IMPACT OF INTERNATIONAL LABOUR MIGRATION IN INDIA

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Section I: Short Term Contract International Migration

Section 1.1: A brief overview

When citizenship and long-term settlement are understood to be precursors to the formation of diaspora communities, migration of Indians to destinations in the Gulf where citizenship and permanent settlement are not encouraged by local law, would then constitute short-term contract labour. Several forms of such labour migration to the Gulf began in 1970s and gained momentum as the decades passed. Indians in the Gulf constitute nearly 5 million of the population. Most of them are in United Arab Emirates (UAE), Saudi Arabia and Kuwait and work in the construction, oil and natural gas, trading and financial sectors. Although a majority of the emigrants are labourers, the presence of professional emigrants cannot be ignored. The Indian expatriate population in the Middle East increased from 0.2 million in 1975 to 3.3 million in 2001 (Lal, 2006) and is estimated to be 5 million in 2010 (Irudaya Rajan and Narayana, 2010). Moreover, the opportunities for skilled workers is expected to increase further as recruitment becomes open for nearly 300,000[1] jobs, with new refineries and power plants being set up in Saudi Arabia and Abu Dhabi in the course of the next five years. The boom in the investment sector and the associated migration of skilled workers refute the former notion that Indian emigration to the Middle East comprises exclusively unskilled and semi-skilled labour. Emigration under the short-term contract is controlled and monitored under various provisions of the Emigration Act, 1983 and its subsequent amendments.

Indian states such as Kerala, Tamil Nadu and Andhra Pradesh lead the order in terms of sending workers overseas on a short-term basis. Of late, Uttar Pradesh has emerged as one of the key sources for emigrant workers, even surpassing Kerala in 2009 and 2010 (till September) with 125783 and 104004 emigration clearances respectively. Saudi Arabia and United Arab Emirates continue to dominate as destinations and received 281110 and 130302 emigrants respectively, with drivers(176244), masons (123695), carpenters (55749), electricians (35623), and housemaids (29007) leading the trade-wise emigration from January 2009 to August 2010.

Section 1.2: Skill attainment and impact on migrant and family

Short-term contract emigration from India happens through a series of unregistered and registered agents (RAs). Nearly 1985 registered agents with one of the eight Protector of Emigrants offices in India, process the employment abroad by securing the mandatory documents such as the Specimen Contract (SC), Demand Letter (DL) and Power of Attorney (PoA) from the overseas employer, which are further verified and processed by the concerned PoE office to issue emigration clearance facilitating emigration of the short-term contract worker. Although the RAs are not supposed to charge more than

Rs.20,000, the prospective emigrants end up spending approximately Rs.50,000 to Rs.1,00,000 or even up to Rs.2,00,000, depending on factors such as trade, destination, terms of contract, level of skills of the emigrant, and the number of financial transactions at various levels between the aspiring emigrant and middlemen/unregistered agents and the registered agents.

Recruitment of workers with no skills or insufficient skills often has resulted in exploitation and discrimination of the short-term contract laborers in the overseas destinations. The Skill Upgradation and Pre-Departure Orientation to Emigrant Workers scheme[2] of the Ministry of Overseas Indian Affairs (MOIA) implements training programs for these job aspirants (with the duration of each program varying from 15 days to 3 months) through agencies such as the Ministry of Micro, Small and Medium Enterprises, CII, FICCI, ASSOCHAM, NGOs, and the state manpower corporations. Although the prospective emigrants receive basic training in their trades through either field-based experience or formal training at the Industrial Training Institutes (ITIs), an initiative by the Ministry of Labour, the MOIA's skill development programs are aimed at not only upgrading the existing skill sets but also matching the same to the standards required in the international market, especially to meet the requirements in the Gulf countries and Malaysia. These training sessions educate the aspirants and prospective migrants on the culture, laws, and the nature of work in the destination countries. The Emigration Division of the MOIA has instituted several mechanisms for the overall welfare of the emigrants under this category and some of the initiatives are Overseas Workers Resource Centre (OWRC) established in 2006, Indian Workers Resource Centre (IWRC) in 2010, designing training manuals in Indian languages, Migrant Resource Centres (MRCs), Indian Community Welfare Fund (ICWF), Pravasi Bharatiya Bhima Yojana (PBBY), India Development Foundation of India and Indian Council for Overseas Employment (ICOE). The E-Migrate project that is taking shape would further check irregularities in managing the emigration of contract labourers who often fall easy prey to deception and financial exploitation.

Constructive efforts to bargain for an increase in the existing salary packages are yet to be initiated. Rajan et al (2010: 61) indicated in their research that nearly 51.9% of the short-term contract labourers draw salary ranging between Rs.5,001-Rs.10,000 and another 20.2%, between Rs.10001-Rs.15000. The authors further emphasise that "the remittances emigrants send home is another indicator of their insufficient earnings at the destinations. About one-third of the emigrants (32.9 per cent) are able to send home only Rs.2,500 or less per month. Nearly half of them (47.6 per cent) could send between Rs.2,501-5,000, 15 per cent, Rs.5,001-10,000 and only 4.6 per cent, above Rs.10,000. Here too, women fared better than men, though none of them transferred more than Rs.10,000 at a time. However, it should be noted that only less than half the number of emigrants (45.6 per cent) reportedly send remittances every month; 16.6 per cent, quarterly, 1.7 per cent, biannually and 35.6 per cent, in quite an irregular manner" (Irudaya Rajan, Varghese and Jayakumar. 2010:61).

Section 1.3: Economy

Short-term contract labour migrants have been major source of remittances to India, especially from the Gulf. As mentioned in Section 2.1, Kerala has been sending short-term contract workers consistently and in large numbers. In fact, remittances have increased by 135% from 2003 to 2008 in Kerala[3] where they make a crucial contribution to its economy, and they were at a historic height in 2009[4] at Rs.37,019 Cr – despite global recession. However, this phenomenon, as bankers[5] explain, has to do partly with the devaluation of the Indian currency and also the belief among the NRIs that India is a safer place to invest and save. In terms of ranking, Andhra Pradesh[6] leads the list of states receiving nearly 22% of total remittances, mostly through short-term contract professionals in the IT sector, followed by Maharashtra which receives 15%.

Remittances to India from short-contract labour, largely from the GCC countries, especially those from Saudi Arabia, rank only next to those from the US. In fact, remittances by workers are far higher than other forms of transfers such as compensations, etc. (Ratha 2003: 171). The UNCTAD-India study on the impact of remittances on poverty in developing countries indicates that "a 10% rise in remittances as a share of GDP leads to 1.7% reduction in poverty ratio' in the Indian context and that "remittances have affected some key variables that are directly linked with poverty. These are per capita income, private consumption expenditure, personal disposable income and gross fixed capital formation or investments" (UNCTAD- India 2010: 40). The study also emphasises the fact that poverty reduction levels in India due to remittances are far below those in other developing countries. Otherwise, remittances stimulate the economy by creating demand for goods and services (Pant 2008). However, for countries where remittances constitute a large percentage of their GDP, they can add to overall macroeconomic insecurity as it is factors such as political and economic climate in both the sending and receiving countries, size and concentration of flows and motivation factors that encourage migrants to remit (Sharma 2009: 6). A detailed table on remittances flow into India is shown in section 4.2.

Section 1.4: Research gaps

The current research on short-term contract labor migration is predominantly focussed on Kerala, one of the largest sending states in India. Migration models and databases have been established for Kerala to assess both internal and international migration and assist timely government intervention to manage the emigration of workers. This leaves a great void for further research on the issue in states such as Andhra Pradesh, Tamil Nadu and Uttar Pradesh, which also send a lot of short-term contract workers abroad. Moreover, the categories vary from state to state and there are specific source regions even within these states. The following areas have potential for further research:

a) State-wise comparative studies on remittances and their use among various categories of short-term contract labour from India. Certain states are known to send specific categories of labour and it would be useful to understand their spending behaviour in order to devise policies to motivate them to invest and to avoid conspicuous consumption.

b) There is a scope for research on the unofficial channels through which money transfer continues to take place, and it is widely believed that short-term contract labour relies on these channels.

c) The relation between remittances and poverty reduction is studied largely from a macroeconomic perspective. The extent of the impact that remittances have on local economies (on the actual places of origin of emigrant labour or on certain key sending regions) is yet to be thoroughly understood.

d) Is the general perception true that the recruiting agents, both registered and unregistered, continue to thrive in the business of sending labour overseas? Research into understanding the dynamics of agents – the processes they devise to put certain kinds of contract labour into vicious cycles of dependence – will enable the government to institute policies to protect and promote the welfare of labour.

e) Another important dimension that can be researched is the belief by certain RAs that smaller players in the business are fading away or routing candidates for the large players. Moreover, the small players are venturing into newer kinds of businesses like money transfer, etc., while the traditional large players have already made enough money and have diverted into other businesses.

