Chapter I

INTERNAL MIGRATION

- CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK
- TYPES OF MIGRATION
- MIGRATION STREAMS
- CONSEQUENCES OF MIGRATION
  - Economic
  - Demographic
  - Social
  - Cultural
Chapter – I

INTERNAL MIGRATION

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

The word migration has been derived from the Latin *migrare*, to change one’s residence, but by the current definitions it means rather to change one’s community (Peterson 1968, p. 287). However, the dictionary definition of the verb ‘to migrate’ is ‘to move from one place (country, town, house) to another’ (White and Woods 1980, p.3). In simple term human migration implies some form of permanent or semipermanent movement on the part of an individual or a group of people. In this context tourism, the movement of students, and journeys to work are not included because they do not involve a change of permanent residence (Woods 1979, p. 165). Thus, migration is harder to define than are the other two components of population growth, mortality and fertility. Not all the moves across geographic boundaries are migrations, since not all of them involve changing residence, that is reaffiliation with a new population (Yaukey 1985, p. 278).

Migration is also defined broadly as a permanent or semipermanent change of residence. No restriction is placed upon the distance of move or upon the voluntary or involuntary nature of the act, and no distinction is made between external and internal migration. However, not all kinds of spatial mobility are included in this definition. Excluded for example, are the continual movements of nomads and migratory workers, for whom there is no long term residence, and temporary moves like those to mountains for the summer (Lee 1970, p. 290).

The United Nations defines migration as the geographical mobility of persons between areas, generally involving a change of residence over a specific
period of time. It is a definition which is most applicable to relatively settled populations, and it presents problems when applied to movements of population in developing countries. In many countries of Africa, for example, there are several kinds of large mobile elements. Some are transhumances or nomadic pastoralists (de Planehol); some are involved in forms of shifting cultivation. The degree of mobility varies: Muslim pilgrims may travel, sometimes for many years, to visit Makkah and Medina. People may move seasonally from their home areas to work in others. These and other types of mobility are not normally included in the classical definition of migration.

It is essential in such circumstances either to extend the concept of migration to include all kinds of spatial movement — temporary as well as permanent — or to replace the term “migration” with “mobility”. Among French geographers only permanent movement is defined as migration, temporary movements of varying duration are termed turbulence (Pierre George) or oscillation (Beaujeu-Garnier). In this discussion the term “migration” is used in the broadest sense to include all kinds of movements (Kosinski and Prothero 1970, p. 251).

However, internal migration as considered by Indian Census, is 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 town boundary as a minimum condition for qualifying the movement as internal migration. In the course of movement one might cross the ward lines within the city, and even then the movement could be termed as internal migration. Thus, the concept of internal migration involves implicitly an imposition of boundary lines which must be crossed before a movement is counted as internal migration (Census of India 1971, Series-1, India, p. 4).
Eisenstads (1954) defines migration as, “the physical transition of an individual or group from one society to another. This transition usually involves abandoning one social setting and entering another permanent one”. His definition fails to consider the psychology of individuals or group making plans for a physical transition back to the former or donor society. He does not consider the case of making membership of or participation in both. However, his definition, fortunately does not preclude those possibilities.

Mangalam (1968) went further, and wrote that “migration is a relatively permanent moving away of a collectively, called migrants, from one geographical location to another preceded by decision making on the part of the migrants on the basis hierarchically ordered set of valued ends and resulting in changes in the international system of migrants”. His definition introduces the term, “relatively permanent” which distinguishes migration from holiday trips, sailors occupation, or daily movements from sitting rooms to kitchen or work (Quoted in Sinha 1980, p. 105).

