Chapter-II
CHAPTER II
REVIEW OF LITERATURE

In this section, the reviews pertaining to migration, compiled from various sources, are classified under two categories namely theoretical frame works of migration (and fertility theories) and empirical studies of migration. The former, carried out by the experts of manifold fields, attempts to describe the significant theoretical features of migration and the later highlights the levels and trends of migration and migrants’ profiles.

II.1 Migration theories

The decision to migrate is the outcome of human psychology and behaviour. Human behaviour cannot be subjected to any universal and uniform law. However, geographers, economists and sociologists, to find out some pattern and order in the migration decisions of individuals, have presented many models.

(1) Ravenstein, E.G., (1885), had developed many of the generalizations or laws of migration that summarized as follows. (1) The migrants move from areas of low economic opportunities to areas of high opportunity. (2) Each stream of rural-urban migration produces a counter stream of urban-rural migration although the former tends to dominate the latter. (3) The urban residents are less migratory than the rural. (4) Migration accelerates with improvements in transportation and communications, and rapid expansion of trade and industry. (5) Long distance migrants have a preference for large center of commerce and industry. (6) The number of migrants to a place decreases as the distance increases. (7) Migration takes place in currents. (8) The gaps left by the migrants are filled up by migrants from other remote districts. (9) Females appear to predominate among short Journey migrants.  

(2) Lewise, W.A. et al., (1961), This model considers migration as an equilibrating mechanism which through the transfer of labour from the labour surplus subsistence agricultural sector to the labour deficient industrial sector, which brings out equality between the two sectors.  

(3) Sjaastad, L.A., (1962), presented a human investment theory of migration, which treats the decision to migrate as an investment decision involving costs and returns. The returns are divided into money and non-money components. Non-money returns include changes in "psychic benefits" as a result of location preferences. Similarly, costs include both money and non-money costs, such as costs of transport, of disposal of movable and immovable property necessitated by a shift in residence, of wages forgone while in transit, of retraining for a new job, if necessary. There are psychic costs too, of leaving familiar surroundings, in money cases of giving up one's language and culture, and of adopting new dietary habits and social customs. In this situation migration otherwise it does not take place when the benefits (monetary and non-monetary benefits) outweighs the costs (monetary and psychic costs).

(4) Push-Pull theory, (1965), Among the various factors operating at the place of origin may be included the following: high natural rate of population growth creating population pressure on the existing resources, exhausting of natural resources, droughts, floods and natural calamities such as earth quakes and famines and acute social, religious or political conflicts compelling people to migrate to other places for reasons of safety. The following may be included as the pull factors: establishment of new industries with the

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provision of new opportunities for gainful employment, facilities for higher education in cities, pleasant climatic conditions, etc.⁹

(5) Lee, E.S., (1966), described that every case of out-migration involves an origin, a destination and an intervening set of obstacles. He assorted the factors influencing the migrant perception into ‘pluses’, ‘zeros’ and ‘minuses’. While the ‘pluses’ pull the individual towards them, the ‘minuses’ drive them away. The zeros refer to competing forces, which are, more or less, evenly balanced.¹⁰

(6) Turner theory, (1968), The rural-urban migrants tend to settle initially in the central city region and then subsequently move to the periphery after a period of adjustment to urban life. More specifically, Turner argues that migrants are concerned initially with the location of their housing, subsequently with their security of tenure and ultimately with the amenities available in their homes.¹¹

(7) Todaro, M.P., (1969), The essential features of this model are as follows. (1) Migration is stimulated primarily by rational economic considerations of relative benefits and costs, mostly financial, but also psychological. (2) The decision to migrate depends on “expected” rather than actual urban-rural real wage differentials and the probability of successfully obtaining employment in the urban modern sector. (3) The probability of obtaining an urban job is inversely related to the urban unemployment rate. In this context, Todaro portrays rural-urban migration as a two-stage process. In the first stage, the migrant arrives in the urban area, and in many cases remains either unemployed or low earning

employed in the tradition sector, while hunting for a modern sector job. In the second stage he often succeeds in obtaining a modern sector job, which usually carries higher earnings.\(^{12}\)

(8) Ghosh, B.N., (1985), has described the following are the factors that discourage migration. (1) Distance is a discouraging factor for migration. The greater the distance, the lesser would be the possibility of migration. (2) Uncertainly regarding income and employment will discourage migration. (3) While living at a place, people may be attached specially to that particular place or the jobs they are doing. Therefore, greater attachment to the old places and things will be a discouraging factor for migration. (4) The language, customs and traditions of the new place that may not be liked by the migrants. In such a case, people will not try to migrate to a new place. (5) Some times, a man may migrate to a new place in connection with a new job. But, he may have his property and family at the old place of living. In that case, he will incur additional expenditure for maintaining double establishments, which will discourage the migration. Difficulties in the way of education of the children may also be a discouraging factor for migration.\(^{13}\)