Section II: Cross border population movements both regular and irregular

Section 2.1: A brief overview of cross border migration trends of the country

This section covers migration within South Asia in relation to India – which is predominantly immigration to India. The immigration to India amounts to 5.4 million, of which 2.9 per cent constitutes refugees. Incidentally, countries from South Asia constitute the top source of immigration to India and include Bangladesh, Pakistan, Nepal, Sri Lanka, Myanmar, China, Malaysia, the United Arab Emirates, Afghanistan and Bhutan (World Bank 2011). In the context of the historical connections that India had with its neighbours, migration within the Indian sub-continent, prior to the independence of countries like Pakistan and Bangladesh, is self-explanatory. According

to estimates, there are 150,000 Tibetans in India, 60,000 Afghans (post the Soviet-Afghan war), and 3.3 million Bangladeshis. Migration to Sri Lanka had its origins in colonial times as Indians were taken to work as laborers on the coffee, tea and rubber plantations during the 19th and 20th centuries. Indian Tamils or the Hill County Tamils as they are often called constitute the majority and number 1.6 million. Although many of them repatriated in 1964, their descendents continue to stay in Sri Lanka.

Immigration to India from South Asian countries constitutes mostly informal and unrecorded movements. It is estimated that there are over 20 million irregular migrants in India. This is more than the number of irregular migrants in both the European Union (EU) and the US. India's open borders with Bangladesh and Nepal have put the country in a difficult situation with immigrants entering the country easily[7]. In terms of unrecorded emigration from India, Bangladesh reports nearly 500,000[8] Indians staying on in the country illegally after expiry of their tourist visas and working in various business establishments. However, the UNHCR reports that there are 185,323 refugees and 5,441 asylum seekers in India, while the refugees and asylum seekers originating from India constituted 24,236 as on Jan 2010[9]. Although India has yet to sign the International Conventions[10] on refugees due to concerns arising out of national security, the country has a track record of treating its refugees with dignity. The Census of India, 2001 also reports 'there were 61,66,930 foreign-born, and 51,55,423 people having their last residence as outside India'. Among the stock of foreign immigrants in India by country of last residence, Bangladesh (30,84,826), Pakistan (9,97,106), Nepal (5,96,696), Sri Lanka (1,49,300), Myanmar (49,086), UAE (29,823), China (23,721), Saudi Arabia (16,395), Malaysia (13,946) and Kuwait (10,473) constitute the top ten (Irudaya Rajan and Remya Prabha, 2008).

India also has country specific provisions laid down when allowing entry of people, who are both refugees and seasonal migrants, from the countries within South Asia. The Foreigners Act and the 1948 Foreigners Order implementing it govern India's refugee policy (WRS 2009) since India is not part of the 1951 Convention on the Status of Refugees. However, India is on the Executive Committee of UNHCR since 1996. The UNHCR provides legal aid, issues identity documents for refugees but its not mandatory on the part of Indian government to recognize as India policy towards immigration from within South Asia varies from country to country, including for refugees. Overall, the country had allowed refugees and offered to help their settlement in India. However, it is important note that India's Citizenship Amendment Act of 2003 defines all non-citizens who entered without visas as illegal migrants, with no exception for refugees or asylum seekers (WRS 2009). The Bureau of Immigration that monitors entry of foreign nationals has outlined certain country-specific provisions with regard to ports of entry, time periods and mandatory procedures to be adhered to, and these provisions would vary depending on India's holistic policy towards immigration.

The World Refugee Survey 2009, by the US Committee on Refugees and Immigrants indicates that there are 456,000 refugees in India, with 98,800 Sri Lankans (of whom 73,000 live in camps in Tamil Nadu), 110,000 Tibetans, 100,000 ethnic Chin from Myanmar (living in Mizoram and with few hundred in New Delhi), 30,000 Afghans, 25,000 Bhutanese, and 65,000 ethnic Chakmas from Bangladesh in Arunachal Pradesh, Mizoram and Assam. There is no uniform policy towards the refugees in India, with identity documents, resident permits and other forms of entry permits given to different kinds of refugees. The following paragraphs attempt to give a short note on each of the communities mentioned in this paragraph.

Nepalis have been entering India since the Peace and Friendship Treaty of 1950[11] that allowed their entry to work on par with Indian citizens excepting the Right to Vote. According to Article 7 of the Treaty, 'The Governments of India and Nepal agree to grant, on a reciprocal basis, to the nationals of one country in the territories of the other the same privileges in the matter of residence, ownership of property, participation in trade and commerce, movement and other privileges of a similar nature.' Indian states in the north of India have a considerable presence of Nepalis who are popularly termed the Indian Gorkhas – Sikkim, Uttarakhand, Assam, Meghalaya and Manipur. Over the years, they have also further migrated to the South of India into states such as Andhra Pradesh and Tamil Nadu. However, concerns about inflow of Maoists to bordering states such as Uttar Pradesh, West Bengal, Bihar and certain parts of North East, the exploitation of Nepali workers and consequent ethnic conflicts (with Khasis in Assam and Meghalaya), discrimination in the work place in the informal sector, harassment by local police especially in cases of theft (in the Southern India) etc., continue to exist. Naujoks (2009) mentions[12] that a million[13] Nepalis currently work in India and that they are mostly unskilled permanent or seasonal labourers or domestic workers, living almost exclusively in Northern India. According to Bhattrai (2007), 'the 1991 Census of Nepal recorded that absentee population from Nepal to India constituted 89.2 per cent of the total migrants, indicating the willingness to migrate in search of work to a prime destination characterised by geographical proximity and cultural affinity. One of the important and critical features of this phenomenon is migration of Nepali women to work as domestic and sex workers in India, so that there are between 200,000 to 375,000 Nepali women in Indian brothels (Bhattrai 2007)[14].

In the Indian context, Tibetans who entered India after 30 May 2003 are classified in a separate category as Long Term Stay and they can enter India through the Special Entry Permits issued through the Indian Embassy in Kathmandu. The early arrivals were in 1959 along with Dalai Lama and they have been living in exile since then hoping to return to their motherland. Except for the Right to Franchise, India has rendered massive help to preserve and promote their ethnic culture apart from approving their stay in exile. Another wave followed in 1979. The WRS (2009) states that the Citizenship Act of 1955 allows Indian-born Tibetans to apply for Indian citizenship, and that Tibetans born between 1950 and 1987 can become citizens if they were born in India; those born

between 1987 and 2004[15] are eligible for citizenship if one of their parents was Indian at the time of their birth.

Nearly one lakh Tamil refugees from Sri Lanka stay in 115 camps in Tamil Nadu and the State Government of Tamil Nadu provides the necessary facilities for their housing and livelihood. For the Tamil refugees who are torn between the warring sides of LTTE and the Sri Lankan government, seeking refugee status in India is much easier than attempting to seek asylum in destinations such as Canada and Australia. While nearly 73,300 stay in camps, 26,300 more stay outside with their relatives independent of the government support. There are others whose movements are under surveillance due to their alleged involvement in the war with the Sri Lankan Government, and pose security issues to India[16]. The Government of Tamil Nadu provides facilities for educating the children and also reserves five seats in its professional colleges (WRS 2009). The government may impose a cut in the monthly rations[17] and support if the refugees are found to disobey the local laws. The Bureau of Immigration that controls entry into India has laid down certain rules with regard to the entry and exit of Afghans and Tibetans[18].

Section 2.2: Contribution to local economy

Most of the Nepalis and Bhutanese are single migrants, who are seasonal workers, but tend to bring more members through family networks and send back remittances. According to estimates mentioned by Bhattrai (2007), in the year 1997, almost one lakh Nepalis working in India remitted Rs. 40 billion to Nepal. Many of the cross border migrants in India have very little or no access to the banking system due to lack sufficient documentation. They keep their own savings and remit them through people returning/traveling to Nepal or through other kinds of social networks. These transfers face trouble at border check posts and are also prone to harrasment by local government officials.