However, the geographer’s simple definition of migration is not very different from the definitions discussed above – a migration is a change in the place of residence. Such a change of residence necessitates movement, although at a scale varying from a transfer between dwellings both in the same street to, at the other spatial extreme, inter-continental movements. Migrations, or changes of residence, form only a small part of all the movements across the surface of the globe undertaken by mankind, and a distinction is often made between the migration (involving a change of residence) and ‘mobility’ or ‘circulation’. These trends encompass all movements, such as those for the purpose of journey-to-work of recreation and tourism or of shopping excursions (White and Woods 1980, p.3).
TYPES OF MIGRATION

The extreme diversity of a migration in cause, direction, volume, velocity, selectivity and organization prohibits simple classification. However, scholars of various disciplines have tried to classify migration as seasonal, temporary, periodic and permanent, as well as internal, external, inter-regional, international, continental and inter-continental migration. It is not surprising that there is a growing tendency to consider migrations as either internal (within a state) or external (international). This approach has been induced by the great significance of state boundaries and the availability of data at the state level. Such a simple distinction cannot satisfy the geographers who are interested not merely in numerical gains and losses due to migrations and their demographic, social and economic effects, but also in environmental influences upon migration streams and consequences in areas of departure and destination (Clarke 1981, p. 130).

The process of migration has often been classified into various types on the basis of distance, time and motivation. On the basis of distance, migration has been classified as long-distance and short-distance. Similarly, on the basis of motivation, migration has been classified as economic migration and social migration depending upon the factors that make migrants move. Obviously no typology satisfactorily incorporates all types of human migration, and the problem is exacerbated by the lack of uniformity in terminology (Clarke 1981, p. 130). However, attempts have been made by the scholars of diverse disciplines to make understand the concept of migration. Fortes (1971) has distinguished between mobility which represents movement within boundaries, and migration in which persons move across boundaries. Such boundaries may be
geographical, structural, ethnic, or some other division, which is recognized by
the actor as setting him apart (Du Toit 1975).

Fairchild (1925) classified migration into invasion, conquest, colonization
and immigration. His divisions have been modified later by Isaac (1947) and
others who subdivided immigration into ‘free’ (seasonal, nomadic, temporary
and permanent) and ‘forced’ (refugee, slave and population transfer) (Quoted in

A quite complex typology of migration presented by Peterson (1958) is based on
two main criteria of conservation and innovation which were modified by Price
(1969). His classification is as follows (Quoted in Sinha 1980, p. 106).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Relation: Man and Nature</th>
<th>Migratory force</th>
<th>Class of migration</th>
<th>Types of migration</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nature</td>
<td>Ecological push</td>
<td>Primitive</td>
<td>Wandering</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Flight from land</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State</td>
<td>Migratory policy</td>
<td>Forced impelled</td>
<td>Ranging displacement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Norms</td>
<td>Aspiration</td>
<td>Free</td>
<td>Flight</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other men</td>
<td>Social movement</td>
<td>Mass</td>
<td>Group settlement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Pioneer urbanization</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Gonzalez (1961) divided labour migration into five types: seasonal, temporary, non-seasonal, recurrent, continuous and permanent removal. She also
established a linkage between “recurrent” migration and the “matrifocal” or
consanguineous household. Amin (1979) holds the view that migration of labour
can be classified in several ways but he emphasized four principle ways. The
first rests on the place of origin and that of destination: rural to rural migration,
rural to urban, urban to urban and urban to rural (Quoted in Sinha 1980, p. 106).
Physical mobility is normally subdivided into three major categories: emigration, migration and commuting. Emigration and migration concern mainly with the departure from or entry into an administrative territory for the purpose of changing residence. More particularly emigration entails crossing international boundaries. To distinguish between different motives and destinations among the emigrants, Douglass has suggested three different types of emigrants namely, permanent emigrants, sojourns and birds of passage. Permanent emigrants are those individuals and domestic groups who do not return to their natal villages to resume permanent residence either by choice or by compulsion. The second type of emigrant is the sojourner who leaves the village for a major period of time but returns to resume permanent residence before his death. The emigrant may clearly perceive his eventual return to the village and consciously plan the length of his emigration stint before leaving.

The third type of emigrant, which we might call the bird of passage, is the individual who leads the dual life of villager and emigrant by flitting back and forth between the village and a foreign area (Sinha 1980, p. 106).

On the basis of time over which migration is effective, distinction has been made between long-term and short-term migration. At one extreme is short-term labour migrations on a seasonal basis and at the other are permanent moves from which migrant never returns. In between are various forms of return migration occurring over periods ranging from a few months to a number of years (White and Woods 1980, p. 18).

