CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

CONCEPT AND SCOPE OF DIASPORA

Meaning and Scope of Diaspora -

The word Diaspora is originated from two Greek words dia-meaning through, speiro- meaning scattered. In Greek it means ‘to disperse’ and is based on a translation of the Hebrew word, Galut. It means movement of people from one place to another, whereby they shift their residence and in the Ancient Greece, the word referred to migration and colonization. Diaspora was originally used for Jewish people ousted from their homeland Israel and settled in all over world.

In Hebrew, “the term initially referred to the setting of colonies of Jews outside Palestine after the Babylonian exile and has assumed a more General connotation of people settled away from their ancestral homelands” (Shuval, 2003).

Human civilization is outsized densely inhabited cluster which possesses definite territory, culture and sovereignty. Society is studied generally in terms of member people residing in it. But, during recent time, a new trend of studying society in terms of native people residing presently in foreign country has developed. This trend is called as Diasporic Studies.

Diaspora is a multifaceted social phenomenon which has attracted the attention of Social Scientists, Government, NGOs and policy makers. Research in the field of Diaspora particularly in Indian studied only after independence and got momentum with globalization process. The word Diaspora is analyzed in terms of immigration of people to foreign lands. Many studies on Indian Diaspora have focused on migrant or indentured laborers to various countries. The diasporic study incorporates aspects of identity, culture, conflicts, multiculturalism, power,
ethnicity etc. These include emigration to and settlement in foreign countries, their socio-economic profile, position in host and home countries, organization of socio-cultural life in host country, problem of socio-cultural adjustment and preservation of separate socio-cultural identity, relation with home country and impact on home country in terms of bringing of socio-economic development and changes.

In recent years, the notion of Diaspora has moved from religious, migration and cultural studies to the policy realm as well. Diasporas have come to be seen as central in relation to a range of issues, from struggles for political recognition of nation states over identity politics to transnational mobilization of development and reconstruction projects. Migrants’ contributions to development in terms of remittances, investment and democratization are also receiving growing attention.

Concept of Diaspora – In social sciences, the word diaspora is new. Before the 80’s, there are only few quotations of this concept. It was due to the fact, as Judith Shuval (2002) underlined, that “before the 1960’s, immigrant groups were generally expected to shed their ethnic identity and assimilate to local norms. Groups that were thought unable to do this weren’t admitted, eg. Chinese to Canada, non-Whites to Australia”.

During the 70’s, when assimilation theory and other theories based on the same meaning of integration models demonstrated their fallibility, the notion of Diaspora occurred progressively to describe migrants groups: migrants maintaining their ethnic tradition, a strong feeling of collectiveness (Bruneau, 1995; Dorai et al., 1998; Shuval, 2003). So, it is only during the 80’s that the concept of Diaspora has known a period of expansion. But, quickly, some authors as such Alain Medam (1993) or James Clifford (1994) expressed their disinterest in the concept because in more and more researches the concept was quoted just for to describe phenomena characterized only by the dispersion of a population originated from one nation-state in several “host countries.” and these authors called for more theorization.

The key question for the Academics was to explore the notion of diaspora to find those specific elements that explained the need to refer to this notion rather than any other concepts of social
sciences. To summarize this period, the question was: does there exist a “disposition,” such a specific spatial and social organization that characterizes and differentiates the migrant groups, described under this denomination of Diaspora, from the other social and spatial “disposition,” produced by the other migrants groups and studied before.

The concept of ‘Diaspora’ is quite broad in that different disciplines tend to use it to mean different things. For example, Sociologists and anthropologists sometimes use it to describe communities that possess certain ethnic characteristics regardless of whether these groups maintain any kind of relationship with their former homeland.

Basic reason for lighting the sociologist’s interest in study of Diaspora and its emergence as the important subject title of sociology is its nature of influencing changes and adjustments in socio-cultural and economic life of migrant and its family left behind. International migration leaves an impact, which may be direct or indirect, on everybody in the concerned family. The movement of people across the international boarders has multiple impacts such as: demographic, economic and social in both countries of the origin and destination. Moreover it influences the lives of people in areas as diverse as the rural regions of developing countries and great metropolises of the industrialized countries.

**Academic Definitions of Diaspora**

1. The *International Organization for Migration* provides a broad definition of diasporas as “members of ethnic and national communities, who have left, but maintain links with, their homelands. The term ‘diasporas’ conveys the idea of transnational populations, living in one place, while still maintaining relations with their homelands, being both ‘here’ and ‘there.’”

