Role of government schemes in migration of agricultural labourers and their social and economic problems

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Abstract -
Even in the 21st century, the economic and social condition of agricultural labourers engaged in making rural economy has not improved. Today, they also have a big employment crisis. In search of a job, they leave their families and migrate in search of work in other states. Where they fall prey to conscription. The government is running one to one schemes of poverty alleviation. But due to lack of illiteracy, these plans do not reach the agricultural laborers in real terms. Their rights and rights are borne by corruption and corruption. An agricultural labourer is a person who does not have land for farming and livelihood. He works in another's fields and remotes his family by getting fixed wages instead. For this reason, despite the hard work and hard work in the society, even after so many years of independence, there has been no change in their social and economic status. Agriculture in India is of crucial importance from different stand points. It accounts for a large part of the national income; it is the most important sector from the point of view of employment. Further, the agricultural sector has an important influence on industrialisation and its role in foreign trade is also significant. It must, however, be noted that the percentage contribution of agriculture to India's national income has been declining over the period since 1901. For instance, the share of agriculture in India's national income was 65 percent in the period 1914-18. It declined to 57 percent in 1929-30. In 1960-61, agriculture accounted for 52 percent of our national income. Since then the share is falling and, as mentioned earlier, stood at 41.5 percent in 1981-82. Due to severe drought and the resultant set-back in agriculture thereafter its share had declined to 40.6 per cent in 1979-80. In other districts of Bihar, there are problems of agricultural labour, while in Bhagalpur district, there are problems with agricultural labour. The cultivation here is completely monsoon based. Due to monsoon and the grace of nature, due to the basis of agricultural work, there is no work available for agricultural laborers here. For this reason, they have to flee in search of employment. Most of the agricultural laborers are illiterate. Due to lack of education, they are unable to use their rights properly. They have to take a loan to run a family. The number of agricultural laborers in the district of about 30 lakh population is more than five lakh. There is always a lack of trust in them. For work, they have to spread hands and big capitalists. People do not even have their own houses. The Pradhan Mantri Awas Yojana is like Jalebi hanging above, whose sugar syrup is dripping and it is only possible to reach Jalebi. Problems and needs are different for non-farming unorganized sector workers and agricultural labourers. Therefore, the law should also be different for them, which the union is not taking seriously. The government has done lip-granddaughter and dealt with both in the same law and averted it. The Arjun Sengupta Committee had also recommended the framing of separate laws for the two, which have not yet received any attention. However, separate laws should be made for these agricultural laborers who play an important role in the development and GDP of the country. They should get pension and maternity benefit to women after the age of 55. But to the contrary, the government is also trying to shut down the MNREGA scheme made under the title of work. Puri ki puri MNREGA has become synonymous with corruption. Rural laborers were also benefited from welfare schemes like MNREGA, but today due to apathy of the government, this scheme has also become a mere scheme. All the schemes being made by the government are far from being good for the farmers and laborers, but instead they become a means of corruption. The exploited and laborer class is worried for employment. This has brought the economy to a standstill. How to increase production with small holdings, how to reduce costs so that the farming does not prove to be a loss deal for them. Collective farming is seen as one way to save small holdings of farmers and their land. The question of land in the district is related to caste. The initiative of mass farming can also get rid of this and through this we can give our entire economy a boost. As real estate and urbanization are expanding in the district, the agricultural land is decreasing. With this, the crisis of farming, small and medium farmers, agricultural laborers are all moving towards plight. This problem can be overcome through mass farming. The solution to the farming crisis cannot be found within agriculture itself. To tackle the farming crisis, the entire economy will require a lot of
change. Women can play a very important role in this. Agricultural labor has been a major contributor to the economic development of rural areas in India. The village economy has been agricultural based since the beginning. Unemployment of agricultural laborers is a major problem in rural areas of Bihar including Bhagalpur district. They have to face social, economic, political and administrative hurdles related to government welfare schemes at the local level. Government welfare schemes to remove the poverty and unemployment of agricultural laborers have been becoming continuous since independence. But it does not land properly. Bindu, the center of contemplation of leading leaders of the country, has had problems of agricultural labor from the beginning. There is a long list of occupational difficulties of agricultural laborers and obstacles to welfare programs. The rural area of Bihar, including the Bhagalpur district, is passing through economic transitional dairies. The unemployed agricultural laborers here do not get the opportunity to work daily. Every agricultural laborer in the village does a lot of hard work, but Bhajan is also no luck. Nor does he get the opportunity to work for a whole year. In this way, his future seems bleak. This idea is also true in relation to India today, in the context of poor country, poor king, poor country, propounded in the 18th century by the French philosopher Quasne. As an agrarian country, the economy of India is dependent on farmers, farmers, laborers and advanced practices of agriculture. The profession of an agricultural laborer, ie, a laborer, makes a living by giving his labor in agricultural work. The condition of agricultural existence in India is very low and pathetic. They are very poor and have a very low standard of living. His life is full of poverty, unemployment, torture, oppression and uncertainty. In some places, the condition of agricultural labor is like that of slaves. The main problem of agricultural laborers i.e. their occupational difficulties is that they do not get regular employment throughout the year. They have to face short employment and sometimes even full unemployment. The contract or permanent agricultural majors are specially tied to the landlord, they are provided permanent employment throughout the year but such agricultural laborers are very less. As we are aware that near about 53% population of India is engaged in agricultural activities. But agriculture in India is still at mercy of the monsoon. Here, the condition of the farmers and agricultural laborers depend on the intensity of monsoon. If the monsoon is good then the crop is good and vice-versa. Agriculture labour is counted in the category of unorganized sector, so their income is not fixed. Hence they are living an insecure and underprivileged life and earning just Rs. 150/300 day along with full uncertainty. In terms of employment, the condition of agricultural laborers with casual or temporary employment is particularly bad. There are a large number of such agricultural majors in the country. According to the Agricultural Labor Investigation Committee, casual men get employment for 197 days in a year. For 40 days they do their own work. The remaining 128 days they do not get any work. And they remain unemployed. Similarly, women get only 141 days of agricultural labor. Along with being uneducated and ignorant, agricultural laborers are spread in the remote villages of the country. Due to which they are not able to organize. In the absence of organization, they do not have the ability to sell the land for more wages than the landowners. Due to which they fail to increase their wages and regularize working hours. The practice of forced labor, forced or involuntary wages is practiced in all parts of the country. Due to which conscription of agricultural labor is done. And their cost is also reduced.