A very simple and general, method of classification is on the basis of environments of origin and destination or, frequently of destination alone. Zelinsky (1971) has suggested four types of migration and used the terms rural-
urban, inter-urban, suburban and frontier ward migration. These common types provide a suitable set of generalized terms which can be applied to most migration flows with some profit in terms of description. But the major handicap of these terms is that they do not take into account that migration is a two way process. Hagerstand (1957) has also suggested simple classification of migration on the basis of the environment of the place of origin and the destination (Sinha and Ataullah 1987, p. 58). His classification is as follows:

(a) Country place to/from country place;
(b) Country place to/from urban agglomerations; and
(c) Urban agglomerations to/from urban agglomerations.

Classification of migration on the basis of the reasons behind it has been commonly adopted and the terms ‘economic migration’, retirement migration’ or ‘educational migration’ are familiar ones. Yet the most usual route to the adoption of the first of these terms lies through the process of ecological correlation analysis, considering the attributes of the places left behind and comparing these with the destinations (White and Woods 1980, p. 19).

Kant has classified migration into two broad categories on the basis of duration and spatial course or extent (chronological). His classification is as follows:

(a) Accidental or temporary
(b) Permanent or periodic; and
(c) Definitive migration

Du Toit has emphasized on two main types of migration: forced and voluntary, similarly, Wrong (1956) stressed on voluntary and involuntary types of migration and Davis (1965) has suggested five important types of migration:
conquest, displacement, forced labour, free individual migration and controlled migration (Quoted in Sinha and Ataullah 1987, p. 59).

K.C. Zachariah has divided internal migration on the basis of distance of movement into short distance and long distance migration. He has also suggested the classification of migration on the basis of the type of (political) areal unit entered or left in the process of movement. Thus, in India he suggested to classify migration into interdistrict, interstate, interzonal etc. (Zachariah 1964 p. 250). Broadly speaking migration is divided into international migration and internal migration.

International migration may be defined, in the strict sense, as a permanent movement of people, of their own free will, from one sovereign country to another. Transfers of this kind, however, account for only a small part of the redistribution of world population. A comprehensive view of international migration must therefore include forced as well as free movements and temporary as well as permanent movements (Thomas 1968, pp. 292-93).

The change of residence within the boundary of a nation is called Internal Migration. According to Dorothy S. Thomas, “The accepted definition of internal migration is change of residence from one community, or other clearly defined geographical unit, to another within the national boundaries”. But this definition is not entirely free from ambiguities. There are people who do not have fixed residences, and even for those who have residences it may sometimes be difficult to distinguish between “migrants” and “movers”. For statistical purpose, the only practical procedure is to define internal migration in terms of delineated areal subdivisions and well-marked time intervals (Zachariah 1964, p.18).
Internal migration in a country may be classified in different ways according to the criteria selected. For example, on the basis of the distance of movement, migration can be divided into short-distance and long-distance migration. Allied to the distance criterion is that of the type of (political) areal unit entered or left in the process of movement. Thus, in India, one can classify migration into interdistrict, interstate, interzonal, etc. Another criterion is duration of residence in the community of destination. By this criterion the usual classification in the Indian census is: casual, temporary, periodic, semipermanent, and permanent. Analytically, one of the most significant ways of classifying internal migration is by types of community of origin and destination. Thus we may designate communities as rural and urban, and on this basis classify migration as rural-urban, rural-rural, etc. Alternatively, we may consider a more extensive classification such as rural farm, rural non-farm, metropolitan areas, other cities, towns, etc. within metropolitan areas, we may consider the central city and suburbs separately. Allied to this classification is one which differentiates as to whether the movement originates in the community of birth or not. On this basis we may classify migration as: primary, secondary and return. 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 (Zachariah 1964, p. 251).