(9) Rebucca Budde's Social network theory, (2008), assumes that the likelihood of migration is far greater for those who personally know one or more persons already living in the host society than for individuals who do not know any body. The prospect of receiving support when searching for a job and housing diminishes the direct costs of migration owing to the possibility of living with friends, relatives or acquaintances already living in the destination places.\(^{14}\)


II.2 Methods and impediments of measuring internal migration

(1) Agarwala, S.N., (1958), has described some important calculations to compute the migration. The method of calculation is very simple. If a population ‘resident’ at time t and belonging to age x is multiplied by the probability of survival from age x to age x+io during time t and t+ io. If it is assumed that the difference between the actual population counted in the census at time t + io and belonging to age x + io, and the estimated surviving population at time t + io and then belonging to age x +io is due to net migration, then a rough estimate of net migration by age and sex for the period t to t +io can be obtained.15

(2) Ralph Thomlinson, (1962), had identified the seven factors which are the acute impediments to obtain accurate migration data. They are (1) Selection of the political entity of greatest relevance. (2) Frequency of placement of boundaries. (3) Irregularity of shape of boundaries. (4) Boundary changes through time. (5) Incomplete knowledge of the purpose of the move. (6) Length of the time period involved. (7) Multiple moves during the period by one person.16

(3) Ralph Thomlinson, (1962), has described that migration rates are much more troublesome to compute than birth and death rates. “The numerator (number of migrants) is harder to obtain and the denominator (to the base population) is more difficult to ascertain, largely because migration involves two geographic entities rather than one and because a sometimes lengthy time period is involved. To obtain accurate migration rates, we must first know where people move and in what quantities later comes the move different question of why they move. Motives ordinarily must be determined from personal interviews, which are

expensive and not terribly accurate, origin-destination data are easier to obtain and more reliable. Therefore the “where” of migration is more completely known than the “why”?

(4) Shrivastave, O.S., (1983), (1) If data on births, deaths, in-migration and out-migration of a particular area, are available, we could compute the net migration of that area very easily, by the following formula $P_t = P_o + B - D + M_i - M_e$ in which $P_o$ is population at the beginning of the period, $B$ and $D$ are births and deaths occurring to residents of the area for which estimates are being made between the beginning and the end of the period; $M_i$ and $M_e$ represent the number of migrants moving into or out of the area respectively, during the same period. (2) Since data on in-and-out migrants are generally not available, the above same equation may be modified to estimate net migration indirectly, expressed as $M = P_t - P_o - B + D$, in which $M$ refers to the net in or out migration between the two censuses; $P_t$ refers to the population at the time of a second census; $P_o$ represents population of an earlier census, $B$ and $D$ refers to births and deaths respectively, during the inter censual period.

II.3 Fertility theories

(1) Liebenstein, (1957), mentioned that three types of utilities (1) a source of personal pleasure (2) a source of productive unit (3) a source of security in the old age and two types of cost (I) direct cost (expenses of bringing up a child) (II) indirect cost (mothers’ inability to work) are involved in having an additional child. In this situation, when the benefits outweigh the costs, couple would go for an additional child. By contrast, when the costs outweigh the benefits couple would be reluctant to have an additional child.

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(2) Kingsley Davis, (1963), in his change and response theory pointed out that three significant multiphasic responses namely increasing age at marriage, utilizing contraceptive methods and migration are extremely effective in bringing down fertility.

(3) United Nations, (1965), According to the cultural lag theory, attitudes and practices conducive to diminishing fertility have been adopted first by the better educated, wealthier and socially more favoured groups of the city population.

(4) Nathan Keyfitz, (1965), Aresene Dumout, in his social capillarity theory, pointed out that one has an urge to rise in the social scale, in which a person with a small family will rise faster than a person with big family. But, rising in the social scale is only possible in a society where the vertical upward movement is simple. In a society ridden by castes where there are strong barriers to individual advancement, the force of social capillarity can not operate vigorously with the result that fertility in such a society is always very high.

(5) Gosta Carlsson, (1966), The decline in the birth rate in western countries was due to changes in values and in attitudes towards reproduction, resulting in the deliberate use of methods of birth control, which included contraception, abortion and voluntary abstinence. Birth control practices are initiated in metropolitan centers, move to other urban areas after some time lag and finally reach to rural areas.