India has treaties with Nepal and Bhutan that allow their citizens to migrate in search of work in India on par with Indian nationals. However, several of these immigrants find their way into the unorganised sector where instances of both discrimination and exploitation are plenty. This situation is further complicated due to their non-citizen status, although they are provided with necessary documentary proof, but not registered as workers. Mandatory registration and the documentary support already given will help them in several ways like securing legal support from the Indian courts. It also helps the Indian Government to track their movements, monitor remittance transfer, and further estimate their contribution to the Indian economy at large. The Unorganized Workers' Social Security Act 2008, made registration mandatory for workers, but does not provide any social security safety net. It provides necessary legal support. On the other hand, sheer lack of awareness of local laws and workplace issues complicate their situation, and make them vulnerable at work. All other refugees are allowed to work only in the informal/unorganised sector and fall prey to exploitation.

Although the Indian Constitution allows right to freedom of movement, refugees with proper documentation can travel within India after seeking necessary approvals. However, they have to report to the local police/FRRO at the destination about their arrival, nature of business/work, stay details, duration, and departure details. At times, the local state governments can initiate livelihood programs to support the refugees in camps. For example, the Government of Tamil Nadu supports SHGs[19] for refugees in camps, who take up livelihood activity. But again, due to lack of sufficient supporting documents, they face hurdles in seeking loans; promote business and assistance from the government.

In terms of the setting up business establishments, Nepalis have been granted approval under Article 6 of the Peace and Friendship Treaty of 1950, which states that "Each Government undertakes, in token of the neighborly friendship between India and Nepal, to give to the nationals of the other, in its territory, national treatment with regard to participation in industrial and economic development of such territory and to the grant of concessions and contracts, relating to such development".

Section 2.3: Identification of research gaps

Cross border migration in the Indian context is a refugee-centered one, and also an area that is least researched, both in terms of data and issues concerning the refugee populations in India. The following domains need to be further understood:

a) Data on the actual number of refugees in India is available but there are serious gaps in uniformity, at least close to uniformity in agreement on numbers. This demands for an understanding of recording, monitoring and tracking of refugees in India and evolving a robust system.

b) Integration of refugees in the India context with natives is critical in light of the fact that very few refugees go back to their countries. Current research has been reporting the existing situation than suggesting sustainable efforts to provide the necessary legal and social infrastructure.

c) Institutionalized exploitation at work can be addressed by governments' interventions both by the Centre and the states which have a considerable number of refugees. However, policy research on providing legal support and the necessary infrastructure to lead a dignified life is the need of the hour.

Section III: Diasporas

3.1: Overview

The Indian emigrant stock constitutes People of Indian Origin (PIOs) and the Indian expatriates who left India after 1947, that is, the old diaspora and the new diaspora. It is estimated that the Indian diaspora constitutes nearly 30 million, with the majority residing in the United States and the Gulf. The first holistic attempt to estimate the Indian diaspora was that made by the High Level Committee (HLC) on the Indian Diaspora by the Government of India in 2001. The HLC reported that the Indian diaspora constituted 16 million. Table 1 shows the HLC's estimates of the Indian diaspora in different regions. The website of the Ministry of Overseas Indian Affairs (MOIA)[20] estimates that there are currently 21.3 million overseas Indians. This includes 11.5 million People of Indian Origin (PIOs) and 9.7 million Non-Resident Indians (NRIs). Other estimates indicate that are there are nearly 25 million Indians overseas, with a little over 10 million NRIs as short-term contractual labour of which nearly 5 million stay in the Gulf. The Ministry's annual report (2010) estimates Indian diaspora to be 25 million across 189 countries. However, as evident from Table 1, emigration to destinations such as the US, Canada, and Europe has been consistently high apart from the short-term contract migration to the Gulf. Emigration to these destinations, excepting to the Gulf which predominantly constitutes labour, has been in the form of professionals such as doctors, engineers, and the recent phenomenon (since 1990s, prior to the Y2K problem) of knowledge workers in the service sector. Several of these destinations have designed their immigration laws to allow the emigration of immediate family members. Hence, post-1970s, India witnessed the emigration of both women and unmarried children of emigrants, especially in large numbers to the US since the passing of the Heart-Cellar Act of 1965. We also have some data on indentured Indian emigrants who left undivided India for other countries in the 18th and 19th centuries; however, the moot question is how many of them still continue to be considered people of India origin.

Table 1: People of Indian Origin (PIO) and Non-Resident Indians (NRI) as per the High Level Committee Report, 2001

Area	PIOs	**NRIs (Indian Citizens)**	Total
Africa	1182493	83350	1265843
Asia & Asia Pacific	4920362	174349	5094711
Australia	160000	30000	190000
Central & South	1115151	7307	1122458

America			
Europe	404456	163831	568287
Gulf & Neighboring nations	200305	3299060	3499365
Canada*	851000		851000
South Africa*	1000000		1000000
UK*	1200000		1200000
USA*	1678765		1678765
Total			**16470429**

* In case of Canada, South Africa, UK and USA, the figures denote PIOs + NRIs

Table 2: Indentured Indian Migrants

Colony	Period	Immigrants
Mauritius	1834- 1871	> 5000000
Natal	1860- 1911	152,189
Fiji	1879- 1916	60,965
British Guiana	1838- 1917	238,909
Trinidad	1845- 1917	143,939
Guadeloupe	1854- 1889	42,326
Jamaica	1854-1885	36,420
Dutch Guiana	1873-1916	34,304
Martinique	1854-1889	25,509
French Guiana	1856-1877	6,551
St Lucia	1858- 1895	4,354
Grenada	1857-1885	3,200
St Vincent	1860-1880	2,472
St Kitts	1860-1865	337
St. Croix	1862	321

Sources: Roberts and Byrne (1966); Singaravelou (1990); Tinker (1974); Gillion (1962)

Section 3.2: Impact of Remittances on family and local economy

The World Bank (2010) reports that India is one of the major recipients of worldwide remittances – to a tune of an estimated $55 billion, which would rank as the country with the highest among the receivers of inward flows. Workers' remittances, especially from Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) countries[21], constitute a large portion of the money inflow.

Table 3: Remittances to India, 1970-2008

Year	US $ Million	Year	US $ Million	Year	US $ Million
1970	121	1983	2,660	1996	8,766
1971	140	1984	2,295	1997	10,331
1972	129	1985	2,469	1998	9,479
1973	181	1986	2,240	1999	11,124
1974	266	1987	2,665	2000	12,890
1975	430	1988	2,315	2001	14,273
1976	642	1989	2,614	2002	15,736
1977	934	1990	2,384	2003	20,999
1978	1,165	1991	3,289	2004	18,750
1979	1,437	1992	2,897	2005	22,125
1980	2,757	1993	3,523	2006	28,334
1981	2,301	1994	5,857	2007	37,217
1982	2,618	1995	6,223	2008	51,581

Source: World Bank. 2009

A large part of these remittances are withdrawn by the immediate family members in the receiving geographies towards improving the overall quality of life of the household. On the other hand, more importantly, preliminary estimates of the diaspora savings in the Indian context are estimated to be at $ 31 billion (for 2009) constituting 8% of domestic savings and 2% of the country's GDP. These estimates are based on migrant stocks for 2010 and assumptions about migrant incomes (Ratha and Mohapatra, 2011:4).

Section 3.3: Diaspora Philanthropy & technology transfer for inclusive growth

There are several ways in which the NRIs collaborate and get involved in India's development, apart from numerous examples of their individual contribution to their places of origin. Several state governments have set up NRI Forums such as Andhra Pradesh NRI Forum, NRI Forum Karnataka, to focus state-specific issues, maintain a database of state-specific NRIs, and network with them in various sectors of development. However, innovative ways of NRI involvement such as identifying facilitating partners (NGOs and government bodies), donating online through payment gateways to cause-specific donor products, adopting villages and especially schools, and the active promotion of providing urban facilities in rural areas (PURA). Above all, a proactive collaboration is evident among the NRIs, the government and national and international NGOs/aid agencies/corporate sector/domain experts to design, implement and systematically monitor diaspora philanthropy projects in India (See the diagram below).

