CONCEPT
From the beginning of human history, people migrate from place to place for different reasons. Human migration is the movement by people from one place to another with the intentions of settling temporarily or permanently in the new location. This is often driven by economic, social and political reasons. The movement can be over long distances, even from one country to another, but internal migration is also possible; indeed, this is the dominant form worldwide.

The word migration has been derived from the Latin word *migrare*, meaning to change one's residence. The dictionary definition of the term *migration* is ‘a change of abode’ and it is used in the context of spatial mobility of living beings e.g. human, animals, birds etc. According to White and Woods (1980) migration is ‘to move from one place (country, town, or house) to another’. According to Standing (1984), ‘Human species is not a migratory species, but it is a restless one, moving as part of a process of adaptation to its social, economic cultural and ecological environment’. Gosal (1961) describes that migration cannot be considered as a mere shift of people from one place of residence to another, as it is the most fundamental to the understanding of continuously changing space-content and space relationship of an area.

According to Caplow (1954) migration is a change of residence with one occupational shifts of one kind to another. The principal directions of migration are mainly from rural areas towards the cities; from areas of stable population to the centre of urban commercial opportunities; from density settled countries, centre of cities to their suburbs. Lee (1969) considers migration as ‘a permanent or semi permanent change of residence’ with no restrictions on the distance involved in the movement. He has not explained all kinds of spatial mobility and space differentiation between place of origin and destination. Migration is a form of geographical mobility or spatial mobility between one geographical unit and another, generally involving a change in residence from the place of origin or place of departure to the place of destination or place of arrival (UNMDD quoted in Bhende & Kanitkar, 2002). This definition is the most relevant in case of permanent populations. A large number of movements are causal, such as commuting to and from the place of work, shopping, visiting, traveling for business etc. In many countries several kinds of mobility is found i.e. shifting cultivation, religious pilgrims travel, trans-humans or nomadic
pastorates, people move from their home areas to others work areas in seasonally. Such movements do not involve a sustained or a permanent change of residence and therefore it is considered different from migration. Zelinsky (1979) termed this as circulation which has been defined to cover a great variety of movements, usually short-term repetitive or cyclical character, the lack of any declared intention of a permanent or long lasting change in residence. While ‘commuting’ refers to the movement of individuals from place of residence to place of work and back either daily or weekly, the term ‘transhumance’ refers to the seasonal up-down movement of people in hills areas along with their herds.

Bouge (1959) considered migration as the change of residence that involves a complete change and readjustment of community affiliations of the individual, but he excludes the local mover who may move just across the street. Smith (1960) considered all movements of population in physical space with the intention of the change of residence or domicile. But not all types of spatial mobility are included in his definition. Excluded are the continental movements of nomads and migratory workers for whom there are no long term residence and also the temporary movements like those to the hill stations during summer (Lee, 1970). In the classical definition of migration, these types of mobility are not included. Only permanent movement in which persons move across the boundaries are known as migration whereas mobility represents movement within boundaries (Fortes, 1971). Such boundaries may be geographical, structural, ethnic, or some other division, which is recognized by the factors as setting him apart.

Migration is the ‘physical transition of an individual or a group from one society to another. This transition usually involves abandoning one social setting and entering to another and different one’ (Rubin, 1956). In his definition, Hagerstand (1957) does not consider the psychology of individuals or group making plans for a physical transition back to the former or donor society. According to Weinberg (1961), human migration is the changing of the place of abode permanently or, when temporarily, for an appreciable duration as e.g. in the case of seasonal workers. It is used symbolically in the transition from one surrounding to be another in the course of human life. Mangalam (1968) said migration is relatively permanent move from one geographical location to another preceded by decision making on the part of the migrants on the basis of a hierarchically ordered set of values. His definition
introduces the term, ‘relatively permanent’ which distinguishes migration from holiday trips, sailor’s occupation, or daily movements from sitting rooms to kitchen etc. It is difficult to distinguish between a mover and a migrant when people move from one place to another frequently not having fixed residence. Theoretically, the term migration is used for the types of residential change that involves a complete change and readjustment of the community affiliations of the individual. The migrants change neighbours, employers, friends, and many other social and economic ties in the process of changing his community of residence. On the other hand, the ‘local movers’ may simply move across the street or to a house a few blocks away and very likely he retains his job, breaks no community ties and maintains most of his informal social relationship.

Among economists, sociologists, demographers, historians and psychologists there exists greater controversies over the correct definition of migration; all disciplines define residential mobility on the basis of their own scale of studies. The geographer’s simple definition of migration is not very different from other discipline, which is a permanent or semi-permanent change of place of residence excluding spatial local mobility as discussed above.