Keywords- Agricultural labour, welfare schemes, migration, low standard of living, unemployment, poverty, social and economic problems

Introduction-
It is one of the primary objects of the Five Year Plan to ensure fuller opportunities for work and better living to all the sections of the rural community and, in particular, to assist agricultural labourers to come to the level of the rest. One of the most distinguishing features of the rural India has been the growth in the number of agricultural workers, cultivators and agricultural labourers engaged in crop production. The phenomena of underemployment, under-development and surplus population are simultaneously manifested in the daily lives and living of the agricultural labourers. They usually get low wages, conditions of work put an excessive burden on them, and the employment which they get is extremely irregular. Agricultural workers constitute the most neglected class in the Indian rural structure. Since, they possess no skill or training, they have no alternative employment opportunities either. Socially, a large number of agricultural workers belong to scheduled castes and scheduled tribes. Therefore, they are a suppressed class. They are not organised and they cannot fight for their rights.
Because of all these reasons their economic lot has failed to improve even after Independence. This can also be seen from the Prime Minister's speech made in Lok Sabha on August 4, 1966. The Prime minister emphasized, "We must give special consideration to the landless agricultural labour. Although there has been tremendous progress in India since Independence, this is one section, which has really a very hard time and which deserves very special consideration. Seasonal unemployment is a characteristic feature of the Agricultural sector and underemployment of man power is inherent in the system of family farming. According to first Agricultural Labour Enquiry Committee (ALEC) (1950-51), adult male agricultural labourers were employed on wages for 248 days in agricultural work and for 27 days in non-agricultural work i.e. 275 day in all. They were self-employed for 30 days. Casual male workers found employment for only 200 days, while attached workers were employed for 326 days in a year. Women workers employed for 134 days in a year. Unlike industrial labour, agricultural labour is difficult to define. The reason is that unless capitalism develops fully in agriculture, a separate class of workers depending wholly on wages will not come up. Difficulties in defining agricultural labour are compounded by the fact that many small and marginal farmers also work partly on the farms of others to supplement their income. To what extent should they or their family members) be considered agricultural labourers are not easy to answer. However, it will be useful to refer to some of the attempts made by experts in this connection. The First Agricultural Labour Enquiry Committee 1950-51 defined Agricultural Labourers as - "Those people who are engaged in raising crops on payment of wages" . The Second Agricultural Labour Enquiry Committee enlarged the distribution to include Those who are engaged in other agricultural occupations like dairy, farming, horticulture, raising of live-stock, bees, poultry etc. in the context of Indian conditions the definition is not adequate, because it is not possible to completely separate those working on wages from others. There are people who do not work on wages throughout the year but only for a part of it. Therefore, the first ALEC used the concept of agricultural labour household. If half or more members of a household have wage, employment in agriculture then those households should be termed as agricultural labour household. This concept was based upon the occupation of the worker. The Second Committee submitted that to know whether a household is an agricultural labour household, one must examine its main source of income. If 50 per cent or more of its income is derived as wages for work rendered in agriculture only, then it could be classed to agricultural labour households. According to the National Commission on Labour an agricultural labourer is one who is basically unskilled and unorganised and has little for its livelihood, other than personal labour. At the beginning of the new millennium, 260 million people in the country did not have incomes to access a consumption basket which defines the poverty line. Of these, 75 percent were in the rural areas. India is home to 22 percent of the world’s poor. Such a high incidence of poverty is a matter of concern in view of the fact that poverty eradication has been one of the major objectives of the development planning process. Indeed, poverty is a global issue. Its radication is considered integral to humanity’s quest for sustainable development. Reduction of poverty in India, is, therefore, vital for the attainment of international goals. Agricultural wage earners, small and marginal farmers and casual workers engaged in non-agricultural activities, constitute the bulk of the rural poor. Small land holdings and their low productivity are the cause of poverty among households dependent on land-based activities for their livelihood. Poor educational base and lack of other vocational skills also perpetuate poverty. Due to the poor physical and social capital base, a large proportion of the people are forced to seek employment in vocations with extremely low levels of productivity and wages. The creation of employment opportunities for the unskilled workforce has been a major challenge for development planners and administrators. Poverty alleviation has been one of the guiding principles of the planning process in India. The role of economic growth in providing more employment avenues to the population has been clearly recognised. The growth-oriented approach has been reinforced by focusing on specific sectors which provide greater opportunities to the people to participate in the growth process. The various dimensions of poverty relating to health, education and other basic services have been progressively internalised in the planning process. Central and state governments have considerably enhanced allocations for the provision of education, health, sanitation and other facilities which promote capacity-building and well-being of the poor. Investments in agriculture, area development programmes and afforestation provide avenues for employment and income. Special programmes have been taken up for the welfare of scheduled castes (SCs) and scheduled tribes (STs), the disabled and other vulnerable groups. Anti Poverty programmes that seek to transfer assets and skills to people for self-employment, coupled with public works programmes that enable people to cope with transient poverty, are the third strand of the larger anti-poverty strategy. The targeted public distribution system (TPDS) protects the poor from the adverse effects of a rise in prices and ensures food and nutrition. The success of the anti-poverty strategy can be gauged from the decline in poverty levels from 37.27% in 1951 to 26.6% in 2011.
per cent in 1993-94 to 27.09 per cent in 1999-2000 in the rural areas. In absolute terms, the number of rural poor fell below the 200 million mark for the first time since 1973-74. However, this achievement falls short of the Ninth Plan projections. At the beginning of the Plan, it was projected that, with a growth target of 6.5 per cent per annum during the Plan period, only 18.61 per cent of the population would be below the poverty line by 2001. This shortfall can be attributed largely to the uneven performance of states in poverty alleviation. The distribution of poor across states is also disparate, with Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, Madhya Pradesh, West Bengal and Orissa accounting for 69 per cent of the poor in 1999-2000. Figure depicts broad estimation of rural poverty across major states between 1993-94 and 1999-2000. Kerala, Haryana, Bihar, Himachal Pradesh, Karnataka and Rajasthan experienced a sharp reduction in poverty levels (a drop of more than TENTH FIVE YEAR PLAN 2002-07 294 percentage points between 1993-94 and 1999-2000).Uttar Pradesh, West Bengal and Tamil Nadu also registered significant reduction in poverty (8-12 percentage points). However, Orissa and Madhya Pradesh have shown virtually no reduction in poverty levels. In fact, these are the states where the absolute number of poor has actually gone up between 1993-94 and 1999-2000.

