1)	6(13.3)	45

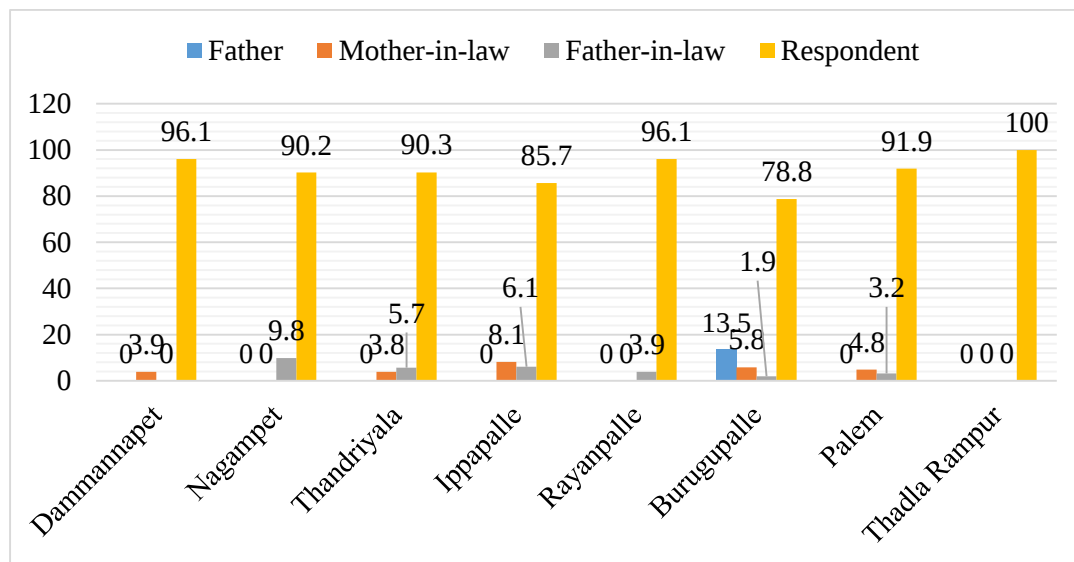
Source: Compiled from field data *1^o School-1st to 5th class, 2^o School -6th to 10th class

For instance, in Ippapalle, one woman, Koli Jalaja (24) w/o Navin, went to Saudi Arabia for a sister's marriage one year ago. The absence of the husband led her to do all the works. She sells the fruits, vegetables on the head, roaming throughout the village in the morning and evening and the market. She says that she knows all the works from her childhood, so she does it. She completed her PG in studies. And when we observed the literacy rate of the children in the family, it was very poor. The girl child education was not encouraged, and male children did not show much interest in the studies because they made minds for emigration.

3.3. Head of the Household of the Sample Respondents

Headship of the family helps to understand dominant power in the family whether the women have functional headship or structural headship after the husband's emigration. Functionally the headship of the family changes after the husband's emigration.

Graph No. 5.1: Distribution of Head of Household of Sample Respondents in Sample Villages (percentage)



Source: Compiled from field data

The male generally handles the house's decision-making and economic power, but some families may have the women's headship. But after the husband's emigration of the family, headship remained to women in nuclear families. In joint families, the headship

remains either with the father-in-law or mother-in-law and father. If women were playing headship after the husband's emigration, it is only functional headship, which means patriarchal headship always remains with men (Karve 1968).

The sample villages' average headship was highest with 91 per cent of the respondents. It indicates the nuclear families. The lowest of them was 1.6 per cent of the father, i.e. from Burugupalle only. Father-in-law and mothers-in-law were as heads of the family with 4.1 per cent and 3.2 per cent, respectively. These were joint families or extended families.

They said that the decision making regarding the economic remittances, using money in different activities made by husbands only. Though they were in another place, they could not see. What was happening here was also not known to them. But women were very loyal to husbands because the husbands were emigrating for the family welfare and children.

3.4. Livelihood Source of the Sample Respondents

The cultivators are defined as doing their land or on leased land cultivation. They do not carry out any other work except the cultivation of the land, but 38 per cent of the people were doing both the jobs and agriculture labour and beedi work, and 33 per cent of them were agriculture labour and cultivation together. Most of them stopped cultivating themselves in agriculture, but 39 per cent of them do beedi work and sometimes do wage labourer work along with a 100-day program. But the main occupation as agriculture was reduced their priority. The women studied for some duration and started learning the beedi work and agriculture labour. After the marriage, they preferred to be at home and go in seasonal employment. Women said they did not mean to stop doing the agriculture work from childhood, but this employment was available for seasonal period, and later they had to be vacant. During un-season, they cannot start beedi work. They also say that the government provides unseasonal employment for 100 days only. Sometimes it is also irregular work. Depending on that employment, one cannot survive and lead the life in giving a good life to children and minimum education. Here the beedi work has become an

additional economic activity to sustain in the diversified economic activity. Migrants have to choose diversified financial support from agriculture in the country.

In sample villages, the caste-based works were there. Each caste is dependent on other caste activities and earns money like playing music items, doing services to upper caste people by the lower caste people. And making pots (kummari), baskets, selling the fruits (tengu), kammari (ironsmith), vadla vallu (carpentry), mala, and madiga are SCs, begging caste (bikshagallu), dakkali, chakali (washerman). The upper caste people, such as munnuru kapu, and reddy do not have caste-based works. They cultivate the land and serve the lower caste by doing the services for a whole year. The other castes kummari (pot makers), gundla (fishermans), gandla (oil makers), myadari (basket makers) etc., do their community work and depend on agriculture and agriculture labour work. But these works were not done in the olden days, but people still rely on these works as one of the earning money activities and keep the culture peacefully in the village.

Table No. 5.14: Distribution of Livelihood of Sample Respondents in Sample Villages (percentage)

Village	1&2	1&3	Agri Lab	Beedi Work	Cultivator	Total
Dammannapet	18(35.29)	10(19.6)	9(17.64)	0	14(27.45)	51
Nagampet	19(37.3)	11(21.6)	10(19.6)	3(5.9)	8(15.7)	51
Thandriyal	13(25)	23(44.2)	7(13.5)	0	9(16.59)	52
Ippapalle	20(40.8)	16(32.7)	2(4.1)	1(2.0)	10(20.4)	49
Rayanpalle	21(41.2)	20(39.2)	7(13.7)	0	3(5.9)	51
Burugupalle	21(40.4)	13(25)	7(13.5)	0	11(21.2)	52
Palem	16(25.8)	26(41.9)	7(11.3)	1(1.6)	12(19.4)	62
Thadla Rampur	9(20)	34(75.6)	0	0	2(4.4)	45

Source: Compiled from field data *1-Agriculture labour, 2-Cultivator, and 3-Beedi work

For instance, the dependence of livelihood to lead life, such as cultivating vegetables near the home garden, plucking the common properties, selling them, herding animals and others. For instance, in Dammannapet, Nagampet used to pluck lorry full of loads of fruits from the nearby forest and sold in Hyderabad and near villages and Kamareddy, Nizamabad, and Sircilla. But they do not have the source to pluck the fruits nowadays because the forest has dried away. The other sample villages of the other districts also have common properties, but they do not survive on them as financial support for

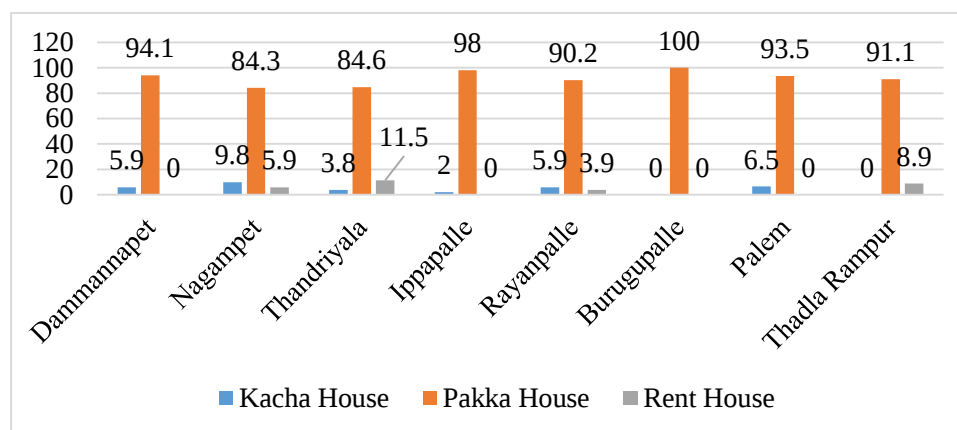
leading life from the forest. The sample villagers from various community people depended on common village properties such as swimming trees (eatha chettu), palm trees (thathi chettu) for making beverages (eedullu geeyadam). The other community from the sample villagers are tenugu, depending on common properties and of the village such as neredu, jama, mamidi, chinta, etc. If the other people own them, these communities lease the trees, sell them in the village as merchants sell in cities. The other community people like gosangi, madiga and myadari also depend on swimming trees to make mats, broom sticks, making threads (nulukaku) for a cot, and making baskets. In Burugupalle, they have the source of the forest, but in the Medak district, all the forest resources are enjoyed by the tribal people only. In the Nizamabad district, the sample villagers used beedi leaves (thunikaku), but present days are not available. In Palem respondents' husbands worked in these community-based employments but now vanished. So they were not proficient in agriculture as others. That is why they were choosing emigration.

In Nizamabad, sample villages depend on finance activities and finance business. It indicates they were already wealthy families because the emigration started earlier in these regions only, during the Indira Gandhi as Prime Minister. In the Karimnagar district, the sample villages depended differently on various livelihood activities. This district was developed than another sample districts when compared. Before that, they also relied on the village's natural habitat, such as the fruits and vegetables, but at present, they developed. They have concentrated more on political and economic activities by using the skills and knowledge in communication with other leaders. They also acquired their agricultural lands, broke the cultivation land into plots, and sold it.

3.5. Type of House of the Sample Respondents

The highest percentage of the people are under well-sheltered homes, and on average, 91.97 per cent of them have pakka houses, and half of them were constructed after the husband's emigration. The kaccha houses have 42 per cent remaining because they emigrated recently. The rental homes (3.8 per cent) were high, mainly in Thandriyala and Burugupalle. They were from Muslim minority people only.

Graph No. 5.2: Distribution of House Types of Sample Respondents in Sample Villages
(percentage)



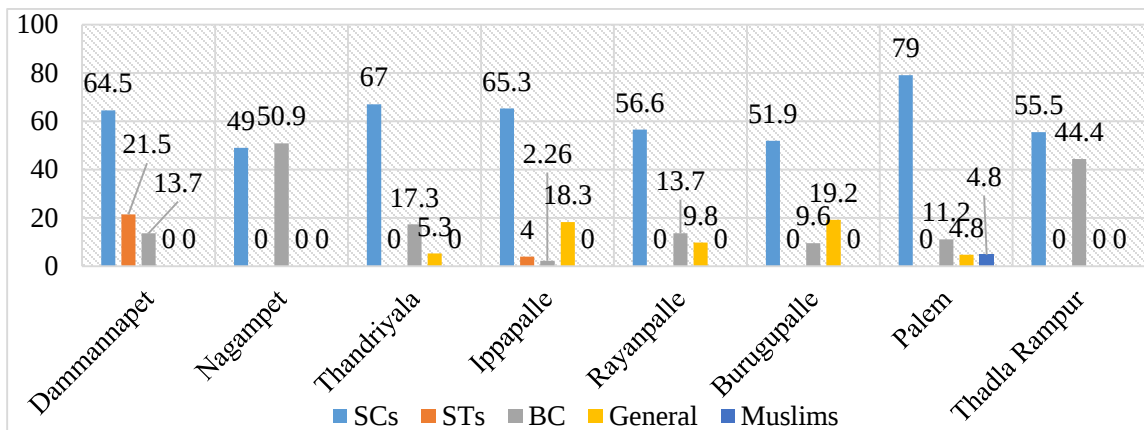
Source: Compiled from field data

For instance, Shaik Rasul (35) w/o Mastan went to Dubai one year ago. The husband was not able to manage things with the earned amount. He spends on drinking all the amount which he earned. They did love marriage, so no one talked to them, and their parents also did not help them. They have three small kids. Staying in a rental home and five months' rent also not paid. In addition, they could not even pay the debts within one year. Before marriage, she was not working anything, but now she is doing everything suddenly. Everybody scolds her. Additionally, she feels awful for nurturing children because they do not have proper food.

3.6. Community Status of Sample Respondents

The respondents were classified into SC, ST, BC, Muslims, and general categories. They were not selected but made based on the availability of the respondents. The tribes (3.2 per cent) were not there in every village but in Dammannapet, Ippapalle only. The 64.1 per cent with the highest percentage of the respondents were from the SC category. The next is from the BC category with 23.4 per cent. The reasons were also depending on the category based only. The SCs have emigrated for basic needs and amenities, whereas the BCs were for lifestyle development. Muslims with 1.2 per cent as a minority community were available in Tandriyal only. They emigrated just because they did not have any other knowledge of agriculture. Instead, they did not possess cultivation lands.

Graph No. 5.3: Distribution of Communities of Sample Respondents in Sample Villages
(percentage)



Source: Compiled from field data

In Ippapalle, the emigrants were more developed than other sample villages because they were from the BC castes. The women also did hard work to achieve something, and they were very cautious. Women from the BC caste were so strong and goal-oriented to achieve something when they had nothing. They get support from their community people in need. In SC, ST caste people, forward-thinking was significantly lesser than other community women because they do not have an economic support system in need.

The highest percentage of the women were SCs, and were weak in having the land property; that is why the power to hold the work was also less. The support from the community was lower than other caste women. In addition, the caste-based exploitation was also seen in the sample villages in agriculture work, as given below example. Bandi Sayavva, w/o Abbaiah, went to Dubai 12 years ago. She was from the SC community. They have three and a half acres of land along with two bores. She has two daughters. One of them was mad. One daughter got matrilocal marriage. The son-in-law also went to Dubai two years ago. They have given land for tenant cultivation to munnuru kapu person. He uses the water for his land cultivation and, if not used for him, misuses the water. After filling the land, it leaves in canals outside, which goes away from trenches.

When cross-checked with others about that issue, the others also said the same reason because the husband was not there and she was from a weaker section. When Sayavva asks about this issue, he says, we are using your land to do anything. You cannot ask. In addition, they are mighty, so she never tried to ask again to them. And also do not have the safety of their land after giving the tenant cultivation.

3.7. Distribution of Emigration in Sample Villages

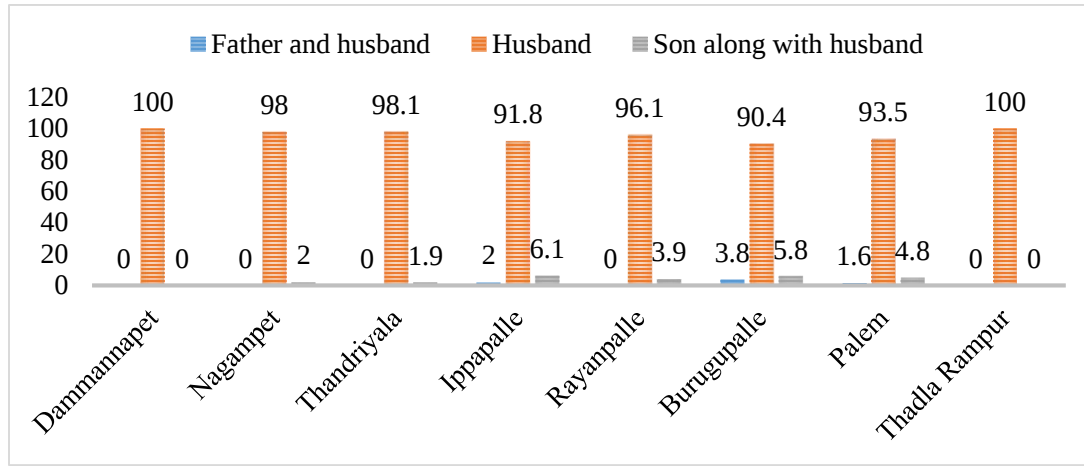
It includes the number of emigrated members, causes of emigration, duration of emigration, and destination of emigration of the husbands of sample respondents. The information helps understand the core information of emigration in the sample villages. The report assists in understanding the roots of emigration and finding the solution to stop the emigration through policies or programs.

3.7.1. Number of Members Emigrated

Emigration from every family was common in the sample villages. Almost non-respondent families also went for two years minimum in their whole lifestyle. The priority to emigration was high. The SCs increased emigration because they did not have lands and did not want to work under the upper caste people. Within the village, the in-migration is also there. Still, the landless people do not show interest in agriculture because they have fewer lands. If they work in agriculture, the irregular rainfall, power cuts issues, losses in production, not enough employment in agriculture in all seasons. That is why the husbands of sample respondents were showing interest in emigration. From childhood, the boys learnt the same ideology. Father and husband emigrated in 0.94 per cent, i.e. from Burugupalle sample village as already discussed in the headship. Husband has the highest percentage with 96 per cent.

The son also went along with the father means there were married sons and unmarried sons. Husband's father and husband together also went, which indicates the emigration severity than the need for emigration. It has become compulsory for the family. The families were given priority for emigration as primary work instead of agriculture. If we find the reasons, no one can say that there is another choice.

Graph No. 5.4: Distribution of Emigrants in the Family of Sample Respondents in Sample Villages (percentage)



Source: Compiled from field data

3.7.2. Causes of Emigration

In the sample villages, debts were a significant issue for emigration. Those debts were varied. That is why the debts are made in three columns: debts for marriage purposes with 11 per cent, debts due to loss in agriculture with 12 per cent, and debts of failures due to business (seven per cent). They borrowed money for marriage purposes, for alcoholism. For basic needs of the family (10 per cent), education, etc., they chose emigration. Sample respondents 'families in the village did business activities without proper agriculture production. But losses took place after the business started when they wanted to do business to improve their lifestyle, but unskillfulness led them to be indebted. This emigration was high in Tadla Rampur, Tandriyala, and Palem villages.

The source of water (nine per cent) was a big issue in all the sample villages. In Rayanpalle, the lands were fertile, but the water scarcity issues were there because of the low rainfall. The total employment from the 15 years was challenging and fell down. That is why they have chosen emigration. For employment, they had to go to Kamareddy in construction work. But they cannot be sure about the daily profession. Daily, they go to the road and stand on the highway of Kamareddy. Builders come and take the workers according to their requirements. If not called for employment that day, the rest of the

members have to return home, testing their destiny for employment every day. In general, in a village, the employees are called before one day, or if it is the agriculture plantation, harvesting, and weeding season, they are called for 2–3 days before. It indicates the guarantee of employment. But here, there was no guaranteed employment if they wanted to do any work. Though they were not interested in leaving the village, family, and agriculture, the unemployment issues because of water scarcity were forcing them to move to another country.

The imitation of others from previous emigrants, inspired by the emigrants' success stories, is also a reason. For instance, Basa Chinna Gangu (55 years) w/o Sundaraiah went to Dubai. She was very clever and stubborn. The family decided to go to Dubai, but they did not have money because they needed money for their daughters' marriages. They have three daughters. One of them was a mad girl. But they did not have enough money to go. So she asked her father to give money which generally gives in marriage to a daughter. Her father refused to give money; instead, he wanted to provide ornaments only. But Gangu explained to her father and took cash as she did not want to misuse them. Gangu has used that money for her husband's emigration travel expenses. After a few months, her father came to see her and did not find any ornament. So he did not talk and refused to stay there and left back home. So she said to her father, "which one is precious to you, whether ornament or daughter's life." After three years, she bought all the jewellery with her amount and remittances together. But till then, the father died to show her success.

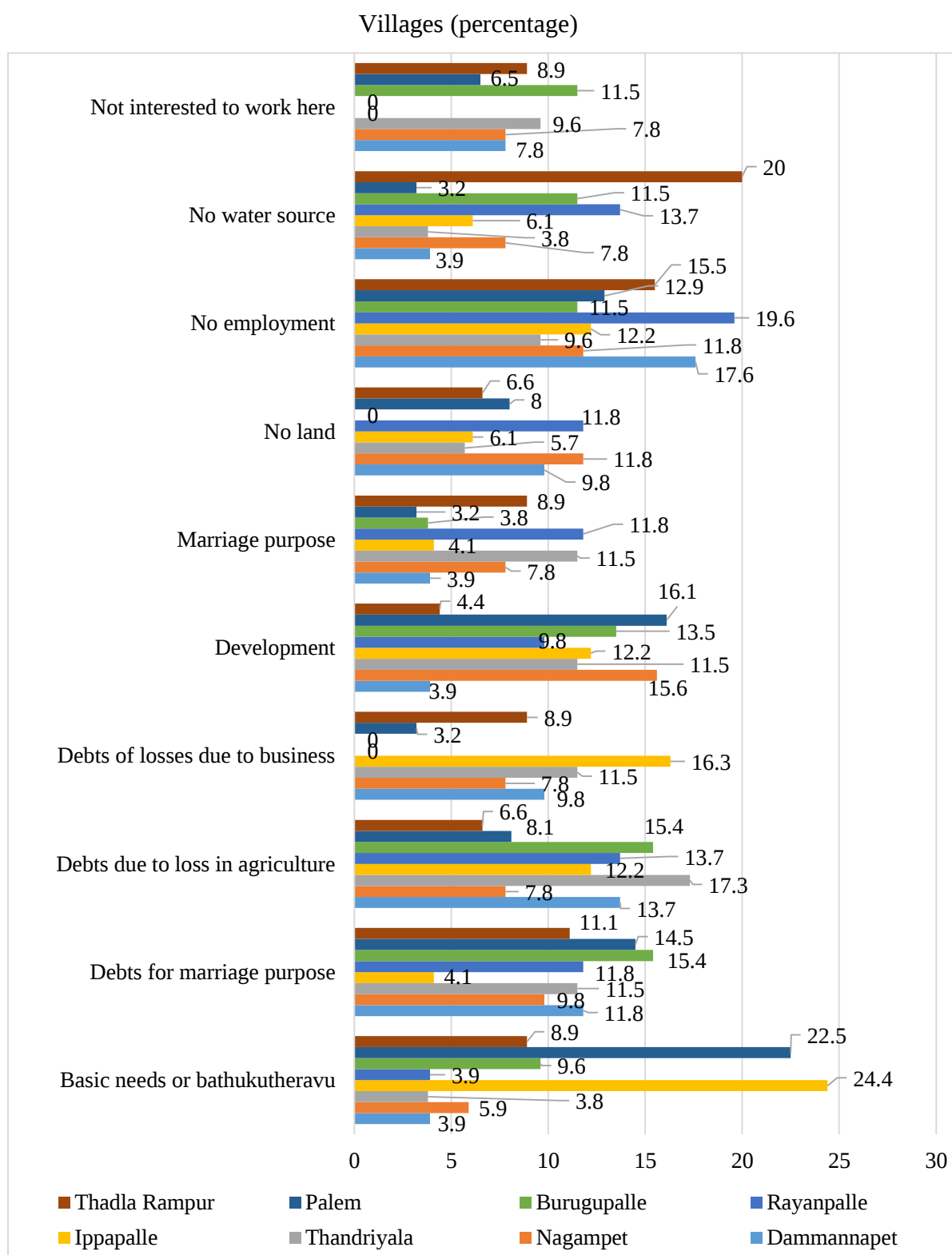
The other reason, not interesting (six per cent-average) cases were high in Palem and Tandriyala villages. These villages showed the characteristics of not being interested in working here though they have agriculture and enough employment. They say the growth and development of the children were happening with the emigration but not with education and survival in India. During the 1980s, emigration started because of unemployment in agriculture and the scarcity of livelihood sources. But at present, they have all the facilities, and wives are not interested in sending them out, but husbands and young boys are not interested in doing jobs in agriculture within the village. They feel humiliated and shy to work here for low wages under villagers or other community people.