2. *Cho* expands upon this definition by noting that “diaspora brings together communities which are not quite nation, not quite race, not quite religion, not quite homesickness, yet they still have something to do with nation, race, religion, longings for homes which may not exist. There are collectivities and communities which extend across geographical spaces and historical
experiences. There are vast numbers of people who exist in one place and yet feel intimately related to another.”

3. Safran purports that the defining characteristics of diaspora are that:

   a. they, or their ancestors, have been dispersed from a specific original ‘center’ to two or more ‘ peripheral’, or foreign, regions;
   b. they retain a collective memory, vision, or myth about their original homeland – its physical location, history, and achievements;
   c. they believe that they are not – and perhaps cannot be – fully accepted by their host society and therefore feel partly alienated and insulated from it;
   d. they regard their ancestral homeland as their true, ideal home and as the place to which they or their descendants would (or should) eventually return – when conditions are appropriate;
   e. they believe that they should, collectively, be committed to the maintenance or restoration of their original homeland and to its safety and prosperity; and
   f. they continue to relate, personally or vicariously, to that homeland in one way or another, and their ethno communal consciousness and solidarity are importantly defined by the existence of such a relationship.

4. Cohen has also formulated five different categories of Diaspora: victim, labour, trade, imperial (which may be considered a form of trade Diaspora), and cultural (not indigenous to the area from which they dispersed, i.e., Caribbean) diasporas.

5. Sheffer suggests that “modern Diasporas are ethnic minority groups of migrant origins residing and acting in host countries but maintaining strong links with their countries of origin – their homelands.”

6. Docker defines Diaspora as “a sense of belonging to more than one history, to more than one time and place, to more than one past and future.”
While it is important to define what it is meant by Diaspora, it is equally important not to get caught up in unnecessary semantics when designing a Diaspora strategy. Perhaps the best way to define a Diaspora for the purposes of designing Diaspora strategies is to segment the Diaspora. In the beginning, the term Diaspora was used by the Ancient Greeks to refer to citizens of a grand city who migrated to a conquered land with the purpose of colonization to assimilate the territory into the empire.

The original meaning was cut off from the present meaning when the Old Testament was translated to Greek, the word Diaspora was used to refer specifically to the populations of Jews exiled from Judea in 586 BC by the Babylonians, and Jerusalem in 136 AD by the Roman Empire. This term is used interchangeably to refer to the historical movements of the dispersed ethnic population of Israel, the cultural development of that population, or the population itself.

The probable origin of the word is the Septuagint version of Deuteronomy 28:25, "thou shalt be a Diaspora (Greek for dispersion) in all kingdoms of the earth". The term has been used in its modern sense since the late twentieth century.

The academic field of Diaspora studies was established in the late twentieth century, in regard to the expanded meaning of 'Diaspora'. Since 1960s the word Diaspora has come to represent various kinds of population movement and the condition of such displaced people in dispersed state.

**Elements relates to defining Diaspora –**

**Time:** When does a ‘migrant’ cease to be one and become part of the ‘Diaspora’? Given the increase in circular migration it is difficult to limit today the notion of Diasporas to those who are settled “forever” in a country other from where they were born. The modern notion of ‘Diasporas’ has lost its dimension of irreversibility and of exile. Migrants go to work abroad, sometimes under specific government schemes, decide to stay longer, to return and to leave again. It appears that countries supporting temporary labour migration are also concerned with
Diaspora contributions, such as the Philippines, Bangladesh, Ukraine, Kenya, Ethiopia or Uganda.

**Place of birth:** Second and third-generation migrants born to immigrant parents abroad can have a stronger feeling of belonging to the Diasporas than first generations and retain some form of commitment to, and/or interest in, the country of origin of their parents. Thus place of birth does not itself define belonging to a Diaspora.

**Citizenship:** Many nationals acquired the citizenship of their host country. Their contributions therefore would not be included in “migrant workers”’ remittance flows, for instance, whereas they may well be interested in investing in different ways in their home country. Thus, we do not qualify Diaspora according to their citizenship.

**Identity and belonging:** Butler’s definition of Diaspora draws attention to the intangible dimension of the term. Being part of a diaspora implies a sense of identification with a group, or the feeling of belonging to a certain identity. Families play a role in supporting or rejecting this identification, as do legal norms (citizenship for second generations), educational programs and the possibility to travel. Ministries for expatriates, as well as consulates and embassies are beginning to pay more attention to the ‘feeling of belonging’ and to the non-material dimension of engaging with diasporas. However, if symbolic inclusion matters, it needs to be translated into actual inclusion (legislative and institutional realities).