### Anti-Poverty Programmes in the Ninth Plan

The Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP), introduced in selected blocks in 1978-79 and universalised from 2 October 1980 has provided assistance to rural poor in the form of subsidy and bank credit for productive employment opportunities through successive plan periods. Subsequently, Training of Rural Youth for Self Employment (TRYSEM), Development of Women and Children in Rural Areas (DWCR), Supply of Improved Toolkits to Rural Artisans (SITRA) and Ganga Kalyan Yojana (GKY) were introduced as sub-programmes of IRDP to take care of the specific needs of the rural population. These schemes were, however, implemented as ‘stand alone programmes’, an approach which substantially detracted from their effectiveness. The Mid-Term Appraisal of the Ninth Plan had indicated that these sub-programmes `presented a matrix of multiple programmes without desired linkages”. The programme suffered from sub critical investments, lack of bank credit, overcrowding in certain projects, and lack of market linkages. The programme was basically subsidy driven and ignored the processes of social intermediation necessary for the success of self-employment programmes. A one-time provision of credit without follow-up action and lack of a continuing relationship between borrowers and lenders also undermined the programme’s marginal impact of self-employment programmes led to the constitution of a committee by the Planning Commission in 1997 to review self employment and wage-employment programmes. The committee recommended the merger of all self employment programmes for the rural poor and a shift from the individual beneficiary approach to a group-based approach. It emphasised the identification of activity clusters in specific areas and strong training and marketing linkages. The committee’s recommendations. The biggest problem of agricultural labor is their poverty. Due to low wages, their income level is very poor and standard of living is very low. They also do not meet the minimum basic requirements of laborers, textiles, and housing. Agricultural laborers often remain indebted due to lower wages. Mostly these loans are taken for meeting transportation expenses or for sustaining social traditions like marriage, marriage, death, and other activities. Due to lack of income, these agricultural laborers are not able to pay these loans on time. And generations remain indebted. Landless agricultural laborers often do not have their own personal residence. They usually live on landlord or non-Majaru land or government land by making a jhopri in their acceptance or compulsion. There is no entry of pure air and light in these jhapedias. It is mostly closed and not able to stay. Sometimes agricultural laborers also tie their cattle in it. Due to this, the health of agricultural laborers and other family members has deteriorated. Whenever the crop is destroyed due to flood, drought or any other natural phenomenon in the absence of ancillary business in the villages, the livelihood of agricultural laborers is also difficult. The number of landless agricultural laborers in the country increased by 35.24% to 14.43 crore in the year 2011 as compared to 10.67 crore in the year 2001. In the context of the occupational difficulties of agricultural labor, the use of modern machines and machinery in agricultural work has created problems of unemployment in agricultural labor. In the absence of other occupations, they face a crisis of razi rarity. It is clear that many social and economic difficulties exist in front of agricultural laborers. These occupational difficulties of agricultural labor are an election for the government. The proper permanent solution to these problems depends on the success of the government welfare program. In fact, the British looted the peasants and agricultural laborers, and after that the indigenous landowners and rich traders of their country have also paid them a lot. In the middle and north Bihar, more than half of the tribes have almost no land. They are all agricultural laborers. But the changed relations between the landlord and agricultural laborers made the situation worse. For non-payment of minimum wages and then fear of occupation by the landowners, the landlord confesses to laying the field. On the issue of minimum wages, he argues that farming should not be viewed along with other industries. This day too depends
on the nature of nature. Rain, flood, overflow, rain, frost, the soil mixes all the income of the farmer in the soil. In this way, when there is no production, the insistence on applying the minimum agricultural wages is not unjust. At present, the landlord or landowner, agricultural laborers and low caste tribes have their own problems which cannot be ignored continuously. About 80 percent of the people of the state of Bihar live in rural areas and almost such a population is completely dependent on agriculture. If the condition of agriculture is good, the condition of laborers will also be good. But the condition of the farmers is getting worse here, due to which the economic condition of the agricultural laborers who depend on them is also getting worse. Due to the absence of employment, agricultural laborers have no option but to work in other states. Every year there is a migration of Majduras from various districts of Bihar. Only after changing the attitude towards agriculture, the status of agricultural labor can change. Those who consider themselves 'ultra modern' do not consider the work of farming to be right. For this reason, the family members of the farmer do not do farming. Today there is not much income in farming. It is becoming difficult to extract costs. Due to this, the laborers have to live with the most problems. Today the 'ponge' of paddy is not seen in front of any laborer’s house. Three to four months after the end of wheat-paddy cultivation, a food crisis arises in front of them. There is a need to improve the agriculture sector to overcome such a situation.

Problems of Agriculture Labour-
Over 94 percent of India's working population is part of the unorganised sector. In local terms, the organised sector or formal sector in India refers to licensed organisations, that is, those who are registered and pay GST. These include the publicly traded companies, incorporated or formally registered entities, corporations, factories, shopping malls, hotels, and large businesses. Unorganised sector, also known as own account enterprises, refers to all unlicensed, self-employed or unregistered economic activity such as owner manned general stores, handicrafts and handloom workers, rural traders, farmers, etc. India’s Ministry of Labour, in its 2008 report, classified the unorganised labour in India into four groups. This classification categorized India's unorganised labour force by occupation, nature of employment, specially distressed categories and service categories. The unorganised occupational groups include small and marginal farmers, landless agricultural labourers, sharecroppers, fishermen, those engaged in animal husbandry, beedi rolling, labeling and packing, building and construction workers, leather workers, weavers, artisans, salt workers, workers in brick kilns and stone quarries, workers in saw mills, and workers in oil mills. A separate category based on nature of employment includes attached agricultural labourers, bonded labourers, migrant workers, contract and casual labourers. Another separate category dedicated to distressed unorganised sector includes toddy tappers, scavengers, carriers of head loads, drivers of animal driven vehicles, loaders and unloaders. The last unorganised labour category includes service workers such as midwives, domestic workers, barbers, vegetable and fruit vendors, newspaper vendors, pavement vendors, hand cart operators, and the unorganised retail. The unorganised sector has low productivity and offers lower wages. Even though it accounted for over 94 percent of workers, India’s unorganised sector created just 57 percent of India's national domestic product in 2006, or about 9 fold less per worker than the organised sector. According to Bhalla, the productivity gap sharply worsens when rural unorganised sector is compared to urban unorganised sector, with gross value added productivity gap spiking an additional 2 to 4 fold depending on occupation. Some of lowest income jobs are in the rural unorganised sectors. Poverty rates are reported to be significantly higher in families where all working age members have only worked in the unorganised sector throughout their lives. Agriculture, dairy, horticulture and related occupations alone employ 52 percent of labour in India. About 30 million workers are migrant workers, most in agriculture, and local stable employment is unavailable for them. India’s National Sample Survey Office in its 67th report found that unorganised manufacturing, unorganised trading/retail and unorganised services employed about 10 percent each of all workers nationwide, as of 2010. It also reported that India had about 58 million unincorporated non-Agriculture enterprises in 2010. It is common knowledge that Bihar, the ninth largest and the second most populous state of India, in spite of being endowed with natural resources (fertile soil, irrigation potential, vast r-serves of mineral wealth etc.), is economically among the most backward i~ the country. Bihar is also extremely fortunate in having a very high proportion of its total geographical area available for cultivation for India as a wholeJ potential net sown area is estimated at roughly 47 percent of total geographical area, whereas for Bihar the same is estimated to be 61 percent. Lastly, it is in part, a consequence of Bihar’s natural endowments that, over the centuries, the pressure on land has built up to levels far higher than in most regions in the country. On the eve of independence, Bihar, like the rest of the country, was primarily an agricultural economy. However, during the post-independence period, Bihar has continued to depend on agriculture to a much greater extent than other states.
the agricultural labourers have to face the problems of labourers rose from to labour force activity and relatively low earnings. It seems that the absence of a huge reservoir of rural labour, a slow growing, primarily with an occupation has been in 1950. In traditional society. But in present situation, it is striking that it has occasionally been argued that caste is nothing more than the systematization of occupational differentiation. It could be argued that in the context of growing population, the occupational aspect of the caste system provided the organizational basis of traditional Hindu society and in spite of many recent changes, it continues to play an important role in contemporary India. The hereditary association of a caste within the rural society. They are mostly drawn from Scheduled Castes (SCs), Scheduled Tribes (STs) and Backward Classes (BCs). Even in most developed provinces of India, Punjab and Haryana, they constitute the majority. The various studies show that the working of the rural society is such that SCs and STs did not fully share the economic and political power with higher castes. The SCs and STs occupied an ambiguous position in traditional society. But in present situation, it is quite clear that not only SCs and STs, but most of the agricultural labourers belong to the lowest strata of the caste hierarchy. The caste system provided the organizational basis of traditional Hindu society and in spite of many recent changes, it continues to play an important role in contemporary India. The hereditary association of a caste with an occupation has been so striking that it has occasionally been argued that caste is nothing more than the systematization of occupational differentiation. It could be argued that in the context of growing population, the occupational aspect of the caste system would have broken down completely if the surplus in the artisan, trading and serving castes had not been either