The reasons for marriage purpose (seven per cent) of the daughters or sisters have forced men to move away. For instance, Maggedi Uma (34) w/o Suresh went to Dubai 15 years ago for family welfare. He did three sisters' marriages in the joint family. Since he was the eldest son, he went to Dubai, though he was not interested in going out of the station. He was well educated and wanted to do some job in India, but the value of money was less when compared to Dubai currency.

The other reason was waging; the value of the money is higher in other gulf countries than India. But here in the village and emigrated region per month income after the expenditure was equal. But in India, they spend it on daily needs as they earned. Whether in emigrants, they send the amount in bulk after accumulation for six months or once in three months—the remittances sent from abroad, used in development activities like constructing the home and buying something important. But the same amount earned here in the home region is not seen in any significant activity. It was used for the basic needs of the family only (odigi undavu). The highest percentage of emigration with 14 per cent because of unemployment. The unemployment because of low land and landlessness. The seasonal employment because of the agriculture. No land and developments are different concepts and reasons for emigration with eight percentage and 11 per cent respectively. The development cases were found in Buugupalle, Thandriyal, Ippapalle and Palem sample villages.

Poverty (five per cent) was a massive problem in Dammannapet, Ippapalle, Tandriyala, Burugupalle, and Rayanpalle. They suffered for minimum food to eat at some point in time before the emigration of their husbands. For instance, Erravelli Lavanya (38) w/o Ashok went to Jordan 10 years ago for family welfare. She suffered from foodless days with small children, one kid at home and another at the workplace. The husband was not interested in going, but the debts were tremendous, and minimum food was scarce. 6,00,000/- rupees of debts on the head so went in troubles with children. Kins were there, but nobody came to help in any condition, but their parents were always there with her. At present, the problems are settled and developing themselves. She said the issues she faced should not be met by anyone else.

Graph No. 5.5: The Causes of Emigration of Husbands of Sample Respondents in Sample



Source: Compiled from field data

And Janagama Pushpalatha (40) w/o Babu, Muscat 15 years ago to clear debts. She also met foodless days during pregnancy. She has to go without food to work during pregnancy—no kins to help even in those days. But community members were so helpful during that period. Health is also one of the driving forces to emigrate even though they were not interested. Sathwika (29) w/o Mahesh Goud went to Kuwait five years ago because of debts. They do not even have a house to stay. They live with their mother-in-law. But she does not help. Their daughter got a hole in her heart, they invested a lot in her, but nobody helped them. Especially the siblings never came to help. She went to her parent's home, but their home was also so small so they returned to their in-law's home. Neither mental support nor economic support was there for them. Only wife and husband have to move through the situation, but now she is alone to handle.

3.7.3. Duration of Emigration

As per NSSO data, a minimum of six months of stay outside is called migration. The sample respondent's consideration started from three months in the thesis because every day after the emigration counted in women's lives. The state of mind changes every day, every month, and every year. That is why from three months as taken into count for the duration. From the first day to two years of emigration, emigration takes to repay the debts of the visa trials. In the case of development-oriented emigrants start accumulation of remittances. For every two years, they visit the home town, like that they come to the home for one month to three months (four per cent) depending on the company permission. It is the cyclic procedure for every two years.

All the emigrants prefer to stay a long time, but the family status and company provision force them to come back, long duration of emigration like 21 to 30 years and more, which is 2.6 per cent. The highest 37 per cent of them were from 6–10 years duration. The people in these regions, first and foremost thinking was emigration. The reason could be anything like development, daughter marriage, debts, losses, or anything else. They do not think of an alternative to staying back in India and resolving the issues with family members help. Because they believe the value of money in other countries is higher than in India.

Table No. 5.15: Duration of Emigration of Sample Respondents' Husbands in Sample Villages (percentage)

Village	3months to 1year	2-3 years	4-5 years	6-10 years	11-15 years	16-20 years	21 and >21years	Total
Dammannapet	3.9	11.8	29.4	39.2	9.8	3.9	2	51
Nagampet	0	5.9	15.7	56.9	15.7	5.9	0	51
Thandriyal	3.8	7.7	11.15	50	17	5.8	3.8	52
Ippapalle	4.1	10.2	16.3	32.7	18.3	10.2	2	49
Rayanpalle	0	27.5	27.5	29.4	11.6	2	2	51
Burugupalle	3.8	20.1	23.1	32.7	17.3	0	1.9	52
Palem	3.2	19.4	12.9	29	17.8	12.9	4.8	62
Thadla Rampur	13.3	33.3	11.1	22.2	14.3	2.2	4.4	45
Total	4.01	17.1	18.8	37.01	15.15	5.5	2.6	413

Source: Compiled from field data

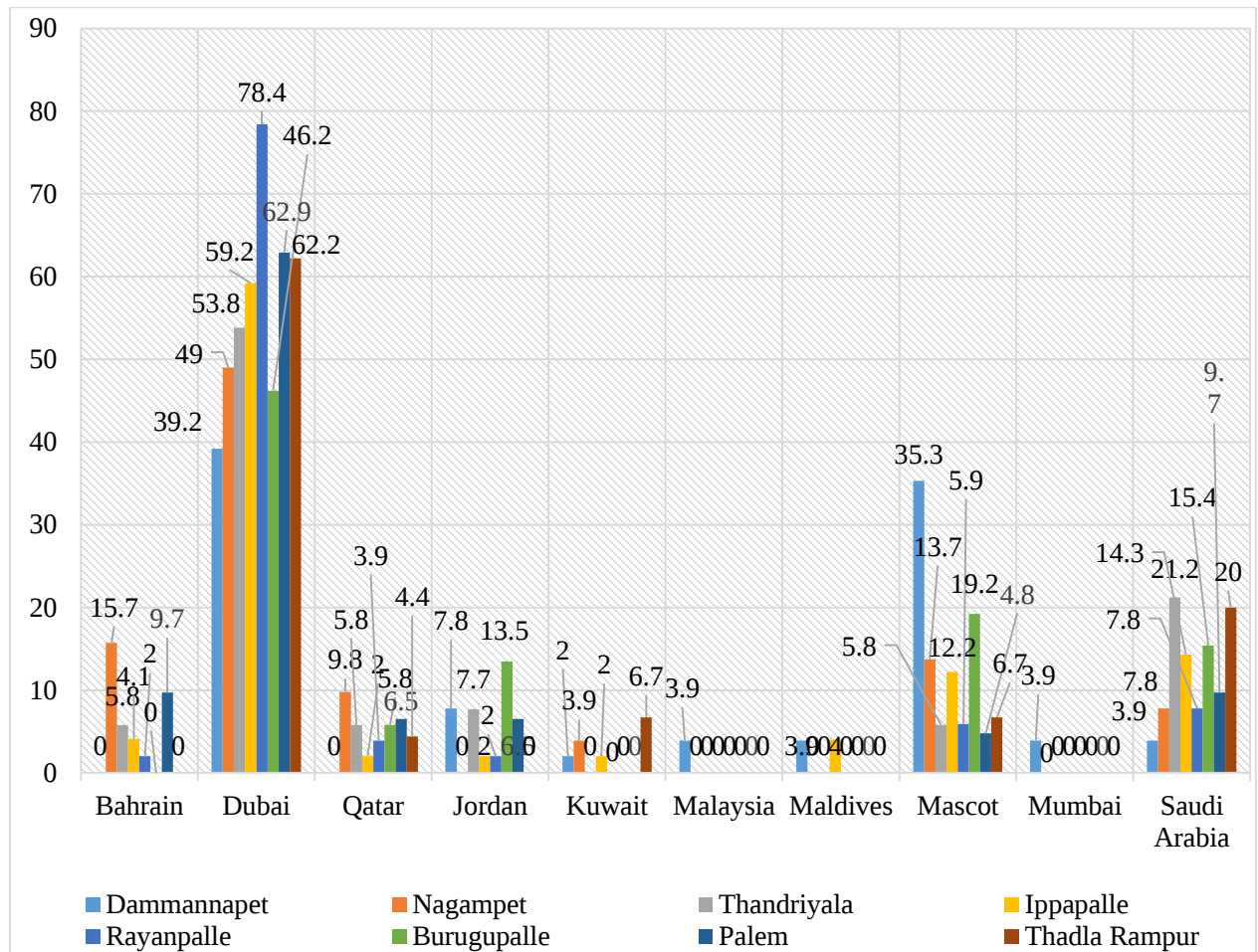
3.7.4. Destination of Emigration

Destination of emigration depended on the availability of the visa and the provider of the visa. The network plays a significant role in sending the pass. For instance, the fathers and brother-in-law, brothers and neighbours become the central part of the chain for the emigration. The dealers were very popular in sending the people to other countries, but they failed many times and could not provide an excellent company visa if they succeeded. After emigration, also they suffer a lot. That is why the interested candidates approach near kins. In Palem, Nerella Sarala's husband sends good company visas, so people get the access through him settle well. In the same way, in the same village, 23 members were tried through agents but failed seven to eight times.

Dubai shows 56.3 per cent is highest in the destination country. Muscat and Saudi Arabia have 12.9 per cent and 12.5 per cent, respectively, because of the network and communication. Malaysia, Kuwait and Jordan with 0.48 per cent, 1.8 per cent and five per cent respectively from the lowest percentage of emigrants to these destination countries. The currency value is higher for these countries, but they have a low rate of emigrants because of the low network. The destination of emigration has chosen by the value of money and type of work. The emigrants were from lower education and had no skills. That is why they prefer to go for unskilled labour in available regions. The driving employees in the emigrated area were getting reasonable remuneration, and families were getting

settled faster. Dammannapet went to Mumbai and Maldives, which was out-migration, but they stayed a long time like emigrants for years. That is why the responsibility of the family shifted to women. That is why these respondents were also included in the analysis.

Graph No. 5.6: Destination of Emigration of Emigrants in Sample Villages (percentage)



Source: Compiled from field data

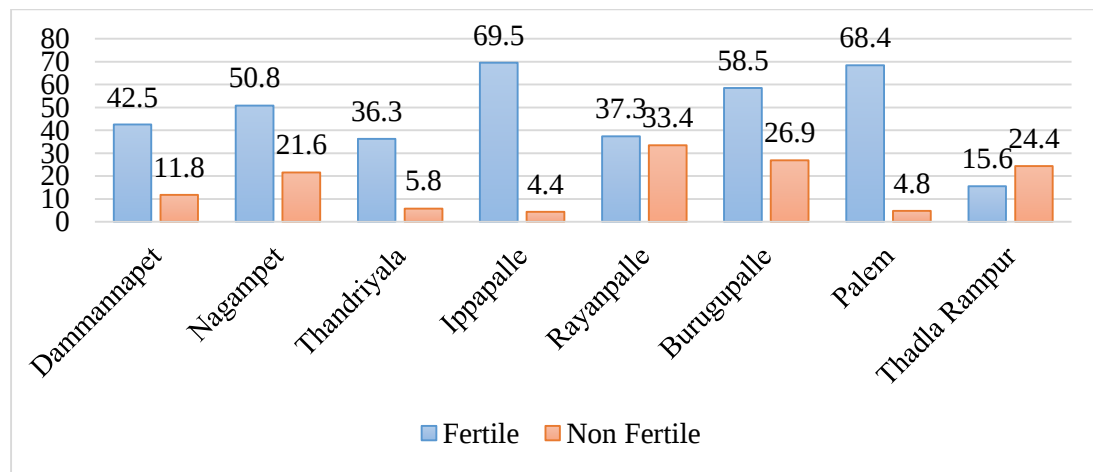
3.7.5. Distribution of Agriculture Land in Sample Villages

The agriculture status of the sample respondents includes the types of cultivation lands they possessed and how much they occupied before the husbands' emigration. The availability of land grounds causes to choose for emigration. They purchased lands after emigration, which helps understand their capability of economic status and development.

3.7.5.1. Type of Land of the Sample Respondents

The lands are of various types in different regions in the state. There were drylands, fallow lands, fertile lands, and broken lands, etc. But for the sake of convenience, the grounds were divided into two types: fertile lands and non-fertile lands.

Graph No. 5.7: Type of Cultivation Lands of Sample Respondents in Sample Villages (percentage)



Source: Compiled from field data

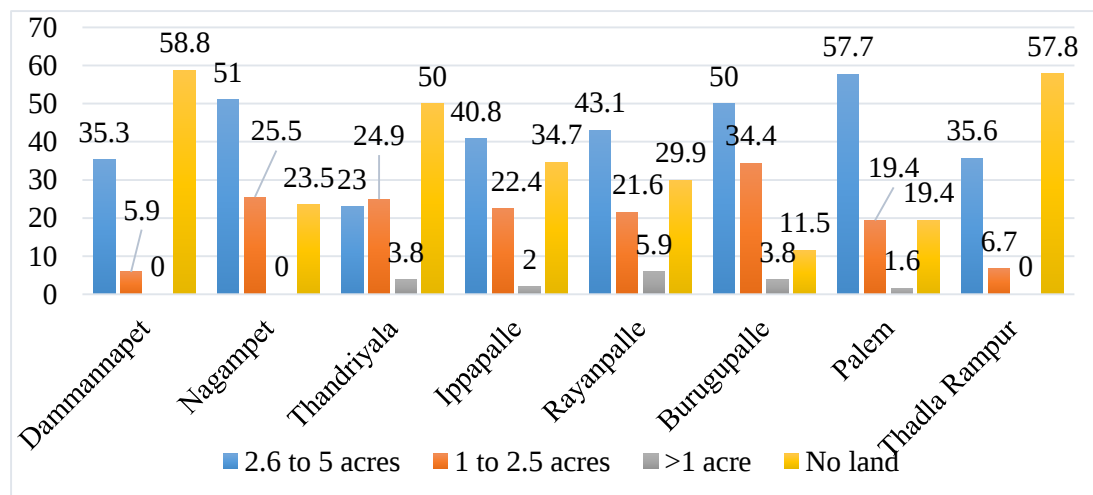
As per statistics of the Telangana government, the sample regions are occupied with red soils and black loamy soils, and the complete information has been provided in the respective districts of the sample profile. The sample villages also have similar land types. Still, in their language, they refer to them as isuka nelalu, parralu or palugu nelalu where the water is scarce, nalla ragadi (black loamy soils) and erra guntalu (red soils), etc. For the study convenience, divided them as fertile soils and non-fertile soils. Fertile soils were 74 per cent, and non-fertile soils were 26 per cent on average.

As per the records, sample villages contain good soils, but water is scarce because of low/no rainfall. That is why black and red soils became dry lands called palugu nelalu. The arid lands are formed because of the lack of water sources in the soils. If we can put water, it conserves more water and gets dry faster.

3.7.5.2. Possession of Cultivation Land by the Sample Respondents

The small farmers who have one acre to two and a half acres land were 20 per cent, marginal farmers, were 2.6 acres to five acres land owned members with 42 per cent which was highest in land occupation. The presence of land indicates the essence of emigration. In total, 64 per cent of the emigrants have landed. 36 per cent of the respondents do not possess the cultivation lands. Though they have land enough to cultivate, choosing for emigration means the development, the environmental conditions, and unseasonal unemployment issues were influencing them—the model emigrants who developed after the emigration and solved their financial problems. So the youth also chose emigration as the primary source of financial support for the family.

Graph No. 5.8: Possession of Cultivation Land by Sample Respondents in Sample Villages (percentage)



Source: Compiled from field data

Because agriculture provides seasonal work only, the rest of the days to be unemployed. But in contrast, the previous emigrants bought lands after emigration, which means that agriculture is the primary source of employment in the village. The state of the land purchased after the emigration is given here. The impact has been shown on agriculture status, women's state of agriculture, social and psychological life. That focused on part II of the chapter.

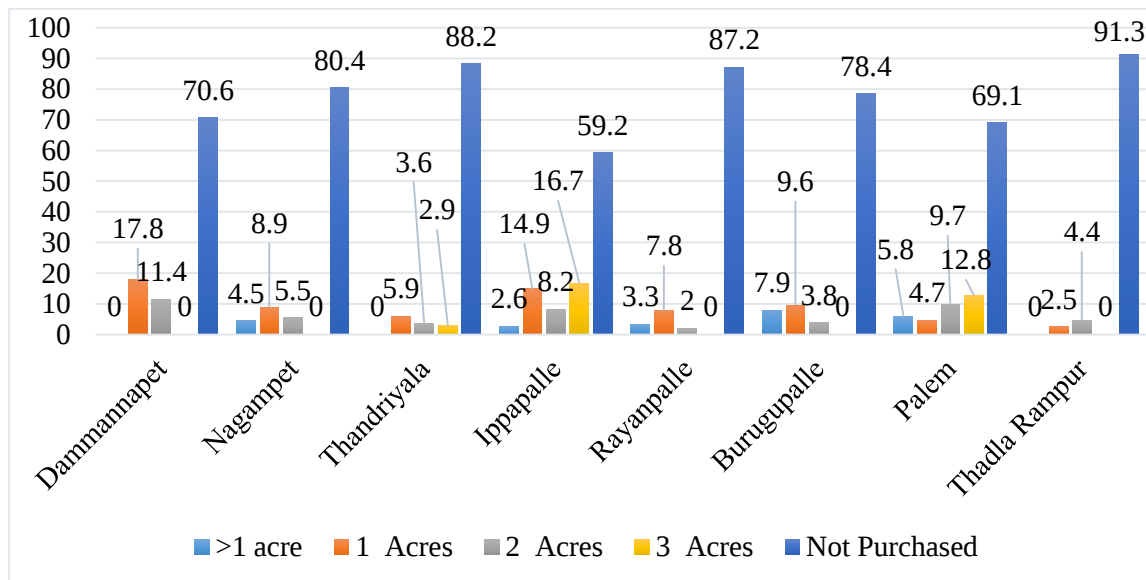
4. Part II

Part II includes the impact of husbands' emigration on the state of agriculture and allied activities. The effects on the women's social, economic, and psychological status was discussed. The decision-making status and struggle after the husband's emigration, the network is supporting in need concerned.

4.1. Purchasing the Cultivation Land by the Sample Respondents

The state of graph no. 5:9 indicates that the remittances from the emigration used in buying land mean that agriculture's importance is high. But still, after purchasing lands and accumulating remittances, emigrants were not showing interest in coming back for a complete lifetime. The agricultural land is purchased by the emigrants already who have their land. Seven per cent were from no landowners before the emigration. Purchasing land for agriculture is given priority among the upper caste people. Still, other community people share after the debts clearance, basic needs, and social activities like marriages, deaths, etc.

Graph No.5.9: Cultivation Land Purchased after Emigration of Husband by Sample Respondents in Sample Villages (percentage)



Source: Compiled from field data

On average, 22 per cent of the sample respondents purchased the cultivation lands. Among them, nine per cent of them purchased one-acre land, which is the highest and the lowest is less than one acre land with one percentage. With this, 71 per cent of the total sample respondents hold the cultivation land. It means 15 per cent of the land purchasers are from already cultivation landowners. So, 29 per cent of them only do not possess the cultivation land after the emigration of their husbands.

Tenant cultivation was found in emigrated regions of sample villages. It helps to understand the agriculture status after the husband's emigration and position of the remittances and their impact on agriculture.

4.2. Tenant Cultivation

There are two types of tenant cultivations: tenant cultivation by others increased, and tenant cultivation by the respondents was also positively affected. Tenant cultivation by respondents means taking the others' land for cultivation, which needs more labour and workload. It indicates the state of women in agriculture when the husband emigrated. In this type of cultivation, the owner of agricultural land gives to someone, and the owner shares half of the work in tenant cultivation by others. The share of the production was of two types, such as 1/4th portion of the output if there was no bore well in the tenant land and 50–50 share if they have bore well or water facility.

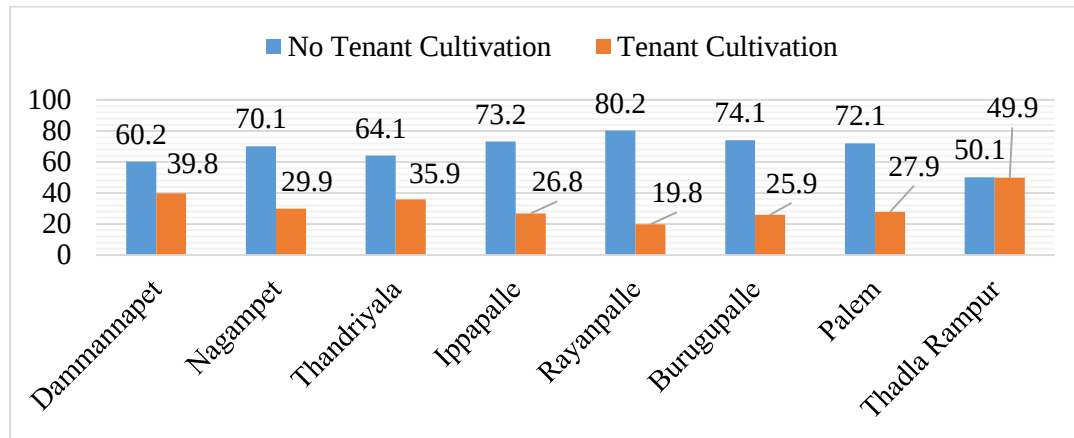
4.2.1. Tenant Cultivation by the Sample Respondents

The increased number of remittances may cause tenant cultivation by taking others' land. 32 per cent of the sample respondents were doing tenant cultivation, and 68 per cent of them did not do tenant cultivation on average. It also helps to understand the state of the capability to maintain agriculture by the sample respondents.

In Tadla Rampur, the upper caste people were staying along with in-laws. The father-in-law and mother-in-law, so they help in the maintenance of agriculture. In Dammannapet, the neighbour lands occupied by the sample respondents to do tenant cultivation. The reason was that they had cultivation lands that were very near to their houses, almost connected to the village. In Thandriyala, with the help of sons, mothers were maintaining agriculture and cattle. They have water sources that are also in good

condition. When it comes to Palem, the agricultural lands were far from home. That is why they find it difficult to provide water and go in between nights. In Rayanpalle and Burugupalle, the respondents prioritised kins and agriculture in the sharing method (50–50), but the reasons differed. In Burugupalle, the respondents chose only near kins because of extramarital affairs and gossiping from family members. But in the case of Rayanpalle, the respondents feel secure working with near kins because they were very supportive during the husband’s absence. In Burugupalle and Rayanpalle, Nagampet, Ippapalle, and Palem, very few cases of tenant cultivation by the respondents as shown in the graph.