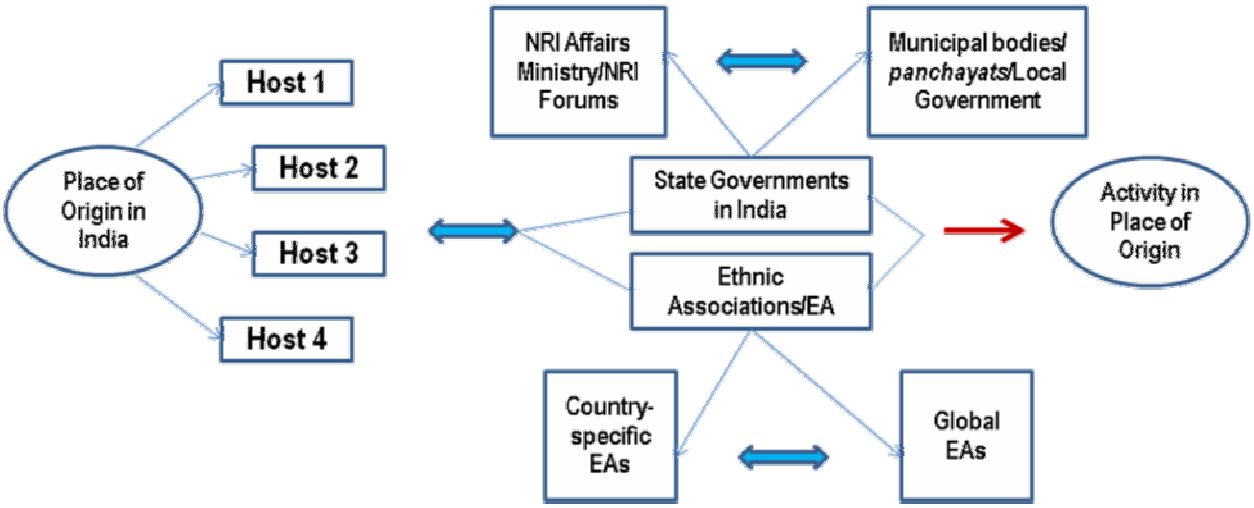


Diagram: Transnational ethnic linkages to promote development in places of origin

The evolution of the Pan IITians and organisations such as AAPI, TiE, and GOPIO have accelerated and facilitated participation of the India diaspora in India's inclusive growth. Programs such as UNDP's TOKTEN, UNESCO's Visiting Scientist Program and UNESCO's Virtual Laboratory have encouraged several diaspora communities across the globe to connect with their places of origin. The Indian government, apart from its CP-STIO Initiative to encourage scientific collaboration in the academia and development projects, Overseas India Facilitation Centre's Knowledge Exchange program (MOIA & CII) have encouraged technology-based solutions for issues concerning rural India.

Section 3.4: Involvement in FDI and political processes

NRIs can incorporate a company under the Companies Act, 1956 and existing Indian companies can invite Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) by NRIs either through the automatic or government route, depending on provisions laid down by the Foreign Investments Promotion Board (FIPB) and the RBI. They are permitted to route the investment through the NRE/FCNR(B)[22] account. Currently, the NRI role in FDI stands to be near 1.5%[23] only. The government needs approximately $435 billion[24] and there is scope and open opportunity for NRIs to invest in various Indian infrastructure projects. Earlier, the Foreign Exchange Management Act (FEMA) of 1991 established the regulations for deposits by NRIs in FCNR(B), Non-Resident External and Non-Resident Ordinary accounts, and this facility has been extended to Regional Rural Banks (RRBs) during the 2007-08 financial budget. This has further encouraged remittances, especially from short-term contract labour in Gulf region. These accounts broadly are used for the transfer of remittances that can be savings and earnings on investment, pensions, insurance, etc., to India. Moreover, Indian banks have now dedicated NRI branches in

states with high rates of emigration and NRI involvement. According to the data released by the Department of Industrial Policy and Promotion (DIPP)[25], the cumulative amount of FDI equity inflows from April 2000 to October 2010 stood at US$ 122.68 billion.

However, the Deputy Chairman of the Planning Commission, Dr. Montek Singh Ahluwalia emphasised during the recently concluded Pravasi Bharatiya Divas (2011) that India is not after its NRIs for investment but the government's attempts to connect with the Indian diaspora should be understood in the shared historical context. The government just announced voting rights to 11 million strong NRIs who can exercise their franchise in the 2014 general election, but is still not clear whether it would allow a postal ballot, as NRIs might find it costly to travel all the way to India to vote. As a precursor, many NRIs are set to exercise their voting right in the assembly elections scheduled for Kerala, Tamil Nadu, West Bengal, Assam and Puducherry in May 2011, and NRIs are allowed to register with the electoral officers through post, but should cast their vote in person.

Section 3.5: Research Gaps

Research on the Indian diaspora is quite vast, with several publications still continuing to focus on emigration history and issues culture, identity and integration in the context of several destinations following a policy of multiculturalism. In the process, state-specific emigration research has emerged, but is limited to states such as Kerala, Punjab, Gujarat, and to some extent Tamil Nadu, thus leaving a void. Moreover, the earlier neglect of emphasis on issues such as diaspora philanthropy, diaspora bonds, and India's economic policy towards its diaspora has witnessed a positive change after the establishment of an exclusive ministry to manage overseas Indians. The following areas have potential for further research:

a. Impact of diaspora remittances and investment in Indian states such as Gujarat, Andhra Pradesh and Karnataka

b. Diaspora philanthropy in the context of a large number of Pan-Indian associations networking at the transnational level to actively participate in India's inclusive growth. This is even more important in the context of increasing involvement by the diaspora in philanthropic activities than in investment in industry and infrastructure

c. Lack of state-wise emigration data provides ample scope to research on the so-called active sending zones in India

d. Issues concerning emigration of women – such as domestic violence and harassment of NRI brides – although reported are less researched

e. A vast opportunity for research in the area of professional returnees, scientists and issues concerning the Diaspora Knowledge Networks (DKNs)

f. While data on remittances transfer is widely available, scope for further understanding the channels of transfer is eminent. Further, the relation between the channels of transfer in terms of categories of workers/professionals, source place of remittances and final usage of remittances in the receiving places.

Section: IV: Impact of International Migration: The Kerala Experience

4.1: Macro-Economic Impact of Remittances

The total remittances in 2007 amounted to 20.2 per cent of the Net State Domestic Product (NSDP) of the state. The corresponding ratios were 22.0 per cent in 2003 and 25.5 per cent in 1998. Thus, the increase in remittances has not kept pace with the increase in NSDP.

Table 4 : Macro-Economic Impact of Remittances on Kerala Economy

	1998	2003	2007
Remittances Rs in crores	13,652	18,465	24,525
NSDP Rs in Crores	53,552	83,783	121410
Per Capita Income Rs.	16,062	25,764	36011
Modified NSDP Rs. Thousand Crores	67,204	102,248	145,935
Revenue Receipt of Government Rs. Thousand Crores	7,198	10,634	19140
Transfer from Central Government Rs. Thousand Crores	1,991	2,653	6365
Government Expenditure Rs. Thousand Crores	5,855	9,908	16537
State Debt Rs. Thousand Crores	15,700	31,060	55320
Receipt from Cashew Export Rs. Thousand Crores	1,317	1217	1623

Receipt from Marine Product Export Rs. Thousand Crores	817	995	1322
Modified Per Capita Income (Rs.)	20,157	31,442	43360
Remittances as Percent of NSDP (%)	25.49	22.04	20.20
Remittances as Ratio of Revenue Receipt	1.90	1.74	1.28
Remittances as Ratio of Transfer from Centre	6.86	6.96	3.85
Remittances as Ratio of Govt Expenditure	2.33	1.84	1.48
Remittances as Ratio of State Debt	0.87	0.59	0.44
Remittances as Ratio of Receipts from Cashew	10.37	15.17	15.11
Remittances as Ratio of Receipts from Marine	16.71	18.56	18.55

Source: Zachariah and S. Irudaya Rajan (2007b)

4.2: Migration and Unemployment: Direct Effect

Emigration has had a direct as well as indirect impact on the employment situation in the state. The unemployment rate among the general population of the state was 12.2 per cent. But among those who emigrated the unemployment rate before emigration had been as high as 29.2 per cent. If these persons had not emigrated, the unemployment rate in the state would have been higher, say 14.4 per cent. Thus, emigration has reduced the unemployment rate in the state by 2.2 percentage points. This is the direct effect of emigration on unemployment.