Marginalisation of Agricultural Workers. The workforce in agriculture (cultivators plus agricultural labourers) was 97.2 million in 1951 and this rose to 185.2 million in 1991. As against this, the number of agricultural labourers rose from 27.3 million in 1951 to 74.6 million in 1991. This implies that (i) the number of agricultural labourers increased by almost three times over the period from 1951 to 1991; (ii) agricultural labourers increased from 28 per cent in 1951 to 40 per cent in 1991. These facts indicate the fast pace of casualisation of workforce in agriculture in India. Moreover, the share of agriculture and allied activities in GDP at factor cost has consistently declined over the years - from 55.3 per cent in 1950-51 to 37.9 per cent in 1980-81 (at 1999-2000 prices) and further to 14.0 per cent in 2011-12 (at 2004-05 prices).

Wages and Income. Agricultural wages and family incomes of agricultural workers are very low in India. With the advent of the Green Revolution, money wage rates started increasing. However, as prices also increased considerably, the real wage rates did not increase accordingly. Currently laborers are getting around Rs. 150/day under the MGNREGA in rural areas. Employment and Working Conditions. The agricultural labourers have to face the problems of unemployment and underemployment. For a substantial part of the year, they have to remain unemployed because there is no work on the farms and alternative sources of employment do not exist. In the absence of a banking system in the rural areas and trial process of sanction by the commercial banks, farmers prefer to take loans from un institutional sources like Sahukars (moneylenders), landlords at the very high rate (in some cases at 40% to 50%). This exorbitant rate traps in the vicious circle of debt. Low Wages for women in Agricultural Labour. Female agricultural workers are generally forced to work harder and paid less than their male counterparts. High Incidence of Child Labour. Incidence of child labour is high in India and the estimated number varies from 17.5 million to 44 million. It is estimated that one-third of the child workers in Asia are in India. Increase in Migrant Labour. The Green Revolution significantly increased remunerative wage employment opportunities in pockets of assured irrigation areas while employment opportunities nearly stagnated in the vast rain fed semi-arid areas.

COMPOSITION OF AGRICULTURAL LABOUR CLASS A very high proportion of agricultural labour throughout India belongs to the socially and economically backward section of rural community and this constitutes the poorest section of the rural society. They are mostly drawn from Scheduled Castes (SCs), Scheduled Tribes (STs) and Backward Classes (BCs). Even in most developed provinces of India, Punjab and Haryana, they constitute the majority. The caste system provided the organizational basis of traditional Hindu society and in spite of many recent changes, it continues to play an important role in contemporary India. The hereditary association of a caste with an occupation has been so striking that it has occasionally been argued that caste is nothing more than the systematization of occupational differentiation. It could be argued that in the context of growing population, the occupational aspect of the caste system would have broken down completely if the surplus in the artisan, trading and serving castes had not been either
observed in agriculture or able to integrate to other areas. Whatever the position may be, but one thing is clear that the main constituents of the agricultural labour class belong to Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and other Backward Classes. And so they are having the lowest position in the caste hierarchy of Hindus and Muslims both. The institution of caste has changed in important respects in the last two hundred years, but even today the stronger and so-called higher class of society in pursuit of their own interest shifted the burden of labour again and again on the weaker section of society. If one understands by the term 'occupation', a mode of livelihood, chosen willingly by the earners in that occupation, agricultural labour in this setting was hardly an occupation, it was merely one of the forms assumed by the destitution which overlook the erstwhile cultivators and artisans who had been deprived of their traditional occupations.

That is why at the village level, a large proportion of SCs and STs work as agricultural labourers for landowners or tenants belonging to different castes. There is a close relationship between the status of a caste and its economic position. The higher caste tends to be landowners, tenants are mostly drawn from the middle castes and agricultural labourers come mostly from the untouchable castes. There has been a considerable increase in occupational heterogeneity of the members of a caste, during the last few decades. However, it is true that in the matter of occupational choice a certain linkage with the traditional social order may be discernible. Traditional values continue to play a part in the individual’s acceptance and acquisition of new occupations which were traditionally restricted. There has been an all round decrease in the estimated number of days of wage employment. Whereas, in self employment a definite trend in rural labour households taking up more and more self-employment is evident despite the fact that there has been less opportunities for the labourers to earn their wages from the nonagricultural operations. Men worked for more days as compared to women and children. However, the children remained engaged in wage paid employment for more days as compared to women labourers. The employment conditions of the agricultural and rural labourers at the all-India level during the period 1950-51 to 1974-75 are presented in . that the number of days employed by the agricultural labourers under wage employment category has consistently declined among the male labourers from 275 in 1950-51 to 242 in 1954-55 to 231 in 1964-65 and further down to 224 days in 1974-75. The number of days engaged in the agricultural operations too has come down from 248 to 180 between 1950-51 and 1974-75. Thus, during 1974-75, agricultural labourers were getting only up to 180 full days of employment from the agricultural sector. This has forced them to depend more on Employment Conditions of Agricultural labourers. The poverty alleviation programmes in India can be categorized based on whether it is targeted either for rural areas or for urban areas in the country. Most of the programmes are designed to target rural poverty as the prevalence of poverty is high in rural areas. Also targeting poverty is a great challenge in rural areas due to various geographic and infrastructure limitations. The programmes can be mainly grouped into Wage employment programmes] Self-employment programmes, Food security programmes, Social security programmes, Urban poverty alleviation programmes, skill india programmes for employment. The five year plans immediately after independence tried to focus on poverty alleviation through sectoral programmes. Jawahar Gram Samridhi Yojana (JGSY) is the restructured, streamlined and comprehensive version of the Jawahar Rozgar Yojana (JRY). It was started on 1 April 1999. The main aim of this programme was the development of rural areas. Infrastructure like roads to connect the village to different areas, which made the village more accessible and also other social, educational (schools) and infrastructure like hospitals. Its secondary objective was to give out sustained wage employment. This was only given to BELOW POVERTY LINE families and fund was to be spent for individual beneficiary schemes for SCs and STs and 3% for the establishment of barrier-free infrastructure for the disabled people. The village panchayats were one of the main governing bodies of this programme. ₹1848.80 crore was used and they had a target of 8.57 lakh works. 5.07 lakh works were completed during 1999–2000.