**DIASPORA NETWORK: MEANING AND IMPORATANCE**

The term ‘Diaspora’ originally described the emigration of Greeks to colonies and assimilates a recently conquered territory. Diaspora later referred to the scattering of an ethnic people from their homeland, apparently first applied to the dispersion of the ancient Jews from Palestine after the Babylonian captivity. In today’s parlance, diaspora broadly refer to ethnic groups that are both living outside of their traditional homelands and living as minorities in their current nations.
The term is now applied to the internationally distributed communities of many ethnicities – Chinese, Indian, Korean, and so on. A central feature of these overseas ethnic communities is their retained affinity for both their native lands and members of their ethnic group living in other countries. While adapting to their local environment, diasporas often retain elements of the language, religion, food, family structures and other cultural elements of their homelands. While these deep psychological and sociological bonds are important in many ways – including their often profound effects on the political and social climates of their home countries – this describes the central role diaspora bonds play in global business, particularly global entrepreneurship.

The long history of DNs in global business includes Phoenician trading networks distributed throughout the ancient Mediterranean, fifteenth-century Chinese business outposts in Southeast Asia, and the origin of international finance through diaspora-based banking networks spanning sixteenth-century Europe. As we will see, DNs remain important today as before.

DNs arise due to several factors. As the early use of the term diaspora in the ancient Jewish context suggests, most of the early large-scale ethnic migrations were due to crises such as war or oppression. Unfortunately, we still see examples of this today. Several hundred thousand ethnic Albanians fled the former Yugoslavia during the Kosovo crisis at the turn of the century. Many of these went to neighbouring European countries such as Austria, Germany, Italy and Switzerland; others fled further to the Nordic countries or to the US, Canada and Australia. Two other historical causes of DNs are post-colonial migration and family reunification efforts. More recent history has witnessed the formation or strengthening of DNs due to the voluntary international migration of workers. While much of the globalization discussion focuses on international capital flows or trade, these cross-border flows of labour are no less important. Wage differentials across countries prompt some workers to move from regions with relative labour surpluses to those with relative labour shortages. These international compensation differentials are not necessarily uniform across occupations or skill levels but instead depend upon the economic conditions of countries. For example, the relatively large information, communications and technology (ICT) sectors in the US are constantly recruiting high-quality foreign workers to fill vacancies. Low-skilled migration across Europe, mostly from Eastern Europe to Western Europe, is an important feature
of current European economic and political integration. The economic and business impact of diasporas for receiving countries can be substantial. The disproportionate influence of immigrant scientists and engineers for US technology development, for example, is staggering. While foreign-born people account for a little over one-tenth of the US working population, immigrants comprise almost half of the US PhD’s in science and engineering.

Just looking within the PhD sector, these immigrants have made an exceptional contribution to US science and innovation as measured by Nobel Prizes, election to the National Academy of Sciences, citation counts, and so on. Immigrants also play an important role in commercializing new technologies, with a substantial share of Silicon Valley’s ICT CEOs being of Indian origin. Distributed ethnic communities in low-skilled occupations are economically significant too. Moreover, immigrant entrepreneurs tend to cluster in selected industries, a process that increases their business impact for specific sectors. Examples within the US are Korean entrepreneurs in dry cleaning, Vietnamese in nail salons, Gujarati Indians in traveler accommodations, Punjabi Indians in gas stations, Greeks in restaurants, and so on. The higher natural social interactions among these ethnic groups aid in the acquisition and transfer of sector-specific skills. Scale economies lead to occupational clustering by minority ethnic groups.

The openness of receiving countries to both low-skilled and high-skilled migration can ebb and flow, as the current US policy debates regarding Mexican immigration and temporary guest worker visas attest. With the downturn of the high-tech sector after 2000 and national security concerns following 9/11, the US substantially reduced the number of H-1B visas issued to high-skilled, temporary workers. The appropriate quota for these visas is still hotly debated. Bill Gates and other ICT industry executives have testified before Congress that the H-1B quota must be increased for the US high-tech sector to remain competitive and grow.

Domestic ICT labour groups protest, however, that the firms are only trying to reduce their labour costs by increasing the supply of foreign programmers willing to work for lower wages. The broad impact of this high-skilled migration for sending countries is also debated. Advocates of the ‘brain drain’ perspective believe substantial losses occur when the best and brightest leave developing countries to work abroad: the immediate loss of professionals such as doctors and
engineers, the associated reduction in jobs for complementary unskilled labour, and longer-term impacts like fewer role models in society for the next generation. For some African countries, half of their nationals with university degrees live abroad.