If we include internal migrants also, the unemployment rate among them before migration (internal and external) would have been 15.8 per cent. Internal migration alone has reduced Kerala's unemployment rate by 1.4 percentage points. Thus, migration of unemployed persons from Kerala has reduced the unemployment rate from 15.8 per cent to 12.2 per cent. Migration was thus a major factor in keeping unemployment rate low in Kerala.

4.3: Migration and Poverty

This section is intended to provide some statistical evidence to show that migration did alleviate poverty in Kerala. It should be emphasized that the objective is not to estimate the level of poverty but to measure the change in poverty level due to migration. Given that the poverty level in Kerala is X per cent, what is the effect of migration on X; has it decreased (or increased) consequent on, and if it has, by how much? (for detailed methodology, see Zachariah, Mathew and Irudaya Rajan, 2003b).

Table 5 : Impact of Emigration on Poverty in Kerala

Poverty level before emigration	29.3 per cent
Poverty level after emigration	26.2 per cent
Decline in Poverty level due to remittances from the emigrants	3.1 percentage points

Source: Zachariah, Mathew and Irudaya Rajan (2003b)

It must be pointed out once again that the estimate of the decline in poverty is, to a large extent, independent of the estimate of the level of poverty.

The overall conclusions from our estimates are:

- Inflow of Remittances from emigrants have had a significant effect on poverty alleviation in Kerala.
- Overall, the percentage of poor in Kerala has decreased by 3.1 percentage points due to inflow of remittances from migrants abroad (irrespective of the level of poverty).
- The best estimate of the decline in poverty as a result of the inflow of remittances from emigrants is around 12 per cent.

4.4: Use of Remittances

Emigrants send home money by way of periodic remittances. One of the inevitable consequences is the increase in disposable income at the household level. The sudden increase in household income has had a considerable impact on household consumption patterns. Remittances are used for a variety of purposes – to pay back debt, for family subsistence, buying or building houses, paying dowry for relatives, etc. Table 6 gives the pattern of the utilisation of remittances by households.

Table 6 : Use of Remittances, 2007

	Used	**% Used**
Subsistence	1514	90.9
Education	734	44.1
Debt Repayment	552	33.2
Bank Deposit	231	13.9
Buying/Building House	117	7.0
Buying Land	59	3.5
Dowry Payment	45	2.7

Improving Land	44	2.6
New Business	13	0.8
Others	228	13.7

Source: Zachariah and Irudaya Rajan (2007b)

Almost all the households with migrants used remittances for subsistence purposes and nearly half used them for educational purposes also. One-third of the households used remittances to pay back debts. About 14 per cent deposited part of the remittances in banks. Another major item of expenditure was the acquisition or construction of houses. An equal number of households used remittances for other purposes such as buying household furniture, appliances, etc.

4.5: Impact of Migration on Standard of Living

This section attempts to analyse the impact of emigration on housing and household possessions. Four aspects of housing are analysed: ownership of house, quality of house, electrification of house, and use of LPG for cooking.

Ownership of house

Most households own the houses they live in or own houses somewhere in the state. Nearly 94 per cent of the households own a house each. Ownership of houses among migrant households cannot however be very much different from that among non-migrant households. Table 3 indicates that there exists only a very small difference between these two categories of households in this matter. While 95.3 per cent of the NRK households owned a house each, the corresponding proportion among non-NRK households was 93.7. The difference is a mere 1.6 percentage points.

Table 7: Percentage of Households Owning Houses by Migration Status, 2007

	Number			**Per cent**		
Ownership of House	**Yes**	**No**	**Total**	**Yes**	**No**	**Total**
Non-NRK	6961	465	7426	93.7	6.3	100.0
NRK	2452	122	2574	95.3	4.7	100.0
Total	9413	587	10000	94.1	5.9	100.0

Source: Zachariah and Irudaya Rajan (2007b).

Quality of House

A major sector in which emigration could have made a significant impact is the housing sector. Row after row of palatial houses is an eye-catching sight in many centres which have a large number of emigrants.

In this study, the enumerators had been required to classify the houses in the sample as "luxurious", "very good", "good", "poor" and "kutcha". A luxurious house is one with three bedrooms or more, attached baths, concrete roof and mosaic or tiled flooring. A very good house is similar to the luxurious one but with two bedrooms. A good house is one with one bedroom, brick/cement walls, concrete or tile roofing. A poor house is one with brick walls, cement flooring, tin or asbestos roofing. A kutcha house is one with mud walls and flooring and thatched roofing. The same definition has been used in all surveys since 1998. Therefore, the data from surveys of 1998 and 2007 should be comparable (Table 8).

Table 8: Distribution of Sample Houses by Type, 2007

House Type	1998	2007
Luxurious	1.3	4.5
Very Good	13.2	12.2
Good	57.2	62.4
Poor	17.7	17.4
Kutcha	10.5	3.6
Total	100.0	100

Source: Zachariah and Irudaya Rajan (2007b)

Most of the Kerala houses*, i.e.,* 62 per cent, were classified as "good". Only about one in six was characterised as "poor". A small percentage of houses were "Kutcha", *i.e.,* houses with mud walls and flooring and thatched roofing.

Over the years, the proportion of *kutcha* houses decreased considerably, from 10.5 per cent 1998 to 3.6 per cent in 2007. At the same time, the proportion of luxurious houses increased from 1.3 per cent in 1998 to 4.5 per cent in 2007. The proportion of houses of good quality increased from 71.7 per cent to 79.1 per cent. The average quality of house in Kerala has thus indeed improved. Does emigration have a role in bringing about this improvement?

Possession of Consumer Durables

The proportions of households possessing various items of consumer durables in 1998 and 2007 are given in Table 9. Between 1998 and 2007, the proportions increased

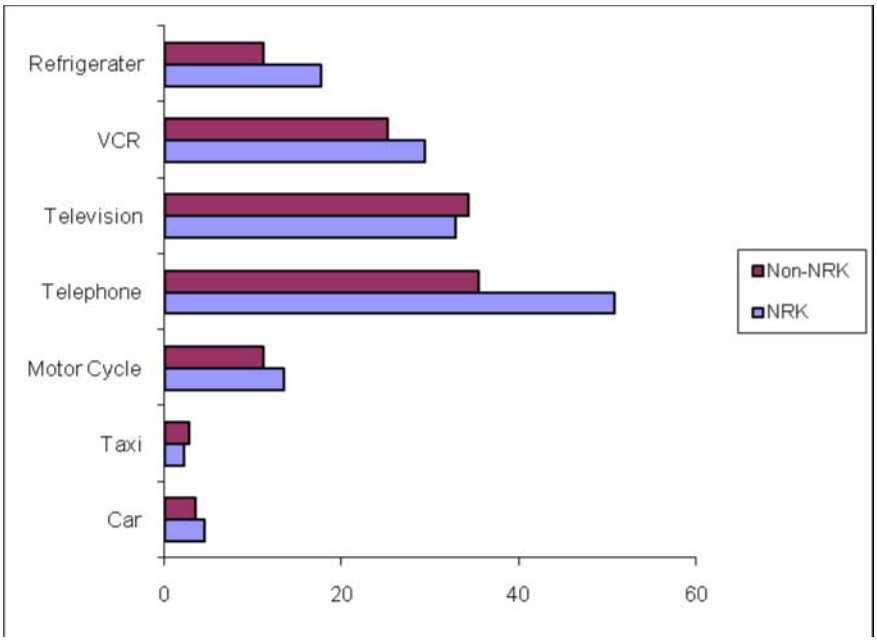
considerably for all consumer items listed in the Table. For example, the proportion of households possessing television sets increased from 38 per cent in 1998 to 72 per cent in 2007. Similar increases are evident for other items as well.

Table 9: Proportion of Households Possessing Various Consumer Durables, 1998-2007

	1998	**2007**
Car	2.5	6.3
Taxi	1.3	3.9
Scooter	9.1	20.9
Phone	15.0	54.5
Cell phone	--	41.5
Television	37.8	72.0
VCR	9.9	36.5
Refrigerator	19.3	32.5
Cooking Oven	--	1.6
Microwave oven	--	1.1
Baking oven	--	0.4
Computer	--	5.9
Land Phone or Cell Pone	--	67.1

Source: Zachariah and Irudaya Rajan (2007b)

Figure 1: Increase in the Proportion of NRK and Non-NRK Households Possessing Consumer Item 1998-2007



Source: Zachariah and Irudaya Rajan (2007b)

In the ten items listed in Table 10, the proportion of households possessing at least one consumer durable item among NRK households was larger than among households without NRKs. The differences were found to be very great in some cases. In the case of Telephones, for example, the difference was as much as 51 percentage points.