National Old Age Pension Scheme (NOAPS)
This scheme came into effect on 15 August 1995. The scheme provides pension to all old people who were above the age of 65 (now 60) who could not find for themselves and did not have any means of subsistence. The pension that was given was ₹200 a month (now it is 2000 per month). This pension is given by the central government. The job of implementation of this scheme in states and union territories is given to panchayats and municipalities. The state’s contribution may vary depending on the state. The amount of old age pension is ₹200 per month for applicants aged 60–79. For applicants aged above 80 years, the amount has been revised to ₹500 a month according to the 2011–2012 Budget. It is a successful venture.
National Family Benefit Scheme (NFBS)
This scheme was started in August 1995. This scheme is sponsored by the state government. It was transferred to the state sector scheme after 2002–03. It is under the community and rural department. This scheme provides a sum of ₹20,000 to a person of a family who becomes the head of the family after the death of its primary breadwinner. The breadwinner is defined as a person who is above 18 who earns the most for the family and on whose earnings the family survives.

National Maternity Benefit Scheme
This scheme provides a sum of ₹6000 to a pregnant mother in three installments. The women should have age to be older than 19 years of age. It is given normally 12–8 weeks before the birth and in case of the death of the child the women can still avail it. The NMBS is implemented by almost all states and union territories with the help of panchayats and municipalities. During 1999–2000 the total allocation of funds for this scheme was 767.05 crores and the amount used was ₹4444.13 crore. It is for families below the poverty line. The scheme was updated in 2005-06 into Janani Suraksha Yojana with ₹1400 for every institutional birth.

IRDP in India is among the world's most ambitious programs to alleviate rural poverty by providing income-generated assets to the poorest of the poor. This program was first introduced in 1978–79 in some selected areas, but covered all the areas by November 1980. During the sixth five-year plan (1980–85) assets worth 47.6 billion rupees were distributed to about 16.6 million poor families. During 1987–88, another 4.2 million families were assisted with an average investment of 4,471 per family or 19 billion rupees overall. The major objective of Integrated Rural Development Program (IRDP) is to raise families of identified target groups below the poverty line by creating sustainable opportunities for self-employment in the rural sector. Assistance is given in the form of subsidy by the government and term credit advanced by financial institutions (commercial banks, cooperatives and regional rural banks.) The program is implemented in all blocks of the country as a centrally sponsored scheme funded on 50:50 basis by the center and the states. The target group under IRDP consists of small and marginal farmers, agricultural labourers and rural artisans having annual income below ₹11,000 defined as the poverty line in the Eighth Plan. In order to ensure that benefits under the program reach the more vulnerable sectors of the society, it is stipulated that at least 50 percent of assisted families should be from scheduled castes and scheduled tribes with corresponding flow of resources to them. Furthermore, 40 percent of the coverage should be of women beneficiaries and 3 percent of physically challenged persons. At the grassroots level, the block staff is responsible for implementation of the program. The State Level Coordination Committee (SLCC) monitors the program at state level whereas the Ministry of Rural Areas and Employment is responsible for the release of central share of funds, policy formation, overall guidance, monitoring and evaluation of the program. Pradhan Mantri Gramin Awaas Yojana

This scheme aimed at creating housing for everyone. It was initiated in 1985. It aimed at creating 20 lakh housing units out of which 13 lakhs were in rural areas. The scheme also would give out loans to people at subsidized rates to make houses. It was started in 1999–2000. In 1999–2000, ₹1438.39 crore was used for this scheme and about 7.98 lakh units were built. In 2000-01 a central outlay of ₹1710.00 crores was provided for this scheme. It improved the standard of living of rural areas: health, primary education, drinking water, housing and roads. The scheme has proved to be a major boost in Indian rural population's income. To augment wage employment opportunities by providing employment on demand and by specific guaranteed wage employment every year to households whose adult members volunteer to do unskilled manual work to thereby extend a security net to the people and simultaneously create durable assets to alleviate some aspects of poverty and address the issue of development in the rural areas. The Ministry of Rural Development (MRD) is the nodal Ministry for the implementation of NREGA. It is responsible for ensuring timely and adequate resource support to the States and to the Central Council. It has to undertake regular review, monitoring and evaluation of processes and outcomes. It is responsible for maintaining and operating the MIS to capture and track data on critical aspects of implementation, and assess the utilization of resources through a set of performance indicators. MRD will support innovations that help in improving processes towards the achievement of the objectives of the Act. It will support the use of Information Technology (IT) to increase the efficiency and transparency of the processes as well as improve interface with the public. It will also ensure that the implementation of NREGA at all levels is sought to be made transparent and accountable to the public. Now 100 to 150 days work for all is provided. Integrated child development program is also one of the poverty alleviation programs. In terms of employment, the condition of agricultural laborers with casual or temporary employment is particularly bad. There are a large number of such
agricultural majors in the country. According to the Agricultural Labor Investigation Committee, casual men get employment for 197 days in a year. for 40 days they do their own work. The remaining 128 days they do not get any work. And they remain unemployed. Similarly, women get only 141 days of agricultural labor. Along with being uneducated and ignorant, agricultural labourers are spread in the remote villages of the country. Due to which they are not able to organize. In the absence of organization, they do not have the ability to sell the land for more wages than the landowners. Due to which they fail to increase their wages and regularize working hours. The practice of forced labor, forced or involuntary wages is practiced in all parts of the country. Due to which conception of agricultural labor is done. And their cost is also reduced.

The number of agricultural laborers has increased very rapidly during the last decade. Where the number of agricultural laborers was 10.6 crores in the first census of this century, till the last census this number increased rapidly to 14.4 crores. That is, the growth of 38 million agricultural laborers in a decade is unprecedented. With this, it has been found for the first time in the last census that the number of farm laborers in the country has exceeded that of farmers. The total number of farmers in the country was found to be 119 million. By the way, there are many families in our country whose members are also small farmers and laborers, so there are some practical difficulties in collecting data. Nevertheless, it can be believed that there has been a rapid increase in the number of farm laborers. One reason for this is that the dependence on wages has increased due to less land per generation. The second reason is that due to the agrarian distress and indebtedness, many farmers families have lost their land. The number of displaced farmers has increased very rapidly. Many farmers have committed suicide amid growing misery. Due to the destruction of many traditional artisans, unemployed people have also come to farm labor due to lack of options. Due to shrinking opportunities, many farm laborers also work in mining and construction etc. The people engaged in farm labor are the poorest and neglected sections of the country. Some places are still working as bonded laborers who are unable to repay the loan. Earlier, they used to get the highest employment and highest wages at the time of harvesting. But as the use of Combine harvester has increased, this employment has decreased rapidly. They also get a lot when planting paddy. But now machines have also come on the market for this. In some places, the wages of farm laborers have increased, especially after the arrival of MNREGA, but at present, their economic condition is very worrisome. The phenomenon of the number of farmers and the rapid increase in the number of agricultural laborers is pointing to a major change in Indian agriculture. It is possible that in future, agricultural work will become less dependent on farmers and more dependent on laborers. The policy regulators are yet to see any thinking of dealing with this future situation and problems. Some work that needs to be done immediately. Such as providing fair wages to agricultural laborers, and making arrangements for their health and future protection.