Graph No. 5.10: Distribution of Tenant Cultivation by the Sample Respondents in Sample Villages (percentage)



Source: Compiled from field data

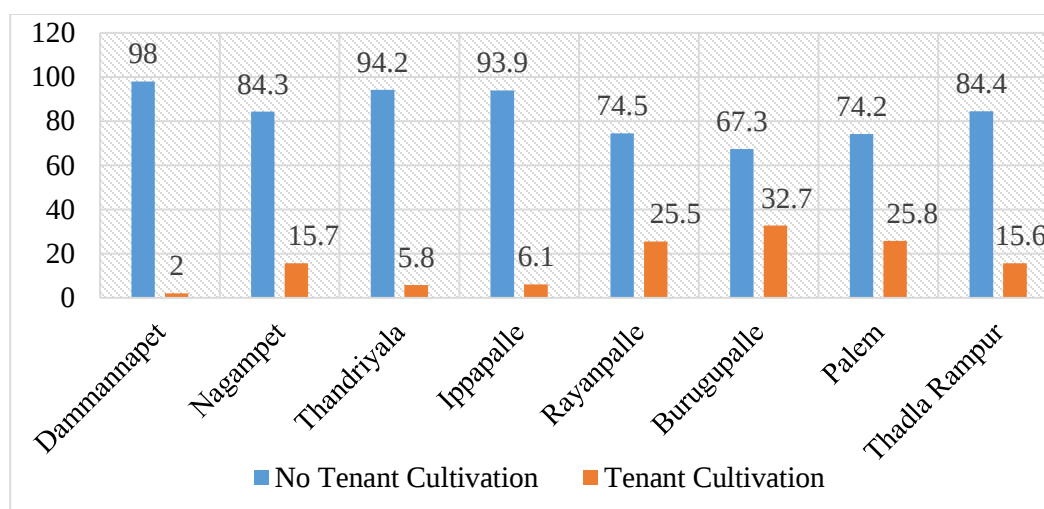
Before the emigration of husbands, 36 per cent of them had no land and were sold out for visas and other needs. That is why they were doing others’ land cultivation. And also, others means non-emigrants. They were cultivating because they did not get sufficient employment throughout the year. So they have to cultivate. And the women who do have lands but forsake of family welfare were doing tenant cultivation. Doing tenant cultivation indicates the women’s capability, strength, and need. Before the tenant cultivation decision, women make critical decisions to relate with others in collective work. They do not want to leave the land without cultivation. So they make choices out of their boundary. Leder *et al.* (2019) say that women’s critical thinking indicates the political thought of the feminist ideology or Feminist Political Ecology (FPE). Tenant cultivation is also called collective

cultivation. It is a decision made in social relations, communal relations in ambivalent conditions.

4.2.2. Tenant Cultivation of the Respondents' Land by Others

Non-emigrants do tenant cultivation by taking the sample respondents' lands is another crucial factor in the emigrated region to understand agriculture. Doing agriculture work in their land was very difficult without the husband's support and help in physical. In Tandriyala and Dammannapet, tenant cultivation by the others was lesser than respondents' tenant cultivation. Because after husband's emigration, also the respondents were doing agriculture work.

Table No.5.11: Distribution of Tenant Cultivation of Sample Respondents' Lands by Non-Emigrants in Sample Villages (percentage)



Source: Compiled from field data

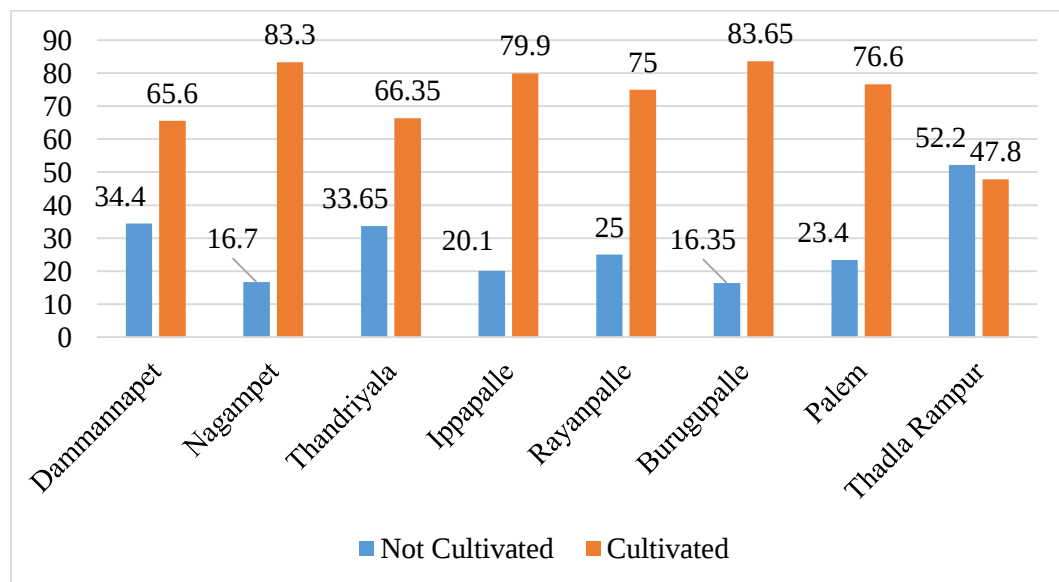
On average, 16 per cent of the sample respondents have given for tenant cultivation to others. Out of 71 per cent of the total cultivators, the calculation has been done. In Palem and Tadla Rampur, women prefer to give to tenant cultivation. The women remain at home with beedi work and employment programmes and sometimes watch their lands in part of tenant cultivation. But in Dammannapet was not showing the tenant cultivation. The women were successful in upholding their own lands' cultivation. Burugupalle and Rayanpalle, the tenant cultivation, gave to their near kins of husband. In Palem, the grounds

were very far from homes, so they gave away to others, and husbands were also earning a good amount, so they took half of the lands to cultivate themselves to take care of health and children education purposes.

4.3. Cultivation of the Agriculture Land by the Sample Respondents

Women were cultivating agricultural land after their husbands' emigration. They were not proficient in understanding the cropping, etc., despite having many other problems. Still, they do not want to keep lands fallow; instead, they want to support the family economically. They were doing multi activities after the emigration of their husband, like taking care of children, home activities, caring for in-laws, and agriculture work. They were doing the agriculture work with the support of the male child in the family, in-laws and kins of husband and herself. In her husband's absence, the respondents' flow of parents and siblings is high to her home. They help when she needs it. It also indicates the positive attribute of the sample respondents.

Graph No.5.12: Distribution of Crop Cultivation by the Sample Respondents in Sample Villages (percentage)



Source: Compiled from field data

On average, 74 per cent of the sample respondents cultivate the crop in the absence of the husband. It includes 71 per cent of the landowners and 29 per cent of landless respondents with tenant cultivation. Out of the, 26 per cent of them were not cultivating means though they have land but not cultivating for several reasons. Among them, 17.44 per cent were tenant cultivators from landless respondents, and 56.66 per cent were landowners of the 71 per cent of the crop cultivators.

The respondents said no, who could not do the agriculture. Their lands were not under a water flow, even though they had bore wells or lakes not filled because there was no rain. The lands almost were fallow lands due to the scarcity of water. That is why they go for a hundred day's programme and beedi work but do not cultivate. If they wanted to produce also, their cultivation lands were far from home. The support network was not there, such as kins or sons.

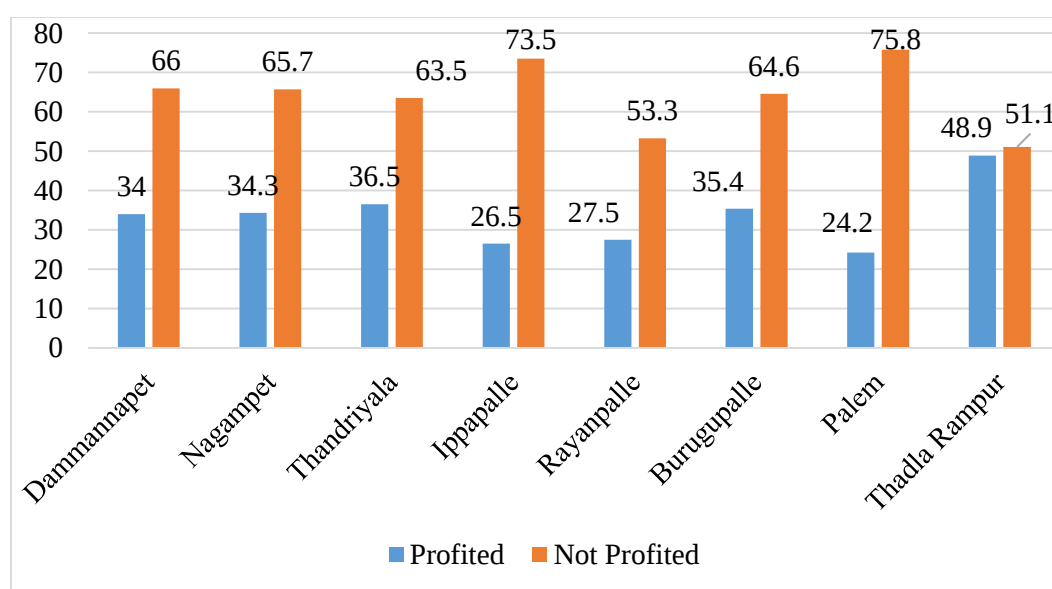
4.3.1. Improvement in the Crop Cultivation by the Sample Respondents

After the husband's emigration, agriculture indicates women's improvement because they were always dependent on somebody from childhood. If they know something also, not allowed to express, father, says you know nothing. In the same way, the husband says, you don't know anything because males are dominant. But during the husband's absence, women start doing all the works alone in nature and agriculture work. In that situation, doing agriculture and making profits is a very favourable implication of the women. So it indicates women's capability to do anything but society always attacks women's minds. They say women cannot do anything as they were nothing without male support. But it was proven as it was wrong. This study was conducted to understand the women's status but not to underestimate the men.

Out of the 74 per cent of the total land, cultivators are as total and calculated them profited and not profited percentages of the sample respondents. On average, 66 per cent of the respondents said they did not profit because they could not achieve sufficient profit because of low skills to identify the insects, inability to give water timely, and unavailability of labour. They said one person is needed to work on time to keep water. But they do not even have kins to help. In addition, they were unaware of the cropping

perfectly. They were just following neighbour croppers. Whatever they do for pesticides and others, blindly following, but no one enquires about the (tegulu) infection to the crop. They cannot go to the shop to inquire about the disease they got on the crop. Until they find out about the disease, time expires. In the case of 34 per cent of the respondents said they could find the difference in crop and follow all the details along with neighbour croppers.

Graph No.5.13: Distribution of Earned Profit of the Cultivation Crop by the Sample Respondents in Sample Villages (percentage)



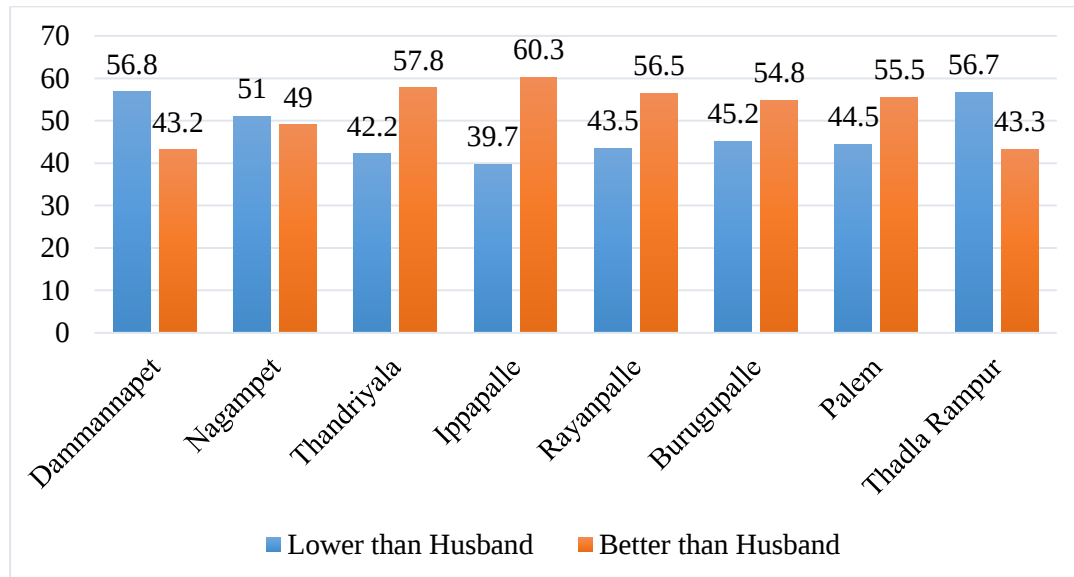
Source: Compiled from field data

The improved or developed sample respondents have profited, and they were better than their husbands. It is a vital indicator because of the respondent's ability and competence with the surrounding environment. The women were earning equal or more to their husbands, which was a significant task and brought the profitable production, which was better than their husbands. The women were giving credit to the environment and water facility, and all. But they were pleased to express they earned well than before.

On average, 41 percentage cultivator sample respondents profited lower than their husbands. And 59 per cent of them profited more than their husbands out of the 74 per cent of the cultivators. For instance, various examples were Tandriyala, Palem, Dammannapet,

Nagampet, Burugupalle, and Tadla Rampur sample villages. The models were Lenka Babai (40) from Burugupalle, Yenganti Ammai (55), Sarala (43) from Palem, Koli Jalaja (24), Basa Chinna Gangu (55), Guguloth Neela (42), and Nampally Anasuya (43) from Ippapalle, Erravelli Lavanya (38), Janagama Pushpalatha (40), Cheruku Chinna Deva, and Cheruku Laxmi (43) from the sample villages. Likewise, women from all the villages gained profits in cultivating the crops. But the instances finding better than their husband's indicates the women's power and consciousness in producing the crop. Let's see the difference after the husband's emigration in the women's agriculture production.

Graph No. 5.14: Distribution of Profit Earned Better than their Husbands by the Sample Respondents in Sample Villages (percentage)



Source: Compiled from field data

The responses of the respondents were recorded here as yes, no. The responses recorded whether they were better than before the husband's emigration or not. The reactions are understood as women's improvement and capability in the production process. They could do all the agriculture-based works and get updated every day. They work for labour or cultivation in agricultural land.

The respondents change fertilisers when attacks of insects to the crops. But they were not able to prepare the seeds for themselves. They buy from outsiders who are upper

caste people and society (means where agricultural seeds are sold as per government instructions). Pothangal Narsu from Palem village prepared seeds for her fields from her previous production but did not succeed because of no skills in preparation. She says that she never stopped cultivating the crop in 30 years of life, whether there was rain or no rain. She was proud of her deeds and her husband too. The family's name identified with Narsu only, but the husband never ignored and scolded her for something. It indicates the complete empowerment of women. She had the power to hold up the family's economic status and children's marriages. She managed things until the husband came from foreign. She says she was never at home for simple things, shows succeeded in agriculture work, and they proved better than before, but they have to come across so many challenges in various forms as given below.

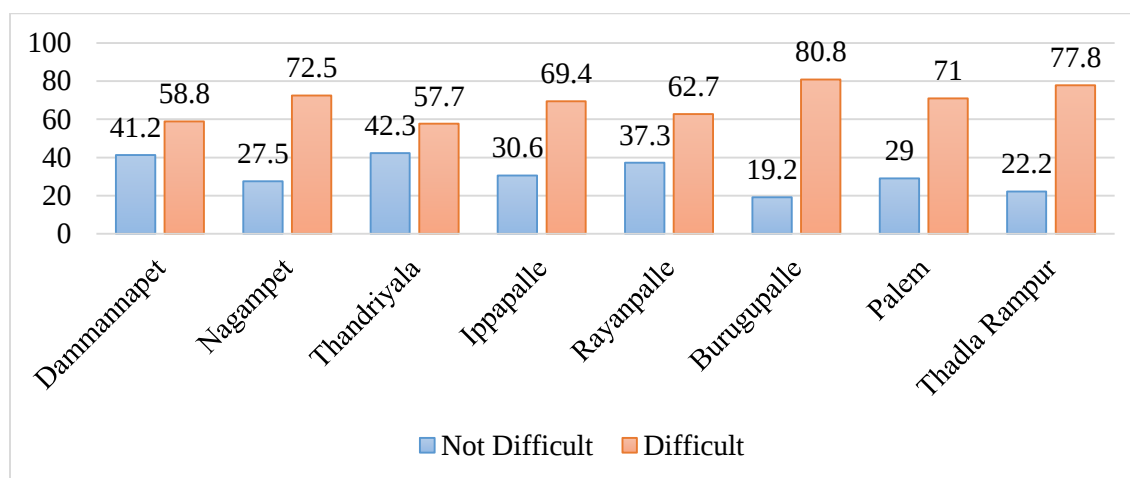
4.4. Difficulty in Agriculture Work of the Sample Respondents

The difficulties in agriculture after the husband's emigration were providing water to the crop, watching overnight water facility, bringing water from canals in the queue, selling the production, waiting in beats for 15 days to one month by leaving the children at home, and getting fertilisers, seeds, etc. These things generally, male does for agriculture. Typically, big landlords keep the contract labour for one year (jeethagadu who get paid twice or once in year, a bulk amount) for doing all those things. But one, two acres or small landowners cannot afford those wages. In addition, in Palem, Tandriyala, the lands were connected to other villages because the upper caste people occupied nearby lands. The other sample villages were also a little better but could not reach midnight to provide water. In Nagampet and Dammannapet, people still depend on a good irrigation system. They have a canal system to their village but dried because of low rainfall, and all the wells dried. All the sample villages have no lakes and canals for irrigation. That is why it was challenging, but still, they were doing agriculture work.

On average, 66 per cent of sample respondents out of 74 per cent of the cultivators said difficult agriculture work. For instance, Pullayala Sujatha (25) w/o Narasimlu (Palem) went to Dubai because of debts four years ago. They have only one acre of land but below the big landlords in the queue. She went at midnight to get water from the canal like every male person, but the big landowners did not allow her to get it even though she came earlier.

They said that if we give to the small landowner when we can get. It was complicated for us to provide; she could get it at any time since she was a small landowner, like that they have delayed her for one month but did not give the water.

Graph No. 5.15: State of Difficulty of Sample Respondents in Sample Villages
(percentage)



Source: Compiled from field data

Another sample respondent also faced a complicated situation while providing water at night. Basa Chinna Gangu from Ippapalle said that she did hard work in her husband's absence, such as keeping water herself to the fields and producing the crops. Once she opened the waterways into their crop field from canal water, she had to take a giant snake, sleeping by closing the water flow. She thought that it was a mud removal in the night, after taking the giant snake into hands that were sounding and thrown away. Like that, she did hard work when her husband was absent. She says that she was very proud to be a cultivator.

It is complicated for women to know the weeds and insects at the starting stage because that damage the crop and production after a certain period. During harvest season also they were not able to bring the machine on time because of communication problems. They cannot follow the new seeds and pesticides that were good for weeds and insects because gents go to shop to find the differences. For women, they have to depend on other people only. Sometimes they may not give suitable pesticides for their crop but blindly

follow others. In Burugupalle, women reported not going to shops for new information. If they want to ask for any information to a male person, the neighbours gossip wrongly and attach extramarital affairs immediately. The lacuna of policies information to the women was found.

That is why it is important to know the ability to finish all those work out of their difficulties. After the harvesting, selling the produced crop was the biggest issue for women. They cannot sell as per government rates because 61 per cent of respondents have said less load of production. The big farmers can dry and sell in beats to government rate. But not possible to these pretty landowners. Because the queue is too big and drying and gathering daily take two persons a day, these women are not likely to. That is why they were selling the private agents at less price.

4.5. Ability to Manage the Agriculture Work by the Sample Respondents

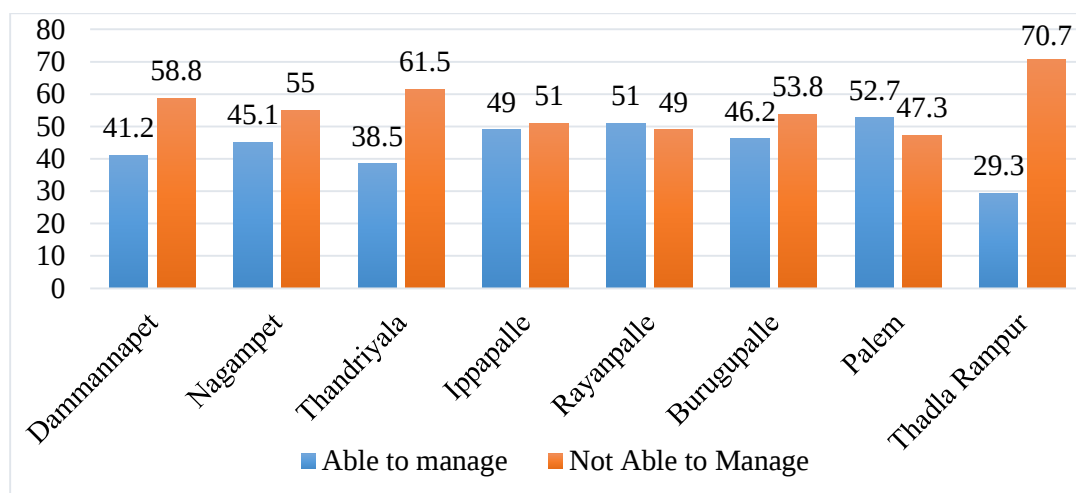
Able to manage means they were capable, and they say somehow, it was their duty to finish. So they were taking responsibility and finishing it. In Ippapalle, Thandriyala, Palem (half of the respondents), Burugupalle, Tadla Rampur, the respondents reported a courageous mindset. They have finished it and be proud of themselves, and their husbands also respect their decisions at home and outside.

Though 61 per cent of them were able to manage agriculture work, the rest were 39 per cent of respondents unable to operate because of electricity problems, distance, and financial issues that were forcing them to stop working. Besides, the distance issue and others felt heavy for women because they did not have support. In the table shown, as women feel empowered, they have a support system from the husband's family members such as mother-in-law, father-in-law, or any of kin. In all the sample villages, mainly the complaints were there, such as they do not have kins or sons or any other support them, as the table given below.

The respondents have not accepted the work and earned profits after the emigration of their husbands. During the husband's absence, the credibility shifts to someone supportive who was a male or older person. The answer from women was of two types. When the responsible person is in front, they prioritise that person or take real credibility

themselves. It indicates that male domination was structurally made, but women performed all the activities functionally.

Graph No. 5.16: Ability to Manage Agriculture by the Sample Respondents in Sample Villages (percentage)



Source: Compiled from field data

But present days, the credibility of the husband's absence also goes to him. 61 per cent of the women themselves were interested in crediting themselves because they were away from home and doing hard work for the family. When we see the difference between divisions of labour before this generation, the credibility used to have remained with women only if they worked hard. For instance, Yenganti Ammai, Pothangal Narsu, Thappeta Sarala, etc., because they used to do agriculture work the whole day and night. But nowadays, women work multiple jobs like beedi work, agriculture labour work, and hundred days programme work, but no identity for them. The kind of agriculture work remains impact on women; for instance, the tenant cultivation has increased where the respect for women also decreased. Earlier, women were cultivators; the patriarchy was there, but the family name was called or known by women. The structural name of the family does not change, but the respect and identity for a woman were there.

4.6. Support System of the Sample Respondents

The issue with the women was that they did not have kins and sons to get help, mainly in Thadla Rampur village people were, instead of search of support from the kins giving land for tenant cultivation to them only, from SC community especially.

During the emigration of husbands, relatives also were very helpful for women but did not get any support in physical labour, but the moral support was there. During the husband's emigration, the response towards the family is shown here. The relatives in need of agriculture do not respond, but they react for festivals and occasions. Most women do not prefer to ask anybody during the absence of a husband because everyone has their responsibilities towards their own families. Not only that, sometimes husbands were becoming the biggest hindrance for them. They did not support it. Instead, they disturbed if women wanted to do. That is why Sunketa Sulochana has taken the tough decision.