Table 10: Proportion of Households Possessing Various Consumer Durables by Migration Status

	1998		2007		Difference	
	NRK	Non-NRK	NRK	Non-NRK	NRK	Non-NRK
Land phone or cell		87.7		60.0		
Car	4.0	2.0	8.5	5.5	4.5	3.5
Taxi	1.9	1.0	4.1	3.8	2.2	2.8
Motor Cycle	11.7	8.3	25.2	19.4	13.5	11.1
Telephone	25.8	11.5	76.5	46.9	50.7	35.4
Cell Phone			52.4	37.7		

Television	50.3	33.9	83.1	68.1	32.8	34.2
VCR	23.2	5.7	52.6	30.9	29.4	25.2
Refrigerator	34.5	14.5	52.2	25.6	17.7	11.1
Electric Cooker			2.5	1.3		
Microwave Oven			2.3	0.7		
Baking Oven			0.7	0.3		
Computer			8.8	4.8		

Source: Zachariah and Irudaya Rajan (2007b)

In the matter of Taxis, and Television, the increase among non-NRK was higher. However, the differences were quite small. Emigration has clearly had a positive impact on the possession of consumer durables by households (Figure 1).

4.6: Income Redistribution

The direct beneficiaries of emigration, namely the households with NRKs, were only 26 per cent of the total number of households in the State. If at all the remaining 74 per cent received any benefit from emigration, it was only indirectly. If 26 per cent directly benefited and 74 per cent did not, what has been the impact of remittances on income or wealth redistribution in the State? The answer would depend on who the 26 per cent were. If they were of the bottom stratum of the income ladder, as had been the case in the early 1990s, emigration would have probably contributed to reducing inequalities in the income distribution of the Kerala economy. On the other hand, if the 26 per cent were from the top stratum of the society, emigration would have contributed to greater concentration of income. We do not have any information on the income level of the Kerala emigrants. The best approximations that could be gathered from our survey are the educational level of the emigrants, the type of houses they live in, the type of fuels they use for cooking, *etc*.

One evidence is the relative amount of remittances received by the well educated (secondary level or degree) versus the less educated (below secondary level). In 1999, households with well-educated emigrants had received 54.8 per cent of the total "household cash remittances". By 2004, the share of the well-educated emigrant households increased to 64.2 per cent. Thus, more of the remittances received by the Kerala households in recent years have gone to households with well-educated emigrants (assumed to be from wealthy households). Similarly, in 1999, households with "luxurious" or "very good" houses had received only 39.5 per cent of the remittances. By 2004, the corresponding proportion was 56.4 per cent, an increase of 17 percentage points in five years. Another statistic supporting this conclusion is the increase in the share of remittances, received by households with an LPG connection (presumably the richer households). In 1999, LPG-households received 42.1 per cent of

the total remittances. By 2004, more than 60 per cent of the remittances went to LPG-households, an increase of 18 percentage points.
All these indirect evidences point to the conclusion that in recent years, emigration and remittances have not helped to reduce inequalities in the society of Kerala.

4.7: Women Left behind and Gulf Wives

A major social consequence of emigration and out-migration in Kerala is the seperation of husbands from wives. This separation has many adverse consequences as well as some benefical ones. A full discussion of these adverse and beneficial consequences was attempted in the reports on Kerala Migration Survey, 1998 (Zachariah, Mathew and Irudaya Rajan, 2003). The present discussion updates these to look at the changes that have taken place ten years later.

Impact of Migration on Gulf Wives

Emigration impacts Gulf Wives mainly through receipt of remittances and through husband-wife separation.

Remittances

Some major consequences of emigration on the GW and her household are caused by increase in income brought about by the remittances which the emigrants send back home. In most cases, the remittances are very large compared to the income that the GW is accustomed to before her husband's emigration. The receipt of such large amounts brings with it many benefits and as well as a few problems.

Table 11: Average Remittances per Household 2008

Average Remittances per Household	All HHs	62661
Average Remittances per Household	EMI > 0	68811
Average Remittances per Household	GW > 0	84,100
Average Remittances per Household	EMI > 0 & GW =0	42,152

On an average, a Kerala household receives about Rs 63,000 per year as remittances. For households with at least one **emigrant**, the average remittance per household in 2008 was Rs 69,000. For households with a **Gulf Wife,** the average remittance in 2008 was Rs 84,000. Thus, the presence of GW in a household is a factor in the receipt of remittances by the household. The average remittances in a household with an **emigrant but no Gulf** Wife is only 42,000. But if that household has a Gulf Wife, the remittances would be 84,000, almost double the amount in households without a GW. If the number of GWs in a household is more than one, the remittances also increase considerably.

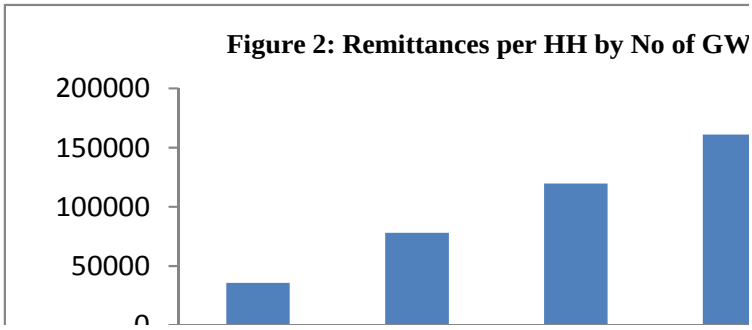


Table 12: Remittances per HH by GW

GW	Household	Remittances per HH
0	1363	35693
1	1497	78009
2	187	119642
3	28	161054
4	5	149200
Total	3080	62681
GW > 0	1717	84105

The average remittance per HH increases from Rs 36,000 in HH without a GW to Rs 78,000 in HHs with one GW, to Rs 120,000 in HHs with two GWs and to Rs 160,000 in households with three GWs.

Problems and prospects

All GWs were asked the question: "Do you face any problems in the absence of your husband?" If the answer to the question was yes, additional questions were asked about the nature of the problems. Their answers are tabulated in Table 13.

Table 13: Problems felt by GW Due to Husbands absence

Problems felt	Yes	No	Total	Percent Yes
Loneliness	1694	281	1975	85.8
Added responsibilities	1713	262	1975	86.7
Insecurity	643	1332	1975	32.6
Health of Parents	520	1455	1975	26.3
Bringing up of Children	762	1213	1975	38.6
Financial Adjustment	748	1227	1975	37.9
Others	371	1604	1975	18.8

Table 13 shows that "loneliness" and the "added responsibilities" are the major problems faced by the GWs in absence of their husbands. More than 85 per cent of the GW reported

that loneliness and additional responsibilities are their main problems. Other problems include the difficulty in bringing up of children alone, financial management and a feeling of insecurity. Taking care of the sick parents is another additional responsibility.

Table 14: Relationship of WLB with In-laws

Relationship	Number	Percentage
Excellent	381	21.5
Normal	1354	76.4
Strained	38	2.1
Total	1773	100.0

Most of the Gulf wives felt that the relationship with the husband's parents was quite satisfactory. Very few felt that their in-laws were a problem. In the few cases where the relationship became strained, the reason was mostly financial.

Table 15: Who take to Hospital

Who Take Hospital	Number	Percentage
Myself	943	47.7
Parents	315	15.9
My father-in law	458	23.2
Other members	259	13.1
Total	1975	100.0

If a person in the household became sick, the responsibility of taking the person to the hospital was shared by all members of the household. However, in nearly half of the households, the main responsibility fell on the Gulf Wife.

Table 16: problems in bringing up children

Problems in Bringing up	Number	Percentage
Yes	545	32.2
No	1148	67.8
Total	1693	100.0

Table 17: Nature of problems in bringing up children

Nature of problems	Yes	No	Percent Yes
Disobedience	363	1330	21.4
Misbehavior	92	1601	5.4
Stubbornness	224	1469	13.2
No interest in Studies	372	1321	22.0
Money mishandling	27	1666	1.6
Other	49	1664	2.9

Not many GWs reported any major problem in bringing up children on their own (in the absence of the husband). Where there were some problems, these related to disobedience or to studies.