Migration from rural to urban areas has increased in recent years, especially from Bihar. This indicates that most of the developed regions of India have been utilising labour force of backward areas. An effort has been made to examine the labour migration with details of socio-economic factors and its impact. The study was based on primary data, carried out in three villages of the Bhagalpur district. A sample of 60 respondents, constituting 30 migrants and 30 non-migrants. The analysis of socio-economic variables revealed that the most of migrants belonged to 30-40 years age group (40%), scheduled caste being 53.3%, medium size family accounting for 63.33% of migrants, 40% of sample migrants acquiring matric level education and 76.6% them owned less than 0.5 acre farm size. It was found that companies' (private business organisation) labour work was considered as the main occupation for almost 50% of migrants, while non-migrants (83.4%) had farming as their main occupation. Remittances contribution was higher than 90% of total annual income of migrant households. Per household Overall annual income of migrant households was enumerated as Rs.103091.59, comparatively higher than that of nonmigrant households (Rs.77492.0). Migrant household’s annual expense (Rs.56826.2) per household was comparatively low than that of non-migrant household (Rs.56976.3), It may probably be due to more expenses on agriculture and allied by non-migrant household, though infrastructure was same for both households. Larger proportion of migrants (60%) rushed to north-India viz. Haryana & Punjab, Delhi, and Rajasthan. Both types of migration occur viz. Seasonal (short term) and long term. Inter-state male migration has been on rise over the years. The analysis of factors of migration showed that income and education exerted positive impact i.e one unit increase in income and education separately, increased the probability of migration by 99.9% and 23.1%, respectively. The negative impact was observed on migration of labour in the study area on account of several factors such as age, cultivable land, loan avail, number of dependent under study. Furthermore, it is revealed that one unit
Discussion -

Factors Contributing to the Problems of Agricultural Labourers In order to appreciate and eradicate the problems of agricultural labourers, the need is to evaluate the sociological factors which have resulted in failure of their economic development. These sociological factors may have negative as well as positive character. First group 75 of problems arise out of the persistence of old social institutions like caste, joint family, tribes, traditional, religious organisations and serfdom etc. They also emerged from old forms of social control like supernatural sanctions, authoritarian norms, complicated and intricate caste, family, tribal, religious and other customary sanctions penetrating almost every core of life of the community. They further emanate from large scale illiteracy, ill-health and unemployment etc. The second group of problems arise from the very nature of economic development which has been inaugurated by the Government since independence. They arise out of industrialisation, commercialisation, introduction of the money economy in every corner of the country. They also arise out of its agrarian policy and from the very character of the economic order which it wishes to establish. For example, commercialisation brings out a shift in power and authority in the village. Not the farmers and producers, but the owners and administrators are becoming the ruling groups.35 One of the major sociological factors deciding the fate of agricultural labourers was the belief that low castes are born to labour with hands and high castes were to enjoy the fruits of their labour. Social stratification in the village is linked with land and caste which govern the status, economic power and political influence as much as the level of living which is their consequence. Though the institution of caste system was affected during the British rule, it has been abolished theoretically and judicially by the Constitution of free India. Its significance in real life and its influence on economic development and property relations and its impression upon the configurations and proper structure in the economic, political, social and cultural fields can be properly comprehended and gravely underestimated. The existence of caste and casteism is an important element which keeps the standard of living of the agricultural labourers at a level more depressed than other rural families. Caste prevents mobility of the people which is essential for dynamic development. The monopoly of certain castes and groups of certain linguistic zones has generated a peculiar unrest in modern competitive social setting.36 Majority of the agricultural labourers belong to Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and backward classes. These stigmatized people are depressed since their birth. The various kinds of social sanctions precluded them from taking to more productive occupations. In a predominantly agricultural economy, the relative position of a community depends upon its relative spare in ownership of cultivable land. The implementation of the Zamindari abolition and land reform and land ceiling legislations, has not been sufficiently effective so as to improve the economic position of the depressed class in the rural areas. The trend of ownership remained the same up to major extent as it was before independence. However, an important result of land reform measures has been that ex-zamindars have been forced into a new way of life, and are on their way towards changing their character as a class. But the bulk of the land was retained by them for self-cultivation. This process of conversion of erstwhile intermediaries into the capitalist farmers has developed unevenly and at varying speed in different regions of the country. With such extreme concentration of total cultivated land, consisting mainly of ex-intermediaries and big peasants and plentiful supply of cheap labour, the exploitation continued. The marginal farmers with uneconomic holdings were compelled to work as agricultural labourers. It is easy to identify now the major aggravating factors that are likely to worsen the problems of agricultural labourers. Firstly, demographic addition of labour force since 1947 are estimated to be very substantial, since the effect of population control measures on labour force would make itself felt with a lag only much later. Secondly, the expansion of non-agricultural avenues of employment is unlikely to provide adequate relief to the agricultural labourers from the pressure of population for many decades ahead. Thirdly, in the absence of basic institutional reforms and effective controls to promote selective mechanisation, technological change in agriculture can easily prove to be a bane rather than a boon to the agricultural labourers. Some specific problems of agricultural labourers need a closer look to understand their real position and to analyse their coverage under existing legal set-up.
and to formulate appropriate measures for the upliftment. Government has many programmes for agricultural and rural development which have not reached the target groups up to a satisfactory level. Therefore, by using proper methods attempts should be made to motivate them through an emphasis on the deprived need areas. We know that Indian economy is based on agriculture with a vast segment of its population engaged in agriculture and allied pursuits; growth of the Indian agricultural sector determines the overall growth rate of the national economy. Development of agricultural rural economy and the improvement of village life are the core concern of economists and also of the agriculturists. This is the biggest challenge before the nation as the majority of the rural population is still living below the poverty line. The rural folks are mainly engaged in agriculture and allied sectors which are still in a backward stage. The constraints in the agricultural and rural development in rural areas need to be removed and the country should be made self-sufficient by concentrating on the achievement of the goals of the five year plans that are prepared for agricultural and rural development. The benefits of various government welfare schemes implemented from time to time to provide employment to agricultural laborers along with rural development in various districts of Bihar, including India, were generally well received by the same villagers. One of the main reasons for this has been that the development programs so far implemented were either regional or regional or they were program targets. Changes in this situation and the benefit of government welfare programs have been only to provide for very poor families. Gender structure is also very important in the rural population in the occupational difficulties of agricultural labor. According to the data of the National Sample Survey, the number of unemployed women in rural areas has always been higher than that of male agricultural laborers. Apart from certain agricultural operations, there is a lack of work in rural areas for rural women. Their inclusion in rural construction works is extremely low. Due to illiteracy, family responsibilities and family attachment, there is a lot of lack of mobility in them. Until the women are not made part of the mainstream of agriculture, the income of the farmers will not double. But it is not so. Women are also being discriminated against in the field of agricultural wages in rural India. This is revealed in the research of The Review of Agrarian Studies. The wage rate of women farmers has increased much less than that of male laborers. Women are also being treated step-by-step in wages, as in other fields.