Internal migration is the movement of population within the political boundaries of a nation which results in a change of usual place of residence (Indian Census, 2001). These boundaries can be as small as of a village or of a town as a minimum condition for demarcating the movement of internal migration. Theoretically, migration involves all types of spatial movements of population. But Geographers have adopted the pragmatic definition attaching the concepts of ‘defining boundaries and periods’ with these movements. Bogue (1959) presents the two basic concepts for defining internal migrations i.e. migration defining boundaries and migration defining period. There are some terms used in the collection and identification of internal migration data as follows:

*Internal Migration:* It includes any movement within the political boundaries of a nation which results in a change of usual place of residence. It may consist of the crossing of a village or district as a minimum condition for qualifying the movement as internal migration. Thus, the concept of internal migration involves implicitly an imposition of boundary lines which must be crossed before a movement.
Place of Origin and Destination: Place of origin is the place from which a person moves whereas place of destination refers to the place at which move terminates. Migrants are classified by the Census of India on the basis of place of birth (POB) and place of last residence (POLR).

Birth Place Migrant: Person is considered as migrant by place of birth if the place at which he/she is enumerated during the census is other than the place of his/her birth.

Last Residence Migrant: If at the time of census enumeration, a change in the usual place of residence of an individual is noted with reference to his/her previous usual residence, he/she is termed as a migrant in accordance with ‘last residence’ concept.

Migrant: Migrant is usually defined as a person who has moved from one politically defined area to another similar area. Simply a migrant is a person who moves from one administrative unit to another. It can be said that if the place of birth and place of last residence of a person is different from the place of enumeration that person is considered as a migrant.

Non- Migrants (Immobiles): People, who are seen living their entire life-time and die in the same village/town in which they were born, are defined as immobile or non-migrants. It can be said that if the place of birth and place of enumeration is same, the person is a non-migrant.

In-Migrant: In-migrants are simply those persons who enter into an area under study.

Out-Migrant: If a person moves out from the place of enumeration (village/town) to another politically defined area (village/town) for usual residence, he or she is termed as an out-migrant simply out-migrants are those who leave that area.

Intra-District Migration: Movement out from his place of usual residence or birth to another politically defined area (village/town), which is within the district of enumeration or it can be said that last residence outside the place of enumeration (POE) but within the same district.

Inter-District Migration: Movement between one district to another district or it can be said that last residence outside the district of enumeration but within the same state.

Inter-State Migration: If the place of enumeration of an individual differs from the
place of birth or last residence and these lie in two different states or it can be said that last residence in India but beyond the same state of enumeration.

**Life-time In-Migration:** It denotes the total number of persons enumerated in a given area at a particular census who were born outside the area of enumeration but within the national boundaries.

**Life-time Out-Migration:** It gives the total number of persons born in a given area but now enumerated outside the area within the national boundaries at the time of particular census.

**Migration Rate:** It is taken as the ratio of total migrants counted in the census to its total population multiplied by 100. While discussing the migration result, the term population mobility is taken as a synonym to migration rate.

The term gross migration or volume of migration refers to the sum of both arrival and departure, and net migration is the deference between in-migration and out-migration in the area under study. If the analysis is restricted to only two units connected by migration stream, the total size of both stream and counter stream is called gross interchange between the two areas and the difference as net interchange. By comparing net migration and gross migration efficiency of migration can be defined (Khan, 1983).

**Different Types of Migration**
The migration has been classified into various types on the basis of time, distance and motivation. Various scholars have also expressed their varied views concerning topology of migration which reveals that space, time, volume, direction, cause, velocity, selectivity, organization, stability, behavior etc have influenced topology of migration. On the basis of time interval migration can be divided into long and short term migration. Short term migration is seasonal i.e. labour migrations whereas long term or permanent moves of migrants from which migrant never returns. In between there are various types of return migration taking place over periods of time ranging from a few weeks to a number of months or years (White and Woods, 1980). On the basis of time interval migration has been classified as short-term and long-term migration and basis of motivation factors it has been classified as economic and social migration (Clarke, 1981).
Fairchild (1925) classified four types of migration i.e. invasion, conquest, colonization and immigration. The criteria underlying this classification were the difference in the level of culture and absence or presence of violence. Isaac subdivided the immigration process into ‘free’ and forced. Free immigration is nomadic, seasonal, temporary and permanent and forced immigration are slave, refugee, and population transfer. Peterson (1958) gives the classification based on two main criteria of conservation and innovation. His classification quoted in Sinha, 1980 is as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Relation: Man and Nature</th>
<th>State</th>
<th>Norms</th>
<th>Other Men</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Migratory Force</td>
<td>Ecological push</td>
<td>Migratory policy</td>
<td>Aspiration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Class of Migration</td>
<td>Primitive</td>
<td>Forced impelled</td>
<td>Free</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Types of Migration</td>
<td>Conservative</td>
<td>Wandering</td>
<td>Ranging displacement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Innovative</td>
<td>Flight from land</td>
<td>Slave trade</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Generally physical movement of population is divided into three major categories, i.e. emigration, migration and commuting. Emigration and migration define mainly with the changing of residence or departure from any administrative unit and entering into another area. Crossing the international boundaries is termed as emigration. Douglass (1990) has described three types of emigrants i.e. permanent emigrants, sojourns and birds of passage to incorporate different motives and destinations among emigrants. Permanent emigrants are those who do not return to their birth place whereas the sojourner emigrants leave the village for a long period of time but returns to their permanent residence before death. The emigrants may clearly identify his ultimate come back to the village and deliberately plan the length of his emigration period before leaving. The third type called the bird of passage is the individual who leads the dual life of a villager and an emigrant by flying back and forth between the village and a foreign area (Sinha, 1980).