Table No.5.16: Help of Kins and Relatives in Agriculture to the Sample Respondents in Sample Villages (percentage)

Relation	Kins			Relatives			Total
Response	Do not Respond	Helps in Need	No Kins	Do not Respond	No	Yes	
Dammannapet	29(56.9)	15(29.4)	7(13.7)	13(25.5)	24(47.1)	14(27.5)	51
Nagampet	32(62.7)	12(21.6)	7(13.7)	23(45.1)	21(41.2)	7(13.7)	51
Thandriyal	25(48.1)	22(42.3)	5(9.6)	12(23.1)	24(46.2)	16(30.8)	52
Ippapalle	22(44.9)	25(51)	2(4.1)	22(44.9)	11(22.4)	16(32.7)	49
Rayanpalle	28(54.9)	21(41.2)	2(3.9)	19(37.3)	26(51)	6(11.8)	51
Burugupalle	22(42.3)	21(40.4)	9(17.3)	16(30.8)	21(40.4)	15(28.8)	52
Palem	35(56.5)	22(35.5)	5(8.1)	26(41.9)	22(22.6)	14(22.6)	62
Thadla Rampur	15(33.3)	21(46.7)	9(20)	15(33.3)	18(40)	12(26.7)	45

Source: Compiled from field data

Sunketa Sulochana (38) w/o Ramulu went to Dubai 11 years ago. When he was there in India, he misused the money they cultivated and distributed to the other ladies and on drinking, smoking. One year she allowed him to do cultivation. Later, she cultivated the crops and brought the money on her strength. She gives money for interests also. She grows the ten acres of land cultivation. She cannot ask for help from others when she is in need

because she is very independent. She constructed the house with extra rooms for granary, pesticides, and seeds. She is much empowered and a model to the ladies in the village.

In the same way, Vanga Venkat Raju (40) w/o Gangadhar went to Dubai 10 years ago. They bought three acres of land after the husband's emigration. She says she is strong enough to do any work. She says her land is far from home, and power cuttings were there. In the night also she needs to go for fetching water to the field. And she keeps the grains in beet after harvesting for selling. The process takes a long time, sometimes weeks to months. She says that we cannot trust other people. That is why she stays there and watches over. She was also taking care of her divorced sister and her children at home. She has to manage things with wage workers, such as pesticides, fertilisers, and crop feeding. She does not ask people to work freely, even for small things. She says if I ask for help for a small thing, they may gossip wrongly, as they did something I cannot digest. So keeping away the people from whispers is very important—thus, women choose the direction and become more substantial out of their troubles and tensions. The psychological impact on them after their husband's emigration is below.

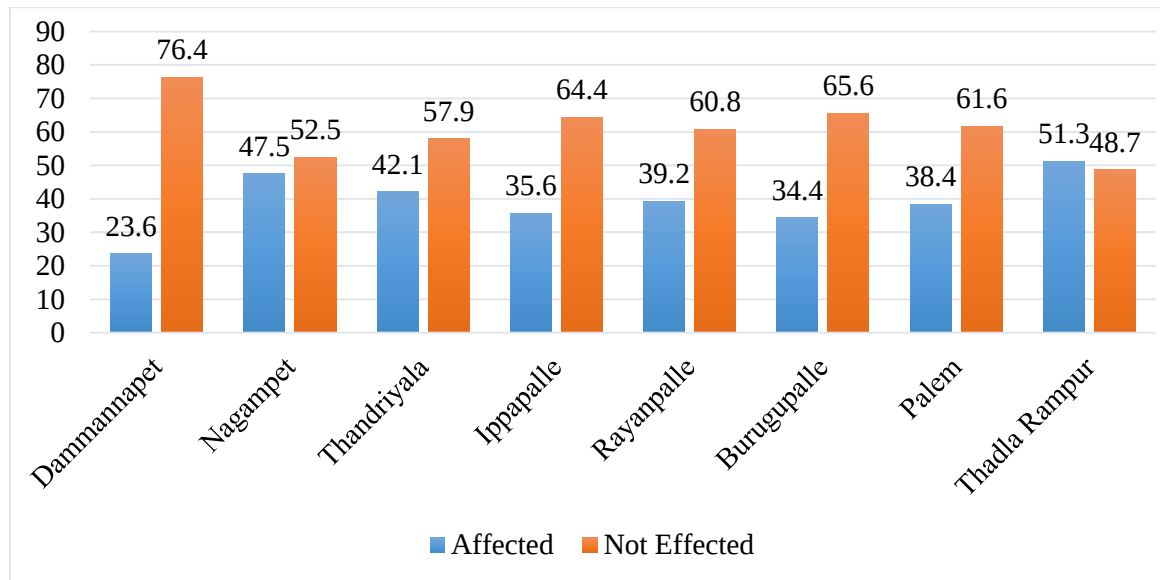
4.6. Psychological Effect on Sample Respondents

Every woman faces change and difficulty after her husband's emigration, but adjusting to the situations and conditions makes them strong. Depending on others, the habit of relying on others is common for women from childhood, such as father, brother, husband, and son. But in emigration, suddenly, the husband leaves the woman alone at home with the extra burden. Physical labour is another load to uphold, but the emptiness of a home without a husband brings many psychological changes.

On average, 39 per cent of the sample respondents were affected, and 61 per cent of them were not affected psychologically. The first visit of the husband's emigration takes time to adjust to women. Because they have to start a new lifestyle like paying the current bill, taking children to the school, bringing medicine, grocery and outdoor activities must be fulfilled by the women. Those works were before the husband's emigration, fulfilled by the husband. But getting into direct contact with society for outdoor activities looks like

something new and strange and later period becomes common. Thus in Rayanpalle village, people were psychologically weaker because they were new to emigration.

Graph No.5.17: Psychological Effect on Sample Respondents in Sample Villages
(percentage)



Source: Compiled from field data

For instance, Egga Sravanthi (25) w/o Yadagiri went to Dubai two years ago because of an improper water facility for the fields. The husband's absence made an unfortunate position to that woman. Psychologically, she has to adapt to the situation, but Sravanthi could not handle it because she was utterly dependent on her husband. She could do agriculture work, but she could not digest her husband's absence and used to fall down wherever she stood. Because of that reason, her husband also came back home and went back after the problem was settled.

One more instance is Palepu Ramya (23) w/o Praveen, who went to Dubai six months ago on a company visa. He did not want to go but for the family welfare, and they did not even have agricultural land to cultivate. He used to work in beat as a selling agent during the season. He does not have employment during the off-season, so he takes a contract from painting and others. But employment is not available regularly. That is why he went. But after that, Ramya has to pass through the other gossips by her neighbours and

kins' wives. She is beautiful, so she cannot speak to anybody as per norms created by them. If anybody comes home to bring water, also people gossip about her. It isn't easy for her to carry heavy loads if someone does not help her. This kind of situation is for every woman after the first move of the husband. But later, it becomes familiar to them, and they start working themselves into the people.

In the same way, Swapna (32) w/o Ramesh went to Saudi six years ago for the safety of the children. She was from Palem and a well-empowered lady. She cultivated the two and a half acres of land. The lady had to stop work for two years because people gossiped badly about her. She felt bad about herself for two years and did not do any work. But later, the financial activities were not helpful, so; she decided to be tit for tat in society. And encouraged herself and started doing the agriculture work. She changed the pattern of cultivation of the crop. Instead of cultivating thota, she cultivated the rice, which is low profitable compared to thota. It is also a part of FPE. She did not escape from agriculture but changed the pattern and moved forward.

Dammannapet and Nagampet and all the villages' women except Rayanpalle village respondents said they adopted it by imitating others and for family welfare and children's lifestyle. Palem village respondents sent their husbands away because they believed their husbands do not work here. Running a family on a single person's salary does not help anymore. Because every person in the SC category chooses to emigrate from childhood, they do not have more agricultural lands to survive on them. In addition, male children do not show interest in studies. That is why in Palem, women mentally settled with an idea of emigration. Thadla Rampur villagers, the situations at household forced them to agree to emigration, but a high percentage of the population after Rayanpalle disturbed from this village only. That is why the state of the mental condition of the sample villages was different. In Palem village, women were happy because their husbands were somehow working. They empowered than other sample villages. Almost every person try a minimum of three to four times for a visa. One person in Palem village tried eight times for a permit but failed to get it.

If we say women became more substantial after the emigration of husbands. They indeed move to every corner of works from household to agriculture. Women carry out

various activities. They have become powerful enough to face the challenges. In Dammannapet, more than 50 per cent of the emigrants almost forgot to go out and do works after coming back for a while. And also they do not do any work. The respondents said that remittances transactions are done by women only. It is a slow process of change among women. They transformed into strong women and self-satisfactory and empowered.

4.7. Satisfaction Status of the Sample Respondents

Though they were better than before, the husbands' emigration or not, self-satisfaction is essential. It indicates the value of self-empowered status. Society shows us that women degrade themselves and all the credit given to someone who helps for a while. That is the reason to find satisfaction because it varies from the perspective of the self and others. On average, 66 per cent of the sample respondents were satisfied, and 34 per cent of them were not satisfied out of the total respondents.

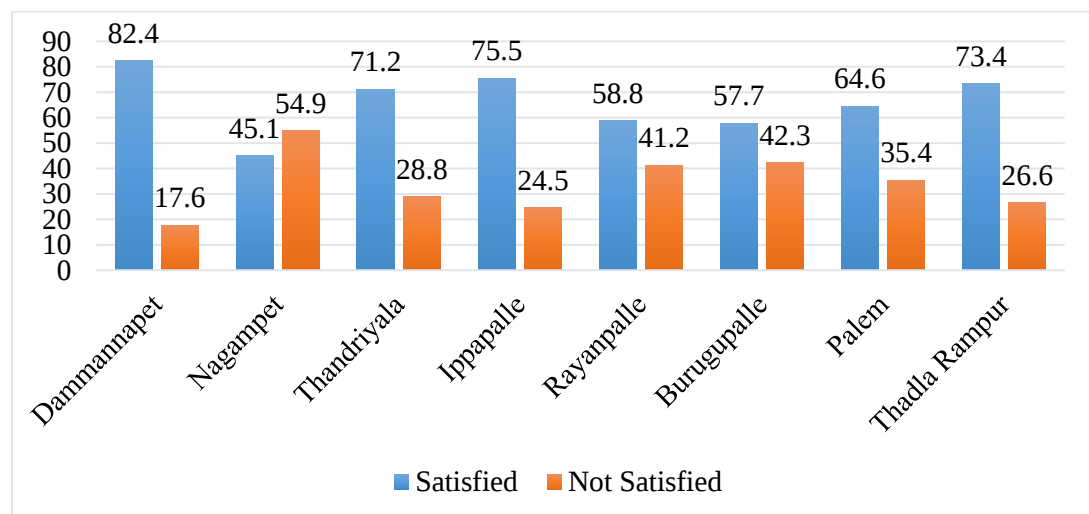
Here, the satisfaction of the sample respondents is measured based on money and support, respect for the women's work, and her complex labour identity or being togetherness in need. The identity of the women was missing within the emigrant family. They were not satisfied either with the emigration of husbands or self-improvement. However, husbands did a lot for the family in economic support. But they were out for 20–30 years minimum to maximum. That is why women feel everything was finished. More than 50 years age group people also not satisfied because, at that age, they were expecting the company of husband but family needs and children marriages force them to sacrifice.

For instance, Nerella Sarala (43) w/o Suresh went to Dubai 25 years ago to develop the family. They have a good name and fame in the village. Sarala does the total agriculture work through phone only. She suffered from health issues, physically and psychologically, for 15 years. She says 'she can survive just because of the husband only or else she was not interested in living life.' She got the decision power to do every work related to the economy and agriculture independently. Her husband never questions her because he believes in her ultimately. When she got over problem suffered from deadly stomach pain, no one was there to support her, neither her parents nor her husband's parents except her husband and his friends. She cannot conceive the children anymore (they have one daughter), but her husband supported her entirely in her health conditions when I asked

how is your life without her husband. She said, ‘antha aipoinchi, what else to see in life’. They are disappointed with the life of emigration of their husband. But they are suffering for their children. When I asked Lenka Babai in the village Burugupalle, ‘for a long time your husband has been outside and you were alone doing a lot here in agriculture and facing so many challenges. She said I do not get anything in mind when I see my children. Everything fades away. And I do not bother about other people. Whatever we do, they talk, but when we need something, no one helps us’. It indicates the value of the work is lower in India if they have proper wages and provision of employment and they can stay back. And the satisfaction of the respondents does not depend on their capability but depends on the individual’s psychological status.

After observing both the ladies personally, Sarala is more empowered and developed economically but lacks self-satisfaction. But in society, she is recognised as a strong person economically and personally. But the pleasure was missing but getting adjusted with situations. But in the case of Lenka Babai, she made a decision and became strong enough to be. The real empowerment lies in the self-satisfaction of the woman. Both of them were empowered because they successfully achieved the after the husband’s emigration.

Graph No. 5.18: Status of Satisfaction of Sample Respondents in Sample Villages (percentage)



Source: Compiled from field data

On average, 34 per cent of the people were happy to take the credit for the work as they did something individually. But still, some people do not want to take the glory alone. But give it to son, husbands' kins, mother-in-law or father-in-law, or respondent's parents. Nothing like that means they must have achieved but do not take alone on their name, which indicates whether they were shy or afraid. In front of others, if they take the credit, in the future may not help when they are in need. Though they were not interested in giving priority to others, they were offering.

It is imperative to point to know that it changes after the emigration of men. It starts in the social and psychological environment. The moment the husband emigrates for the first time, the women's life begins with bringing fertilisers, seeds, labour for work, talking to others regarding crop varieties, etc. Stands at counters where men stand was tough but get used to it after a certain period. Almost all the houses go for emigration in this region, so women do all the homework. That is by imitating other women already who experienced and family members. But 34 per cent of the population from all sample villages were not happy with the concept of emigration. Still, the family needs and many forces play a significant role, as shown in the emigration section.

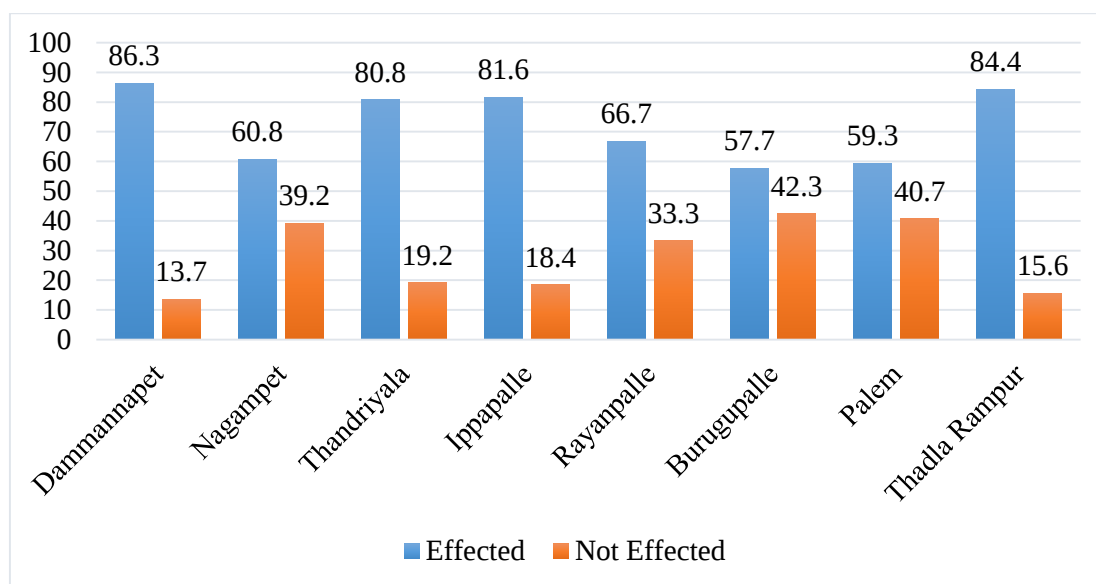
4.8. Challenges of Health Issues on Sample Respondents

Respondents face challenges in every step of life. They have additional responsibilities and have to fulfil them all of suddenly alone. But those conditions were not so simple to handle. Such as health issues. On average, 71.24 per cent of them have reported health of the family member was troubling. 27.76 per cent of them reported health problems they have faced, but those were not so difficult to handle without a husband. Women were primarily worried about their children's health, like stomach pain, joint pain, which causes irrespective of time.

For instance, Mamilla Anitha (32 years) w/o Nagaiah went to Bahrain seven years ago. Anitha suffered from health issues but had no one to help her in agriculture and household works. She could not move for any help from her husband's brother's family because they also had similar issues like every family was facing. She could not move to

her mother's family for any help because they were not wealthy. She says if they could help us, her husband could not emigrate for a minimum lifestyle.

Graph No. 5.19: Status of the Sample Respondents Effected by Health Issues in Sample Villages (percentage)



Source: Compiled from field data

One day, Anitha's daughter suffered from stomach pain at midnight, which was not bearable, but nobody to help them go to the doctor that night. The only option was left them was crying with her daughter till the morning. It was an unforgettable condition in her life, like that they could not seek anybody to help in uncommon timings. She has severe back pain, but nobody to help her works. She has to finish all the work that males and females have to do at home and in agriculture. And she also does the beedi work during unseason. She was psychologically weak before her husband's emigration, but she strengthened by coming across through the troubles afterwards. She says if we cannot help ourselves, no other can help us.

A different instance has been provided from the same village that Kankanala Chandra Kala w/o Ramesh (35) went to Saudi only eight months ago. After the emigration of Ramesh, his son has attacked by a neurons problem. Boy was studying 9th class. Suddenly his body numbed, and he could not move body parts. Only Chandra Kala was

there at home. She could not understand what was happening with her son. She was adjusting to the absence of her husband's environment, and suddenly, this attack brought the shock. At that midnight, she could not help herself. But the husband only called to everyone in the village and nearer and dearer persons to help his wife. In three months, they spent nine lakhs of rupees with the help of the village president, MPTC, shop vendors, and so many people who have come in front to help. They also have sold out all the land properties and gold properties. In selling the properties, community members and relatives also responded and assisted in time.

She says immediate health problem after the husband's emigration broke her. She has never been out of the home without her husband and family. But in that health condition, she was there for 15 days in Karimnagar hospital. She studied only fifth class, so she could not understand what was happening with her son, but at that time, all decisions were taken by her only with the help of doctors' explanations. She says she lost her all courage and hope. She was just empty during that time. She says her husband went for a better life in the future, but moving out was very difficult to manage without him. But she cannot escape from the situation also. She says she could have the power to understand the problem. The communication and level of understanding about health and needs would not know before. That is why women should also know everything from their surroundings when it happens in society to protect when they need support in family or community.

Health is crucial for every human being, but remittances are used verily in percentage in all the sample villages. It is tough to manage things without a husband, and they feel complicated not only because of health problems but also because of overloaded work. The challenges they face are given below.

4.9. Challenges in Agriculture Faced by Sample Respondents

Some women in the sample villages carried the agriculture work after the husband's emigration without prior knowledge, and it was challenging to handle on their own. The causes were that the distance of agricultural land from home is the primary issue among the sample villages except for Dammannapet and Thandriyala. The respondents were high in percentage from lower communities and their lands were far from home. That is why

women cannot go alone. They need a company to hold up agriculture work. That is why the respondents seek the help of men whether that is the son or kins of the husband or her family members. The knowledge of doing agriculture was not a big issue for them because they followed others blindly. For instance, Lenka Babai (46) w/o Kishore went to Dubai 12 years ago for children welfare. She says they face many challenges after her husband's emigration, like borrowing money in need for agriculture also a big task. They cannot ask because people say you only have money because our family is not earning like your husband. It becomes prestigious, so they do not even ask for money in need. And if they talk to any male person, they gossip as these women are free and cultureless. The challenges to buying seeds and pesticides were very high. They find information through the known persons but cannot go to any shop. Or else gossips probed against them. She says whatever they were facing now just for their children's well-being.

Women faced problems because of the wetlands, and they could not carry loads of fertilisers alone or without the help of male support. Every time, they had to take two bags of urea, phosphorus, and other drugs for crops with the help of a male. If they come for one hour also, the labour takes equal whole day charges—this method of using labour for doing pestilence and all. For landlords, it is beneficial and supportive but not for small landowners. They will be under losses if they depend on labour for every work. And getting money back from the dealer after selling the production was also difficult for women. The other difficulty was water flow from the upper land to lower lands passing through (dungalu) small holes. But identifying them was very difficult for women. The neighbour croppers were not helpful because they felt, women also had enough money to support themselves.

Providing water to the fields was the biggest issue in the case of all the sample villages. In Palem the water facility through lakes was available, but women could not feed their fields because they were not big landlords. In Dammannapet and Nagampet, the water facility to the fields is done by dug wells and bore wells.

All the sample villages have canal and lake facilities, but they were not filled because of the low rainfall, so they depended on personal bore wells. Thandriyala Raju used wage labourers to provide water as a prominent landowner. In the case of small

landowners, they cannot afford the cost of labour, and they cannot work themselves because of the current night shifts and the long-distance of the lands from home.

In Morthad mandal, both the villages have different environmental conditions because, in Palem, they had well-irrigated lands. Still, in the case of Thadla Rampur, the land types were different, and water was also scarce. The broken lands were there; that is why men have chosen small shops and lost their money in losses. Lands were under the upper caste people. That's how the causes have increased to move away from the village. That is why women did not depend on agriculture after husbands' emigration. They were primarily working on beedi work and doing 100 days programme work. If the women do the agriculture work, take the help of kins and sons. And they have fewer lands, so they were not interested in investing more in the land.

In Rayanpalle, the lands were mixed with good and broken soils. They do not have water because of a low rainfall. Women were doing the agriculture work with the help of kins. In Rayanpalle, 95 per cent of respondents have land but could not cultivate themselves because of water scarcity. But they were growing vegetables instead of rice. The pattern of cultivation has taken a turn.

For instance, in Ippapalle Guguloth Neela (40) w/o Babia went to Saudi Arabia because of unemployment. In agriculture, they have enough land, but the water facility was not there, so he left. In his absence, she was the only woman who did the whole work in agriculture and at home. She takes water from neighbours and provides for the crops. Kins were there, but no one helped in need. She has to walk over the four kilometres to sell out the grains. One month she was roaming to beet to sell the products. She walked daily eight kilometres to the beet and the village for one month. She feels empowered because she brings more amount of grains. But her kids were there at home, nobody to help them go to school. No relatives supported her. But during her husband's responsibility towards his brothers, everyone comes to seek help which hurts her.

4.10. Distribution of Financial Activities by the Sample Respondents

After the husband's emigration, holding the economic activity, the status of the husband shifts to the wife, the remittances received from the emigrants, income from agriculture

and another mode, MGNREGA wages. The utilisation of the economic resources helped to get some idea of the active impact on emigration and sample respondents.

Holding the monetary issues after the husband's emigration is challenging for the left behind agricultural women. However, the financial management activities, maturity levels and communication skills improved. In nuclear families, the usage of the money was given to women. In a joint family, the wife holds the responsibilities in the absence of the mother-in-law or father-in-law. Head of the family does not mean the family's financial management but also getting respect and fulfilling the duties. Because men make all the decisions and women finish only transactions, it is called the functional headship of the family but is structurally run by the male-only.

The respondents prioritise economic activities such as fulfilling social obligations, including marriages, deliveries, death, and birth ceremonies. Household goods, luxury items (refrigerator, T.V., radio, etc.), donations of religious/social institutions, and education of other household members were also prioritized later. Those were non-productive purposes. They were also used in productive works like purchasing fertilisers and immediate necessities like giving wages to labour. The remittances were used on significant assignments such as constructing the houses, purchasing additional lands for agriculture and housing and purchasing luxury items. They admitted to renovating houses, repairing the bore wells, and digging new bore wells because the remittances were in bulk to use them in these. The priority of spending the remittances is also based on the community. The upper caste people spend on lands and agriculture production, but lower caste people prioritise basic needs, debts, and social elements. Remittances used purposes such as the purchase of land, installation of the tube-wells, purchase of farm equipment, construction of a house, renovation of the house, purchase of fertilisers, pesticides, etc., purchase of livestock (buffaloes, cows, etc.).