Data from the NSSO (National Sample Survey Office) shows that both the number of women and men has declined in the agriculture sector in the last three decades. While the number of males has fallen from 81% to 63%, the number of females has come down from 88% to 79%, as the decline in the female population is much less than the decline in the population of males, so this trend is easily Indian agriculture can be called womanization. Rural women have the largest contribution to the economy of most developing countries including India. 80 percent of the economically active women are employed in agriculture. Of these, 33 percent are working as laborers and 48 percent as self-employed farmers. According to the NSSO (National Sample Survey Office) report, about 18 percent of agricultural households in India are headed by women. There is no work of agriculture in which there is no participation of women. In the last five decades, due to the high rate of migration of men from Bihar, the responsibility of family farming has fallen on the shoulders of women. The IHD study found that 70 percent of women working in the agricultural sector were from migrant families. In addition to household responsibilities, the men are also responsible for running the family by taking wages in addition to household responsibilities. Among workers employed in the agricultural sector in Bihar Half are women. This reinforces the principle of womanization of agriculture. Nevertheless, the role of women in the agricultural sector is poorly recognized and excluded from agricultural policies and programs. The work of women is not as important as the work of men. Their income as a laborer is also low. Women working as agricultural laborers receive about 60 percent of the wages of men, partly because men are more involved in high-wage tasks such as irrigation and harvesting, while women work in wedding, transplanting, and head transportation. Huh. payment In the mixed form of cash and commodity, daily rates or piece-rates are done. But now it is changing. Women are now doing ‘menial work’ such as tillage plowing, marketing, irrigation and overall management. She also drives a tractor. These actions of women should be encouraged and promoted. About 80 percent of the total manpower in animal husbandry is women and hence it is a female dominated profession. It is only the women of the agricultural laborers who do animal husbandry and try to alleviate poverty by arranging some income separately. It is considered as a ‘sustainable enterprise’ for the poorest people. Animal husbandry accounts for 3.4 percent of the contribution of agriculture to 12 percent of the GDP. Similar to agricultural produce, some portion of milk of cows / buffaloes is kept for domestic consumption and the remaining milk is sold locally. Wherever Sudha Cooperative is present, it has given families Have tried to link their centers to get the assured price of milk. Their income is 30-60 rupees per day. Forest right here The Act has not yet been implemented. If implemented, it can increase both the income and productivity of forest dwellers. The tradition of working from home at a peergage rate from contractors is quite widespread in Bihar. One of the oldest examples of
housekeeping work is bidi making. Beedi workers make an average of 1000 beedis a day. Many labor laws exist but most women in the unorganized sector do not take advantage of them. There are many laws whose due to proper interpretation and implementation, they can be beneficial for women workers. The case of non-implementation of Construction Workers Act across the country is the most amazing. Under this Act, a cess is levied on all building construction activities to create a fund. And is to be used only for the welfare of the construction workers of that state. Surprisingly, every state has collected hundreds of crores of rupees on this item which are lying with the governments but they are not being used for the welfare of construction workers. Domestic workers, brick kiln laborers, construction workers, agricultural laborers, etc. are all victims of sexual violence at work places at some time. Even some are raped. But very few cases of sexual harassment are reported. Most women tolerate it quietly because one is helpless with the situation, second they are in dire need of money. The Bihar government has yet to enact this act with informal sector workers Not implemented for Bihar’s labour department has some very effective social security schemes like the Inter-State Migrant Labor Scheme and Bihar unorganized field workers and craftsmen social security scheme. There is a need to bring these schemes and other such schemes under one Act. Poor women need to be part of the financial mainstream as they do not have any safe place to save so they are unable to save any kind. In this way, the borrowers have to go to the moneylenders, so that they are kept under the burden of debt. There are important road-fixing mechanisms and factors as disinformation in the unemployment removal programs of agricultural labor, among them the main ones being insensitive government machinery and corrupt officials sinking in selfishness. Without dealing with them, the concept of eliminating unemployment of agricultural laborers can never be fully realized. The only option is the role of the organization of loyal, laborious, honest and dutiful minds. There is a need for such dedication in eliminating the unemployment of agricultural laborers in the village, who should realize their responsibility fully.

The Root Causes of Rural Migration

Migration is often a deliberate decision and an important component of household livelihood strategies. The root causes of people deciding to move out of rural areas are as follows:

1. Rural poverty and food insecurity: More than 75% of the world’s poor and food insecure live in rural areas, mostly depending on agricultural production for their subsistence. The rural poor, and especially smallholder family farmers, face considerable difficulties in accessing credit, services, technologies and markets that would allow them to improve the productivity of their natural resources and labour. Migration becomes an important part of the strategies of rural households for improving their livelihoods.

2. Lack of employment and income generating opportunities: Most available jobs in agriculture are associated with low and unstable incomes, poor safety and health conditions, gender inequality in pay and opportunities, and limited social protection. Due to restricted access to training, financial and extension services and processing facilities, more attractive prospects may be limited in rural areas.

3. Inequality: Rural people are drawn to urban areas where they expect to have better employment opportunities and improved access to health, education, and basic services.

4. Limited access to social protection: About 73% of the world population have no adequate access to social protection. The majority live in the rural areas of developing countries, where they face difficulties in managing social, economic and environmental risks.

5. Climate change: Smallholder family farmers, small-scale fishers, forest-dependent communities and pastoralists are hardest hit by weather related disasters, which are increasing in frequency and intensity. Droughts and related food price volatility increase poverty and hunger, and the need to find viable options elsewhere.

6. Depletion of natural resources due to environmental degradation and climate change: Land degradation and desertification affect around one-third of the land used for agriculture and about 1.5 billion people worldwide, undermining farmers’ productivity and resilience. Climate change and the use of inappropriate farming techniques further exacerbate these
challenges. The dramatic state of land degradation is one of the main drivers of conflict in the African drylands, especially between pastoralists and farmers.