MIGRATION STREAMS

The internal migrations on the basis of area are further classified into four types or streams: rural to urban, urban to urban, rural to rural, and urban to rural areas.
Rural to Urban Migration

Rural to urban migration that carries the rural folk to the growing urban centres is more pronounced in the less developed countries. It is caused by both push and pull factors. In the less developed world which has high rural densities and where rapid urban-industrial development is taking place, both push of the rural areas and pull of the urban areas generate migratory tendencies among the people (Chandna 2006, p. 24). People migrate from rural to urban areas because of increasing pressure of population on land and growing unemployment, or because of the attractions of city life and better employment opportunities in urban areas (Saxena 1977, p.51).

In rural areas appalling poverty, unbearable unemployment, low and uncertain wages, uneconomic landholdings and lack of facilities for education, health, recreation and services work as the push factors. By comparison, the pull of the urban areas may include better employment opportunities, regular and higher wages, fixed working hours, better amenities of living, facilities for education and socio-cultural activities. Above all the life in urban areas tends to be more attractive and secure, though recently there has been a spurt in urban vice both in developed and under-developed world. In countries like India where rigidities of caste system are felt more in the countryside, some movement of the down-trodden from the rural to urban areas may also take place with a view of moving to a new set of environment where the caste identities are not prejudicial against.

However, the consequences of large scale unplanned rural to urban movement are not always necessarily happy. For example in India where the large cities are the recipient of rural migrants on a large scale, large number of slums emerge in such cities. The big cities in India are unusually industrial
concentrations that meet a sizeable proportion of the share of their labour from the vast reservoir of surface rural manpower. Since such 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, p. 247). However, rural-urban migration is an important part of development process because it generally assumed to incorporate the transfer of agricultural occupations to industrial-service ones. As industrial growth is generally located in cities, new labour demands not met by natural increase will have to be filled by geographical displacement from rural to urban areas (Hawrylyashyn 1961, p. 340).

**Urban to Urban Migration**

Urban to urban or inter-urban migration takes place between one urban centre and the other. It is more common in the highly urbanized countries of the world, though it also takes place in less developed countries in smaller magnitudes. In the developed countries where most of the population lives in urban areas, inter-urban migration is governed largely by the economic factors. The people move from one urban centre to another with a view to improving their employment prospects. In the less developed world where the big cities are the chief magnets, these attract such migrants from other urban areas who have acquired sufficient skills for their absorption in the big industrial centres. The vacuum caused in the small urban centres is filled by the subsequent in-migration from the surrounding rural areas. Thus, in the developing countries this migration forms a part of what is commonly known as 'step migration'.

In India different factors have operated in determining the patterns of urban to urban migration. For instance, male migration which is largely due to economic reason can be divided into two broad categories of voluntary and
involuntary. Involuntary migration occurs when certain people belonging to a particular family change their residence along with the principal bread winner. It also occurs when the services of a particular person is transferred from one location to another. On the other hand, voluntary migration can be due to (a) educational purpose, (b) distress conditions at the place of origin, or (c) other economic reasons, particularly due to better opportunities for higher earnings at destination. Urban to urban migration for educational purpose is likely to be of those who wish to receive higher and technical education (Premi 1987, pp. 275-76).

**Rural to Rural Migration**

In countries that are primarily agrarian, movement of people may take place from one rural area to another. For instance, in India redistributional tendencies have been observed with regard to rural population in response to the changing patterns of employment potential of different areas. Generally such migration originates from crowded areas of low agricultural productivity and is directed towards sparsely populated areas experiencing large scale developmental activities. It is step towards more balanced population – resource relation. The motive behind the movement is again economic. Such migration may take place for longer distances and is often permanent (Chandna 2006, p. 247). Interestingly enough, the predominant form of migration in India is rural to rural female migration (Bose 1967, p. 41) and even in case of males rural to rural migration (36.41 per cent) leads other migration streams (Census of India, 2001).

**Urban to Rural Migration**

Urban to sub-urban/rural migration is relatively less common compared to other types of migrations discussed above. Such a movement takes place at the
advanced stage of urbanization, as it is generated by over-congestion. Since only the advanced countries have attained this high degree of urbanization, therefore, it is met with more in developed countries and less in the developing countries. It has been recognized urban-suburban residential migrations that have been taking place in most of Europe ever since the Second World War have resulted in depopulating the core regions of the cities (Chandna 2006, p. 248).