Hagerstand (1957) has classified migration on the basis of the environment of people of origin and destination i.e. country place to/from country place, country place to/from urban agglomerations; and urban agglomerations to/from urban agglomerations. Zachariah (1964) classifies migration broadly on the basis of scale as international and internal migration. On the basis of distance of migrant population
internal migration has been subdivided into two types i.e. short distance and long
distance movement. Zachariah (1964) also categorized internal migration into inter-
district, inter-state; inter-zonal etc. He also classifies migration as: primary, secondary
and return migration. A primary migration is one in which the community of origin is
the community of birth. A secondary migration is one in which the community of
origin and destination are different from community of birth, and in return migration
the destination is the community of birth.

Whites and Woods (1980) analyse the reasons of migration to classify
‘economic migration’, ‘retirement migration’ or ‘educational migration’. Wrong
(1977) categorizes migration as voluntary and involuntary. But Davis (1965) has
emphasized on five important types of migration, i.e. conquest, displacement, forced
labour, free individual migration and controlled migration. International migration
may be defined as a permanent movement of population from their own sovereign
country to another. This type of transfer of population accounts for only a small part
of the redistribution of world population. Therefore, in broad view of international
migration must consist of forced as well as voluntarily and temporary as well as
permanent movements (Thomas, 1968).

It is common that a person wants to migrate but due to certain reasons for
instance the lack of money, guidance or the information about job opportunities in
other places, remained in his native place. These types of persons are called ‘potential
migrant’. Some people who spent some time to a new place and come back to the
native place are considered as ‘returned migrant’. The people who return to his native
place with the intention of spending holidays, or meeting friends and relatives is
called ‘visiting migrant’.

Migration Streams
Indian census classifies migration into causal, temporary, periodic, semi-permanent
and permanent on the basis of duration of residence in the community destination.
Each migration involves an origin and a destination. Over a specified time intervals
group of migrants with same origin and destination constitute a migration stream (or
current). Each stream has a counter-stream. Internal migrations are classified into four
types or streams on the basis of nature of place of origin and destination area i.e. rural
to rural, rural to urban, urban to urban and urban to rural areas.
1. Rural to Rural Migration

Rural to rural migration is a step towards more balanced population-resource relation. The main reason behind this movement is economic. Rural to rural migration is largely found in the agrarian countries. Rural populations wish to move in response to the changing patterns of employment potential of different areas. Rural migration originates from crowded areas of low agricultural productivity areas to sparsely populate of large scale developmental activity areas. Such migration may take place for longer distances and is often permanent (Chandna, 2006). In India’s rural to rural migration is dominated by the female migration mainly due to marriage (Bose, 1967).

2. Rural to Urban migration

In the less developed countries rural to urban migration that carries the rural people to the growing urban centers is more prominent. It is caused by both push factors of the increasing population pressure on land, lack of job opportunities, lack of facilities for education, unemployment, low and uncertain wages, poverty, health, recreation and services and uneconomic land holdings of the rural areas and the pull factors of urban areas with various job opportunities, industrial developments, better employment opportunities with regular and high wages, fixed working hours; better amenities of living, facilities for education, socio-economic and cultural activities etc. Over all life in urban areas tends to be more attractive and secure than rural areas. In India people from rural areas may move to cities where the rigidities of caste system are much less than the countryside. People migrate from rural to urban areas because growing empowerment, or because of the attractions of city life and better employment opportunities in urban areas (Saxena, 1977).

In countries like India large numbers of slum emerge in many cities due to this movement. The big cities in India have usually small and big scale industries that require a sizable proportion of labour from the vast reservoir of surface rural manpower. Since the cities are unable to provide even the minimum amenities of good living to these migrants, it has given rise to creation of slum conditions in parts of these cities (Chandna, 2006). However, rural-urban migration is an inevitable part of the process of development, urbanization, industrialization process because it generally transfers the agricultural occupation to industrial service ones. As industrial growth is usually concentrated in cities, new labour demands will have to be filled by geographical displacement from rural to urban areas (Hawrylyashyn, 1961). This
entails allocation of surplus labour from the low productivity, high income urban sector.