II.4 Empirical studies of migration

Empirical studies of migration are bifurcated as indigenous studies and abroad studies. The former that helps us to understand the complex Indian migration through the various cultural, territorial, provincial, economical background and the later that enhances

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our insight by providing the diversities of hues about manifold human migration outright and also guides us to form a generalization of human migration, which is even now considered to be chaos and a Herculean task.

II.4.1 Indigenous studies

(1) Balakrishna, R., (1957), In Madras city, the total number of migrants in 1954-57 was 0.58 million of whom the large majority, namely 87 per cent, came from the other districts of Madras state. The bulk of the migrants were from the rural areas. The average size of the household for migrants was 4.90. About 51 per cent of the households were of the nuclear type with husband, wife and unmarried children. The joint family pattern was there in nearly one-half of the households.  

(2) Zachariah, K.C., (1961), found that, in 1961, the age distribution of the migrants to Greater Bombay was distinctly different from that of the non-migrants. Among the migrants, there was an excess of adolescent and young adults. When the migrants, were considered, 81.05 per cent belonged to the age group 15-59, the corresponding percentage for the non-migrants being 37-27. Again, whereas less than 10 per cent of the migrants were below the age of 10 and 45 per cent of the non-migrants were below the age. The greatest difference was thus evident in the youngest age group. Further, among the migrants to Greater Bombay, the males predominated. The ratio of males to 100 females among migrants was 181, whereas it was 111 for non-migrants.  

(3) Aileen Ross, D., (1961), Of the 157 persons of Banglore city interviewed 25 came from the villages and 60 from other towns and cities and 69 from within the Banglore. The average income was Rs.473/-. More than one half were living in nuclear families composed

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of parents and unmarried children and 44 of the were living in joint families consisting of parents and married sons.\textsuperscript{26}

(4) N.S.S. Thirteenth Round, (1962), showed that 75.4 per cent of the males have migrated to urban areas in order to gain employment and 1.6 per cent done so for education purposes. Among the male migrants who had not migrated voluntarily, 43.65 per cent had done along with the earning members of their households, while 32.7 per cent are refugees.\textsuperscript{27}

(5) Agarwala, S.N., (1963), has the tried to explain the causes for the migration in India on the basis of National Sample Survey, Tables with Notes on Internal migration, Report No.53, 1962. He described that one half of the female rural-urban migration was marriage migration. With 46.20 per cent against males’ migration 0.6, followed by moving with earning member of household with 26.0 per cent against 16.5 males migration. The proportion of women, who come from rural areas in search of employment to urban areas, are limited with 1.8 per cent against 28.80 per cent male’s migration. The proportion of women, main for better employment, was tiny and negligible, as compared to the male’s migration with 0.9 per cent against 11.3 per cent of male’s migration.\textsuperscript{28}

(6) Desai, I.P., (1964), in his study of the small town to Mahuva in Saurashtra, has found that the number of incoming rural migrants exceeded that of urban migrants. Rural migrants came more from the neighboring areas. The urban migrants came almost in equal numbers form longer distances, within Saurashtra and outside Gujarat. These observations are corroborated by the information on relationships. 12 per cent of the migrants residing in Mahuva maintained contacts with relatives residing in the rural areas with Sourashtra. This percentage was only slightly higher than that of the group maintaining contracts with

relatives in the urban areas of Saurashtra. However, 30 per cent maintained contacts with relatives out side Gujarat State. Desai also found that 60 per cent of incoming migrants halted at one place, 24 per cent at two places and 16 per cent at three or more places before coming to Mahuva indicating considerable step-wise migration. Most of the migrants wanted to settle permanently in the town, only 5 per cent stated that they did not intend to settle there permanently and 10 per cent were uncertain.²⁹

(7) Rao and Desai, (1965), This survey was based on a study of 5 per cent sample of households in Delhi and it was found that 34 per cent of the households belonged to the in-migrants and 36 per cent to the refugees and only 30 per cent to the old residents. Similarly, it was found that a higher portion of the migrant men as well as women had higher education than the resident population. The migrants also earned on an average more (Rs.180/- per month) than the residents (Rs.157/- per month). There was also a marked shift in the occupations of the migrants, most of them taking to urban occupations of services, manufacture and transport. The survey found evidence of the strong hold of the joint family over the migrants. About 70 per cent of the household visited their native places during the year of the survey.³⁰

(8) Kunj Patel, (1965), Individual migration depends largely on the presence of friends, relations or fellow villagers at the destination. They provide job information, temporary boarding and housing to the migrants. Family and village tie somewhat obligate the successful migrants to assist and sponsor new migrants to the city. Of the 500 mill workers, 66.6 per cent were close relations of migrants of rural origin, 15 per cent had

relatives and 17.2 per cent had fellow-villager in Bombay. Only 1.2 per cent had no relation and no fellow villager.31