Male urban-to-rural migration in India is likely to occur for several reasons. It may be due to the return of the retired personnel, particularly the army personnel, from their urban work place to the villages. It may also be due to urban push back, that is return of those persons who had come to the cities and towns in search of employment but could not succeed in getting suitable jobs. While the migrants in the first category are expected to be in the higher age groups (55 and above), the migrants of second category are expected to be in the young age group (20-29). There is also the likelihood of return migration of those who came from villages for educational purpose to the towns and cities and decided to go back after completing their education; their proportion, however, is expected to be very small among total urban-to-rural migrants (Premi 1987, p. 297). With the stress on rural development in the Five Year Plans and creation of white collar jobs in rural areas on one hand, and the difficulties in getting a suitable job commensurate with the educational achievement in urban areas on the other hand, it is found that even urban born people have been competing for rural jobs and have moved not only in their own districts but also to other districts in their own state and across the state boundaries, with the pressure on space in the central cities, some of the migrants to the big cities, specially those coming from small and medium sized towns, have probably preferred to live in villages at the periphery of the city and to commute daily to their workplace (Premi 1987, p. 281).
CONSEQUENCES OF MIGRATION

When people leave their place of origin and settle in other areas their life is affected in some ways. At the same time, the communities they leave and the communities they enter will also be affected. The process of migration causes the mixing of people which has varying effects on people's society, culture, economy, demography, politics and environment. The effects of migration change in space and time. Although it is mainly place of destination which is most affected due to migration but other places such as place of origin and intervening areas are also influenced.

The 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 will affect the social and economic institutions of both communities. Economic production, consumption patterns, labour markets, household and family networks, political power, another aspects of social, political, and economic organization which are related to population size will be affected by migration (Goldscheider 1984, p. 5).

The movement of people across the earth's surface has been, and is still a major force in both creating perpetuating diversity, particularly in the spatial manifestations of diversity which are of interest to the geographer. International or regional patterns of cultural affiliation, inter-regional variations in the rates of population growth, intra-urban variations in the spatial patterns of social segregation: these must all, in part, be explained in terms of past or present migration patterns. Migration has an impact at many different scales and on many aspects of human activity. But 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-fuelling processes whereby once migration started further population movement becomes almost inevitable for a variety of structural reasons relating to the societies affected and individual reasons relating to the migrants. Many migrations can be regarded not just as particularist ‘event’ but, in a larger context as ‘structures’ 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 take into account this long time-scale within which a migration structure develops and has its repercussions.

Any migration event may be considered as having effects in five specific context. Firstly, there is the effect on the migrant in changing his way of life, his knowledge and experience of other places and his attitudes and beliefs. Secondly, there is the effect on the community that the migrant leaves, and thirdly, the effect on the community that the migrant goes to. Fourthly, the migration event produces a spatial pattern – a flow from origin to destination – which can be regarded as the effect of migration on the intervening space through which the migration occurs. Fifthly, migration takes place within a given structural context and can affect that structure in various ways which may, in certain cases, lead to the perpetuation of migration as structure itself (White and Woods 1980, pp. 42-44).

To the geographer the basic impacts of migration are transformations in certain spatial patterns brought about by population movement. Those spatial patterns are of population distribution itself, along with detailed attributes of
population, such as age, sex, employment characteristics, social attributes and the spatial manifestations of social class, and patterns of culture attitude and political affiliation. Also of importance must be the impacts of migration, not just in terms of population distribution and patterns, but in terms of the location, genesis or collapse of economic activities and of wider social and political structures (White and Woods 1980, p. 55).