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MIGRATION, AGRICULTURE AND RURAL DEVELOPMENT - Migration brings both opportunities and challenges to rural areas in the countries of origin, transit and destination. Policies and programmes play an important role in shaping the outcome of migration in terms of agriculture and rural development and, ultimately, as regards poverty reduction and food security in rural areas. For rural areas in the countries of origin, migration will affect the supply of labour and the related skills mix and demographic composition of the remaining population. While migration may reduce pressure on local labour markets and foster a more efficient allocation of labour and higher wages in agriculture, rural areas of origin risk losing the younger, most vital and dynamic share of their workforce. Depending on the context, women who stay behind may gain greater control over productive resources and services, potentially helping to close the gender gap in agriculture. Migration itself can contribute to agriculture and rural development in the countries of origin. If the credit and or insurance markets in rural areas are absent or function poorly, remittances relax liquidity constraints, provide insurance in case of crisis/shocks and foster investment in agriculture and other rural economic activities with potential for job creation. Moreover, diaspora organizations and return migrants can help rural areas in the countries of origin through capital investments, skills and technology transfers, know-how and social networks. For rural areas in low and middle-income transit countries, migration and protracted forced displacement can constitute a challenge for local authorities to provide quality public services for the migrant and host populations and can, amongst other things, further strain natural resources, increasing pressure on agriculture- and fisheries-based livelihoods. Diaspora, migrant networks and return migrants can foster the transfer of skills, know-how, and technology, as well as investments that promote agricultural and rural development, including employment opportunities in the rural areas of origin. Agriculture and rural development can make a strong contribution to meeting the global challenge of addressing large movements of refugees and migrants. There are five interlinked thematic areas involved. Scaling-up the support to smallholder family farmers and creating alternative and sustainable livelihood options in rural areas, with a special focus on women and youth, is fundamental to addressing the root causes of rural distress migration. This requires: Public policies targeting smallholder family farmers and promoting the adoption of sustainable agricultural practices. Diversification to off-farm activities, effective rural services and investments in value chains linked to sustainable agriculture. Rural education and vocational training that match labour market needs. Sustainable agricultural practices to limit the impact of climate change, promote sound natural resource management and increase productivity. Inclusive social protection systems that cover rural populations. Financial inclusion in rural areas, especially for women and youth. Agriculture and rural development interventions can help host communities and displaced people to cope with and recover from shocks, and lay the foundations for long-term sustainability. This requires Decent rural employment opportunities for both displaced persons and host communities. Integration of migration concerns into disaster risk reduction strategies, to deal with the potential migratory consequences of any environmental changes. Access to land, credit and markets for displaced people and disadvantaged youth and women. Flexible, shock-responsive and risk-informed social protection systems, also accessible to the refugees, IDPs and migrants in host communities. Participation of displaced youth and women in existing producers’ organizations, youth organizations and rural cooperatives. Investing in sustainable agriculture and rural livelihoods can prevent conflicts related to natural resources and help reduce tensions, especially where food supplies and markets are severely strained. This requires Environmentally sustainable livelihood strategies for the affected population, including displaced people and host communities. Mitigation and prevention of pastoralist conflicts linked to trans-boundary movements. Sustainable land conflict resolution between displaced people and host communities. Safe, regular and responsible migration from rural areas, including seasonal migration linked to agricultural calendars, can benefit migrants and their communities.

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conclusion - India has two broad groups of migrant labourers one that migrates to temporarily work overseas, and another that migrates domestically on a seasonal and work available basis. There has been a substantial flow of people from Bangladesh and Nepal to India over recent decades in search of better work. Researchers at the Overseas
Development Institute found that these migrant workers are often subject to harassment, violence, and discrimination during their journeys at their destinations and when they return home. Domestic migrant workers have been estimated to be about 4.2 million - (Domestic workers, not domestic migrant workers). These workers range from full-time to part-time workers, temporary or permanent workers. They are typically employed for remuneration in cash or kind, in any household through any agency or directly, to do the household work, but do not include any member of the family of an employer. Some of these work exclusively for a single employer, while others work for more than one employer. Some are live-in workers, while some are seasonal. The employment of these migrant workers is typically at the will of the employer and the worker, and compensation varies. India is an agricultural country. Most of India's population resides in the village And whose main occupation is agriculture. Agriculture is the main source of national income. Even today, the contribution of the agriculture sector in India's economy is more than 25 percent. After India's independence, there has been a lot of change in the agriculture sector. 1950s-80s During the decades significant progress was made in the modernization of agriculture. Over the decades Techniques based on scientific research, variety of services and land reforms Steps were taken towards the development and development of pricing and distribution. As a result, agricultural production increased by 2.8 percent during 1967-68 to 1978-99. Increased at an annual rate. The effect of green revolution in agriculture was also seen in the decade of 1960-70. Resulting in increased production more than before: Use of new machines, seeds, irrigation methods, lending by banks Provision, training of farmers, large scale use of modern tools etc. As a result of which changes in the way of working in agriculture Perhaps it was possible, but most of its influence was greater for big landlords. And remained small even to small farmers. Both men and women play an important role in agriculture. Of any It is impossible to work without a role. The first woman in ancient times Must have collected the grains raised near its hut and It is estimated that the sowing of grains is first done by the woman itself. was initiated. This is the reason why traditionally women have always done agriculture. Has played important and varied roles in the field of Then whether he is a farmer, a farmer, As family, laborers, daily laborers or management. Rural conditions of the country after independence and establishment of republic She has changed. But the life of the rural economy is also the work of agriculture and agriculture. Today, most of the villagers of the village are based on their livelihood in agriculture and allied activities. But today agricultural laborers, who have put their full strength in shaping the rural economy, are also a victim of neglect. There is neither a new house nor a permanent employment system for them to live. In a developing economy the change in the pattern of employment indicated by a fall in the number at agricultural labourers and labour households should be welcome unless the erstwhile agricultural labourers shifted to less productive jobs or were rendered unemployed. It is possible that among agricultural labourers those who were comparatively better off readily took the opportunity to shift to better occupations. But the supply of agricultural labour being still far in excess of demand, the wage rate failed to rise as a result of the reduction in the total number of agricultural labourers,This is, of course, a hypothesis but some indirect evidence in support of it is found in the fact that the number of land-holding agricultural labour households fell, while that of non-landholding households increased. Further, increase in the number (and proportion) of child labourers, the decrease in the extent of self-employment and the comparatively higher net income of the non-landholding households all this may be construed to confirm the assumption that the comparatively better off among agricultural labourers have shifted to other occupations. There is also a lack of contact between the administrative officers and agricultural majors in the implementation of government welfare programs. The complicated administrative process takes more time in the decision to implement government welfare programs, which deprives agricultural laborers of many benefits. Agricultural laborers are poor. There are several government sponsored schemes for poverty alleviation. Meaningful efforts are being claimed towards their implementation and poverty alleviation. But the poverty of agricultural laborers is not taking the name of reduction. The workers are forced to flee and the middlemen dominate. Dandimari continues in poverty alleviation schemes. The brokers and commissioners are rich. Many forms of poverty also emerged. The war on the poverty of the government continues. Every year, schemes for eradication of poverty are made and buried in paper. A large number of laborers got work under MGNREGA. But due to lack of allocation, payment of wages is pending. Hence the workers were forced to flee. Names of a large number of poor were recorded in the list. The poor are included in the waiting list of Indira Awas. But they do not get accommodation without commission. Under MNREGA, irrigation, plantation, pond blows, road construction and puddle construction etc. are also a scam of corruption. Antyodaya Against Poverty, schemes operated under PHH have been three steps backwards after going two steps ahead. Funds are provided to the people under Indira Gandhi National Old Age Pension, Indira Gandhi National Widow Pension, Indira Gandhi National Disabled Pension, Laxmibai Widow Pension, State Disabled Pension, National Family Benefit Scheme and Social Security.
Pension. Only those who have access to officers or brokers get them. The loan from the banks is also not available to the agricultural laborers at the time of need. In this way, the people of Mahajan help to fulfill their needs. Mahajan asks them to pay the loan at the agreed rate of interest and not to repay the money along with interest. It is necessary to make sincere efforts to get the benefits of government schemes, at the right time, from the right agricultural laborers. Majduras will also come out of illiteracy and be aware of their rights and rights. Only then can their problems be solved.

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