(9) Ashish Bose, (1965), A large proportion of adult male migrants to cities were married and they left their families behind in the rural areas.32

(10) Sovani, N.V., (1966), According to the findings of R.P.C. surveys, the percentages of migration to cities due to unemployment at home, meager income and insufficient land were 58, 50, 46, 40, 51 and 70 for Bombay, Hyderabad, Jamshedpur, Kanpur, Hubli and Poona respectively. The remaining migrants had moved for education, better employment and attraction of city life or service transfer. For instance, in Bombay 13.5 percent migrated to the city because of better employment prospects. Routine transfer, came with their families and miscellaneous accounted for 1 per cent.33

(11) Edwin Eames, (1967), in his study of urban-bound migrants from a village in U.P. found that the various castes differ in their propensity to migrate and also in the level of occupation they find in the city. Upper caste men migrate more often and prosper.34

(12) Vatsala Narain, et al., (1970), In a study conducted in Southern Maharashra, it was found that rural migration was dominated by females; a pattern very common in India, most of this female migration was due to marriage.35

(13) Worrie, W.D., (1970), One of the world greatest civilian population transfers has taken place on the occasion of India and Pakistan separation. The impact of these refugees was most severe in the Punjab in Pakistan, where they formed to be 68 per cent of the population, and in India in West Bengal (29 per cent of the population and the Punjab 33

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per cent). In West Bengal the numbers of incoming Hindus were three or four times greater than the numbers of emigrating Muslims. The problems of resettlement were complicated by the fact that the migrating populations were dissimilar in occupational structure and skills. The Muslims were mainly rural handicrafts men and peasants, where the Hindus included a much higher proportion of shopkeepers, government employees and clerical workers. The costs of resettling these transferred populations consumed substantial funds that might have been used for more profitable investment. Between, 1947-57, the Indian government had spent 3,011 million rupees on these displaced persons. The achievements were also considerable, by 1957, about 11,14,000 families or over 4 million persons had been settled on the land, some 6,00,000 housing units for refugees had been built, and 537 million rupees had been paid in compensation.\(^6\)

(14) Wyon and Gorden, (1971), Among Punjabi farmers, older sons were kept away from school so that they might remain on the family farm while younger sons were given some schooling in preparation for migration.\(^7\)

(15) Venkatarayappa, A.K.N., (1972), Among the migrant slum dwellers of Mysore city, most of them marry at an early age, generally the boy at about eighteen and the girl at twelve or fourteen. Instances of marriages being broken are quite common.\(^8\)

(16) Pathare, P.A., (1972), The mean size of migrant household in a Maharashtran sugar factory was 8.22.\(^9\)

(17) Kuppuswamy, B., (1972), The city survey have shown that 80 per cent of the migration is from rural areas; it is 82 per cent in Jamshedpur, 78 per cent in Gorakhpur and


\(^8\) Venkatarayappa, A.K.N., (1972), "Slums (A Study in Urban Problem)" Sterling publishers (P) LTD, Delhi, 1972, p.5.

76 per cent in Kanpur. The largest number of migrants is small farmers, unskilled agriculture laborers, toddy tapers, fishermen etc. The surveys have also shown that 60 per cent of the migrants from the rural areas are literates. About 60 per cent of them obtained employment without any waiting and 15 per cent within three months. It was also found that about 20 per cent came from the same district and about 75 per cent from the same state. When we consider their earning capacity and the living conditions the picture is very depressing. About 10 per cent of the migrants earn less than Rs.50/- a month and 55 per cent earn below Rs.75/- per month. He further asserts that 25 per cent of the rural people living in cities are destitute because they earn less than Rs.225/- per annum. Another depressing fact revealed by these urban surveys is that unemployment is much higher among the educated persons than among the illiterates. As regards housing, about 50 per cent to 70 per cent of the people live in one-room tenements except in Hubli and Hyderabad, more than 70 per cent of the households have no water tap, about 70 per cent have no independent kitchen, 60 per cent have no electricity. Further, the surveys have revealed that people of the same caste, language and religion tend to aggregate in different areas of the city. Thus, though they are living in cities they continue to live in the primary groups. 40

(18) IDRC study, (1973), study of migration to five urban centers in three continents found that 80 per cent of migrants obtained information from relatives or friends and less than 1 per cent from newspapers or radio. 41

(19) Jain, S.P., (1974), According to the findings of R.P.C Surveys, the percentages of migration to cities due to unemployment, meager income and insufficient land were 58, 50, 46, 40, 51 and 70 for Bombay, Hyderabad, Jamshedpur, Kanpur, Hubli and Poona.