The remittances used in the following manner use it to pay debts, 12 per cent. Still, it indicates the highest priority shown in the table and is basic needs of the family, 13 per cent after the family welfare, 22 per cent and an insurance payment with nine per cent. In every village, they did insurance; immediately after the husband's emigration, so the family benefits in unfortunate conditions. They use the accounts for deposits, i.e., nine per cent

and give money for interests. They use all this money after repaying debts of marriages and after settlement of losses in business activities etc.

Table No.5.17: Economic Distribution of Remittances by Sample Respondents
(percentage)

Economic Distribution	Population Distribution	Percentage
Family welfare	287	64.8
Basic needs of family	360	87.37
To pay debts	320	77.66
To buy utensils in HH needs	284	64.8
To buy gold	284	68.9
For insurance	355	86.16
Health	337	81.97
Children education fees	267	64.8
Deposits	257	62.3

Source: Compiled from field data

For Children's education, only six per cent used because fees did not apply to all the villages. In Burugupalle village, all the students go to government school only because the education system was very well and sent outside to residential schools and Navodaya. After SSC only, they move out, and they do not prefer to girl child education after SSC. That is how the family burns only boys' payments. And the girls stopped going to schools after the emigration of their father. In Rayanpalle, one girl, Ramana (SSC), stopped going to school because her mother's backbone was not working. She fell from the auto while going to daily wage employment to Kamareddy. That is why the family burden was taken care of by that child. In the same way, in Burugupalle village, the Laxmi did not allow her daughter to study because the family conditions do not allow girls after marriage. Instead of studying, she sent her to learn to tailor because that skill only can help girl children.

In the case of boys education also, stopped education, doing agriculture work, and taking care of the family. In the case of the Nizamabad district, on average, 90 per cent of the population is from young age destined to emigration. Yenganti Kavitha w/o Mahesh says that 'thandri padi koduku pannendu' nothing else happens. Who can teach them if they do not want to study at all? But Swapna from Palem, gives good education to her

children. She chooses the career settlement programmes like BSC agriculture and diploma in forest department courses offered.

In Rayanpalle's case, the idea of tradition and poverty caused to stop education, and children were very empowered and cautious about the family. In Nagampet also one boy emigrated at the age of 17 years. That is why the education fees played a minimum role in financial management. Managing the health issues was a common type of issue but not used for diseases in bulk amounts. 72 per cent on average of respondents reported severe issues of health. Health has been used 11th part and utensils in basic household needs in the family were only eight per cent.

Fashion related things got importance in emigrated houses like all imported items like phones, watches, bed sheets, kitchen items, food items, gold, etc. The remittances were misused by the teenage boys were seen in Burugupalle, Palem, Thadla Rampur, and all the sample villages of Karimnagar. There were various cases of misuse of the remittances by the children.

They were buying luxury items, developing the lifestyle, imitating the modern dressing, vehicles, beauty items from upper caste people and city lifestyle, for instance, Kolla Sunitha (35) w/o Sailu, who went to Dubai three years ago. They have only one room that is enough for two persons to sleep, but they did not prioritise constructing a home. Instead they bought a Pulsar bike for a son because he is studying. 10 per cent of the finances have been used in the purchase of gold. That is for marriages and one kind of deposit in the family. These were from all the economic sources of the family, but remittances uses are given below.

4.11. Maintenance of Remittances by the Sample Respondents

The remittances are very crucial after the husband's emigration. All the sample villages and respondents received remittances after emigration. In Burugupalle, three cases were reported with no remittances for one year because of husbands' extramarital affairs. The first year to two years of emigration remittances used to repay debts and later period used according to needs and necessity. Out of the total responses in sample villages, 96 per cent of them were positive responses that four per cent of them were not sending any money to

home. 83 per cent of them receive lower amounts because husbands were earning Rs. 20,000/- to Rs. 22,000/- per month. After all the expenses, like food, roaming charges, and all will be Rs. 10,000/- to Rs.12,000/-. Rest amount, they save and send them once in two months, or three months, or six months. For instance, Thogari Bhagya (34) w/o Rajaiah went to Dubai two years ago with debts. The debts were made for his drinking and used on sex girl expenses. After emigration also from, he did not even send money for one year. He sent to another lady only. Bhagya had to suffer in giving answers to moneylenders.

Poverty was concerned and used for marriages of siblings and daughters. Minimum lifestyle developed, infrastructure in home, buying agriculture land and agriculture related instruments bore digging and doing old bore repairs, etc., depending on usage of the respondents. The core idea of the thesis was not about poverty reduction, but the remittances fought against acute and relative poverty. The remittances are mainly used for repaying debts primarily. The debts were because of marriages and losses in business and agriculture activities. The seasonal employment in agriculture was not able to repay the debts. Later they start saving the amounts for marriages if required.

But the use of remittances in agriculture and agriculture-related activities has been given much importance because agriculture was their primary source of life. They were classified as development activities after the non-productive activities as provided in the financial management of the sample respondents. And, it helps in understanding the improvement in agriculture; it may bring back the emigration off in India. Since Kalvakuntla Chandra Shekhar Rao government is also taking care to reduce the emigration of the population through providing the 24 hours electricity and crop loans and Rs. 4000/- amount per acre for farmers in a part of the Rythu Bandhu scheme. 0.5 Million of them have insurance in the part of the Rythu Mithra scheme. New godowns were constructed for keeping the production (n.a. 2019).

In the case of Thadla Rampur, the population gave much importance to other activities like buying land, doing marriages, and other occasions, mainly the children's education and development. Thandriyala gives importance to agriculture, but the minority people do not prioritise agriculture because, after the emigration of the male member in the family, the women do not go out for employment. Burugupalle, Ippapalle, Nagampet

reports upper caste people only bought the cultivation lands. Palem was a much-developed village than other sample villages. And it has a positive response for emigration for purchasing land for agriculture, bore digging, housing, and construction of houses.

The buying of land for housing with 29 per cent was the prime position, and to buy agricultural land was 22 per cent overall. Because the house construction can also be done in the old place, and the agriculture land improves their status. Construction of dwellings with 49 per cent was prioritising buying land for housing. Generally the construction of houses in villages happens in their old places, but they construct newly purchased lands if they do not have land. Dammannapet led in building houses after the emigration as given in Annexure I.

Own house is a minimum priority of them and the renovation of the houses also taking place, according to the remittances they received, and the remittances were not equal to all the respondents. According to the type of visa and company, most of them get low payments and no payments when they get cheated. It is almost impossible to send money to home.

In Ippapalle, Burugupalle, Palem, and Thadla Rampur, have seen buying the constructed houses were more valuable than purchasing land and building a house. And also, agricultural activities were given priority depending on need, such as bore digging and repairing the old pumps and increased the use of more fertilisers than before, investment in the cultivation of crops as given in annexure I by the sample respondents. The repairing of old pumps with 55 per cent and investment bore digging is 43 per cent observed. Increasing investment production in agriculture and fertilisers is 64 per cent. That is why importance goes to bore exploring. It indicates the dependence on agriculture after the husband's emigration has increased. Though they were women, they did agriculture. The new pumps have increased the irrigation, and it has given priority because some old pumps were in a good position but could not pour enough water. Because of the scarcity of money, they could not invest. Immediately after the bore pumps repair, the crop production also gets increased.

The investment, especially for fertilisers for crop increased with remittances. The crop production cost includes labour wages, seeds, fertilisers, machinery cost, and cost of water facility if no bore facility in the land. From the plantation to harvesting, the total amount spent is called investment. The banks provided the minimum amount through crop loans, but the passbooks were not in women's names. So they could not access money from the bank, and the emigrated regions were not allowed government provisions like pensions for beedi workers. They cannot even get double bedroom houses or other government schemes because the husband emigrated and earned more money.

The agriculture work is always connected to their prestige. The psychological changes are rooted in society. That is why it is imperative to understand the women's relationship with their husbands and the load of work she bears, which was worth respecting. After all, this, where they can gain value in the form of their respect or identity. There were various indicators to understand the importance of women in the husband and patriarchal society. The factors are connected with the decision-making power in the household. Because the above study makes us understand the situation as it was women holds the functional headship of the family.

4.12. Consequences on the Headship of the Sample Respondents

The headship is of two types that is functional headship and structural headship. Structurally the headship of the family remains with a male member of the family though he emigrates because India is a patriarchal society. Agricultural work, economic status, or employment status may change. In Palem, Sunketa Sulochana (38) and Yenganti Ammai (50), Pothangal Narsu, and others have called familiar with women based names because of their success in agriculture work as cultivators. The cultivators mostly have their identity in the village. But the family was patriarchal. The name and fame remained with women. But in the beedi workers and 100 days programme, employees have no such particular identity in the society and in the view of husbands. It indicates the hard work and uniqueness of agriculture. The headship immediately shifts after the husbands' emigration, and women could do all the activities, including the husband's responsibilities. Then why they did not identify as the core person in the patriarchal society, such as a respectable

person with their hard work for family and economic status, instead of making them in the corner just because they were born biologically different from men.

Women themselves not proud about leading life. The beedi workers, tenant cultivators, and employment programme workers earned money. Still, every time their husbands say, what are you doing? And can't you manage things with children and other works? Society and neighbours also observe every moment and question them. It indicates the identity for the dignity of labour—beedi work is not as famous as agriculture work. Beedi workers are not recognised because the economic status only does not matter. Still, the women's behaviour, attitude, and communication indicate women's familiarity. Agriculture employees were dependent on each other and communicated every day. In the case of beedi workers, communication is not required with others. They have a closed-ended relationship, so that they would have low familiarity.

4.13. Consequences of Emigration of Husband on Agriculture

Agriculture is the primary source of employment and never stops even after husbands' emigration, but the responsibility shifting can occur. In the absence of a husband, any family member takes care of the husband's responsibility. Suppose if it is a joint family, the responsibility is shared by all the family members. Mainly father-in-law or mother-in-law takes care of the husband's responsibility. But in sample villages, 88 per cent of them were nuclear families, and the wife replaced the husband. In the division of labour, men do major work, such as giving water to the field, pumping pesticides and fertilisers, buying seeds, selling a harvested product, etc.

After the field area found that doing cultivation without a husband was not required technology or knowledge because they learned it from the parents and husband by observing. But giving water in the night shifts was difficult. The cultivation is a procedure to follow. They need to do some works like preparing seeds, knowing about seed variety, pesticides, fertilisers, and selling the product, which is very difficult for them. The women followed blindly to neighbour croppers but did not learn the new things. They depended on a male child or kin or someone helpful or labours. The small landowners could not

cultivate because their lands were far away from their village, and they could not afford the labour prices for small works, for instance, Palem village.

For instance, Y Laxmi (45) is w/o Anjanna, who went to Bahrain 10 years ago. She was well known for the tension raised with her husband's absence. She does all the agriculture work alone because she does not have money to pay for labour wages, so other people are afraid of speaking to her. She only carried heavy loads of all the pesticides and loads on her head and independently applied all the pesticides. Did not use any labour because one person requires one hour, Laxmi cannot pay wages for small land cultivation. One person is enough for big landowners to sprinkle the pesticides for one day, but small landowners finish in one to two hours. Still, both needed to pay equal payment, which was not affordable.

The tenant cultivation also increased because of the long-distance of the agriculture field area from home. Pula Laxmi (42) w/o Bojanna went to Dubai 13 years ago. She did cultivation for seven years of total land, but later, they gave half of the land for tenant cultivation. It was too far and difficult to do cultivation because there was no one to support; earlier, their son was helpful.

The people who did, the land's cultivation and later is kept fallow land because of the distance issue. For instance, Rodda Balamani w/o Bhumaiah went to Muscat 20 years ago. She did agriculture work for three years with the help of her son but later stopped doing it because of distance. Her son was not helping because he was busy with education.

In the case of Nerella Sarala, she managed agriculture with the help of labour using the phone only. She got married when she was 12 years; after two years of marriage, her husband emigrated, and she went through various health issues, mental harassment from in-laws. She had to get intestinal surgery. She went for wage employment like daily wage labour for 18 years, but later, she only did cultivation work. Her husband currently does not allow her to work in the field because they only plan to give total land for tenant cultivation. It indicates the improved economic status after emigration and support system among the couple.

In Thadla Rampur village the 87 per cent of the women depended on beedi work and a 100-day employment program. Because the water facility to the village was very scarce, their husbands did not depend on agriculture work because it needed lots of labour and low productivity.

The community was also an essential factor in understanding the management of agriculture and emigration. Upper community people occupied more land and could rotate money with interest money through lending others. But in the case of lower caste people, they have low lands. That is why they have no power to get canal water and borrow the money at five to 10 per cent interest. That is how they were getting into financial issues and emigrating to repay the debts. And women were not able to compete with men in Palem village, but in the case of Burugupalle, all the caste people worked together through sharing water and labour. Nagampet also they have caste-based issues in agriculture work. In this village, they buy water from the upper caste bore wells for money or labour. If they could not repay, they lost the lands at low debt.

In Ippapalle village, women from the upper caste can achieve their dream to get profits in agriculture and save from nothing to something. But in case of same effort kept by the women from lower caste but could not achieve those profits and savings. After the emigration of their husband, the women were able to cultivate but not compete equally in all the villages except Ippapalle and Thandriyala. In Palem, there were 50–50 cases are available. It indicates the community people support during the husbands' absence.

In Burugupalle and Rayanpalle, the population is mixed in nature. They were cultivating with the help of men who were kins of husband or their children. In Burugupalle used only their male child, but in Rayanpalle, they used even their girl child. After the husband's emigration, the economic status may change, but the children's education was affected.

The agricultural system gets changed after the husband's emigration. During the husband's absence, the harvesting and plantation of crops get late. The usage of pesticides and fertilisers has increased. The bore pumps repaired, and new bore wells dug, but the 3–8 bores were failed because of drylands. They have drilled eight bore wells means the

importance of agriculture in the view of the emigrator was high. That is why investment increased in these activities.

The cropping patterns and number of crop production were getting affected after emigration. For instance, in Palem and Thadla Rampur, the soil types are suitable for turmeric and cereal groundnut, cereals, jowar, corn, etc. and three months crops like roots type of production. They call it thota. They cultivate three crops together in one season. If one crop fails to produce goods, two other crops might profit. But it requires a lot of labour and continuous checking of water provision. So, the women cannot go day and night. So the pattern of cropping is changed during the husband's absence. The black soils are ideal for rice cultivation because water absorption is good, and the plant can penetrate deeply. The other villages most of the time cultivate only one crop per year instead of two crops because of water facilities and helping persons in the support.

The problems in getting water for their lands are seen in Palem, Thandriyala, and Ippapalle. Burugupalle, Rayanpalle, Thadla Rampur, and Ippapalle reported bore wells failed cases. 70 per cent of the sample population said repairing the bore wells and new bores digging in agricultural land. In the case of Nagampet, they still have been drilling wells that indicate the water is there in the ground but not able to get sufficient production. It shows the financial position of emigrants' families was suffering from poverty. The poverty, 25 parts of the population in the village, the lower castes such as SCs were facing financial issues and were also abused by upper caste people and humiliated by them. They were cheated by moneylenders very severely.

For instance, Pondurthi Laxmi (36) w/o Devalingam went to Dubai for eight years. She was very innocent, and she knew nothing. She has to lose her land and house because of her innocence only after her husband's emigration. In road construction lost the home and one person stole cultivation land of one acre from the kapu community for only ten thousand rupees which they borrowed. He took all the signs and paid all the dues in the bank in her name by taking her fingerprints, but she did not ask any questions. Because of her unknowingness, everything was legally transferred to another person. No other sample villages have reported this kind of issue.

Ippapalle covered with a high success rate of emigrated families. They bought lands, gold and improved their state of agriculture also. At the same time, lower caste people were suffering for minimum food because they sent all the money for visas and tickets. Still, they have satisfaction. It indicates the severity of the need for emigration in the village.

In Rayanpalle, agriculture did not develop because it failed due to water scarcity. Other than that, they also have sufficient human resources in the village and agriculture field area. Women were also ready to cultivate and have kins support in case of little water available. Thus the emigration brings positive and negative impacts. Then the social status of the respondents is given below.

4.14. Impact on Women Social Status of the Sample Respondents

The women are always fighting for identity from the general women to feminists in the household to politics and every step of life. They were fighting for equal importance in decision making, sharing labour at their workplace, and household activities. During emigration, the men's work was replaced by women in agriculture and household. After the emigration of their husband, all the boundaries were broken and loaded with extra activities. The responsibilities increased. In such conditions, she decides for family welfare as functional head. Society recognised women as hardworking and multiple works simultaneously, but the final decision-making power relies on men.

The decision is the main factor in understanding the value of the women in the family and the husband's view. The families never give priority to women, not allowed to make any decisions. It cannot be valid if they do, though they have more rights when the person takes more responsibility. They take decisions according to the situation, but men should not ignore it. The financial decisions of a significant amount can make by the husband or head of the family. Sometimes they make a decision together. Women's decisions are entirely related to household activities like food decisions and others. But extra care being taken by the husband for children as given in Annexure-II. The parameters used to measure the decision-making status of the respondents were self, only

husband/head of the household or along with husband/head of the household. The concepts were enquired food, clothing, purchasing something, development activities etc.

The decision regarding food habits has changed with the emigration years developed. The remittances that were spent on food were of primary importance. The imported item was also taking part in food items. Generally, they were dependent on availability in the village, but it changed with increased remittances. They spend a minimum of five per cent of the amount and are concerned about food habits. If they send their children to hostels, prioritising for good food, as per the advice of the husband, healthy and good food is included in the diet. 87.4 per cent of the respondents were making the self decision.

The children's dressing decision was as given in Annexure-II, and the husbands send money and tell them to buy. Sometimes women also buy themselves. Here the decision-making means giving respect to the person. Of the women, 54 per cent of them said that self, they show consideration towards husband not because he says something because he was working alone at some other place for family. While coming from abroad, they bring clothes according to their interest. In clothing decisions, up to giving money was the husband's work, but women make selection.

Making the decision depended on the type of issue. For instance, it was related to children, household, and women's personal matters, health-related, agriculture-related and social gatherings, etc. In the case of health issues, these were sudden changes and difficult to handle alone, but the making decision was not an issue here. It needs a courageous mind, knowledge, money on time and time of the problem. During the issues like fever, aches, women themselves go to hospital and take care of children. But the health issues of the children or themselves were in severe status. 42 per cent of the respondents said self, and 29 per cent said along with husband or head of the family. Depending on the situation, both together take a decision, society also includes in need. But women do not have any information about hospitals and doing formalities; they feel afraid and worried. Without the support or decision of the husband, they cannot move forward.

When it comes to the children's education, the making decision varied from family to family. On average, 44 per cent of the respondents were illiterates, but still, they were expecting their children to get educated in all the sample villages. They give priority to a boy education than a girl. In all the sample villages, the respondents stopped their daughter's education because of the mother's decision (30 per cent), and the father did not insist. Some regularised their daughter's education. But in the case of boys' education, both the parents (34 per cent) were interested in motivating, but boys were not interested in studying. When the family was in trouble because of debts, the elder son or only sons have taken for granted, but care for the family mother was dominant in making the decision.

The decision regarding clothing, children's marriages, education have come under impersonal decisions. But the other choices related to the women's self are different—the personal choices classified as purchasing for themselves and doing agricultural or other social gatherings etc. For instance, buying land for agriculture, house construction, buying vehicles and doing ceremonies, etc., were also taken care of by husbands. Women taking decisions, 32 per cent of themselves were significantly less because they do not know anything. But they do all the financial activities as the husbands suggest they do in the village. For instance, in buying land, women find out information about the source of water, all the physical activities decisions made by women. Men dominate in financial issues and others. For instance, Padma (28) in Palem village does a lot of hard work. Her husband came after two years in cyclical emigration. They were doing house warming. While speaking to women, the husband says nothing she knows; what does she tell? When cross-checked, the other people said she did hard work to construct such a big house. Though he sent money, the construction of the house needs a lot of understanding, patience, knowledge, communication to manage people. But her husband neglects in front of all the people.

Spending on self means purchasing saree, jewellery or something precious, have to take permission from husband. The women who decided to buy something were elderly in the family. But these women convinced themselves that it was our minimum responsibility to tell the husband since they were away from home.

Women decide themselves like attending social gatherings such as PRI meetings, financial activity SHG groups, opening accounts, doing transactions, etc. Beedi workers go to the company to get raw material to make beedi. Self-decision is higher in percentage with 65.4 per cent on average. These activities can only be done alone, other than these women have to take permission from husbands or elders in the family. For instance, the Padma (32) in Burugupalle sits at home only. To move out of the door and should take permission. She cannot go and talk to anybody. Husband says to bring something or speak to someone like that. Otherwise, she cannot go and do anything. She goes out for beedi work except that she cannot move out.

When it comes to the same village woman, Laxmi (38) was waited 18 years her husband to get change. She used to give daily Rs. 500/- to her husband for boozing. For that stopped her daughter study and sent her to tailoring. Finally he went to foreign and sent remittances to his wife. Now he says you do whatever you want to do with remittances. He does not insist on her for anything.

In Burugupalle, the women were better than in other villages. They have freedom of expression of their views and can do the activities. In Thadla Rampur village from panchayat office to general people every one speaks about the wives of emigrant status, what happened to them? Why do they roam when the husband is outside? In Palem, women were rigid not because husbands restricted them but just for the sake of society.

Visiting relatives is also one of the factors to understand, the independence of deciding impersonal issues. At festivals, ceremonies, go to their mother's homes and relatives' homes. Before going somewhere, they take permission as, given annexure II, 43.75 per cent of respondents make self-decision. 41 per cent of them decide together.

The cultivation of the own agricultural land decided themselves. The women who could decide themselves were almost more than 35 years. The women from a young age also decided, but they were experts from their mother's home only. Women in cultivation were very free in mind and dominative to hold up the agriculture work and family burdens.

Whoever participates in the agriculture labour work purposely informs the husband. But they do not have restrictions. They have liberal life. In Burugupalle, one lady says if

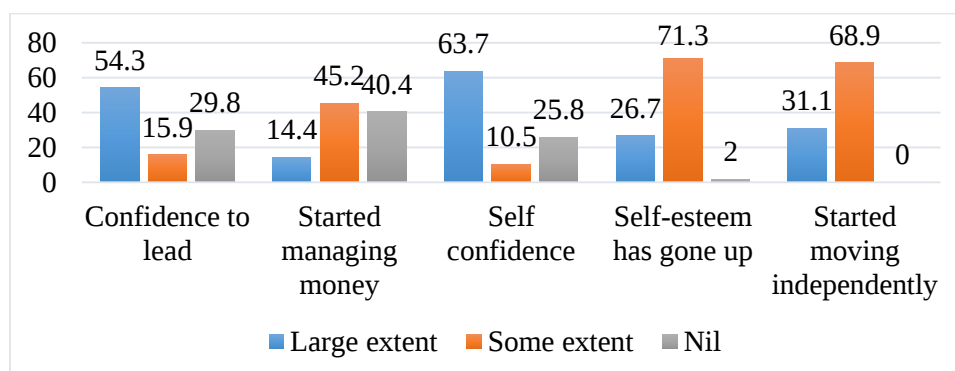
she does want to do something. Why do I tell? I just do it. If she wants to go home also goes and comes back in one day from her parents. So, for everything, who tells him? But her co-sister was terrified to do anything in the same house. Because her husband always calls through video phone. She cannot move without his permission. In Tandriyala, women were more sharper than Ippapalle. They were doing agriculture activities with sons' help and deciding in and outside home regularities. And some women do extramarital affairs also. Self-decision played a major role with 68 per cent. 22 per cent along with husband make a decision.