The impact of migrant on the donor or the host society depends partly on the nature of the migrant, the people he leaves behind him, and the group into which he comes. In this sense migration becomes “selective” as migrants do not represent the cross-section of the population. The influences of migration upon the individual and his personality are tremendous. By moving from one place to another, a migrant severes most of the ties and bonds that bound him to his old groups and gave him status in the society or association. For him position and status in the groups and classes of new community do not come automatically, but he must find his place in them during a period of trial and testing. The migrant’s status in a new community sometimes becomes quite different from the previous one and his adjustment depends upon his inheritance in establishing the person’s position within the society involved. He tries to gain a place for himself in the new groups and establish his social status at which he is to operate in the new community (Sinha 1980, pp. 115-16).

The importance of migrations is obviously very considerable. It plays a part just like natural growth, in the distribution, evolution and composition of human communities. But they also permit the correlation of those natural growths which are excessive or maladjusted. Even if they are disordered, they represent a spontaneous human attempt at better adoption to the economic possibilities
which the world offers, and when they are controlled or even compulsory, they offer the means of matching population to resources, of transforming the occupation structure, of developing human relationships, and as a result, of properly managing both land and production. And thus, we should not neglect the role of migratory threads in the progress of the complex web of civilization (Beaujeu-Garnier 1978, p. 251). However, an examination of 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 – economic, demographic, social, political (Kosinski and Prothero 1970, p. 254).

**Economic**

Economic consideration plays pivotal role in all aspects and stages of migration. The differential economy and lust for economic betterment, motivate people to migrate from one place to another. The effect of migration is also felt on the migrants, on the place of origin and destination and on intervening areas. Migration generally enables movers to improve their economic status by getting better job. 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 restart their pursuits. At the place of origin significant changes are marked in agriculture, industries and occupational structure of the people. The place of destination solves its labour problem, increases industrial production and accumulates wealth by the investment of migrants and experiences multidimensional progress. The effect of migration is also felt on the intervening areas, where transport facilities increase, employment structure changes and growth centres develop (Sinha and Ataullah 1987, p. 140-
In areas of in-migration, a major economic consequence is pressure on the labour market, which in turn affects the level of wages and may encourage the development of labour absorbing industries. Where wages are low, it is difficult for the local market to expand, and as a result, quite a large proportion of employed persons are engaged in non productive occupations. The over growth of tertiary sector in these situations is typical. In theory a migrant who joins a new and developing community can rapidly ascend in the economic and social hierarchy (Kosinski and Prothero 1970, p. 255).

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, p. 120). The impact of migration is also felt on the area under agriculture and agricultural products. When the population of certain area increases due to regional migration, the pressure of man on land increases. As such people are compelled to expand agricultural land so that the percentage of agricultural land to the total area increases. Where expansion of land 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. The development of agriculture has increased the demand of agricultural labour, leading to their mobility. As a consequence of migration resource utilization, technological innovation, industrial development and infrastructural change take place. Growth of population due to excessive migration encourages people to tap all types of resources to fulfill the increasing demand.
People migrate to improve their economic status by getting higher salaried jobs, establishing industries, involving themselves in highly profitable business and developing agriculture. This process transforms the economy of the area, and per capita income of the people increases. This leads to the improvement in the economic status of the local people, of the migrants and of the donor society where remittances are sent. Migration equalizes economic opportunities. At some place there is availability of employment but lack of manpower, at other place there is man power but lack of employment. In both conditions production is adversely affected. Adverse affect is minimized by migration. Migration brings adjustment in demand and supply and assists the creation of national capital. As a result of migration balanced economic growth takes place (Sinha and Ataullah 1987, pp. 143-45).

**Demographic**

Migration always has demographic consequences since it is people who move from one region to another and change the demographic structure of both the places of origin and those of destination. It changes the distribution, growth, age, sex, literacy, occupation, fertility and mortality of people. The phenomenon of movement from one community to another has the effect of decreasing the population in the community of origin and increasing the population in the community of destination. It has therefore a doubled barreled effect on population distribution, as well as on inter area differences in the rates of population growth (Bogue 1969, p. 752). The very nature of migration is that is equalizes the distribution of population. Generally people move from the densely populated regions to the sparsely populated pockets. This minimizes uneven distribution of population. But this general trend of population has undergone
changes during the recent years due to urbanization, industrialization and imbalanced regional development. Better employment opportunities and living conditions in industrial and urban centres have attracted the people even from sparsely populated regions to highly congested urban areas. This process led to the desertion of rural areas and over-crowding in urban industrial areas. Migration affects the rate of fertility since it separates couples and reduces the birth rate (Sinha and Ataullah 1987, pp. 159-60). However, where whole families are involved, the influx of people in reproductive age groups contributes to an increase in birth rates. Newcomers do not immediately adopt urban family patterns, and high fertility exists among them for sometime. In this way migration promotes still further increases in population and produces pressure in the destination areas (Kosinski and Prothero 1970, p. 255). Furthermore, relatively low urban fertility is compensated for by the immigration of a relatively youthful population with larger proportions in the childbearing ages. 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, p. 349).