3. Urban to Urban Migration
Urban to Urban migration is the movement of population between one to another urban centre. It is more common in highly developed urbanized country than less developed countries. In developed countries most of the people reside in the urban areas largely due to economic factors. In the less developed countries big cities with large scale industries attract such migrants from other urban areas who have adequate skills for their inclusion in the big industrial centers. The smaller urban areas are filled by the subsequent in-migration from surrounding areas. Thus, in the developing countries this migration is commonly known as ‘step migration’. Different factors are responsible for determining the patterns of urban to urban migration in India. Male migration is largely due to economic reason and it can be divided into two broad categories: voluntary and involuntary. Voluntary migration can be due to distressed conditions at the place of origin, educational purpose, other economic reasons, particularly due to better opportunities for higher earnings at the destinations. Urban to urban migration for educational purpose is likely to be of those who wish to receive higher and technical education (Premi, 1987) and involuntary migration occurs when certain people belonging to a particular family change their residence along with the principal supporters for instance when the services of a particular person is transferred from one area to another.

4. Urban to Rural Migration
Compared to other types of migrations urban to rural migration is relatively less common. This type of a movement takes place in the developed countries due advanced stage of urbanization. In India such kind of migration is more common in the two types of age group people i.e. higher age 55+ group, this category is found likely due to the return of the retired personnel, from their urban place of work to the villages. Sometimes young people return back to their origin native villages from cities because they could not find suitable jobs in the city and other category of young people sometimes come back to their home after completing their education in the urban areas, although this happens to be very small among total urban to rural migrants (Premi, 1987).
Migration Differential

Migration rate is the relative frequency with which migrations take place over a specific migration interval. The difference in the rates of migration between various demographic, economic and social group is termed as differential migration. In similar environment some people have more tendencies to migrate and some people have less. There is usually a tendency for rural working age groups male populations to move to urban areas, while such male populations in urban areas move on to metropolitan cities. In a particular phase persons with certain sex, age, educational attainment would have a tendency to migrate. Migrations are selective in a particular environments for some persons than the general population is known as differential migration. The important factors which determine migration selectivity and in turn migration differentials are age, sex, marital status, educational attainment and occupation. The study of differential migration is necessary for the development of the principles of selectivity in migration.

1. Migration Differential by Age

Age-selectivity is the most accepted differential for migration dominating adolescent, young adult age group. Zachariah (1961) found that, in the Greater Bombay among the migrants, there was an excess of adolescents and young adult (Bhende, & Kanitkar, 2002). The age structure of the migrants was also found to differ from that of the general population of four places of origin, namely, Maharashtra, Gujarat, Uttar Pradesh and Bihar. Thomas (1938) also found that persons in their teens, twenties and early thirties are more migratory than other groups.

2. Migration Differential by Sex

The migration is also sex selective. The phenomenon of sex-selectivity of migrants is very complex. It is found in several studies that in developed countries the short-distance internal migration is dominated by female population while long distance internal migrants are predominantly male selective. On the other hand in developing countries both short and long-distance migrants are male selective.

3. Migration Differential by Marital Status

Many socio-economic surveys have found that a large proportion of Indian adult male migrants from rural to urban areas are married and they leave their families behind in the rural areas. About half of the female are migrated because of marriage.
4. Migration Differential by Educational Attainment

Educational attainment of migrants is important study of migration differential and it is an indicator of socio-economic status as well as their quality. Migrants to Bombay and Calcutta are less educated than non-migrants at the place of destination, but they have a considerably higher average level of educational attainment than the general population of the state from which they come (Bhende and Kanitkar, 2002). As a result of migration, the origin area loses better educated persons and the general level of educational attainment of that area deteriorates. On the other hand as the educational level of the migrants is lower as compared to the non-migrants at the place of destination, the level of educational attainment at that place also deteriorates. In addition migration is also found to be selective in respect of occupations income, caste, religion etc.

DETERMINANTS OF INTERNAL MIGRATION

Determinants of internal migration have been broadly classified as the push factors of the origin and the pull factors at the destination. Most of the push factors are due to economic and social reasons i.e. lesser employment opportunities, low level of productivity, excessive pressure on land, family conflicts, search for jobs, lesser rural incomes, marriage or accompanying parent or partner and natural calamities (Singh, 1974). On the other hand the pull factors at the destination are identified as pursuing higher studies, better educational, medical and health facilities, political factors and social security, infrastructural facilities and public services (Sensarma, 1997), opportunities for employment and business, life style of the city, modern amenities, recreational facilities and better social status (Singh, 1974). Not only economic conditions and motivation influence the decision to migrate but also there are social, demographic, political, geographical, psychological and institutional factors. Above all the important reason which motivates an individual to leave his/her home town and migrate to a new place is to achieve maximum individual satisfaction which indirectly depends upon economic and social factors. The maximum indirect satisfaction is not achieved immediately by migrating from one place to another but by continuous and productive actions of the migrants (Santhapparaj, 1996).