On the other hand, ‘brain gain’ advocates stress the important contributions of DNs in transferring financial, technical and similar resources from advanced economies to their home countries. Some go further to argue that this unique transfer through DNs offers a way for developing countries to ‘leapfrog’ traditional development stages. On a more mundane level, financial flows from these overseas migrants through DNs – termed remittances – now exceed foreign aid for many developing countries. The Philippines places young workers, often in nursing or domestic help occupations, in foreign countries as a development strategy.

A third and most recent variant, ‘brain circulation’, stresses the need for active labour movements within the DNs between the origin and destination countries for realizing the brain gain benefits. In truth, which of these models holds depends on the specifics of each country and the nature of its DN. We now turn to the practical question of how entrepreneurs can utilize their DN to establish global ventures. In many respects, these international entrepreneurs represent the brain gain or brain circulation models at their best. They offer the hope of bringing the best resources of advanced economies to developing or emerging economies through entrepreneurship and DNs.

Why are Diaspora Networks so important?

All relationship networks can be useful for conducting business (e.g. professional associations, technical working groups and university alumni clubs). DNs are particularly advantageous for global entrepreneurs, however, due to their inherently international footprint and the wide range of global resources they can potentially make available to entrepreneurs. The external needs of each new venture vary greatly, and so will the manner in which its founders tap their DNs.

A condensed list of the potential resources DNs provide includes:

**Local information:** The many requirements for operating successfully in new environments include an understanding of local tastes and spending habits, business culture, local regulations, government procedures, and so on. DNs can greatly aid the accurate and efficient collection and
assimilation of this knowledge. Whereas such knowledge is vital for advanced economies such as the US, Europe or Japan, it is enormously essential for working in developing or emerging economies in which knowledge is more implicit. The business plans for many global start-ups suggest combining the best of multiple countries – R&D in Israel or Scandinavia; manufacturing in China or Mexico; product distribution and sales in the US, Europe or Asia. While perfect in design, few ventures are able to navigate multiple local terrains successfully; the guanxi of China, for example, are often keys to success. DNs can be instrumental in helping global entrepreneurs optimize resources locally and globally, including human resources.

**Human resources:** Many start-ups struggle with both the completion of the founding team and the hiring of early employees once the enterprise is under way. One of the advantages of working with a top-tier venture capital firm, for example, is its assistance in completing organizational gaps. Assembling human resources is an even greater challenge when the new venture is distributed across multiple countries. Qualified candidates are harder to find, common languages are necessary, and human resource search firms are still developing their international capabilities. By their nature, the internal labour market of DNs extends across borders in ways that traditional employment sourcing groups do not. Moreover, teams extending across multiple nations and multiple ethnicities can struggle with communication and trust. Geographical distance exacerbates common start-up frustrations such as founder-CEO leadership succession, the migration of founding teams to specialized roles and responsibilities, and so on. Common ethnic bonds can ameliorate some of these early problems. DNs are very valuable for recruiting these needed team members for global start-ups.

**Technology access:** Recent research stresses the importance of ethnic scientific communities in frontier countries for conveying new technologies to their home countries. In surveys of Silicon Valley, 82% of Chinese and Indian immigrant scientists and engineers report exchanging technical information with their respective nations, and 18% further invest in business partnerships. While these exceptional contributions emanating from Silicon Valley do not extend immediately to all industries or ethnic groups, broader empirical studies demonstrate that technology diffusion through DNs is a widespread phenomenon. DNs are a critical source for technical information when developing advanced products or operating within industries
characterized by fast product cycles and global supply chains. Even when blueprints, standards, source code, and so on are widely disseminated, the tacit or practical knowledge about how new innovations work is very hard to acquire abroad. Yet, highly codified Components often have low margins and fierce competition, while higher profits characterize more tacit products that are less subject to commoditization. This concern extends to the direction industries are moving, as high-tech start-ups must ensure that their innovations integrate into the path the industry is taking. Lester and Piore describe how a Japanese communications equipment manufacturer withdrew from the US market after being excluded from standards hearings held by the Federal Communications Commission (FCC) despite the FCC publishing the transcripts of its sessions. The Japanese vendor felt it would not understand adequately the unspoken or implicit decisions being made. DNs aid the transmission of this tacit knowledge.