For participation in PRI, meetings are self-decided by the women, 66 per cent only on average. There was no restriction to the government or panchayat raj related issues. Women were swift to understand the PRI-related programmes, agriculture-related, water facility, current facility, and every new programme. Women follow all the instructions given by the government and complete the works. On an overall average, 51 per cent were self-decision makers, and respondents along with someone was 20 per cent. It indicates that left behind women have their decision sharing highest, and the power in the house also improved simultaneously.

The psychological condition of the women is a critical factor to understand because they were doing all the activities such as agriculture, household and panchayat raj activities. But the state of mind changes after a certain period, communication with society, management of the economic source of life, and agriculture. The experience teaches everything and makes them perfect.

The decision making power has been changing, and it shifts to the women immediately after the husband's emigration. But the respect towards the husband and societal changes impacted women to have open statements for the self-empowerment and impact them directly. The emigration bring many changes in the society. When we realised through the case studies, the women were not showing courageous minds to ask for help. That is why the psychological changes after a husband's emigration have been understood through the graph below.

Graph No. 5.20: The Psychological Changes among the Sample Respondents on Average (percentage)



Source: Compiled from field data

The psychological changes occur among the sample respondents after the husband's emigration. The five factors have been observed, such as confidence to lead, managing money, self-esteem, self-confidence, and moving independently to find the change after the husband's emigration. The parameters used to measure the difference were some extent, large extent and nil. These factors are essential for understanding the women state of psychology after the husbands' emigration. The above-shown indicators helped to know the state of women in every step of daily life after the husbands' emigration. These psychological factors are cumulating to understand from all the activities they perform. 60 per cent of the responses have improved, to some extent and a large extent equally. Graph 5.20 indicates the empowered state of the mindset of the women. Though they faced obstacles at an early stage of emigration in the later period, women's movement was improved. Management of the money has not been shifted 100 per cent to the women. Still, they were confident to move and self-esteemed to follow all the activities.

Conclusion

Upper caste people do not prefer emigration because they occupied more agricultural land near to houses. The water facility from canals is also accessible because of a sound communication system. They gain power from the money. The upper caste respondents did not effected psychologically their husbands' emigration because they wanted to get developed but other caste people were not like that. They produced more profits and do

lots of hard work, and their community members were helpful to them. But in the case of lower caste people, the communication gap was more than in other communities. Among the lower castes, especially SCs, are Mala and Madiga emigrated. They have good communication but cannot help each other financially/orally. To support someone needs to be strong financially.

Agriculture is core employment in the village, as it was getting increased The decision-making status changed according to agriculture work. The tenant cultivation is higher than own cultivation. The irrigation and selling of the production were becoming significant issues for them—the conclusion of the thesis is provided in the next chapter. The recommendations for future development by rectifying the present problems and conclusion have given.

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Chapter 6

Conclusion

Agriculture is a livelihood source and protective layer of the rural people. After the husband's emigration, the survival of the rural women is also changed. They got extra work because of her husband's absence. Having agricultural land is the family's pride though they fall in crop losses. The income may decrease, environmental conditions may not support, production may fall in losses due to irregular rainfall, droughts, and the income source may change by the remittances—still, the livelihood source and pride of the family in the rural region. The husband's absence does change in family labour input in agriculture because of the shifting responsibility. For women, it is an additional obligation to hold up. The present thesis is based on an emigrant husband and the status of left-behind women in agriculture. The literature has understood in general to specific steps as given below to study them. The agriculture issues are examined first and went on reading with the emigration. Because the emigration in the rural region, especially agriculture dependents, were taking emigration as a decision, they could not survive with it at the earlier stages of emigration. Later, they may adopt for a better life by observing the change in the previous generation's emigrants.

The first chapter of the thesis is the *introduction*, which discusses the state of emigration and agriculture concerning women. The chapter is concerned with the status of agriculture-related emigration and agricultural women. These concepts are exclusive and inclusive part of the study. The literature reveals the state of gender in agriculture, emigration, and agriculture and emigration in Telangana state concerning agriculture women. In Telangana, writings were showing the left-behind women are not studied. The emigration in other countries varies from India, especially the cultivator's emigration. The downfall of agriculture and emigration multiplication took place.

The second chapter deals with the downfall of the cultivation, bringing the emigration higher to other countries. The decrease in rainfall, irrigation leads to lower production in agriculture. The technology increased, and the production improved in less land. Later, the production is also not successful because of the downfall due to soil erosion

due to more pesticide usage and fertiliser. With the development of technology, innovative agriculture production methods may increase, but cash cropping was not self-sufficient for the cultivators because of capitalisation and industrialisation. Soil erosion occurs, falls into debts and borrowed from moneylenders instead of banking institutions etc., because of illiteracy.

The understanding of chapter two is that it has an interconnection between agriculture and emigration. It is not a sudden change which took place but the slowly followed by step by step. Those are like technology development; innovative methods, industry, capitalisation was leading issues for the emigration of the cultivators. The leading problem is that they have an impact on women. Various scientists have studied different levels of understanding and did not positive change their lives.

The third chapter, named *Factors influencing the women in agriculture in India*, discusses the causes for the low status of agriculture and led to losses and the leading cause of emigration. Because the reasons are so many to discuss, but mainly causes of low agriculture and the geographical conditions are discussed. Factors such as technology, economic reforms, industrialisation, liberalisation, privatisation and globalisation, environmental changes, rainfall, and irrigation facilities have addressed the shortage or fall of agriculture and led to an overload of work on agriculture women.

The development programmes were adopted by the government of India but failed in agriculture development. The government's short sight towards the cultivators led to the emigration to escape hunger and poverty. After the husband's emigration, women in the family carry or hold up double-loaded work to save from the economic imbalance, work imbalance caused by the absence of one member in the family. But still, they maintain stability in the family means the pursuance, hard work, and patience of the women are worthy to praise.

The fourth chapter of the thesis discussed emigration and its impact on women and agriculture employment. The chapter mainly has given the theoretical support to understand well. Earlier stages of emigration started as indentured migration and became commercial activity at the present condition in some cases. But, for the cultivator's,

emigration is a breathtaking process from the above-given effects. After the person's emigration in the family, changes in relationships with the society, relatives, kins, etc. The load of work was lifted by the wife and children as well. The kins supported the agriculture work and other social activities to carry out. With the emigration of their husband, the mentality of the women changes and becomes more potent with the issues she comes across in daily life.

The topic has been discussed to assess women's participation in agriculture and other household activities after husbands' emigration. It analyses the factors and resources to improve participation. And study the socioeconomic and gender sensitivity functions in agriculture after participating in it. The main concern of the chapter is about the causes of emigration, challenges, and consequences of emigration on women in upholding family responsibilities and agriculture.

The survey instruments include the structured schedule of open-ended and closed-ended questions for women workers. Used interviews of them. They helped collect information on socioeconomic status, participation in development programmes, and participation in agriculture work. And benefits derived from participation after husband's emigration to understand the qualitative changes in women's lives. Village information has been collected to assess the socioeconomic conditions of the villages in which the study was carried out. The interviews laid to observe the changes experienced in the quality of life. Data levels of different indicators are obtained from sample districts village-wise to capture the reasons behind differences across the villages.

The study was conducted in three districts of eight villages of Telangana state. The Ippapalle and Thandriyal villages selected from the Thandriyal Gram Panchayat (GP) and Dammannapet and Mallareddypet in the Dammannapet and Mallareddypet GPs, respectively of Kathlapur mandal of Karimnagar district. Burugupalle and Rayanpalle villages from the Burugupalle and Rayanapalle GP respectively from Medak mandal and from the same district. Palem and Tadla Rampur from Palem and Tadla Rampur GPs respectively in Morthad mandal from Nizamabad district.

The fifth chapter analyses data collected from the above-given villagers from Telangana state. The chapter has been made into two parts as parts I and II. This part I of the chapter discusses the basic infrastructure of the districts, mandals, and villages. The historical background has given to understanding that geography has undergone several changes. That helps in the agriculture status of the villages and can know the causes of emigration of the men. The districts selected in the field were Medak, Nizamabad, and Karimnagar. They are different in all factors like Nizamabad and Karimnagar population chose emigration to Gulf countries during the Indira Gandhi as Prime Minister. But Medak sample villages were started 10 to 15 years ago, especially the Rayanpalle village was younger in emigration. Palem and Thadla Rampur villages from the Nizamabad district also developed in emigration and agriculture. For generations, they have adopted emigration as a livelihood from the landless and low landowners—the development of the women and the empowered stage based on the emigration years found.

The literacy rate negatively affects the next generations like parental education and economic developments, probing the children to dream for emigration instead of choosing the professions related to education. The currency's value in gulf countries is higher, giving more importance to unskilled labour. Still, the single parent growth makes imbalance in the children's lifestyle because the luxurious life after the economic development from the previous generation brought up them negatively. The persuasion of education broken in between only and entertainment increased in youth and teen children.

In Karimnagar district, the advanced stage of emigration and the advanced stage of the women are observed. But the development is based on the land types in the villages. If they do hard work, also it is not possible to get the profits. But it is based on the lands and soils. If the grounds are good, profits are more, but poverty is the biggest hindrance to development, for instance, Rayanpalle. The Burugupalle has empowered women and sufferers of the husband, and male domination is high compared to other sample villages. They face the relationship lacuna among the wife and husband, children and parents.

The advancement of women in Karimnagar found. They are hardworking and foreword thinking because they have increased the land size after their husbands' emigration. The construction of the houses has been there in Dammannapet village from

Karimnagar. The foodless stage developed in agriculture, and women got the power to hold up the total family responsibilities. If the husband comes home for a break, do not bother because the complete control of the activities was under women. The status reveals that men believe the women, and they have been loyal to each other in the relationship.

Extramarital affairs observed in Burugupalle and Thandriyal. The gossiping about emigrants' wives was everywhere in the sample villages. The institution of family was getting affected through the husband's emigration. The women take the responsibility—the construction of the houses, finding the place suitable to lifestyle and according to economic status. Women take hold of agriculture and complete every work during their husbands' emigration. But suddenly, when her husband is there at home, she becomes illiterate and senseless. In all the sample villages, the women found similar, but the women above 50 years have respect from their husbands and society for their hard work.

The respect for this generation and communication gap increased because of the tenant cultivation and beedi work. The agriculture work needs group communication and altogether used to work in cropping. But in tenant cultivation, the workload was reduced, and communication among the neighbours for waged employment was also reduced. That is how familiarity is missing. The women are knowledgeable in managing the agriculture in hardships either by PFE or by taking the family's support or sons and elders.

The age group of the sample respondents was higher percentage among the agriculture women because of the strength and capability to do hard work that is 20–45 years. The literacy rate was lower among the respondents, and there is no impact of education on agriculture work. But there were well educated who possessed masters and bachelor's degrees in agriculture work for the family's welfare, and followed the customs and culture that the elderly made.

As per Indian culture, the headship of the family remained with male-only. The functional headship shifted to women during the husband's absence. And if the elderly were there in a family, the headship held by them. But the share of the agriculture work and responsibility divides for her. And the children health and development in the sense of study, growth, and discipline are taken care of by women.

The reasons behind the emigration are varied, such as debts for basic needs, marriages, business, and losses in agriculture. The reasons to work in agriculture is fundamental to understanding the emigration status. Male does not show interest in performing agriculture though they stay at home unemployed. In the husband's absence, the same land cultivated by the women brought the profits more than neighbour croppers who are male.

The women had to pass through health issues, financial instability, agricultural work, relationships maintenance with neighbours and relatives in harmony though they faced challenges every moment. The attending ceremonies and marriages of the relatives and fulfilling the responsibility of the household in the husband's absence is all alone. The relations with kins have to be maintained to support the completion of the extra burdens. In the duration, women encounter several challenges and consequences but stand to face where men are not showing interest. It is called feminist political ecology. She maintains the balance to have a peaceful life. But still, she is considered marginal in status.

The labour burden of the women after the husbands' emigration coupled. They perform agriculture labourer, cultivator activities, and beedi making. They go for 100 days' employment during the off-season. The cultivators choose tenant cultivation if they cannot manage after their husbands' emigration. They are approaching the kins of the husband's family and maternal help when they need it. The kins are helping in keeping water for crops during night shifts and at the time of harvest and selling the products. Male support is vital while finding the pesticides suitable for infections and taking loads of weights like fertilisers, seeds, and end products. The women are also powerful; they carry the loads on their heads and complete the work with the help of the elderly such as father-in-law and mother-in-law. They also get help from young daughters and sons to complete all other agricultural activities like ploughing, weeding, and finishing the harvest like cutting. They are selling the product in the beet equal to male persons of non-emigrants.

96 per cent of the emigrants have pakka housing, and the rest are kaccha housing and rental housing. The construction of the housing increased after their husbands' emigration. The husband executed the plan, but the women did the physical labour to construct the house. The community of emigration is essential to understand. Landlessness

and unemployment during un-season, owing to the low lands, are reasons for emigration. In Palem village, in-migrants are there from other districts. Still, the villagers from the SC, BC community are not interested in working under the upper caste people. They maintain equality in economic status and celebrate the festivals together without untouchability.

The psychological status of the women changes slowly, but they are becoming stronger and empowered to handle the situation during the absence of their husbands. Political thinking in ecology is very important for single women. The trouble in keeping water for fields and changing the cropping patterns have been seen in the Palem and Rayanpalle. At the first stage, the women cannot digest the absence of husband, but in later stages, they adopt it and face the challenge. In Palem, they cultivated three crops at one time were changed to one crop at one time because they did not need to go regularly for checking the availability of water.

But the women's freedom is snatched in the name of the husband's emigration. The pattern of wearing clothes and makeup changes during the husband's absence. It is not because they do not want to do it, but society and neighbours gossip about it. The freedom of talking also gets rid of. They talk reasonably and cannot have fun outside, especially in front of male members. The relationships and headwoman ship boundary increase, but the freedom of expression does not allow the women actually what they need.

From understanding the case studies, one can estimate that she is more vital in holding all the responsibilities and fulfilling them at a single head. When observing the decision-making status, one can estimate that they do not have the power to have freedom in financial activities in the husbands' presence or absence. The limits are always kept her stop. Though she does every work more than male alone, she faces humiliation from the family, society, neighbours, and husband.

That is why women are from agriculture work still marginalised because they did not identify as more substantial and equal to men or worthy to respect their attitude and interest. They have not been given complete freedom to have a regular life because they may get extramarital affair gossips. They cannot ask for wage labour to the same male

person twice and thrice or go to the same person's agricultural field for work. This status decides the marginality of the women after the husband's emigration in agriculture.

In addition, they are not unable in any manner. Instead, they are strong mentally, in the political power of thinking, critical thinking, economically empowered, psychologically standard, and capable of doing agriculture and household activities together, and children development. Still, they face non-linear cohesiveness in their region. Still, society's social and cultural background marginalises them.

The Recommendations:

The recommendations are based on the consequences and challenges faced by agricultural women, emigrants' wives. The recommendations made for agriculture, agricultural women, and emigrants. The support system with policies, women's equality in gender expected. Policies for emigrants and their families are vital.

- The government should support the emigrants based on their remittances and their work in other countries. They should allow the landless and poor emigrants to possess the government's ration card, pensions, and housing schemes. For instance, Thadla Rampur respondents reported that they are not allowed government schemes.
- The government should encourage and equate the children of the emigrants to stop the emigration in the next generations.
- The government should improve the literacy rate to compete and achieve jobs in India's private and public sectors to develop a happy family. The education makes changes in the lifestyle so, the coming generations' may stop the emigration.
- The panchayat raj should support equally to all the women in the village. The short sight towards emigrant's wives, dragging them to the corner of the development in the mainstream society, should stop. It affects psychologically.
- Women should become the more aromatic and most potent to face society and community. They should develop the ability and skills to finish the work they need for family and children benefit with patience and hard work.

- The equality and identity of the agriculture women and hard work is her right. That is mandatory, like men, and women need to be given respect in society for completing their responsibility in the husband's absence without any fail.
- Women should acknowledge themselves and be empowered to claim achieved profit in the cropping agriculture field.
- Government should initiate programmes for women in agriculture and gender-sensitive training extension programmes.
- Umbrella method of initiatives to be made by the government for the emigrants and their families.
- Male should drop down their emigration decision after achieving the minimum needs in the family, like marriages and the goals they finished which they had to. They should carry out the agriculture work and stay along with family to develop the children's lives peacefully and benefit from the government-provided schemes. The government also should focus on these kinds of issues and educate them.
- The women can finish and bring profits without husbands, so men can get more profits if they carry out along with the wife. They should stop looking at agriculture as an underemployed, unemployed and profitless business.
- Gender equality should be a mantra for every individual because women carry the family's total burden in the husband's absence. So, the minimum requirement of the human being in society is expected, nothing more important than children. The exploitation of the women's image in the husband's absence breaks down her courageous nature.
- Somewhere should stop the patriarchal, hierarchical terminology. The identity and respect for them are critical during the husbands' absence because that encourages them to carry and fulfil.
- The woman should be stronger during the husband's emigration because single parenting of children is not easy to finish along with the household and agriculture work.

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Impact of Men Emigration on Women in Agriculture: A Study in Selected Districts of Telangana State

G. SUNITHA

15SIPH10

Centre for Study of Social Exclusion and Inclusive Policy

Under the guidance of

Dr V. Srinivasa Rao

Associate Professor

Head of Centre for Regional Studies

YOUR RESPONSES TO THIS SURVEY ARE CONFIDENTIAL

This study is conducted to assess “Impact of Men Emigration on Women in Agriculture: A Study in Selected Districts of Telangana State”. This information obtained from you will be kept confidential and used for research purpose only. You are free to choose to participate in this study. Please answer with at most honesty. Individual respondents will not be identified by name in any analysis or reports. Responses will be aggregated and reported as summary statistics only.

FOR QUESTIONS OF THIS SURVEY, CONTACT:

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YOUR ASSISTANCE IS VERY MUCH APPRECIATED

Schedule for Wives of Emigrants who Work in Agriculture

I. Basic Information of the Respondent

The questions in this subhead are about differentiated income status, education and livelihood source of the respondent and head of the HH after the husband's out-migration.

1. Name of the Village :
2. Name of the Mandal :
3. Name of the District :
4. Name of the respondent with age :
5. Name of the head of HH with age :

6. Income Status (pa)

:

Respondent	Head of HH	Family

7. Education qualification of the respondent :
8. Education qualification head of HH :
9. Livelihood source of the respondent :
10. Livelihood source of the head of HH :
11. Type of house :
12. Assets in the HH :
13. History of the migration of the family

S No	Name of Migrants in family	Gender	Age in years	Source of Destination	Reason for Migration	Seasonal/Cyclical/Permanent

II. Agriculture Data of the Migrant Family

The questions of this subhead are about the agriculture status of the respondent. It helps in understanding the interconnection to out-migration of the husband.

1. How many acres of land do you have?.....
2. What kind of land it is?
.....
3. Which system of water facility you have on land
4. Which method do you follow for the cultivation of the land?
Artificial forming ☐
Natural forming ☐
Pesticides forming ☐
5. Are you doing tenant cultivation?
Yes ☐ No ☐
6. If yes, how many acres of land?
7. Is your land cultivated by any other tenants?
Yes ☐ No ☐
8. If yes, how many acres of land?
9. Are there any effects on cultivation?
Yes ☐ No ☐
10. If yes, what are the effects?.....

III. Socio and Economic Impact of Out-Migration of the Husband on Respondent

The questions of this subhead are of the socio-economic and kinship of the respondent, after the out-migration of husband. It helps in understanding the women status in agriculture work as wage labour and cultivator after the migration of husband and kinship network status.

1. When did your husband migrate?
3 months ago ☐
6 months ago ☐
1 year ago ☐
More than 1 year ago ☐

-
-

-
-

- Yes ☐ No ☐

-

- Yes ☐ No ☐

- Yes ☐ No ☐

- Yes ☐ No ☐

- Yes ☐ No ☐

-
-

- Yes ☐ No ☐

-

- Yes ☐ No ☐

14. If yes, what are those additional responsibilities?

.....
.....

15. Are you able to manage land cultivation after your husband's migration?

Yes ☐ No ☐

16. If yes, how do you manage these things, and what are the difficulties you find as given below

1. Community members regarding agriculture work.....

2. Labour for work.....

.....

3. Fertilisers and seeds were buying from shops.....

.....

4. Water provision for the crop in the nights.....

.....

5. Using of technology for crop production.....

.....

6. Arrangement of machines for harvesting, ploughing

.....

7. Selling the harvested production

.....

8. Getting money from the buyer of the production

.....

9. Crop loans and other activities from the bank regarding agriculture

.....

10. Management of the children needs and education.....

.....

17. Did you cultivate any crops after the migration of your husband?

Yes ☐ No ☐

18. If yes, did you find any difficulty in cultivating crops?

Yes ☐ No ☐

19. If yes, what are the difficulties?

.....
.....

20. Did you get profit through crops?

Yes ☐ No ☐

21. If yes, was that better than before your husband's migration?

Yes ☐ No ☐

22. If yes, are you feeling empowered after the cultivation after your husband's migration?

Yes ☐ No ☐

23. If yes, what kind of empowerment do you feel?

.....
.....

24. Did you get effect psychologically after your husband's migration?

Yes ☐ No ☐

25. If yes, what are the differences you encountered psychologically after your husband's migration?

.....
.....

26. Did you encounter any health issues after your husband's migration?

Yes ☐ No ☐

27. If yes, what are the health issues?

.....
.....

28. How is the community responding after the migration of your husband towards you and your family?

.....
.....

29. How is the family network changed after the husband's migration?

.....
.....

30. How is your husband's family responding after the migration of your husband towards you and your family?

.....
.....

31. How do your husband's kins respond towards agriculture activities when you require them in agriculture activities?

.....
.....

32. How your husband's family do help in HH activities?

.....
.....

33. Do your husband's kins expect anything from your family?

.....
.....

34. How do you depend on other relatives after and before your husband's migration?

.....
.....

35. How do you use the money that gets from your migrated husband?

Cause

- | | |
|---|---|
| a) Family welfare | : |
| b) Basic needs of the family | : |
| c) To pay the debts | : |
| d) To buy utensils in household needs | : |
| e) To buy gold | : |
| f) For Insurance | : |
| g) Health | : |
| h) Children education fees | : |
| i) Deposits | : |
| j) Fashion related infrastructure in home | : |
| k) Any others | : |

36. Do you get surplus money after this Migration?

Yes ☐

No ☐

37. If yes, how do you save?

.....