1. Economic Determinants

Economic determinants are the most important determinants among all factors of
migration. Larger proportions of migrants are originated from economically deprived region to higher economic prosperous region. Generally some regions are always expected to increase the growing diversification of economy, industrialization, urbanization, increasing commercial activities and means of irrigation etc. The availability of fertile arable good quality cultivable agricultural land is most attractive factor to receive internal migrants from rural-rural migrations. The Tarai in Uttar Pradesh, Dandakaranya in Madhya Pradesh and northern part of Rajasthan in India such kinds of examples are found (Chandna and Sidhu, 1980).

On the other hand, out-migration generally occurs where population pressure is more than the agricultural resources. In some countries typical laws of inheritance of land play important role in internal migration e.g. in joint family system fragmentation of land is not allowed therefore often adults are pushed to migrate to the urban centres to support their family dependents. On the other hand in some countries sub-division of land properties are permitted. But this causes the size of land holdings to be very small on which no scientific technology for cultivation can be used. This in turn may also push the people to migrate to other areas. Therefore, the size of land holding is another determinant factor of migration. Mechanization of agriculture usually reduces the demand of the agricultural labours. As a result many jobless labours migrate to the places with lots of job opportunities. Poor farmers often migrate to other areas where cheap lands or employment opportunities are available.

Fluctuation in business cycle, retirement in services, loss of employment, exhaustion of minerals, low productivity, discovery of new minerals also stimulate the stream of internal migration. There are some attractive forces such as better employment opportunities in factories, high income and wage rate, shops, offices, public services, advanced educational opportunities, city lifestyles, high improved standard of life living, medical services and many other facilities which are not available in the villages that pull the rural villagers to urban areas for permanent settlement (Clarke, 1966).

2. Demographic Determinants
The role of demographic factors is one of the important factors in governing migration pattern. The biological determinants i.e. birth and death rates play a positive influence on migration. Age has been recognized as one of the important demographic factors
controlling the degree of desire to move among the potential migrants. The population pressures, relationship between human and physical resources of an area are important demographic factors behind different kind of population movement.

3. Social Determinants
Marriage migration is the most important social determinants where brides move to their respective husband's home. More than seventeenth per cent of the inter-district migrations in India are marriage motivated (Davis, 1951). Zachariah (1964) points out that most of the rural-rural short-distance female migrations are caused by marriage. The social factors such as the cultural contact, availability of information, to desire social uplift, educational facilities, and governmental policies regulate the volume and direction of migration as well as stimulate the chain of migration. In some countries government policies may encourage or discourage the movement of population due to some social or political considerations. For example, Indian constitution under article 19(i) it has been provided that every Indian citizen has the fundamental right to reside and settle in any part of territory of India. But in Assam and Jammu Kashmir some restrictions have been imposed on permanent settlement due to some social and political interests. The other social factors like disputed family life, untouchability, feeling of negligible caste problem and religious conflicts force the villagers to migrate to other areas for peace and safety of their life.

4. Political Determinants
Now-a-days political factor are becoming more important for migration and it started especially after Second World War. Fears of wars, inflation, racial or regional discrimination compel the people to move to another country in search of peaceful living conditions. Political refugees is a worldwide phenomenon today. Government policies of any place are the important factors which stimulate the migration.

5. Geographical Determinants
In past time geographical determinants such as volcanic eruptions, earth quake, floods, drought, epidemics and famines played an important role in stimulating migration currents, but with the development of science and technology the effect of these physical factors are becoming less. The other factors like distance, size of the country, climate, mountain barriers, and river course may also influence the volume as well as course of internal migration.
SOCIO-ECONOMIC IMPLICATIONS OF MIGRATION

The migration process has the effect on both the origin as well as destination. The area from which the people move out, the area to which the people move in and the migrants themselves are changed considerably during the process of migration. Movement of people is an expression towards the achievement of a balanced relationship between the people and the resources of an area. Migration is a significant human action and demographic instrument for regulating and minimizing disequilibrium between population and resource distribution as well as maintaining a demographic, socioeconomic, cultural and political balance among diverse communities in a country. The process of migration causes the mixing of people who have varying effects on people’s society, culture, economy, demography politics and environment.