**Funding access:** US venture capitalists have historically sought to invest in companies within their immediate geographic region, often less than a one hour drive, a plane ride or a 50-mile distance from their office. The risky nature of entrepreneurial investments, along with the need for frequent on-site monitoring and advice, weighed heavily against long-distance relationships. As venture capitalists have become increasingly attracted to foreign opportunities such as those in China, India and Eastern Europe, they have relied in part on DNs to facilitate these opportunities. Although there are noteworthy exceptions, the initial entry by a venture capitalist firm into a foreign country is often preceded by the hiring of an expatriate from the target country who assists in the creation of its overseas portfolio. Far beyond simple language skills, this expatriate offers a deeper perspective on overseas opportunities, performs a better due diligence on the founding team members, and helps to navigate local laws and bureaucracies. Even if the firm then decides to open a physical office abroad, retaining members of the DN in the US offices aids communication within the firm. The flip side is also true. Entrepreneurs abroad often tap their DNs for introductions to foreign investors, and venture capitalists increasingly place a premium on entrepreneurs with experience and connections in both the US and abroad. In addition to serving as a new channel for venture capital investment, DNs contain financial resources themselves. Nine of the ten largest investors in China in the mid-1990s, reaching US$200 billion in 1995, were overseas Chinese investors engaged in a variety of cooperative relationships through their DN. Successful US immigrant entrepreneurs also make
angel investments in their home countries, and more formal international angel networks are developing to facilitate these investments.

**Informal contracts:** Inadequate mechanisms for contract enforcement have plagued international business since its earliest days. To a large extent, international trade began through DNs such as the Phoenician or Chinese Diaspora. Rather than relying solely on national enforcement of cross-border contracts, these networks developed internal penalties for breaking agreements or providing poor-quality products and services. Being ‘black listed’ by a network member in one country meant that the offender could no longer work with a network member in any country, with a potentially weakened reputation outside of the network as well. The legal framework for international business is much more advanced today, but it can still lag the needs of global entrepreneurs working in nascent technology fields or in developing economies without strong rule-of-law or intellectual property protections. Working through a DN can again reduce some of these liabilities. Single trades or outsourcing contracts are effectively transformed into repeated relationships with lasting consequences for misbehavior.

**Reputation enhancement:** There are a variety of reasons why India has excelled at software off-shoring: lower wages, English language, shifted working hours from the US, and so on. Some credit, however, belongs to the strength of India’s US entrepreneurial community.

In addition to the above resources, US Indian entrepreneurs boost the reputation of their business partners in India for landing these contracts. Entrepreneurs in foreign countries pitching services to large US corporations by themselves are a small, unknown company located on the other side of the world. Working through DNs can reduce the perceived risks of these contracts through a local presence. While the above summary does not exhaust the resources DNs can provide to global entrepreneurs, it does emphasize the breadth of possibilities. Malleability and trust are what gives the informal networks their strength. The global reach of DNs is particularly beneficial for start-ups operating in multiple countries. They can be useful as well, even for large multinational companies as they seek to enter and serve new markets. Recent researches also show how DNs can substitute for local networking opportunities. In a study of India’s software industry, Nanda and Khanna found that the entrepreneurs located outside software hubs rely
significantly more on DNs for business leads than those within major hubs such as Bangalore and Mumbai; they also showed that use of these DNs was related to better firm performance.

Nanda and Khanna indicate, moreover, that it is primarily the entrepreneurs who have previously lived abroad who best utilize DNs. In a similar vein, DNs can aid the return migration of entrepreneurs who have lived outside of their home country for an extended period by providing the contacts and resources to reintegrate into the native business landscape.

We do not want to imply that the effective exploitation of a DN is without costs or risks. It is important that global entrepreneurs avoid insularity, cronyism, ‘group think’ and potentially shady practices (ways of ‘beating the system’) that sometimes crop up in immigrant networks, especially those that are excluded from mainstream opportunity. DNs can also become intertwined with family businesses in emerging economies that layer on additional complications. But the upsides of DNs vastly exceed the downsides, and therefore entrepreneurs who are going global through choice or necessity should view their ethnicity-based DN as a valuable asset.

INDIAN DIASPORA: A BRIEF OUTLOOK

The Indian Diaspora is an alarming political, economic, intellectual, and technological force in the host countries, which has the possibility to influence the decisions of the host countries in India’s favor. According to the 2001 census, the USA has 1.7 million people of Indian origin. Indians are the fourth largest immigrant community. In England, this number is 1.5 million, a sizeable 1.8% of the population. Such statistics prove the global supremacy of the Indian diaspora. The power manipulated by the Indian diaspora in the context of the globalized, multicultural world has to be properly analyzed keeping in mind the questions of modernity, social mobility, market economy, dislocation and relocation, acculturation and assimilation etc. Diaspora therefore, being a very multifaceted phenomenon, ever changing and evolving, requires to be studied at the regional, national and global levels.
The High Level Committee on Indian Diaspora, under the Chairmanship of Dr. L. M. Singhvi, former M.P. defines Diaspora as “communities of migrants living or settled permanently in other countries, aware of its origins and identity and maintaining varying degrees of linkages with mother country” (2001). This report highlighted that, Indian Diaspora refers to “the people who migrated from territories that are currently within the borders of the Republic of India. It also refers to their descendants”. The committee estimated the number of Indian Diaspora at 20 million people dispersed in more than 110 countries all over the world:

The Indian Diaspora is estimated to be over twenty million. They constitute of “NRIs” (Indian citizens not residing in India) and “PIOs” (Persons of Indian Origin who have acquired the citizenship of some other country). The Indian Diaspora covers practically every part of the world. It numbers more than a million each in eleven countries, while as many as twenty-two countries have concentrations of at least a hundred thousand ethnic Indians.

India has one of the worlds most wide-ranging and multifaceted migration history. Since from 19th century, ethnic Indians have established communities on every continent as well as on islands in the Caribbean, the Pacific and Indian oceans. The Indian diaspora can be observed as worldwide phenomena, with a presence in more than 100 countries globally. The composition of flows has progressed over time from mainly indentured labor in far-flung colonies to postwar labor for British industry to high-skilled professionals in North America and low-skilled workers in the Middle East. Ethnic Indians in countries like Kenya and Suriname have migrated to other countries, a movement called secondary migration. The overseas Indian community is not homogeneous. We can at least differentiate between two groups, the PIOs (people of Indian origin) and NRI (Non Resident Indians).

Migration from India has taken place within two specific periods. The first phase was conditioned by colonialism and second phase was postcolonial period. In the first phase, large numbers of Indians were sending to different imperial out coasts as indentured laborers. The second phase started early in 20th century and gained momentum in the post- 1945 period, when skilled and professional Indians migrated to western countries in largely response to a scarcity of skills and professionals (vertovec)
Tinker (1993) provides one of the broadest examinations of the emigration of Indian labour overseas during the colonial period. Apart from ‘Indentured labour’ migration there were other two different patterns of migration were identifiable in this colonial period. These patterns were namely ‘Kangani’ and ‘Maistry’ labour migration and ‘Passage or Free’ migration. Indians were taken away as indentured labor to the British colonies such as British Guiana, Fiji, Trinidad and Jamaica, to the French colonies of Guadeloupe and Martinique, and the Dutch colony of Surinam (Tinker, 1993). This indentured system of migration was based on ‘contract’ which was signed by the Indian laborers. It began in 1834 and ended in 1920. Another system of migration, which was identifiable during the colonial period, was ‘Kangani’ and ‘Maistry’ labour migration. The word Kangani and Maistry both derived from Tamil. Kangani derived from Kankani, which means foreman or overseer and Maistry is derived from maistry which means supervisor. The kankani system prevailed in the recruitment of Indian labour for migration to Ceylon and Malaya (Jayraman 2003) and Maistry system existed in the recruitment of laborers in Burma. In both the system, the Indians were Tamil laborers who migrated from village in the former Madras Presidency. Laborers in these systems were not bounded by any contract or fixed period. They were legally free. These systems, which began in the first and third quarter of the 19th century, were abolished in 1938. In the system of Passage and Free migration, an emigrant was not legitimately sponsored. Emigrants themselves paid their passage and they were free in the sense that they were not bound by any contract. In this system of migration, there was stable trickle of migration of members of trading communities from Gujarat and Punjab to South Africa and East Africa (Kenya, Tanzania and Uganda).

After World War II, like other modern scattering communities, Indians provided both labor and professional help with the reconstruction of war-torn Europe. The first waves of Indian emigration to developed countries mostly consist of labor flow from rural regions in India to these European countries. However, during the middle of the 20th century, Indian emigrants began residing in the UK, USA, Australia and Canada. These sites turned to immigration for supplies of well-educated and professionally trained Indians from urban middle class families; these were early instances of “migration of talent” or “brain drain.” Bhat, Narayan and Sahoo study on Indian Diaspora indicate the new wave of Indian emigration is the migration of software engineers to western countries, the US in particular. They call this group of Indians the
“cream of India,” who were trained in her premiere educational institutions such as IITs, IIMs and Universities [and] are highly mobile and keep very close contact with India in terms of socio-economic interests.