Mortality rate is also affected by migration. Most of the migrants are adults. When they move out from any region leaving behind their families, the proportion of children and old people increases in the donor society. Mortality rate is high in age-groups of children and olds. As such host society experiences decreased rate of growth of population due to high mortality.

Migration exerts remarkable impact on the age and sex composition of population of both, the place of origin and those of destination. At the place of origin out-migration of people of working age-group leads to the increase in the
proportion of children and olds. On the other hand, in-migration of adults in the host society increases the proportion of adults and decreases the proportion of children and olds. Similarly, sex ratio also changes due to migration. When people migrate with their wives the sex ratio does not change due to migration. But when people migrate without taking their wives with them, as it happens in most of the cases, the ratio of male increases in the host society and that of female in the donor society. In case of marriage migration, mostly females are on the move. But this does not change the sex ratio of either the place of origin or that of destination. At the place of origin the loss of females is compensated by the in-migration of brides. Similarly, at the place of destination the gain of females is compensated by the out-migration of brides.

Literacy and level of education are also influenced by human migration. In most of the cases, migrants are educated. The movement increases the percentage of literacy at the place of destination and decreases at the place of origin. Long distance migration involves educated and skilled persons. This raises the level of education at the place of their destination.

Religious composition also changes due to migration. In country where religious classes usually occur, minorities prefer to settle at safe and secured places. In case of Indian sub-continent a large number of Muslims have migrated from the unsafe rural areas to urban centres, leading to the changes in religious composition of rural and urban areas. At the time of partition of India, transfer of Hindus and Muslims also brought considerable change in religious composition. Migration has also influenced the rural-urban ratio remarkably. Due to better job opportunities and urban amenities rural people are attracted towards the urban centres. This has resulted in the rapid growth of urban population and minimized
the gap between rural and urban population (Sinha and Ataullah 1987, pp. 161-62).

Social

Migration frequently is a major symptom of basic social change (Bogue 1959, p. 486). Rural and urban areas have distinct composition, size and organization of family. When people migrate from rural to urban areas, these aspects of family undergo changes. Large families or joint families of rural areas become nuclear. The process of urbanization which attracts rural migrants into urban areas disturbs the homogeneity of the family. All migrants who go to the cities do not bring their families with them either because of their economic conditions or because of other compulsive factors of village life, viz., maintenance of the traditional property in the village, emotional attachment to the family and the place, dislike of parents to move to the city, etc. Migration has its strong impact on various aspects of marriage. Ritual of marriage, age at the marriage, selection of pair, caste consideration and organization of marriage are greatly influenced by migration. Impact of migration on marriage has been changing with time and space. Previously people of both the areas: place of origin and that of destination were more inclined towards the traditional manners. As such migration used to exert very little impact on marriage systems. Now a days there is big gap in outlook in rural and urban areas. This is why people of urban areas have experienced rapid change in the matters of marriage.

Migration has brought about changes in inter-caste relations too. The most important of these changes relates to inter-caste commensality. Traditional restriction on untouchability dining and drinking in the caste system has been removed. This change in the commensal habits of the emigrant families is most
definitely the outcome of their contact with the cities. Migrants come to the towns to improve their economic status. Originally they belong to different class hierarchy, but due to higher earning they change the hierarchy of class. The income and status differentiation bring about a sort of class consciousness among the migrants. A feeling of belongingness exists, at least to some extent, among the members of a particular class. Because of this class consciousness migrants are obliged to unite and safeguard their interests. But this fact also causes class conflict.