respectively. The remaining migrants had moved for education, better employment, prospects in cities and attraction of city life or service transfer. Migration from villages does not disrupt the joint family system. A new type of joint family emerges, whose seat is still in the ancestral village and whose urban wing is an integral part of both the economic and ceremonial units. For instance, it has been estimated that 40 per cent of migrant households in Calcutta belong to lone migrants. Such lone migrants leave their families behind, live as lonely as possible and regularly send money to home. In the Delhi survey, it was found that 71 per cent were regularly sending money to home and of these, 90 per cent said this was necessary in order to maintain the family.42

(20) Rele, J.R. and Tara Kanitkar, (1974), In Greater Bombay, when migrant wives were categorised according to original residence in two groups, one with a rural background and the other with an urban background, it was observed that the educational attainment of those with an urban background was slightly higher than that of the non migrant wives and better than that of migrant wives with a rural background.43

(21) Bahattacharjee P.J. and Shastri G.N., (1976), Tamil Nadu is important from the viewpoint of the pattern and causes of migration. At the beginning of the 20th century Madras experienced an outflow of population and it continued up to 1941. The major gainers from Madras were Karnataka, A.P., Kerala, W.B., Bihar, and Orissa, Assam. But, after independence, Madras stated gaining population through migration. This is due to the urbanization and industrialization of the state.44

(22) John Connell et al., (1976), Social system is also a cause for migration. In India villages, downtrodden people migration is higher than the other people. Many of the studies

on migration point to the high degree of educational selectivity in migration patterns, because educational status is used specifically to gain better employment. Behind the immense reasons such as land less, tiny land, uncultivable land, paucity of irrigations, some peculiar causes also contribute the migration. Yeswant in his study of four south Indian villages found that how in the Tamil Nadu village’s pump set removed the need for the cobblers who made the leather buckets; consequently they had to find alternative jobs in the village. A major consequence of migration is the transfer of cash or other resources between the migrant and family members remaining in the villages. Not all remittances are cash flows or postal orders or cheques. In two villages close to Bangkok only 32 per cent of remittances were in cash, many comprise goods, in Ghana, especially cloth and clothing and to a lesser extent urban foods. Remittances almost always include valuable durables, radios and bicycles and gold soon. In Nigeria Adamou asserts that again 92 per cent of remittances were spent on household maintenance, 9 per cent on school fees, and 7 per cent on house-building farming etc. Thus, the overall study provides to us a clear picture about rural migration patterns.\(^{45}\)

(23) Satish Saberwal, (1976), With regard to the change in traditional occupations, of the 20 Balmikis, the fathers of most Balmikis at Modelpur in Punjab (12 persons) had followed their traditional occupations, but their sons, namely respondents, 2 persons only have adopted that. Among the fathers of Ad Daharmis (19 persons) and Ramgarhias (another 19 persons) 6 and 1 person had followed their traditional occupations against nothing by sons. All the Ad Dharmis and Ramgarhias respondents have entered into the non-traditional occupation through education as much as apprenticeship.\(^{46}\)


(24) Biswajit Banerjee, (1977), In general, it is absorbed that migrants who were previously employed have a shorter waiting period than those who are fresh entrants to the labour force. The duration of job search may also be related to the educational attainments of migrants. It is generally assumed by most economists that although the migrants may be employed in the traditional sector of the labour market for some time ultimately, they will acquire wider knowledge of job opportunities and in due course will be able to set jobs in the modern sector. To find out what the real situation is we need to know the occupational history of migrants. For instance, a migrant comes to the city with the aim of getting a steady modern sector job. But on coming to the urban center, he is unable to obtain employment in the modern sector immediately, either because of imperfect knowledge or because he is not fully prepared or qualified for a modern sector job. The option available to the migrant is either to remain unemployed, while searching for modern sector job or to take up a traditional sector job for a limited duration. If he feels that taking up a traditional sector job will reduce the probability of obtaining a modern sector job because he might not be able to search for job as actively, the migrant may prefer to remain unemployed. If a migrant develops a habit of turn over or up ward economic mobility in the obtained traditional sector job, then his probability of obtaining a modern sector job may be low. This is because employers of modern sector job may not like to employ those who have developed habits of high turn over.47