Good and Bad Experiences

During the survey, all Gulf Wives were asked to state three good experiences and three bad experiences of life at home without their husbands. Table 50 gives the distribution of GWs in terms of good and bad experiences.

Table 18: Distribution of Gulf Wives According to Good/Bad Experiences

Good Experience			Bad Experience		
	Ist Choice	Ist 3 choices		Ist choice	Ist 3 choices
Financial Benefits	89.8	30.3	Loneliness	82.4	27.5
Construct House	3.3	9.5	Heavy Responsibilities	14.7	26.9
Purchase Gold	1.0	4.9	Worries about Future	1.3	10.8
Purchase Land	0.7	4.8	Outstanding Debts	0.9	3.7
Improved Status	4.0	14.0	Insecurity	0.2	6.2
Could Help Relatives	1.0	6.5	Children's Health Problems	0.1	6.3
Cleared Debts	0.2	11.7	Anxiety and Fear	0.4	5.7
Improved Lifestyle	0.1	14.6	Disarray in Household	0.0	3.4
Better Education for Children	0.1	3.7	Legal Disputes	0.0	0.2
Others	0.0	0.0	Dependence on Outside Help	0.0	9.4
Total	100.0	100		100.0	100.0

By far, the best of the good experiences was financial benefits. About 90 per cent of the GWs mentioned financial benefit as the most important benefit from her husband's emigration. As mentioned earlier, on an average, a household with a GW receives Rs 84,100 a year. Surprisingly, the second in order of benefits, after improved financial gain, was "improved status among relatives and friends". Other benefits mentioned were: ability to construct a house, ability to clear debts, etc.

Among the bad experiences, loneliness is by far the most important. More than 80 per cent gave loneliness as the most serious bad experience. Second in importance was "added responsibility". Other bad experiences were "worries about the future", "children's health problems", "insecurity", etc.

Table 19: Distribution of Gulf Wives According to Good Experience

Good Experience	1998	2008	
	I st choice	I st choice	I st 3 choices
Financial Benefits	56.3	89.8	30.3
Construct House	27.7	3.3	9.5
Purchase Gold	1.6	1.0	4.9
Purchase Land	1.2	0.7	4.8
Improved Status	0.2	4.0	14.0
Could Help Relatives	2.6	1.0	6.5
Cleared Debts	6	0.2	11.7
Improved Lifestyle	1.8	0.1	14.6
Better Education for Children	2.1	0.1	3.7
Others	0.5	0.0	0.0
Total	100	100.0	100.0

Emigration Prospects

In order to assess the opinion of GWs about the prospects for continued emigration to the Gulf, all GWs were asked the question:

"If you have a daughter of marriageable age, who would you like her to get married to:

a person working in Kerala, or
a person working in India, but outside Kerala, or
a person working in the Gulf.

An overwhelming proportion of the Gulf Wives (three-fourths of the total) reported that they would like their daughter to marry a person working in Kerala. The second preference was for somebody working in the Gulf. Very few (6.4 per cent) want their daughters marry somebody working in India, in a state other than Kerala.

Table 20: Preference for Daughters Marriage

A person working in	2008		1998
	Sample	Percent	Percent
In Kerala	1495	75.7	83.1
Outside Kerala but Within India	127	6.4	2.6
Outside India	353	17.9	14.2
Total	1975	100.0	100.0

Thus, in spite of the differences in salary between the Gulf and Kerala, Kerala women would like their daughters to marry a person working in Kerala. Women who have gone through the trauma of separation from their husbands following emigration do not want their daughters to go through the same experience. They think that a job in Kerala is likely to contribute more to a happier life than a job in the Gulf.

A cross-classification of these preferences with education indicates that fewer of the well-educated women want their daughters to have a Gulf husband. The proportion of GWs who prefer Gulf husbands is higher among the poorly educated GWs.

A comparison with corresponding data from KMS 1998 indicates that an increasing number of Gulf Wives are opting for a Gulf husband for their daughters (from 14 per cent to 18 per cent). This is perhaps because they considered life in the Gulf less risky compared to the past.

There is no indication of a strong backlash against Kerala's Gulf Connection.

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Appendix Table 1: Workers granted with emigration clearances by major states, 1993-2008

State	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010 (up to Sept)
Andhra Pradesh	35578	34508	30284	29995	38278	30599	18983	29999	37331	38417	65971	72580	48498	97680	105044	97530	69233	52343
Karnataka	34380	32266	33496	33761	40396	11535	5287	10927	10095	14061	22641	19237	75384	24362	27014	22413	18565	12935
Kerala	155208	154407	165629	167325	156102	91720	60445	69630	61548	81950	92044	63512	125075	120083	150475	180703	119384	80657
Maharashtra	35248	32178	26312	25214	25146	24657	9871	13346	22713	25477	29350	28670	29289	15356	21496	24786	19128	13662
Punjab	14212	12445	11852	11751	12414	26876	15167	10025	12422	19638	24963	25302	24088	39311	53942	54469	27291	22281
Rajasthan	25243	27418	28374	18221	28242	19824	9809	10170	14993	23254	37693	35108	21899	50236	70896	64601	44744	35549
Tamil Nadu	70313	70525	65737	64991	63672	69793	47402	63878	61649	79165	89464	108964	117050	155631	150842	128791	78841	63215
Uttar Pradesh									-	-	-	27428	22558	66131	91613	139254	125783	104004
Others	68156	61638	53650	62956	52174	80160	32588	35207	57913	85701	104330	94159	85012	108122	138131	136054	107303	90771
Total	438338	425385	415334	414214	416424	355164	199552	243182	278664	367663	466456	474960	548853	676912	809453	848601	610272	475417

Appendix Table 2: Labour outflows from India by destination 1988-2009

Year	Bahrain	Kuwait	Oman	Saudi Arabia	United Arab Emirates (UAE)	Others	Total
1988	8,219	9,653	18,696	85,289	34,029	9,348	165,234
1989	8,520	5,679	16,574	49,710	28,189	11,786	120,458
1990	6,782	1,077	34,267	79,473	11,962	6,300	139,861
1991	8,630	7,044	22,333	130,928	15,446	7,121	191,502
1992	16,458	19,782	40,900	265,180	60,493	13,971	416,784
1993	15,622	26,981	29,056	269,639	77,066	19,974	438,338
1994	13,806	24,324	25,142	265,875	75,762	20,476	425,385
1995	11,235	16,439	22,338	256,782	79,674	28,866	415,334
1996	16,647	14,580	30,113	214,068	112,644	26,162	414,214
1997	17,944	13,170	29,994	214,420	110,945	29,951	416,424
1998	16,997	22,462	20,774	105,239	134,740	54,952	355,164
1999	14,905	19,149	16,101	27,160	79,269	42,968	199,552
2000	15,909	31,082	25,155	59,722	55,099	56,215	243,182
2001	16,382	39,751	30,985	78,048	53,673	59,825	278,664
2002	20,807	4,859	41,209	99,453	95,034	106,301	367,663
2003	24778	54434	36816	121431	143804	85193	466456
2004	22980	52064	33275	123522	175262	67857	474960
2005	30060	39124	40931	99879	194412	144447	548853
2006	37688	47449	67992	134059	254774	134950	676912
2007	29966	48467	95462	195437	312695	127426	809453
2008	31924	35562	89659	228406	349827	113223	848601
2009	17541	42091	74963	281110	130302	64265	610272

Appendix Table 3: Age and gender profile of people as cleared by PoE offices (Jan 2009 – Aug 2010)