38. The difference after the migration

Item	Yes	No
Buying agriculture land		
Using more fertilisers than before		
Improved irrigation method by new pumps		
The bore was dug in agriculture		
Buying land for housing		
Constructed house		
Improved lifestyle		
Increased the investment in cultivation amount		

39. Decision making at the household level

Items	Self	HH/Husband	Along with Husband
Clothing			
Food			
Children Education			
Health			
Children Marriages			
Attending social gatherings			
Visiting relatives			
Agricultural Activities			
Participation in labour			
Expenditure on self			
Purchasing something			
Participation in PRI meetings			

Thank You

Annexure I

Remittances of Emigrants used by the Sample Respondents in the Development Activities (percentage)

Items	Response	Dammannapet	Nagampet	Thandriyala	Ippapalle	Rayanpalle	Burugupalle	Palem	Thadla Rampur
Buying agriculture land	Yes	19(37.3)	11(21.6)	6(11.5)	25(51)	8(15.7)	11(21.2)	20(32.3)	3(6.7)
	No	32(62.7)	40(78.4)	46(88.5)	24(49)	43(84.3)	41(78.8)	42(67.7)	42(93.3)
Using more fertilisers than before	Yes	31(60.8)	39(76.5)	23(44.2)	35(71.4)	34(66.7)	41(78.8)	47(75.8)	18(40)
	No	20(39.2)	12(23.5)	29(55.8)	14(28.6)	17(33.3)	11(21.2)	15(24.2)	27(60)
Increased the investment in cultivation amount	Yes	31(60.8)	38(74.5)	23(44.2)	35(71.4)	34(66.7)	41(78.8)	46(74.2)	18(40)
	No	20(39.2)	13(25.5)	29(55.8)	14(28.6)	17(33.3)	11(21.2)	16(25.8)	27(60)
Improved irrigation method by new pumps	Yes	27(52.9)	27(52.9)	23(44.2)	32(65.3)	26(51)	38(73.1)	42(67.7)	16(35.6)
	No	24(47.1)	23(47.1)	29(55.8)	17(34.7)	25(49)	14(26.9)	20(32.3)	29(64.4)
Bore dug in agriculture	Yes	22(43.1)	11(21.6)	17(32.7)	26(53.1)	24(47.1)	34(65.4)	29(46.8)	14(31.1)
	No	29(56.9)	40(78.4)	35(67.3)	23(46.9)	27(52.9)	18(34.6)	33(53.2)	31(68.9)
Buying land for housing	Yes	18(35.3)	13(25.5)	11(21.2)	22(44.9)	8(15.7)	15(28.8)	24(38.7)	8(17.8)
	No	33(64.7)	38(74.5)	41(78.8)	27(55.1)	43(84.3)	37(71.2)	38(61.3)	37(82.2)
Constructed house	Yes	31(60.8)	26(51)	16(30.8)	24(49)	13(25.5)	16(30.8)	30(48.4)	18(40)
	No	20(39.2)	25(49)	36(69.2)	25(51)	38(74.5)	36(69.2)	32(51.6)	27(60)
Improved lifestyle	Yes	48(94.1)	34(66.7)	46(88.5)	44(89.8)	44(86.3)	42(80.8)	55(88.7)	33(73.3)
	No	3(5.9)	17(33.4)	6(11.5)	5(10.2)	7(13.7)	10(19.2)	7(11.3)	12(26.6)

Source: Compiled from field data

Annexure II

The Decision Making Responses of the Sample Respondents after the Emigration of Husband from the Sample Villages (percentage)

Items	Response	Dammannapet	Nagampet	Thandriyala	Ippapalle	Rayanpalle	Burugupalle	Palem	Thadla Rampur
Food	Self	47(92.2)	47(92.2)	40(76.9)	46(93.9)	49(96.1)	38(73.1)	59(95.2)	38(84.4)
	Only husband/others in HH	2(3.9)	2(4)	10(19.2)	1(2)	2(3.9)	12(23.1)	3(4.8)	4(8.9)
	Along with husband/any others in HH	2(3.9)	2(3.9)	2(3.8)	2(4.1)	0	2(3.8)	0	3(6.7)
Clothing	Self	31(60.8)	24(47.1)	25(48.1)	33(67.3)	20(39.2)	26(50)	41(66.1)	25(55.6)
	Only husband/others in HH	9(17.6)	12(23.6)	20(38.5)	10(20.4)	20(39.2)	21(40.4)	16(25.8)	15(33.3)
	Along with husband/any others in HH	11(21.6)	15(29.4)	7(13.5)	6(12.2)	11(21.6)	5(9.6)	5(8.1)	5(11.1)
Children Education	Self	17(33.3)	17(33.3)	14(26.9)	17(34.7)	12(23.5)	16(30.8)	24(38.7)	13(28.9)
	Only husband/others in HH	15(29.4)	15(27.5)	25(48.1)	12(24.5)	23(45.1)	23(44.2)	20(32.3)	16(35.6)
	Along with husband/any others in HH	19(37.3)	19(37.3)	13(25)	20(40.8)	16(31.4)	13(25)	18(29)	16(35.6)
Health	Self	22(43.1)	21(41.2)	20(38.5)	20(40.8)	23(45.1)	15(28.8)	29(46.8)	23(51.1)
	Only husband/others in HH	8(15.7)	8(15.7)	20(38.5)	12(24.5)	16(31.4)	21(40.4)	20(32.3)	13(28.9)
	Along with husband/any others in HH	21(41.2)	21(41.2)	12(23.1)	17(34.7)	12(23.5)	16(30.8)	13(21)	9(20)

Children Marriages	Self	13(25.5)	3(3.9)	1(1.9)	8(16.3)	4(7.8)	7(13.5)	11(17.7)	1(2.2)
	Only husband/others in HH	5(9.8)	16(31.4)	24(46.2)	14(28.6)	23(45.1)	24(46.2)	26(41.9)	10(22.2)
	Along with husbandany others in HH	33(64.7)	32(62.7)	27(51.9)	27(55.1)	24(47.1)	21(40.4)	25(40.3)	34(75.6)
Attending social gatherings	Self	38(74.5)	41(80.4)	28(53.8)	32(65.3)	27(52.9)	23(44.2)	38(61.3)	26(57.8)
	Only husband/others in HH	5(9.8)	7(7.9)	17(32.7)	10(20.4)	17(33.3)	22(42.3)	18(29)	12(26.7)
	Along with husbandry others in HH	8(15.7)	3(5.9)	7(13.5)	7(14.3)	7(13.7)	7(13.5)	6(9.7)	7(15.6)
Visiting relatives	Self	32(62.7)	27(52.9)	18(34.6)	25(51)	24(47.1)	19(36.5)	28(45.2)	9(20)
	Only husband/others in HH	10(19.6)	17(33.3)	27(51.9)	16(32.7)	20(39.2)	29(55.8)	26(41.9)	21(46.7)
	Along with husband/ any others in HH	9(17.6)	7(13.8)	7(13.5)	8(16.3)	7(13.7)	4(7.7)	8(12.9)	15(33.3)
Agricultural Activities	Self	32(62.7)	29(56.9)	16(30.8)	27(55.1)	24(47.1)	17(32.7)	26(41.9)	14(31.1)
	Only husband/others in HH	9(17.6)	14(27.5)	28(53.8)	12(24.5)	18(35.3)	29(55.8)	29(46.8)	26(57.8)
	Along with husband/any others in HH	10(19.6)	8(15.7)	8(15.4)	10(20.4)	9(17.6)	6(11.5)	7(11.3)	5(11.1)
Participation in labour	Self	40(78.4)	43(84.3)	33(63.5)	37(75.5)	29(56.9)	24(46.2)	43(69.4)	33(73.3)
	Only husband/others in HH	3(5.9)	6(11.8)	33(28.8)	5(10.2)	16(31.4)	24(46.2)	14(22.6)	9(20)
	Along with husband/ any others in HH	8(15.7)	2(4)	4(7.7)	7(14.3)	6(11.8)	4(7.7)	5(8.1)	3(6.7)

Expenditure on self	Self	28(54.9)		15(28.8)	21(42.9)	13(25.5)	12(23.1)	17(27.4)	14(31.1)
	Only husband/others in HH	7(13.7)	18(35.3)	21(40.4)	10(20.4)	26(51)	25(48.1)	20(32.3)	8(17.8)
	Along with husband/any others in HH	16(31.4)	19(37.3)	16(30.8)	18(36.7)	12(23.5)	15(28.8)	25(40.3)	23(51.1)
Purchasing something	Self	15(29.4)	5(9.8)	2(3.8)	13(26.5)	5(9.8)	3(5.8)	14(22.6)	3(6.7)
	Only husband/others in HH	7(13.7)	20(39.3)	30(57.7)	12(24.5)	30(58.8)	22(42.3)	24(38.7)	22(48.9)
	Along with husband/any others in HH	29(56.9)	26(51)	20(38.5)	24(49)	16(31.4)	27(51.9)	24(38.7)	20(44.4)
Participation in PRI and other meetings	Self	39(76.5)	40(78.4)	30(57.7)	38(77.6)	29(56.9)	25(48.1)	46(74.2)	25(55.6)
	Only husband/others in HH	4(7.8)	9(17.6)	16(30.8)	5(10.2)	16(31.4)	21(40.4)	11(17.7)	9(20)
	Along with husband/any others in HH	8(15.7)	2(4)	6(11.5)	6(12.2)	6(11.8)	6(11.5)	5(8.1)	11(24.4)

Source: Compiled from field data

Annexure III

Publication

Disadvantaged Tribes of India

Regional Concerns

Edited by

V. Srinivasa Rao



RAWAT PUBLICATIONS

Jaipur • New Delhi • Bangalore • Guwahati • Kolkata

Impact of Globalisation on Tribes in Telangana

A Study among Lambadas

G. Sunitha

Sudden change is the process which affects the transition of social and psychological life of the population. Change is observed as a fast and quick process, where one can predict the difference of the end and beginning. In the case of transition, no one can predict the edges of life. Promotion from a lower stage to upper should be done step by step, but in case of globalisation, there is direct upliftment of society from nowhere to somewhere. That is why, globalisation processes among the simple societies should be studied. Sudden change in economic life leads to a transition of social and psychological life of a simple society such as tribes.

The chapter deals with the impact of globalisation on the lambada tribe of Gopanpally tanda. The tanda is always articulated as poor, ethnocentric, and culturally different from other caste people. They have their own method of culture, food, dressing, and lifestyle. As per anthropologist's view, tanda is isolated away from mainstream people, but in case of Gopanpally tanda, it is surrounded by other villages and well connected with international businesses such as software industry. And it is vastly different from the articulated method because of the introduction of the global market in India. The software industry installed in Gachibowli region and establishment of international airports brought many more changes. These changes have brought various other new elements such as sudden economic development due to increased costs of lands and house rents. That is why, unit-level institutions such as family and marriage and the political system

of lambadas get effected. Within a family, the social and psychological life, education, and employment were also affected.

The term globalisation is referred to as an increased flow of economic input and output, information technology, and science across the geographic region. It increases the net income and decreases the poverty, which facilitates increased security. Bofo-Athur (2000) iterated, 'Financial integration that implies the opening up of domestic markets to external transactions, including capital flows, has engendered what Barry Eichengreen terms "financial deepening" (i.e. more active, liquid, and efficient financial markets). This promotes higher investments, faster growth, and improved living standards'.

The term globalisation was introduced early in the 1980s. It is defined as an integration of the world countries into one group for a single economy called globalisation, which was dominated by British (started between the 1980s and 1914). This has a positive impact on Asian countries such as India and China (Afzal 2007; Romano 2006; Bofo-Arthur 2000). For instance, the globalisation was a witness to the exploitation of forest resources in Orissa and Jharkhand. This has led to improved dams, roads, and reservoirs on the cost of loss of environment and social life (Wani and Kothari 2008).

On the positive side, new technologies and transport system made some betterment in the agriculture system. Poverty and social capital are the main handicaps of the local area in globalisation (Romano 2006). Literacy rate, economic development, and education rate have increased, and international inequalities have decreased (Afzal 2007). Romano (2006) and Bofo-Arthur (2000) summarised that globalisation negatively impacts low developed countries like African countries. But it is not necessary that it has a similar impact on other regions. After globalisation, education and other factors such as family income, employment status, food security, and lifestyle changes. As per the anthropological definition, tribes are ethnocentric so the objective of the study is to find an impact on the institutions of family, marriage and culture, education, employment, health, and political systems of a tanda. Bofo-Arthur gave a similar explanation, as follows:

Globalisation has several facets and is propelled by numerous forces which concurrently shape current economic, political, technological, financial, and socio-cultural interactions on a global scale. The current trend is being driven across the developing world through the generalised implementation of the neo-liberal economic paradigm. Neo-liberalism emphasises deregulation, fiscal balances, open markets, withdrawal of the state as an economic agent, and the re-enactment of labour and investment laws to induce the movement of international capital around the world. (Bofo-Arthur 2000)

Thus, as the private sector entered into the country, different political faces became strong with the inception of the globalisation. Wani and Kothari (2008) mentioned that during the Manmohan Singh period, in 1991, under the influence of International Monetary Fund and World Bank, India adopted liberalisation. It resulted in free trade with other countries, and

export led to growth and low rate imports. It also improved commercial agriculture, increased mines, and took advantage of marines to increase exports.

The victors of the Cold War (Britton Wood nations and sponsored nations) asserted that globalisation is to establish a new global order, which is to end the old model of individual economies. It is making one economy, one culture, and one political world (Sheth 2004). Wani and Kothari (2008) stressed that 'Most of the new development is capital intensive rather than labour intensive'. The government also took initiation and privatised. Romano (2006) also considered this globalisation as the second wave of globalisation and colonial period as the primary wave of globalisation. That is why, political activists started agitating against globalisation, and the first group of movement believes that globalisation is intensified and has expanded the destructive force of development. The second group of movement believes that the idea of development is old wine in a new bottle, but the political representations and institutions are hegemonic and creating new forms of social exclusion. Also, the third group of movement asserted that globalisation is enhancing the already enhanced social and economic inequalities in India (Sheth 2004).

The impact of globalisation varies from region to region because it may affect positively as well as negatively. Through previous readings such as Afzal (2007), Romano (2006), Bofo-Arthur (2000) and Wani and Kothari (2008), one can understand that undeveloped countries were affected negatively because of globalisation. For now, the developing countries accepted the integration of the economy. In the same way, the integration of the economy hurts some cultures and has a positive impact on some other cultures. Because of the sudden change in the economy, technology brings many more changes. For instance, Gopanpally tanda has also got into so many alterations because of the establishment of software industry in their region.

Besides, urbanisation has an impact on globalisation and society. Jovanovic (2010) also supports the statement that urbanisation is the ultimate cause of globalisation in Gopanpally. But the study of Wani and Kothari (2000) found that through globalisation, local people were developed, and the folklore, adivasis, and small farmers were misused. Because in Gaya, Ujjain, and Madhurai tribes, even during the kingship of the medieval period, they never changed their lifestyle. The reason behind this is 'tribal society is homogeneous, undifferentiated, ethnocentric and unstratified whereas Hindu society is heterogeneous, differentiated and stratified.' But in the case of Gopanpally tanda, its connection with the urban region has given a positive element. Balakrishnan (2003) also asserted that as poor countries are becoming richer after the globalisation, the income inequality along with poverty have declined. In the same way, poor regions are becoming richer suddenly, of which Gopanpally tanda is the best example. So, we will discuss how the lambadas of Gopanpally tanda population is influenced by the globalisation.

When it comes to the identification of tribes done in the people of National Series III, the anthropological survey of India identified 461 tribal communities in India. The lambadas come under scheduled tribes (STs), called as Banjara group, and are referred with different names such as Lamani, Lambani, Lambadi, Sugali, Sukali, and Laman. Rattord (1984) also found that there are 17 types of lambadas all over India, called by 27 different names in various parts of India. He asserts that they were transporters of foodgrains during the Mughal period. As the road transportation increased, the lambadas were displaced and selected different kinds of employment. They come under different categories in different states of India. For instance, in Telangana and Andhra Pradesh, they are under ST category, and in Tamil Nadu, they are referred to as Backward Category (BC). These lambadas are more developed than other tribes in Telangana and Andhra Pradesh, but they are using their quota also in job and education opportunities. That is why, tribes in Telangana region are agitated and advocating for the elimination of lambadas from the ST category.

The idea of globalisation started for the development of oneness of the world economic system, but it has a different effect on people and also has invoked agitations against it. The acceptance among the group of people vary because tribes are ethnocentric and simple. The literature review from various sources has been mentioned in the following section. It helps in understanding the concept-oriented information such as whether a gap exists. It is given in chronological order of the publication. The studies are concerned with tribes and globalisation effect on social, cultural, economic, education, and employment and political life.

Literature Review

Tribes do not feel comfortable with the new environment and employment; also, in the same way, Poosarla tanda people reacted towards railway employment. They did not want to stay outside of tanda, in quarters given by the railway department. Later, when they came to know about the value of the opportunity that they have missed the job recruitment, they regretted themselves (Devi 1990). Cerny (1995) said that collective action of the state is getting multilayered and detached. The strength of the state gets reduced with the hegemonic power of globalisation.

International markets are not only buyers and sellers but also powerful forces that detach the boundaries. The capitalists try to capture the ethnicity, culture, religion, race, and environment and occupy them. There is no boundary for globalisation to occupy (Mittelman 2000). Sheth (2004) discussed the agitations against the globalisation procedure. Agitators feel that it brings inequalities among the societies. If inequalities already exist, it results in widening and disparities.

Naidu (2006) discussed with the logics of interruption and resistance towards globalisation an example of agitation in Washington DC.

He asserted that globalisation's effect on agriculture is positive with machinery development, but it has neglected their education. Dalit women

and other women were compared in his study. He says that national issues like terrorism were neglected (Naidu 2006).

Mondal (2007) discussed studies done on globalisation and anthropology. 'It is an ongoing and dynamic phenomenon characterised by transnational movements of capital, labour and cultural practices'. He discussed questions such as how does culture or tradition get changed in small or local communities and what roles did different communication systems play, and it was based on secondary data. He says that due to globalisation, the culture does not remain as before because technology and communication are corporate barriers to changing cultural attributes. For instance, in globalisation, travel, trade, and media play a major role as barriers. Simple life leading people such as tribes and peasants are transformed day by day. A simple life of a village, local, and 'little people' or 'little community' are minimised with inter-cultural variations.

Baral (2006) discussed the effect of globalisation on north-eastern people. The changes in the region at local industry level resulted in losses like that of textiles and the technologies brought adverse effect in this region. Ethnic life also got changed negatively. In the same way, Brady et al. (2007) assert that globalisation influences every society in the country. The economic life changes, and social life also gets affected. The scholarly reviews have been made here. The uniqueness of society is lost by globalisation. Besides, Ajit Pal Singh (2008) discusses with the politics changed with the effect of globalisation in India along with other third world countries. India's steps of avoiding the supranational integration were discussed. In the same period, Wani and Kothari (2008) discussed the globalisation and destruction of forests; they found that it caused disturbance in their livelihood and residence.

Patnaik (2011) found that old communities are not easily getting destroyed by a national ideology of globalisation, which means they are supporting themselves and identity politics are playing a hegemonic role. The globalisation is affecting the people at local area due to displacement of the originated. The petty producers became landless labourers, which Myint (2011) discussed with the institutional dynamics after globalisation. He studied analytically with the help of secondary data-based information, global and national universities, and its governance.

The review of the existing literature revealed that the tribes were disinterested outside their residences in movement. The study on globalisation has been pursued on the basis of concept and chronology. At first, the study defines the concept of globalisation, and later, its characteristics were discussed by Cerny, Mittelman and Mondal. The impact on agriculture, textiles, and simple and little societies was discussed by authors such as Mondal, Naidu, Wani, Ajit Pal, Patnaik, and Myint. They found that the impact of globalisation never leaves society as it was before. As per Devi (1990), even if they missed the opportunities earlier, but at the present village, little societies also ignited and utilised the opportunities as and when they get them.

Significance of the Study

Gopanpally tanda has been the fastest-growing or developing tanda since the software industry development. From the literature review, one can understand that there are studies on globalisation's effect on tribes but not about the displacement and economic development or disturbance. Also, the studies focussed on the cultural or social changes due to the effect of globalisation, but no studies have been conducted on empirical changes. The studies mainly focussed on the tribes and forest issues and livelihood effects concerning globalisation. Land alienation studies have been done, but the tribes are ethnocentric. They do not get hypnotised by other cultures. In the same way, the tribes in Gopanpally tanda also held to their uniqueness after the globalisation such as lifestyle, culture, and customs, but still, they have changed internally. But, there are no studies on these issues.

Tanda has been observed as effected by globalisation with the establishment of Indian School of Business, Infosys, Wipro, Q-city, and Tata Institute of Fundamental Research (TIFR). And especially no studies were carried out on this issue of tribes earlier in the Telangana state because Telangana has been formed after bifurcation. There are studies done on Telangana tribes but on Warangal region only, and they are also not related to the globalisation of tribes.

Methodology

This is an explorative narrative study. It explores the variation after the globalisation among lambadas of Gopanpally tanda in Telangana state. The study has been carried out based on participants' observation for one year, from July 2018 to July 2019, and case studies. Tanda has been selected based on the purposive sampling method since it signifies the effects of globalisation. Mixed methodology has been used to analyse the data. The interview schedule is used to collect the data. The tools and techniques used to calculate the data for analysis.

Sample and Population

Permanent residents of Gopanpally tanda of Telangana state has been studied. Because Tanda has influx of in-migration for employment, population is higher in Gopanpally tanda and the count is irregular.

Geographical Profile of Gopanpally Tanda

It is surrounded by Gowlidoddi, Gopanpally, and NTR Nagar. Gopanpally tanda comes under Rangaeddy district and Seri Lingampally Mandal. It is the biggest and fastest developing tanda in this mandal. It is economically rich with construction, but there is no source of agriculture land. The University of Hyderabad is one kilometre away, and Navodaya School and IIT are also nearby to tanda. Tanda's development is connected with Indian School of Business (ISB), Wipro, Infosys, and other software companies around. These software industries came into metro city Hyderabad in the process of globalisation and new economic policy. Tanda has two private

schools and one government primary school. They have all the facilities like four medical shops, one ICICI ATM centre, two bangle stores, two wine shops, four hotels, twelve Kirana shops, two mineral water plants, and two private hospitals. They also have weekly bazaars on Friday. The tanda has ground facility with a youth meeting hall.

Historical Profile of Gopanpally Tanda

Gopanpally tanda, which is a village for this study, has nearly 130 years of history. Earlier, some jagirdars had more agricultural land under their control, and they hired four persons as labourers in cultivation work. They were Palthya Bhajya Naik, Sabavath Pomula Naik, Degavath Sokya Naik (from Chinchode), and Bhukya Many Naik. Later, those four persons permanently remained in tanda, and jagirdars left. These four families have since multiplied. That is how tanda was established. Amgoth Laxmi's family is also in tanda; she is the ex-village president of Masjid Banda who came to tanda, leaving all properties because of insecurity after her son's death. In the same way, *odde* (stonemasons), which is a sub-category of BC community in Telangana state, were also joined in tanda from Masjid banda. The other caste is *Tenugu*, which is also a sub-category of BC community in Telangana state, also shifted from Gopanpally. The minority group is actually not from tanda but have bought the lands and permanently settled here. Since the establishment of ISB in 2001, the rates of the lands had increased in this region. This sudden change has taken place just because of constructions in tanda at present time. It is the fastest-growing economic region with real estate and business of tribes. The walls of tanda were broken and widened with the establishment of TIFR and other industries.

Globalisation starts with the establishment of a company or industry. For that, lands need to be available for construction of building or company. That is why, the land occupation is studied at the beginning of the analysis as given below.

Status of Land Occupation

Land was bought for the construction of the company. This resulted in an increase in buying or grabbing or snatching of the lands for the construction of homes or companies. Before the establishment of various companies, the cost of land was only ₹ 10,000 or ₹ 20,000 per acre. At present, the same land is at six crore rupees. The original residents of tanda till now do not have the land on their name, but they pay taxes on their name. That is why land grabbing was considered very simple and common from innocent people. The land grabbing from outsiders was also found for the construction of the company. They took advantage of the habit of alcoholism of tanda people. At the same time, within tanda, the tribes and other caste people occupied the lands among themselves. That is called *kabja*, which is very common in that region. Some families had occupied three to four places in tanda before the establishment of the software industry. The BC population from states such as Andhra Pradesh and Telangana districts

such as Mahaboob Nagar and Chilukuru comprise 53 per cent of the population of a tanda. They are from various castes, and 23 per cent of them have occupied the land in *kabja*. Eleven per cent of tribes were poor in the occupation of the land.