(25) Nair, K.S., (1978), The majority of in-migrants came to Poona at the age group of 21-30 (47.50%). Majority of the in-migrants (64.50%) were unmarried before they arrived in Poona. Lack of job opportunities was reported as the most important reason to leave their native places by as much as 70.50 per cent of the in-migrants. More than half of all the in-

migrants (56.50%) have taken information or suggestions from their relatives before coming to Poona. Majority of the in-migrants are employed in white-collared occupations. About 98.5 per cent of the in-migrants are Hindus and the rest are Christians. The large percentage of the in-migrants (80%) is either matriculates or graduates. The percentage of illiterates, professional degree holders, and post-graduates are very low. Majority of them (66.50%) did not have any occupational training. More than 80 per cent of the in-migrants have monthly income ranging from Rs.400/- to 1200/-. About 76 per cent of the in-migrants have achieved a fair level of socio-economic status. Only 9.5 per cent of the in-migrants houses fall into the category of poor or very poor. Only 5.5 per cent of the in-migrants live in their own houses. The rest 94.5 per cent live in rented houses. 42.5 per cent of the in-migrants are not satisfied with their accommodation. The percentage of in-migrants without any friends in the locality is very low. More than half (58%) of the in-migrants have more than five friends. The highest percentage of the in-migrants has more than 15 friends. The percentage of those who like the neighbourhood is very high with 83 per cent and of those who dislike is very low with 10.50 per cent. 

(26) Arora, R.C., (1979), In accordance with NSS 1970-71, only about 30 per cent of the rural unemployed were willing to leave the villages. The figure was slightly larger for the landless workers. This is largely because there is psychological hesitation in leaving accustomed environments and there are seasonal unemployment risks involved in moving away from the family. Lastly the sex composition of unemployed is also significant. The proportions of unemployed females have been constantly higher than the males in the rural areas and further women labour is less mobile than the men folks.

(27) Mamoria, C.B., (1981), According to the Research Programmes Committee of the Planning Commission, about 40 per cent of the samples studied live in their own houses. A high percentage of people (55%) live in rented houses because they are migrants to those cities. With regards to water supply, in Bombay, 72 per cent of the households do not have independent water tap and in Hubli and Kanpur this percentage goes up to 87 per cent. In other cities, 54 to 87 per cent of the dwellings are without independent water-tap. In Jamshedpur 42 per cent of the families get water from a distance of 50 feet and longer. In Poona, 30 per cent of the households shared one tap between 20 or more families. More than one-third of the urban households do not have independent latrines. In Bombay, Poona and Hubli only 13 per cent have independent latrines. In Calcutta, and other industrial centers, one latrine is shared by as many as 30 to 50 persons and in Bombay 80 per cent of the families use common latrines which are shared between 10 to 50 families or even more. Nearly 72 per cent of the households in Bombay are without bathrooms. In cities, with a population varying from 2 to 10 lakhs, a very substantial number of families and tenements are not supplied electricity.50

(28) Biswajit Banerjee, (1981), Among the in-migrants of Delhi city, the average period of waiting for the first job was about 17 days.51

(29) Sing, S.D. and Pothen K.P., (1982), In a study of a Delhi slum, it was revealed that the slum-dwellers belonged to castes such as Balmikies, Kahars, and Pallans. In the city of Ranchi in Bihar, those tribes who have been displaced by the establishment of huge factories have started living in slums. The study also reveals that the incoming migrants settlement in the slums. Low castes and classes migrate from the rural to the urban centers for a variety of reasons such as poverty, oppression and exploitation by upper castes, debt,

unemployment, a desire to improve the status. The people, who migrate to cities, obtain some low-income jobs through the help of kins, relatives and friends and also settle in the same slums, where the relatives and friends already have settled. Study of Delhi slums revealed that 75 per cent of the workers among the slum-dwellers had friends, relatives, fellow villagers and it was through their assistance that they were able to get jobs in the city. One of the more important reasons why the migrants (slum people) find themselves in the squatter settlements is that they depend upon kinship, caste, and regional networks not only for decisions regarding the choice of destinations, but also for their adjustment to the harsh conditions of urban living.\(^{52}\)

(30) Mahendra K. Premi, (1983), As per 1971 census about two-thirds of the migrants changed their places of residence within the district of enumeration and a little over one-fifth changed their places of residence within the state of enumeration, but outside the district of enumeration, the rest (a little over one-tenth) moved across state boundaries. Between 1961 and 1971, there was a slight reduction in the proportion of intra-district migrants of both males and females. The bulk of female migration in the rural to rural streams in all the three distance categories was probably due to village exogamy. In the long distance category, urban to urban migration of women is more prominent than rural to urban migration. Further as the distance increases, the sex ratio falls sharply, and among the inter-state migrants, male migration becomes more extensive than female migration. The sex ratio in the urban to urban migration streams is higher than in the rural urban migration streams, probably reflecting a greater family migration in the urban to urban streams as well as independent female migration for economic reasons.\(^{53}\)