Migration of people from one area to another changes the size of both populations, other things being equal. The rate of migration relative to the population size at the origin and destination affects the socioeconomic institutions of both communities. Economic production, consumption patterns, labour markets, household and family networks, political power, another aspects of social, political and economic organizations which are related to population size will be affected by migration (Goldscheider, 1984).

Migration is a specific type of arrangement for making the maximum use of special qualifications of individuals. The special abilities of a particular person are beneficial to the nation only at certain sites, and the persons who posses or acquire special abilities are not necessarily born or educated at the site or area where their particular talents are needed. The migration vehicle carries these specialized and brilliant persons to the communities or areas where their services can be used more effectively (Bogue, 1959).

Migration may also create many social, cultural, economic and political problems in some region of a country. In fact, it is imperative for the study of the population problems to take full cognizance of the problems posed by migration. If the problem of human fertility were not so crucial and serious at the present time, it is almost certain that human migration and the plight of migrants particularly in the third
world countries would be listed as a top priority problem for research and action (Bogue, 1959).

The movement of people around the world has an impact at many different scales and on many aspects of human activity. Migration is not just a creator of diversity, it is also a response to diversity itself or, at least, to individuals’ perception of that diversity. Consequently, migration systems often tend to operate as self fulfilling process whereby once migration started further population movement becomes almost inevitable for a variety of structural reasons relating to the societies affected and individual reason relating to the migrants. Many migrations can be regarded not just as particularistic ‘event’ but, in a larger context as ‘structure’ themselves as continuous phenomena which are embedded in the social and economic framework of human organization. Migration as a ‘structure’ is both an ‘effect’ of patterns of human diversity and a ‘cause’ of further diversity in the future. The full study of migration must inevitably takes into account it's long time scale within which a migration structure develops and has its repercussions (Quoted in Ahmad, 2008).

To the geographer the most interesting but basic impact of migration is the transformation in certain spatial patterns brought about by the population movement in origin and destination. Migration not only changes the spatial patterns of the population distribution but also various attributes of that population for instance age, sex, occupation, social attributes and the spatial manifestations of social class, and patterns of attitude and political affiliation. All types of migration currents may be considered as having effects in the five specific contexts. (i) tremendous effect on migrant himself in changing his way of life, knowledge and experience of other places as well as his attitudes and beliefs (ii) the effect on the community or area that the migrants leave (iii) effect on the community that the migrant goes to (iv) effect on the intervening space through which the migration takes place (v) migration occurs within a given structural context and can affect that structure in different ways which may, in certain cases, lead to the perpetuation of migration as a structure itself (White & Woods, 1980 ). However, consequences of migration may be concerned with the analysis of areas especially affected by out or in migration or may deal systematically with different types of consequences i.e. economic, demographic, social, political (Kosinski and Prothero, 1975). The effects of migration change in space and time.
1. Economic Effects

The internal migration may be regarded as a demographic device to minimize and retard economic disequilibrium among different regions of a country although it may have ill effects also. It levels the wages, diminishes unemployment and increases per capita income and wealth. Migration generally enables the movers to improve economic status by getting better jobs. But in case of involuntary migration the effect is reverse. Because when migrants are forced to leave their places of origin due to political and social reasons they lose their belongings and have restart their pursuits. The lack of labour force due to migration the place of origin may have significant changes in agriculture, industries and occupational structure of people. On the other hand, the place of destination solves its labour problem, increases industrial production, accumulates wealth by the investment of migrant labour force and hence experiences multidimensional progress.

The effect of migration is also felt in the intervening areas where transport facilities increase, employment structure changes and growth centres develop (Sinha and Ataullah, 1987). As migrants move in large number from rural to urban areas, the economic set up of rural and urban economy gets modified and a balanced relationship between the people and resources of the two regions is tried to be achieved (Shah, 1998). So migration equalizes economic opportunities. Some place with availability of employment but lack of man power gets migrants from some other regions with reversed situation and hence both places are benefited to maximize the development. Migration brings adjustment in demand and supply and assists the creation of national capital. As a result balanced economic growth takes place (Sinha and Ataullah, 1987). The main economic consequences of internal migration are describe below:

Effect on Rural Areas

If the migrant is unemployed prior to leaving the village, the unemployment rate at the origin may fall. But if the migrant is a student or not in the labour force, there would be no observable change in unemployment levels. Similarly, changes in per capita income or productivity level depend on the contributions of the migrants before and after moving and on the household’s immediate or long term responses to migration. The optimistic views that a rural out-migration leads to agricultural expansion is due to two reasons. Firstly a declining labour/land ratio provides a new
environment conducive to changing rural production technique. The pressure of man on land increases when people of certain area increases due to regional migration and people are compelled to expand agricultural land. When this expansion is not possible, people are forced to adopt intensive cultivation and produce several crops in the same piece of land. Intensive cultivation and multiple cropping lead to the increase in the production of crops (Ahmad, 2008). Secondly, the development of agriculture in turn increases the demand of labour. The reduced supply of labour is also likely to push up agricultural wage rates and stimulates the adoption of labour-saving technology. Remittances from urban areas are likely to transform the economy of the origin areas, to raise rural per capita incomes, and may not only increase levels of consumption, but also encourage technological changes that further raises rural income.