Age & Gender	Age between 18-21 years		Age between 22-25 years		Age between 26-30 years		Age between 31-35 years		Age between 36-40 years		Age between 41-45 years		Age between 46-50 years		Age between 51-55 years		Age between 56-60 years		Age between 61 years & above	
PoE	**Male**	**Female**	**Male**	**Female**	**Male**	**Female**	**Male**	**Female**	**Male**	**Female**	**Male**	**Female**	**Male**	**Female**	**Male**	**Female**	**Male**	**Female**	**Male**	**Female**
Chandigarh	6078		16393		14490	3	8849	17	6109	6	3089	4	1103	2	221		22		4	
Chennai	768	0	9635	0	14859	0	10557	563	7934	661	5103	383	1784	221	386	30	35	1	7	0
Cochin	1162	1	6762	2	8180	47	5121	587	3550	870	1881	907	660	583	70	15	4	0	0	0
Delhi	2690	0	24461	0	26757	1	15838	52	10362	66	5374	50	1837	26	447	8	32	3	6	0
Hyderabad	5225	2	30378	14	35227	17	22801	10836	15998	4462	8572	1400	3124	319	483	24	44	4	12	2
Kolkata	844	0	5956	0	7041	0	4284	16	2993	12	1616	8	514	5	95	1	17	0	2	0
Mumbai	5135	1	147863	40	189272	54	109568	631	74852	532	41456	394	14681	214	3132	42	378	5	51	0
Trivandrum	833	0	3836	1	4784	35	3096	384	2548	499	1506	447	691	284	77	16	8	0	0	0

Appendix Table 4: Emigration clearances granted by type of work, 1988-1992

Category	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992
Carpenter	6,361	12,900	6,939	5,132	145
Cook	3,550	3,051	2,070	2,386	239
Driver	6,562	6,334	6,724	5,123	131
Electrician	3,494	3,689	4,496	2,832	112
Engineer	354	268	248	173	13
Fixer/Fabricator	1,904	2,008	2,827	1,052	29
Foreman	927	906	983	764	30
Paramedical staff	1,349	736	434	437	18
Labourer/Helper	91,196	40,657	58,779	45,028	17,345
Mason	8,550	8,731	8,913	6,323	246
Mechanic/AC also	3,562	4,476	3,263	2,467	111
Office Staff	3,916	2,211	1,385	1,087	56
Operator	1,309	1,855	1,342	1,001	39
Painter	2,273	2,501	1,867	1,866	65
Plumber	1,971	1,624	2,047	1,831	33
Tailor	5,115	4,361	3,722	3,231	163
Technician	3,539	1,450	3,389	2,642	136
Welder	1,497	1,222	3,272	1,291	55
Supervisor	1,021	813	1,069	444	21
Surveyor	461	264	218	234	12
Salesman	1,580	4,199	4,121	3,818	147
Housemaid/House-boy	891	2,965	0	1,400	1,938
Fitters	0	1,690	0	0	0
Agriculture	0	0	0	452	108
Others	18,284	17,778	2,565	19,302	3,074
Total	169,666	126,689	120,673	110,316	24,266

Appendix Table 5: No. of workers with emigration clearance by PoE offices in various trades (Jan 2009 – Aug 2010)

Trade/PoE	Chandigarh	Chennai	Cochin	Delhi	Hyderabad	Kolkata	Mumbai	Trivandrum	Total
Carpenter	5306	2212	567	7382	6441	2333	30768	740	**55749**
Mason	7590	3776	1256	9538	12341	3496	83667	2031	**123695**
Bartender	10	12	20	28	0	0	4	0	**74**
Steel Fixer	1442	1097	382	3542	1603	215	9687	536	**18504**
Crane Operator	27	126	26	17	27	13	571	22	**829**
Technician	0	860	554	10	65	392	18903	11	**20795**
Supervisor	0	477	38	3	0	246	2152	4	**2920**
Electrician	895	3403	909	1786	3476	1242	22620	1292	**35623**
Plumber	603	1921	420	1046	1649	985	12786	1090	**20500**
Scaffolder	41	83	108	199	40	17	1246	36	**1770**
Painter	1511	1487	725	1391	2581	595	10501	267	**19058**
Rigger	128	745	310	454	841	171	3875	10	**6534**
Driver	46	2280	2523	1500	5237	1419	162974	265	**176244**
Welder	3	2341	760	424	850	1110	16550	764	**22802**
Plasterer	101	67	7	150	0	27	848	1	**1201**
Fabricator	57	1196	97	368	258	115	2229	281	**4601**
Laborer	2105	429	158	6071	1356	181	5039	21	**15360**
Helper	101	2378	207	403	35	975	1790	19	**5908**
Cook	30	4090	267	155	1446	461	8739	146	**15334**
Housemaid	21	1907	1915	61	22972	6	850	1275	**29007**
Others	36373	22030	19153	40328	105923	9684	192575	10234	**436300**
Total	**56390**	**52917**	**30402**	**74856**	**167141**	**23683**	**588374**	**19045**	**1012808**

[1] Ref. Suresh Pillai's observations at http://economictimes.indiatimes.com/news/news-by-industry/jobs/Thousands-of-jobs-await-Indians-in-Gulf-NRI-industrialist/articleshow/5759556.cms

[2] For more details on the scheme, ref http://moia.gov.in/pdf/REVISED%20scheme_of_skill_upgradation_and_pre.pdf (25 Nov 2010)

[3] http://www.thaindian.com/newsportal/business/remittances-to-kerala-rise-by-135-percent-in-five-years_100232055.html (4 Feb 2011)

[4] http://economictimes.indiatimes.com/news/economy/finance/it-rains-remittances-for-kerala-banks-as-rupee-dips/articleshow/4706572.cms (4 Feb 2011)

[5] As above
[6] http://www.thomex.com/article/resources_details.aspx?ID=R_2007060414180&catid=C_200903101421&flag=1 (4 Feb 2011
[7] Mr.G. Gurucharan was addressing at the National Stakeholder's Workshop for Prevention of Irregular Migration. More details about the news coverage can be read at http://ibnlive.in.com/news/india-has-20-million-irregular-migrantsgovt/115298-3.html?from=tn
[8] http://www.thefinancialexpress-bd.com/more.php?news_id=74259
[9] http://www.unhcr.org/cgi-bin/texis/vtx/page?page=49e4876d6
[10] The Geneva Convention (1957) and Protocol (1967) relating to the status of Refugees (UNHCR)
[11] Signed on 31 July 1950 by Chandreshwar Prasad Narain Singh (Ambassador of India in Nepal) and Mohun Shamsher Jang Bahadur Rana (Maharaja, Prime Minister and Supreme Commander-in-Chief of Nepal)
[12] Based on the research by The Nepal Living Standard Survey
[13] Naujoks (2009) further states that Nepal's 2001 census reported 584,000 persons born in India of which only 100,000 were registered as Indian citizens.
[14] The author refers to the work accomplished by Prayas, a NGO
[15] WRS (2009) further states that as per the Citizenship Act 1955, Tibetans born in India later (to 2004) can become Indian citizens only if both parents are Indians or if one is a citizen and the other is not illegal. However, WRS states very few apply for the citizenship in India.
[16] This can be one of the reasons for a delay in dialogues on granting Indian Citizenship to both the in camp and out camp Sri Lankan Tamil refugees in India

[17] Ref: http://www.hinduonnet.com/2009/07/26/stories/2009072654750500.htm. The report says "As monthly stipend, the head of the family gets Rs. 400, wife Rs. 288, the first child Rs. 288, second child Rs. 180 and the third child Rs. 90. They get ration rice at the rate of 57 paise a kg. The quota of rice is 12 kg per child above eight years and 6 kg per child below eight years, 2 kg sugar and 3 litres of kerosene for a family."

[18] India has not signed the International Convention on Refugees 1951 and the Refugee Protocol 1967. However, it provides rehabilitation benefits as temporary refugees to Tibetans who entered India up to 1959 and to children born till 1987 to them.
[19] http://www.hinduonnet.com/2009/07/26/stories/2009072654750500.htm reports of 15 women Self-Help Groups in the Pambar camp who were involved in processing papaya fruit.
[20] Ref. the PDF titled NRISPIOS-Data.pdf at http://moia.gov.in/services.aspx?ID1=300&id=m8&idp=59&mainid=23 (Website visited on 24 Nov 2010)
[21] The Gulf Cooperation Council countries include Bahrain, Kuwait, Oman, Kuwait, Saudi Arabia and the United Arab Emirates
[22] FCNR(B) is Foreign Currency Non Residential Bank account is a facility for NRIs to invest in India.
[23] http://timesofindia.indiatimes.com/nri/news/India-not-after-NRIs-money-Montek-tells-diaspora-/articleshow/7247580.cms
[24] http://www.business-standard.com/india/news/indian-passport-holders-may-get-voting-rights-by-2014-pm/382146/
[25] http://www.ibef.org/economy/fdi.aspx