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The data on age show that out of 984 in-migrants of Ludhiana city, nearly two-thirds of in-migrants were between 15-29 years of age at the time of migration and that only 2.3 per cent were aged 60 and above. The data on marital status show that a little more than one-third of in-migrants were unmarried persons at the time of migration. The educational characteristics of in-migrants show that 79.3 per cent had received formal education before migration. The data also show that in-migrants from urban areas had a significantly higher level of education than the rural. The data on the activity status show that about two-thirds of in-migrants (66.5 %) were employed, and that only a small percentage (11.2%), was unemployed before migration. The data on reasons for migration indicate the importance of economic factors (81.3%) in the decision to migrate. The data show that more than 90 per cent of in-migrants who looked for work could find it within two months of their arrival. This indicates that migrants are being absorbed quickly in the urban labour market. The data show that about three-fourths of in-migrants were able to increase their income as against a quarter that experienced a decline or no change during the year following their migration. Further, nearly one-fifth of in-migrants increased their income by 26.50 per cent and another about one third by more than 50 per cent.\(^\text{54}\)

In the 1961 census, about 68.60 per cent of the population was enumerated at the place of birth, indicating that only 31.40 per cent had moved from their place of birth. The percentage of lifetime migrants was found to have slightly decreased to 29.5 in the 1971 census. It may be pointed out here that a large number of migrants move only short distances, that is, they move from one place to another within their own district. In the 1971 census, 19.45 per cent of the total population

and 65.84 per cent of the migrant population were born outside the district of enumeration. The corresponding percentages in the 1961 census were 20.94 and 67.89. Earlier census operations from 1891 to 1931 indicated that the percentage of persons enumerated in a state or a province different from the one in which they were born was almost static, ranging between 3.3 and 3.8. They 1961 and the 1971 census operations indicated that these percentages were 3.3 and 3.5 respectively. This means that the picture of inter-state migration has not changed in India over the years. The following factors have been mainly responsible for the immobility of the Indian population: predominance of agriculture, the caste system, early marriage, the joint family system, lack of education, diversity of languages and culture.55

(33) Varma, S.C., (1984), It has been found that recorded employment in the organized sector increased from 18.8 million to 22.3 million from 1967 to 1978. The annual average growth has been only about 0.8 million. The net addition to the labour force being of an order of 6 million per year, the organized sector has the capacity to take care of just about 11 per cent of the increase; most of the remaining 89 per cent of the annual addition has obviously to grope for employment in the rural sector. It is not possible for all in getting the employment in rural sector. So, they slowly move towards urban in search of employment.56

(34) Jayaraman, T.K., (1985), The origin study was conducted by the Bureau of Economics and Statistics of the state government from August 1971 to July 1972, in three villages of Motikharaj, Nanikharaj and Brahmkheda. The main findings of the survey can be summarized as follows. (1) Of the total 225 sample households, 97 per cent of members were in possessed on of land up to 2 hectares. (2) The average annual income of sample

households was Rs.222 to Rs.288/-. (3) The highest number of migrants had moved to the urban areas of Kaira district. (4) During the period of migration the migrants were mostly engaged in gang work on roads, house construction activities and agricultural labour. The destination study was conducted by the author in randomly selected villages in the command areas during the kharif season of 1978 (July to September). The main findings of the survey can be summarized as follows. (1) Of the total 100 households the average annual earning of 100 sample households was Rs.582.60/-. (2) The average size of land holding was 1.50 hectares. (3) The average size of migrating household was 8 persons; the average number of migrants from Panchmahals into the rural kaira was 3 per household. (4) Some of these migrant households also maintained livestock, which was cared for during their absence by their members of the households.57

(35) Shah, S.M., (1985), According to the Research Programmes Committee Planning Commission (1955-57), the migrants are (53%) excess than the residents (47%) in Calcutta and in Poona (59% against 41%). J.F. Bulsara, in his classical study, “Rapid urbanization in India” (1964), has indicated that the in-migrant families constituted nearly half (Poona 59%, Kanpur 46% Calcutta 53%, Delhi 45%) of the total population in these cities. Among the in-migrants, the rural migrants constituted 78 per cent in Bombay, 76 per cent in Kanpur and 77 per cent in Gorapur. These migrants are illiterates and lack of formal skills. So, they could only eke to just live in the cities. The Socio-Economic survey of Bombay city (1957) sponsored by the Planning Commission, revealed that the average income of households in Calcutta was Rs.148/- and in Delhi Rs181/-, and in Madras Rs.132/- and in Lucknow Rs.112/- per month. This disclosed the fact that the major chunk of urban population were below the poverty line in cities. Since there are no reception centers, these

in-migrants add to the over-congestion of slums and build up squatter colonies. In Delhi according to a study conducted by the Town and Country Planning Organization, the squatter households increased from 5 per cent in 1951 to as large as 12 per cent in the year 1973. Nearly 15 to 20 per cent of the population in cities with 3 lakhs and above lives in squatter settlements. Only about 30 per cent of the urban dwelling units have independent latrines. A very substantial proportion of families and tenements are not supplied with electricity.\(^{36}\)