Oberai and Singh (1980) in a study of internal migration in Ludhiana district of Punjab found that a substantial flow of remittances from migrants helps the out-migrant farming households in rural areas to acquire and adopt new agricultural techniques, agricultural implements, chemical fertilizers, and high yielding varieties of seeds. This improves overall agricultural productivity. Studies show that remittances can constitute a fairly large share of the income of the family in the migrant’s place of origin. The net effect of remittances on the rural economy is difficult to determine. They may add to productive investment for the development and diversification of agriculture or non-agriculture activities in the rural areas, or be spent on housing and education, or be used to relieve the poverty of those who remain behind. On the other hand, remittances may even erode work habits since these increase resources without the need for any effort on the part of recipient, thus reducing the pressure of economic and social changes. A number of studies show that a small amount of remitted money is used directly as investment in agriculture. But Sinha and Zacharia (1984) find that a major portion of remittances is consumed in every day household needs or in conspicuous consumption whereas the investment in agriculture is not evident.

The rural out-migrants who return to the origin with their savings, knowledge, experience and new ideas are also likely to work as a financial and intellectual boon for the rural areas and communities. Their savings are not only a valuable addition to
the local output but also increase the agricultural productivity and per capita income. But the effect of return migration mostly depends on the type of migrants who returns. For example, if the return migrants are those who return after retirement in old ages, in sickness, or due to their failure to get job, they would only increase the demand of urban consumption goods which would lead to a substantial outflow of rural income and would be least productive. The out-migration of redundant labourers from rural areas to other centres where wage rates are high and employment opportunities are better, does solve the unemployment problem to enrich living standard of rural communities in a country. In addition, it may also change the occupation composition of economically active population both at the area of origin and destination.

On the other hand many observers have argued that rural-urban migration may lead of the lowering of rural incomes. This is because of the movement of the young, better educated and the ambitious migrants involves a sizable transfer of human capital out of the rural sector which might adversely affect agricultural productivity and incomes, and thus encourage more migration (Hawthway, 1964). Besides, rural communities may have surplus labour when considered on an annual basis but out-migration may result a shortage of labor at times of peak labour demand which in turn is likely to reduce the total agricultural output.

However, it may be concluded that in the long run, rural out-migration can reduce population pressure and enhance labour productivity, incomes and rural welfare. But in the short run sometimes incomes and productivity of the rural areas have been failed to rise, and in some instances they have fallen.

Effect on Urban Areas
It is difficult to determine clearly whether migration worsens or improve unemployment and income level in the urban centres. Rural-urban migration affects the situation of unemployment and wage rates in urban areas but it depends upon the supply and demand of urban labour market. Rural-urban migration increases the supply of labour than the demand in urban areas; it may increase unemployment and may also lower the wage rates. On the contrary, this may not occur if the demand of labour also increases in proportion of supply of migrant workers and the wage rates are not allowed to fall because of the strict rules of labour trade unions or state legislation. The increased supply of labour may stimulate the investments which in
turn bring about a higher rate of industrialization. The consumption patterns of migrants may be oriented towards ‘basic needs’ goods and services produced by relatively labour intensive technologies.

According to Rodgers (2004), the impact of migration on urban income distribution will depend on the relative properties of different groups of migrants to enter the various segments of urban labour market as well as on their mobility potential among these agreements. If the majority of migrants enter low-status, low-income jobs, the direct and immediate effect of their migration would be the worsening of the overall distribution of urban income. The rural migrants, who are driven out due to poverty and unemployment at the origin, are mostly engaged in low income jobs and services. The arrival of such poor rural migrants widens the gap between poor and wealthy people and brings inequality in the urban income distribution.

Oberai and Singh (1980) point out that heavy influx of migrants into cities increases the demand for infrastructural facilities and social services such as school and hospitals, transport and communication, water, drainage and electricity provision, and other cultural and recreational facilities. Most of the cities are unable to meet the growing demands for these services and amenities due to their limited means. In our country we can very easily observe that nearly in all big cities for instance, Bombay, Calcutta, Madras as well as some medium size and small size cities, thousands of rural poverty stricken migrants live, sleep and die on footpaths.