Migration has its impact on the social contact of the people. It brings out decrease in the extent of relationship with family members, friends and relatives. The migrants do not get opportunity in adequate extent to maintain contacts and relationship with their family members, relatives, friends and others. As the distance increases, the extent of closeness with them decreases.

As regards the impact of migration on social interaction, it should be noted that people generally interact more with those whom they like most or in whom they have confidence or whom they develop a greater capacity for adjustment. The analysis of social interaction depends mostly the migrant's period of stay in the city and their level of educational attainment. The longer the period of stay in the city the more frequent is their interaction with the people of place of destination. Conversely, shorter the period of stay the less frequent is their interaction. The level of education also affects social interaction of migrants. The highly educated people interact more with the local people than the less educated illiterate persons. Higher the education of the migrants, the greater is their interaction with local people (Sinha and Ataullah 1987, pp. 147-51).

The impact of migration is also felt on social control, which is the way in which entire social order coheres and maintains itself and which seeks a
relationship between the social order and the individual being. The people of rural areas remain much more controlled by social lanes than the people living in the areas. But when they migrate to cities they feel a little free. In the beginning most of the migrants do not like to avail rural social customs or bindings. Sometimes a few migrants desert rural areas to get freedom from the rural social bindings and to live freely in urban centres. When migrants come out of the rural areas and enter into urban areas, they become relatively free from traditional agencies, such as the family, caste, religion and other rural institutions which normally regulate their behaviour.

The different aspects of social structure and socialization pattern shows that these have been changing from time to time due to migration. Migration has brought remarkable changes in family, marriage, caste, class, standard of living, social interaction, social integration, social adjustment, social group etc. As these aspects of social life have changed considerably, the overall social change has been witnessed due to migration.

Cultural

Migration is an instrument of cultural diffusion and social integration. The person who migrates from one community to another unites in himself two cultures. Temporarily, he tends to be a disruptive force in the community into which he enters (Bogue 1959, p. 487). If migrants are fairly numerous and share a cultural background, they may impose their culture on native population. When incoming and native groups retain their separate identities, they usually influence one another (Encyclopaedia Americana 2002, p. 100). Thus, migrants tend to form a community within a community and to create cultural diversity and ethnic tension. Only by a slow process of assimilation, which sometimes requires a generation or more, the migrant group and receiving community are
finally adjusted to each other. In the process, the culture of receiving community may be altered appreciably (Bogue 1959, p. 487).

Migrants usually carry their culture to the place of destination and continue to maintain it. Social customs, behaviours, norms, way of life and other cultural attributes of people in rural areas remain almost different from urban areas. Whenever people migrate from rural to urban areas, they experience a lot of difference in the new environment. In the beginning they feel difficulties in adopting new social customs, behaviour, manners, norms, values and way of life, and socializing with urbanities. In both simple and complex societies, religion as an effective means of social control has been the main social organization from the beginning. But education and interaction with the people of place of destination have brought about significant changes in the religious attitude and ritualistic mode of life of the migrants. A complex society does not make uniform impact upon the migrants. In one form or other religion has existed, whether the society is rural or urban. The religious attitude and habits of the migrants change when they move into an urban world.

Migration brings about considerable change in food habits and dresses of the migrants and the local people. The impact of migration has been widespread on dress of the people. Different cultural regions have their own dress. When people of different cultural regions assemble together they try to adopt each other's dress, preferably the better one. Children and adults are more adoptive than the olds. As regards leisure, recreational habits and ceremonies, most of the migrants enjoy celebrating the festive occasions in the manner in which they are celebrated in the places of origin. Various festive occasions, which require group participation, motivate them to organize themselves into various cultural groups.
This indicates that the culture of place of origin is a source of strength for them in more or less unfamiliar cultural environment of the city of their migration. Rural-urban migration makes most of the migrants addict to visit movies and attend restaurants and clubs. They pass their leisure generally in the places of entertainment.
References