For instance, Degavath Ganesh's land was occupied by some company. Before the occupation of the land, they did cultivation in that land. But they do not have money to lead life. That is why, Ganesh (alcoholic) borrowed money from the company owner, which is just behind the q-city. Like that, he borrowed ₹ 50,000 for every time, which totalled ₹ 6,00,000. For that amount, only he has to sell out the land, though they have evidence for the land being used for cultivation. But they do not have land in their name, as everyone else in the tanda. Other BCs bought the lands from the tribes and constructed houses. The *odde*, a sub-category within the BCs and who live on stonemasons by occupation have been originally from tanda. They were migrated from Masjid Banda and Gopanpally like some of the tribes, for example, Amgoth Laxmi. These are details of Gopanpally tanda.

The following sections describes Gopanpally tanda with the help of participant observation and case studies along with the interview schedule. It describes and forms evidence for the impact of globalisation. We will discuss only the political status of tanda because it has a large impact on the increased economic life of the population.

Political Status of Tanda

As per anthropological studies, the tribes have their political system within their community people. They do not approach any external sources such as police force and courts. Generally, tandas are away from a mainstream region, so they have their own political system to resolve their issues. But in the case of Gopanpally tanda, they do not have such kind of characteristics. Because it is well connected with the urban region. Besides, active participants of political leaders are present in the tanda. The political life in Gopanpally tanda is always with main or external parties. For instance, 25 years ago, Amgoth Laxmi contested for village president from Masjid banda and worked for five years with congress party's support. Her son Raju Naik worked with Bikshapati, a political leader, and died in Masjid banda. That is why, Laxmi did not feel safe to stay there and came to Gopanpally tanda. At present, the main parties have very much influence on tanda people at a personal level like congress party, BJP, and TRS supporters. Recently, elections were conducted for MLA and MPs separately in Telangana. So, they have been supporting their interested parties at a personal level. The parties also gave money internally, for example, ₹ 10 lakh and ₹ 15 lakh.

In tanda, women have taken active participation in elections. They were moving out and taking part in all the meetings of external party politics. For instance, one Sabavath Bharathi, separated from the husband, was elected as a ward member. She did not have a father, so her mother sent her to study at her mama's home. There, she studied up to Class X, but later she could not study because of economic constrain. So she learnt tailoring

and got married. In DWCRA (Development of Women and Children in Rural Areas) or any other mahila groups, she used to be a good participant. She also took part in all meetings as male members do.

If the disputes happen in a household or outside the household, they do not approach any internal leaders within tanda because there is no such leader now. Because tanda comes under the municipal corporation Masjid Banda, and the police force also directly enters in the tanda. For instance, there are frequent issues of driving licence because, in tanda, children learn driving before 18 years, so they cannot register for a licence. They forget later to get registered and drive without a licence. On this issue, for instance, an FIR was filed against Amgoth Gopi, who is 20 years of age, and has been sent to the Chanchal Guda prison for three days. However, he came out on bail before completion of the period. It indicates the political power of tanda went beyond the internal issues. It indicates the external politics influence on tanda. Tribes or other community people have been losing their employment and residences, as per the understanding of the globalisation process from previous studies. But, in case of this tanda, the people did not get affect due to globalisation. Because they got alert so early with the establishment of ISB in 2001. According to Amgoth Shantha, who is one of the sample respondents in the village, said that they got the information of establishment of ISB near to their village through their close relative and former village sarpanch, Ms Amgoth Laxmi. This is how this community operates their connections to establish their investment according to the trends in the globalisation process.

The political status of tanda may be strong before the globalisation, but there was a vast impact of globalisation because of the improved economic status; tanda received more attention than before. It indicates the increased state of political power in tanda at personal lineage level. The other issue is health because increased economic status impacts mental health mostly.

Health Status in Tanda

They encounter minor health problems like fever, cold, and cough but not specific health issues like blood pressure, sugar, cancer, etc. The effect of globalisation on tanda is not seen on physical health but on psychological health. Psychological imbalance has been found among tribal people. Tanda people are more alcoholic than they were before globalisation. Before the globalisation, there was a habit of alcoholism, but that was for relaxation after doing a whole day work. But at present, the whole day of alcoholism means the day starts and ends with alcohol. This alcoholism had led to suicidal attempts. Two persons, who were just 28 years and 31 years of age, killed themselves in front of their whole family. They were mentally imbalanced during the drunken stage. These were not identified as the severe stage of mental health because of the negligence of the family. From a young age, children were getting money in hands. But the young and youth are not in a state to handle the economic life and personal life in a positive perspective. They are taking advantage of the economic status of the family and the outside environment and moving towards the negative path.

The psychological change among the lambadas of the tanda after the economic development has impacted education. Mainly, this problem is found in young children to youth, which means school-going and college-going youngsters. And education is only one element that can take them away from a pathetic situation. That is why, the state of education in tanda is as given in the following section.

Impact on Education

Education and health are basic objectives of development and are vital components of growth and development. Health is a prerequisite for increases in productivity successful education depends on adequate health. Therefore, instead of using the growth of labour as factor input, we use the expenditure on education, training and health proxy for HRD (Human Resource Development). It is the human resources of a nation ultimately determine the character and pace of its economic and social development because education makes not only efficient workers but also good citizens. (Afzal 2007: 277)

Education is very important for the development of a human being socially and psychologically. It is a basic element for the development of the person. The psychological perceptions of the people of the modern and medieval periods vary from each other. Thought processes were also different, but these were pooled and remembered until now because of their proficiency and skilfulness in the particular field of study. That is why, education is very important. Besides, Afzal (2007) also says that it makes a good citizen. In Gopanpally tanda, poverty was reduced because of developed economic status but social life is changing more. So, it is very important to understand the reason behind this.

In Gopanpally tanda, the literacy rate was classified as follows: illiterate (11%), primary school (8%), upto tenth (54%) which is highest, intermediate to degree (4%) and still studying (23%). The 11.67 per cent of illiterate are from more than 45 years of age group. They could not study because parents did not allow them. Household work, agriculture work, and poverty were the causes for illiteracy. After this group of people, the next age group is up to 30 years. They were able to study up to fourth and fifth classes, but could not go for further studies because girls were engaged to help their parents in caring for their younger siblings. Some of them were caring for their elder brothers who were also kids. And for boys, the prime reason is to earn money. Five members in tanda are studying B.Tech.

Highest per cent among them are from the young generation of tanda, who fall under 53.8 per cent. Teenagers from both the genders come under this group. The children are dropping out of the schooling, though the parents are ready to invest money for their study and well-being of the children. According to parents, education is must. But the children are not interested in studying. Even after forceful joining of school, students are not showing interest. When cross-checks were conducted, elderly people said that parents are not so strict regarding children education. Luxury life, fun,

and entertainment played a major role. The boys and girls have similar thinking to escape studies, and this behaviour was also seen in other caste people like stonemasons and Tenugu caste people.

For this main reason, parents were looking into early marriages of their children. There is no such differentiation between boys and girls at present in tanda, irrespective of the tribal or non-tribal people. Because parents asserted that whatever they do, they do it for their children. But when children do not follow their words, they do not want to take any risk with family prestige. In a bad friendship, if children commit any mistakes, name and fame of the family get affected. That is why, after dropping out from schools, parents wait for one or two years, and then get them married before the completion of marital age.

Girls' Education

Amgoth Shantha, who is a girl student, said that their family want to give preference to girl's education. But the tradition in lambadas is different; as per customs, they do not give much preference for the girl's education because the girl (daughter-in-law) has to do all the household work at husband's home at any cost even if she does a good job. She cannot eat food before the household eats. All of the work at home had to be done by her, such as washing clothes and utensils, cleaning the house, cooking, and serving. If a daughter-in-law does not do all those works, it means community people will talk badly about the behaviour of their daughter and mother's family. That is why, they teach their girl children all those works. This is a cultural concept, but after globalisation, economic status of the family has increased. They could concentrate on girl's education. Still, girls are not showing interest in studies. That is why, parents give more dowry and send their daughters away.

For instance, Nenavath Deepa (19 years), daughter of Anganwadi teacher, was studying B.Tech because of her parent's insistence. She got government seat in Sri Devi Engineering College on a category basis.

But she was not interested in studying, and hence, her parents preferred her to get married. They gave a dowry of one crore rupees to a boy and stopped her studies. Later, she joined in general degree course (BSc) because the bridegroom did not like her to study BTech. The girl also accepted it and followed him because she was also not interested in studying BTech.

In the same way, there was another instance. The age group is different, but she did not want to leave tanda and go out. Khatravath Durga (12 years) got a seat in a residential school, but after joining the school, she ran away from school in one day. In the morning, she joined the school and came back on the evening of the next day. She says that she was not interested in that environment. And here in Tanda also, she does not have a proper school; she was studying in Lingampally government school, where they cannot afford transport charges. After coming back from the residential school, Durga's parents did not scold her and instead supported

her to stay back at home. These incidents indicate that the parental negligence about the children education and also environmental conditions of tanda. Thus, in tanda, girl education was recorded only 70 per cent at school level. Three girls in the village got married during the summer vacations in the year 1919. Not only girls but also boys get married at an early age. Amgoth Sunitha said that earlier lambada males in this tanda used to do agriculture work. But at present days, they are looking the economic status of the family. The globalisation has no direct effect but has an indirect effect on the lifestyle of tanda people. Let's look at the boys' state of education in the tanda.

Boys' Education

In Tanda, all of them prefer a boy to study because he remains at home since they have patriarchal families. The property also remains with that family. So, families also prefer the boy of the family to be educated more than the girls. But, in tanda, boys do not show much interest in higher education. Environmental conditions also negatively affect them, such as increased economy, alcoholism, and ignorance of the value of education.

Amgoth Raju Naik (47 years) says the attitude of the children and youth is changed by the sudden economic development of the family. And the parent's attitude towards life was varied or careless before globalisation. That is why, they were least bothered about the education of children, but after globalisation, parents were trying to educate their children. But the environment and geographical forces are working majorly for this.

Nenavath Lavanya is an *aaya* at Gopanpally tanda, and her husband is employed in the University of Hyderabad. Her second son, Nenavath Naresh (17 years), is not interested to study; in 12th class. He wanted to stop studying. Parents knew the value of education, so they insisted on him to study, but he was not interested. He bowed down and said that he will not study now. He decided to study later on in open education, but for now, he wanted to stop. Parents have a lot of complaints regarding his behaviour and attitude. But they cannot do anything, and that is why, they left him.

In addition, Amgoth Rajesh (9 years) studying in fourth class, when asked, 'why you did not secure the seat in entrance test?' He said that my brother did not get twice. In the same way, Amgoth Sai Kumar (13 years) was selected for inter-school competitions for volleyball, but he did not want to go for that. Parents also insisted and requested him, but he did not prefer to go because those competitions were taking away all his holidays. If he joined that competitions, he will not be able to spend his time here at home. If his parents scold him, he counters by saying, 'you do not scold me because all investment on my studies is spent by grandfather'.

It indicates all age groups of children and youth irrespective of gender are influenced by geographical or environmental and economic changes. The changes in education are leading to early marital life in the tanda. Let see how the marriage system gets affected because of globalisation.

Impact on Marriage System

The marriage pattern of tribes or lambadas is different from general people. The rituals and customs are followed by them consist of traditional knowledge and songs. But now, they follow the Hindu method of marriage. These changes are not because of globalisation but due to urbanisation. The payment of dowry, fun, and enjoyment increased because of the increased economic status of the family. These were increased because of economic development after the new policy implementation.

Earlier, they had 'oli' which means payment of money for the bride by the groom. It is quite opposite to the dowry system, and the marriage was also decided at childhood. The marriage was done based on orally said words, and not on money. Amgoth Laxmi (65) says marriage pattern in the olden days was good because nowadays people are breaking the relationship after the engagement and payment of the dowry. But in olden days, they never skipped the words once they promise. They were not worried about the poor people's daughter also. They knew instances may change in life after deciding the child marriage, either of the spouses' family may become rich or poor. But never left the word given in childhood. That is why, she said, olden day's marriage system was very much supportive for a girl child family and poor people. But now it is very difficult for poor and girl child to get married. She also says just because of this economic development, people are spending money like water on marriage and Bharat which is a new method now.

The marriage stability is until the death of the spouse. They do not get married if any of the spouse died. There are no pieces of evidence of divorced marriages or remarriages. No evidence of polygamous or polygyny marriages were found. Only in one family, Sabavath Harya (55 years) had two wives (both are siblings). The disturbances in marriage because of negligence and alcoholism have led to separation of the family into the nuclear family from the joint family. The effect of globalisation on the family system is studied below.

Impact on Family System

There are 356 families in thanda. It has more population, but the study has considered permanent residents only. In all, 53.67 per cent of the population are from non-tribes and 46.32 per cent of them are from tribes. Among them, minorities comprise 4.76 per cent. Tanda has 49.41 per cent male and 51.59 per cent female population. The family system is patrilineal and patrilocal. They have nuclear families, (36.02%), joint families (9.92%), extended joint families (4.77%), and broken nuclear families (2.2%).

As per lambadas' customs, parents reside with youngest son's family. But before globalisation, they preferred to be in joint families to share the labour work, such as herding and agriculture work. But at present, the family system has changed after the increased economic status of the family, though they have surplus amount to survive. The prime and important reasons found for separation of the joint family into the nuclear family are

irresponsibility of son, alcoholism, and laziness. Fathers, themselves, are not interested in keeping their sons in the joint family because sons are misusing the properties.

The broken nuclear families exist not because of divorces or accidental deaths of the family member. But because of alcoholism and suicides by either hanging or burning. As per the current study, 100 per cent of the unnatural deaths in the Gopanpally tanda is caused in a drunken state under the unconsciousness of alcoholism. The male members are committing suicides at a young age like 28–35 years of age group. They are not interested in working because they feel rich. The property they have is a lot for them. Also, they misuse the property for alcoholism and are addicted to it. That is how the sudden change of economic status of the family has increased their suicide rate.

Women employment is common everywhere, but in Gopanpally tanda, it is uncommon. But some women are working because their husbands are not working and father-in-law and mother-in-law do not support. As per lambadas' division of labour of these family members, the main breadwinner of the family is male only and women have to do all household works. Another reason is that women working outside means, it is a prestige issue for the family. But still, 18 per cent of the total employment is from women, who work in aparna constructions and muppa constructions as housekeepers. This type of female employment is found in nuclear families because their husbands are lazy and alcoholic. The parents of their family are leaving them just because of their negligence. They have not adopted the drinking alcohol after marriage, but they chose that before marriage. They were irresponsible towards family before marriage because of alcoholism. Due to that reason, parents fixed marriages to get them settle in their lives. Because parents believe that after marriage, sons may become responsible. But after marriage, and even after having children, they are irresponsible. In Gopanpally tanda, they are irresponsible because of the surplus money they have. They think that they need not work because they have enough money to survive, and money is collected every month through rents.

For instance, Amgoth Raju Naik's son Amgoth Gopi (25 years) was stubborn. Right from his eighth class, he was habituated to drinking and smoking with his bad friendship. Parents requested him to study because his two brothers (elder to Gopi) could not study because of family needs and necessities. They switched to work in unprecedented conditions. But, in Gopi's case, parents wanted him to study, but he did not accept. So, the parents married him to a tanda girl. That girl also had a rich family like Gopi's. So, she did not want to stay with him for the first two years of the marriage. She used to stay with her parents. So, Gopi's parents also did not allow them to stay in a joint family. Because of Gopi's behaviour, the family took advantage of it and got separated. Though they are separated, weekly bazaar payments for household, non-vegetarian food, and festivals payment are spent by Raju Naik (Gopi's father) for two of his brothers. But he does not give it to Gopi Naik's family because of his alcoholism and negligence

towards family. That is why, his wife Sumithra (22 years) goes for house-keeping work in Muppa Constructions even though she is wealthier from mother's family as well as husband's family. Gopi also does driving work, but he does not give the money earned for household needs. That is why, Sumithra is doing work for their two children and family needs.

When it comes to the family system, though Indians follow patrilineal and patrilocal families, Gopanpally tanda evidenced with matrilineal families just after the globalisation. In all, 17 per cent of nuclear families are matrilineal. The reason is people in tanda are giving their land or 1-3 portions of the house in part of the dowry for daughter's marriage. The daughters may not shift immediately after marriage, but do so after some period. Daughters are settled in tanda with their spouse and children to access the benefits such as employment and rents because the value of land and house rents are high.

For instance, Khatravath Prem Kumar is from Anja Nagar, Gachibowli, but he is staying here in tanda as a matrilineal family. He has patrilineal properties in Gachibowli. But he has got the land in part of the dowry and constructed house and gave it in rents. The disadvantage of the matrilineal family here is that, in this case, Prem Kumar does not want to work. Though he has three daughters, he was not interested to work. Because all the luxury items like television, bore digging for water, and all functions related to girls or family is being taken care of by his mother-in-law. One of his daughters does not stay with them. Prem Kumar's second daughter stays with her grandmother. All her needs and necessities like education, food, and clothes are cleared by her uncle and grandmother. It indicates the negative perspective of globalisation in the family system. It indicates the irresponsibility of the father.

The state of the family is getting changed with the influence of the globalisation such as breaking into nuclear families and formation of matrilineal families, which is uncommon. For any family or marriage stability to be longer, it needs good employment status. A good employment means it has good returns in payments so that family can lead their life happily. The employment status of the tanda is given below.

Impact on Employment Status

Before the globalisation, lambadas were cattle (buffalo, cows, sheep, and goats) herders and cultivators. They cultivated white jowar, rice, vegetables, corn, sugarcane, etc. They were poor and did not have enough investment to buy cultivation products. That is why, they were mainly concerned with herding cattle. But after the globalisation, their lifestyle changed. The small landowners became rich by constructing houses and giving them on rent. And the employment opportunities also increased because of the software companies. Employment is available just because of software development. It indicates the direct impact of globalisation on tanda.

One can find the variation in employment status within tanda people after the effect of globalisation. They are holding different kinds of works in

different companies and the university. The company work is higher in the percentage of male employment. Companies such as software industry and educational institutions and software people residences are present in tanda, providing them with various employment opportunities. The company work includes security guards, housekeeping, service works, etc.

The primary employment of the tanda population is driving. That is, 20.46 per cent of drivers, which includes lorry, car, and auto drivers. Every boy in the family learns driving. Because every house has their own vehicle such as auto, car, or lorry. As soon as they drop out from schooling, they start learning driving. That is why, for them, it is an easy task to handle. During the emergence of globalisation, the construction of buildings also existed. So tanda people bought lorries and tippers to carry bricks, stones, soil, sand, and other necessities of construction and nursery. But in later periods, lorries were sold because the requirement reduced and the lorry owners also were not interested in working like before. Because of the low employment on the lorry, they sold out lorries and bought autos and cars. Earlier, they had 36 lorries, but now only 18 remained. There is one JCB truck with them.

The Greater Hyderabad Municipal Corporation (GHMC) is also providing them employments such as electricians and water facilitators. They were appointed four years ago on a contract basis. Stonemasons (*odde*) are still working despite globalisation; only they could survive. They say that for new construction of buildings, the primary thing that need to be done is to remove the stones from ground level, breaking them and making shapes. It is a great employment for them. But now, the work has reduced than before. Wage labourers are also included in loading and unloading works, and there are labourers in the construction business. There are government employees such as police, Anganwadi teachers, aayas, and other lower-level skilled workers. Real estate and business were started after economic development. Self-employment includes vegetable vendors, general Kirana shops, hospital, bangle stores, private school, milk dairy farms, mobile shops, and hotels. These also started with economic development after globalisation. So, all these indicated the impact of globalisation on tanda.

Women employment includes only housekeeping work in Muppa Constructions and Aparna Constructions. These constructions were started after software development. The employees of software occupied these places. They recruited them in their houses as cooks and cleaners. There are some people who hold two to three types of employments like electrician, driving, and loading and unloading together. Paperboy and courier boy workers also exist. This is a clear indication of the changed state of employment after globalisation from a positive perspective.

In tanda, Nenavath Shankar Naik's family started doing agriculture work from three years before. The cultivator was once doing real estate work, then he took a gap for two years, but he was not satisfied, and later started doing the agriculture work. Not only cultivating his own land, but

also doing tenant cultivation. Two families are herding buffaloes and goats. They said that they feel very satisfied when they do this work, though they have surplus properties.

Two per cent of the population of the male population are not interested in working anywhere just because they have properties. For instance, Nenavath Govardhan and Prem Kumar asked, why they need to work since they have properties, and every month they receive rent money. It is enough for their survival. Their wives are working as housekeepers because husbands are not doing work. This can be said to be a negative perspective of globalisation.

In the same way, Badavath Mahendra went for higher studies in the USA and completed the studies, but he is not interested to work or to do any job. He saved some amount, bought some land near to university depot side, and constructed his house. He decided to survive with that amount whatever he gets from the rent. His philosophy is that he will not get any government job, and under private sector, he is not interested to work because nodding to someone's principle is not possible to him. The employment opportunities are more due to globalisation, but how does the culture effect is given below.

Cultural Change after Globalisation

The festivals in tanda are celebrated as general people in Hyderabad celebrate. There is a tradition of celebrating Vinayaka chavithi celebrated with huge sum of money. Earlier, this was not there. Dassera and Pongal were celebrated, but since the change in the economic status of the family, they have been spending more amount. Bonalu and Chandi yagam were adopted from urbanised culture due to economic development. But all the cultural customs and functions like saree function and, marriages are celebrated with high investment. It indicates the developed economic status of the family. For instance, when Nenavath Pomula (80 years) died, his body was burnt with only coconut and ghee, like celebrities do. And his ashes were sent immediately to five sacred rivers of India with lakhs of rupees investment.

A change of culture is found in tanda, as they are using luxury things like lift, vehicles, television, mobile phones, and others. The dressing and fashion are followed by them by observing movies and through other sources. In general, as per anthropological definition, tribes are simple, but in tanda, they are complex.

Conclusion

Gopanpally tanda has got employment opportunities with the establishment of software industry. But 17 per cent of them were from unorganised sectors because of illiteracy and carelessness. As Devi (1990) said, tanda people also got chances to work in the University of Hyderabad, but they did not join. Now, they tried to join, but because of their alcoholism, they were not able to survive in any permanent employment.

The old generations did not get a chance to get educated because of their poverty and the basic needs of the family. But the present generation has been affected by the economic changes of globalisation. They dropped out of school and got married at an early age. Because they have not learnt any other language except Banjara. They are very poor in speaking Telugu also. The encouragement from the community is needed, which is missing. The lack of knowledge has led to exploitation. That is why, the joint family system has transformed into the nuclear family. Matrilocal families have increased just because of the globalisation effect, but there is no effect on its stability. In tanda, education is a very important element because of drop out leading to all negative attributes. Its trend looks like a downside curved dome shape pattern. If the state becomes wealthy due to economic state with a positive attitude or behaviour, it brings the linear scalar development in all the sectors. But, in tanda, it is opposite.

The cultural life of tanda is inspired by external media such as the film industry and political leaders. They imitate them and spend the amount on luxury items. The system of family and marriage also has been changing. The political status of tanda after globalisation has been differentiated. And psychologically, the youth and children are getting affected by the sudden increase in the economic status of the family.

The hegemonic power of globalisation brought changes in the family, marriage system, and political system and has modernised them. The livelihood pattern has changed but is unsecured because of the unorganised sector; the reasons for this are alcoholism and lack of education.

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Annexure IV
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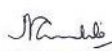


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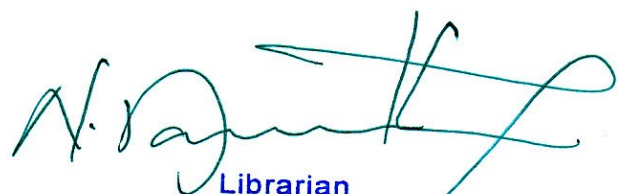
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