2. Social and Cultural Effects

In different communities and regions internal migration may create social and cultural changes. When migrants enter a new different social and cultural community, in the case of both voluntary and involuntary migration, they as well as the community try to adjust themselves. If the social and cultural norms at the destination are quite similar to those of the origin area, they do not create any serious changes of adjustment at the new community. On the other hand if they find themselves transplanted into a new social environment much different from their original one, the adjustments are not simple and easy as in the previous case. They may often get involved in or may even generate conflicts and strains of different styles such as religions, linguistic, racial and political. These strains ultimately lead to increase in
the incidence of different social crimes; lack of statistical data pertaining to such crimes in India does not permit detailed quantitative assessment with high precision. However, Migration frequently is a major symptom of basic social change (Bogue, 1959) by general observations. Some immoral practices such as casteism, communalism, untouchability are more common among illiterate rural migrants in comparison to native city dwellers.

The treatment and wages of labour migrants at the destination can really be bad. For example, the agriculture labour migrants from Bihar are generally treated as slaves and are paid lower wages than those normally paid to the non-migrant home workers in Punjab, Haryana and Western Uttar Pradesh as well as in some other parts of our country. These migrants are usually recruited for doing works in agriculture farms, and they agree to be so recruited due to the fear of strong competition from native farmers and their own poverty, unemployment and illiteracy.

Migration is positively selective with respect to education; especially most of the rural-urban migrants possess higher educational qualifications than general rural population (Oberai and Singh, 1983). As discussed above, this type of rural out-migration stream may be effective for urban areas, but rural areas lose the ‘better educated’ and more dynamic persons, and leaving behind the dispatching communities as a fish out of water. As a result the socioeconomic development of such rural areas may be adversely affected (Smith, 1974).

Migration is also considered as an instrument of cultural diffusion, social and communal integration (Bogue, 1969). Because such migration streams brings some good norms to the receiving community. The migrant group and the receiving community are adjusted to each other by a slow process of assimilation and absorption, which mostly takes a generation or more. In the process, the civilization gets enriched due to many contributions from various kinds of folks, and a new type of culture springs up in the receiving community. The resulting cultural diffusion may retard the feelings of regionalism, casteism and communalism.

3. Demographic Effects
Internal migration may not increase the number of the population of a country as a whole, but it profoundly affects the regional pattern of population size, distribution, growth and its demographic attributes such as age and sex composition. Generally
people move from the densely populated region to the sparsely populated regions. This minimizes uneven distribution of population. It changes the distribution, growth, age, sex, literacy, occupation, fertility and mortality of people. The redistribution of population due to internal migration influences the relationship between population and resources. It may be beneficial for a country if it brings population-resources equilibrium by minimizing the gap between resource potential and population density among different regions. Otherwise the migrants will be treated as burden upon its resources at the destination.

Internal migration affects the natural growth rate of population in the areas from where young married couples migrate at the peak of their child bearing years. Migration also decreases the rate of fertility at the origin since it separates couples and reduces the birth rate (Sinha and Ataullah, 1987). However, where whole families are involved, the influx of people in reproductive age groups contributes to an increase in birth rates at the destination. Newcomers do not adopted urban family patterns immediately, and high fertility exists among them for some time. So migration promotes further increase in population and produces population pressure in the destination areas (Kosinski and Prothero, 1970). However, relatively low urban fertility is compensated by the migrants with larger proportions of childbearing youths. Correspondingly, the rural population, although it may continue to have a higher level of fertility, has its natural increase reduced by the out-migration of young adults (Hollmann, 1977). In this case crude birth rates may drop in the areas of origin of migrants and may rise in the areas of destination due to redistribution of a significantly large sector of the reproductively active population. Migration affects the mortality rate. Most of the migrants are usually adult. When they move out from any region leaving behind their families, the proportion of children and old people is increased in the donor society. As the mortality rate is high in age-groups of children and olds, the origin areas get mortality rate. As such host society experiences a decreased rate of growth of population due to high mortality.

Sex selectivity is a well known principle of migration. Though the sex selectivity of internal migration does not follow any pattern yet generally it is accepted that males are more to migrate than females. However, in developing countries and traditional societies internal migration (especially rural to urban) is highly male selective. It tends to make the population of destination more masculine.
and of origin more feminine. In this regard a typical example may be taken of the area of Johannesburg, where the number of females per 100 males is only 17 in 15-45 age group (Clarke, 1966). In fact, this male selectivity of migration may become a cause of demoralization both at the place of origin and destination due to imbalance in sex ratio.

Literacy and level of education are also influenced by internal migration. The movement of literate person increases literacy at destination society with subsequent decrease at the origin area. Most of the cases long distance migration involves educated and skilled persons. This raises the level of education in the destination areas. Religious composition is also changed due to migration. At the time of partition of India, transfer of Hindus and Muslims also brought considerable changes in religious composition.
References