In 2001 the High Level Committee on the Indian Diaspora estimated around 18.5 million (including descendants of Indian migrants) which is largely dispersed. The Indian government declares that Indian diasporic communities dispersed in as many as 110 countries; however, three-quarters of the diaspora population live in 12 countries (see Table 1.1). Since 2005, the Indian government asserts that the community numbers approximately 25 million.
Table 1.1: The Indian Diaspora: Places with More than 100,000 Members

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Population (Members)</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Asia</td>
<td>Myanmar</td>
<td>2,902,000</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Malaysia</td>
<td>1,665,000</td>
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<td>Sri Lanka</td>
<td>855,025</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Nepal</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Singapore</td>
<td>307,000</td>
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<td>Africa</td>
<td>South Africa</td>
<td>1,000,000</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mauritius</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Reunion</td>
<td>220,055</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Kenya</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Australia</td>
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<td>Trinidad &amp; Tobago</td>
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<td>Guyana</td>
<td>395,350</td>
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<td>Suriname</td>
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<td>Northern America</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Yemen</td>
<td>100,900</td>
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</table>

*Note*: The numbers are estimates of the Diaspora populations including both actual migrants and descendants of migrants. For Nepal, data refer only to persons born in India.

2001 Census shows that the largest number of diasporic Indians (35 percent) lived in Asia (see Graph 1.1). A fifth of the diaspora were in the gulf region, with 14 percent in Northern America, 13 percent on the African continent, and 10 percent in Europe. The Caribbean and Oceania accounted for only a small share, 6.5 percent and 3.3 percent, respectively.

![Graph 1.1 The Indian Diaspora by World Region in Percent and Millions, 2001](image)

*Note: The numbers are estimates of the diaspora populations including both actual migrants and descendants of migrants. Source: High Level Committee on the Indian Diaspora (2002). Sri Lanka and Nepal: 2001 Census.*

Ethnic Indians are a minority in most countries; they comprise around 40 percent of the population in Fiji, Trinidad, Guyana, and Suriname. They make up 70 percent of the inhabitants of Mauritius. In developed countries, the Indian diaspora, especially in the United States, is highly organized with many regional and pan-Indian cultural, professional, religious, and charity organizations. In recent years, advocacy groups, political ambitions of individuals like Louisiana Governor Bobby Jindal, and the Congressional India Caucus have demonstrated Indians' increasing political influence. In other countries, Indians have been elected to national legislative bodies. In Canada, eight ethnic Indians — all of them Sikhs — were elected to the
House of Commons in October 2008. Currently, six elected Members of the British Parliament and eight Members in the House of Lords are of Indian origin.

In Mauritius, where 70 percent of the population is of Indian descent, the prime minister has been a racial Indian except for between 2003 and 2005. As noted earlier, Singapore's current president is an ethnic Indian. Seven cabinet members and 27 parliamentarians in Fiji are of Indian descent; in Malaysia, the count goes to one cabinet minister and three members of parliament. In Germany, two ethnic Indians elected representatives in the central parliament, as is one India-born person in New Zealand. All these examples show that the Indian diasporic communities directly or indirectly influence the host countries.

An attempt to understand the movement of people from India since ancient times to contemporary period is a fascinating story of cultural exchanges that the people of India have with the rest of the world. The Indian classical texts describe about long journeys that saints and monks undertook for the spread of knowledge, peace and love. The archeological evidences establish the fact that Indians during ancient period did travel to other countries for trade.

The spread of Hindu and Buddhist believes across geographical boundaries of India during the early medieval period saw the emergence of Hindu and Buddhist Kingdoms in several places. The navigational skills of people along the Indian coastal cities helped the rulers to expand the horizons of their Kingdoms. The maritime activities and ship building techniques that existed in that period reveal the movement of Indians to classical Greco Roman world. The movement of people resulted in the formation of Gypsies or Rromas of today are still shrouded in mystery. There were large scale movement of people occurred when Islam arrived in India. During this period those rulers who returned to their countries after plundering India took thousands of men and women as artists, architects, calligraphers, musician’s dancers, courtesans along with other wealth. The Mughal period saw the active journey’s Indians took to several countries as emissaries, traders, scholars, artists, musicians. During the colonial period Indians were traded as slaves by Portuguese, Dutch, French and English imperialists. The Indians were taken to various countries as indentured labourers to develop plantation economies, construct railway networks and to serve as soldiers in the imperial military establishments.
Large number of traders and professionals also accompanied these labourers and soldiers. The first set of scholars and academics came out from the universities of independent India migrated to western countries for advanced studies and research form the first Diaspora in modern period. The migration of Indians as professionals, labourers and traders to rest of the world is a continuing saga of Indian Migration.

**GUJARATI DIASPORA**

The Gujarati Diaspora forms a vital part of the great Indian Diaspora. The Non-resident Guajarati are now spread all around the world and are settled in various countries like USA, UK, Canada, New Zealand, South Africa, Uganda, Kenya, Tanzania, Australia and the Gulf. Being an important component of the host societies, providing services in sectors as diverse as retailing, hospitality industry (hotels and motels), medicine, drug stores, engineering and information technology, Gujarati Diasporas are now making a great contribution to their socio-economic, cultural and political life of the host countries. Lord Dholakia, Lord Meghnad Desai, Lord Bhiku Parekh and others are the better examples that testify to the great success of Gujarati Diaspora. Formation of the Asian American Hotel Owners Association (AAHOA) and Federation of Gujarati Associations in North America (FOGANA) with membership in USA and Canada is a evidence of dynamism of the vibrant Gujarati Diaspora.

The Gujarati Diaspora has maintained its emotional, cultural and economic relations with the homeland in a very special way. It is noticeable in their desire to make emotional and economic investment in Gujarat by establishing hospitals, schools and colleges. Their prompt response in coming forward to the aid of Gujarat during the terrible earthquake in 2001 was remarkable. They have successfully lobbied in their host countries for foreign investment in boosting and developing industries in Gujarat. Their role in getting the latest technology and their contribution to the enrichment of religious and cultural life cannot be exaggerated. For instance, the Swaminarayan sect has built up many temples in the West as well as in the home country. North Gujarat has witnessed a large-scale migration of the various castes and communities to the many countries of Europe, Africa, Australia, North America and the Gulf. In the case of North Gujarat,
a large number of patels, chaudharies, jains, Prajapatis and Vohras have migrated from Patan, Palanpur, Mehsana, Visnagar, Kadi, Sabarkantha and Banaskantha. Most of them are settled in USA, UK, South Africa, Australia, and Canada and even in the Gulf countries. Most of the Gujarati Diaspora migrated from North Gujarat are flourishing in computers, information technology, medicine, hoteling & moteling, retailing business, diamond business and leather goods. For instance, India’s diamond industry handled 80 percent of the global polished diamond market and earned 8 billion dollars last year. The global polished diamond market is entirely controlled by jains from palanpur, a small town in North Gujarat. They went to the Belgium city of Antwerp in 1970s and 80s where 90 percent of the world’s diamond trade is concentrated. The Jews have controlled this diamond trade for the last 500 years. Now the Jains from North Gujarat control 65 percent of this diamond trade of Antwerp undoing the monopoly of the Jews within twenty years. In fact, seven of top ten Diamond merchants of Antwerp, are from North Gujarat, breaking the 500-year old monopoly of the Jews.

It is only one instance of the numerous success stories of the diaspora from North Gujarat. Vohras from siddhpur, palanpur and patan are well settled in many countries in East Africa and South Africa and have a monopoly over the retail businesses and leather industry there. Similarly, many Patels from Mehsana, Kadi, Patan, and Visnagar in North Gujarat have securely established themselves in the field of Plastic, leather, and chemical industries in addition to the hospitality industry in many countries. Many of them have become powerful members of the African National Congress and sent remittance for the freedom movement of India. The Chaudharis from various districts of North Gujarat like Patan, Mehsana, Banaskantha and Sabarkantha have migrated to distant places like USA and UK and have taken a foothold over professional jobs in medicine, engineering and even modern agriculture. Many of these diasporic chaudharis have remitted foreign exchange so that educational institutions could be established in their far-flung villages in North Gujarat. Many patels from North Gujarat who are successful today in the west migrated there under hard and trying circumstances. Their success curve and the work and struggle that have gone into making them leaders in hospitality industry deserve to be studied closely. Similar is the case with prajapatis from Patan, Mehsana, Sabarkantha who are chiefly in the service sector of various countries. Many of these migrants have gradually and
steadily carved out a position for themselves in their host countries. In short we can say that Guajarati diaspora maintains its own unique identity as a part of Indian diaspora as a whole.

Diaspora has great bearing upon the economy, social structure and culture play significant role in socio-economic development and socio-cultural changes in area of origin at local, regional and national level. These immigrants also act as ambassador in the country of their immigration by representing culture and society of origin. In view of such numerical and functional significance, several Diasporic studies have been conducted on Gujarati Diaspora. In the absence of sufficient socio-cultural study on Gujarati Diaspora, the present research is an effort to achieve a broader understanding of the socio-cultural study of Gujarati Diaspora with special reference to England, America and Canada.