(36) Agrarwala, S.N., (1985), The 1981 census reveals that while for males "employment" and "family moved" are the main causes for changing the residence, which accounts for about 71.4 per cent of male migrants, nearly 72.3 per cent of the females moved because of marriage. In the rural areas, however, the reason "family moved" was more important for male migrants than the reason employment. In the urban areas, on the other hand, the reason "employment" was more important than "family moved". Among the females, though "marriage" was the main reason for change of residence, the reason of "family moved" was also important in urban areas. It also noticed that the proportion of male migrants who moved for the reason "family moved" decreases with distance. Among the females, the proportion for the reason "marriage" decreases with distance whereas the proportion for the reason "family moved" among the urban females increases with distance.\(^{37}\)

(37) Setty Pendaker, V. (1989), In Delhi, even after the implementation of some massive settlement schemes for urban poor migrants, there are 2 lakh families squatting on public lands. In this connection, we have to point out another significant thing that location of the schemes. Location is very important to the poor. Because of the very high cost of land in the inner city, most housing schemes have proposed relocation of the poor with more space and less rounding but far away from the city center. The most glaring and worst examples of

\(^{36}\)Shah, S.M., (1985), "Growth Centres for Rural and Urban Development", Abhinav Publications, New Delhi, p.188.

this approach are found in Delhi resettlement colonies that are about 22 kms from the center. As a result, the poor have to spend considerable portions of their incomes on transport, as well as a lot of time, resulting in fatigue. The poor in such schemes are far removed from their jobs or from the market where they must buy and sell their goods. It is absolutely essential that the poor must live near their place of work, with suitable.60

(38) Census of India, (1991), According to the 1991 census, the reasons for migration that are as follows: Employment (30.4 per cent for males and 3 per cent for females), business (6.6 per cent for males and 0.8 per cent for females), education (9 per cent for males and 18.6 per cent for females), family moved (30.4 per cent for males and 18.6 per cent for females) and natural calamities (0.9 per cent for males and 0.3 per cent for females) as well.61

(39) Lakshmanasamy, T., (1991), The amount remitted by a migrant varies directly with the families needs at the places of origin and income at the places of destination. As for the consumption purposes of remittances, Eames (1966) notes 12 per cent of the respondents as identifying the purchase of bullocks and to aid agriculture as the uses mode of remittances received. Oberai and Singh (1983) observed that the 12.3 per cent of households send remittances to purchase land, 14.9 per cent to purchase implements, 13.8 per cent on land improvements and 12.8 per cent to purchase fertilizer.62

(40) Shuka, P.R. and Roy Chowdhry S.K., (1992), 1. The estimated model (industrial variables and migration) indicates a positive and direct relationship between the growth rates of industrial out put, urban-rural income differentials and the rates of rural-urban migration. The coefficients of these two explanatory variables are found to be

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60Setty Pendakur, V., (1989), "Housing The Urban Poor", in "Urban Renewal (The Indian Experience)", Edited by D.Ravindra Prasad, Sterling Publishers Private Limited, New Delhi, pp.98.
statistically significant at one per cent and five per cent levels respectively. This suggests that with growth in urban-modern industrial development, the rate of in migration to urban centers increases. 2. The estimated model (agricultural variables and migration) indicates that the coefficients of the rates of growth of agricultural output and rural income are negatively correlated with the rates of rural-urban migration in A.P. The coefficients of the two variables are statistically significant at one per cent and five per cent levels respectively. This suggests that the developments in the agricultural sector produce more out migration in rural areas in A.P. 3. The variable distance sign as expected is negative. It is inversely correlated with migration. In other words, it acts as a deterrent in the case of rural-urban migration. The variable previous stock of migrants in urban areas is a very important factor in explaining rural-urban migration. In other words, the process of rural-urban migration in A.P. would have been accelerated to a greater extent due to the influence of social contacts with the people who have already migrated from rural areas and settled in urban areas with potential rural out-migrants. The variable rate of literacy among male rural population is statistically significant at one per cent level and associated positively with the origin out-migration in A.P. Therefore the availability of more educational facilities in the rural areas leads to greater out-migration from these areas in search of employment in urban center.

(41) Sankaran, S., (1994), According to the statistics gathered by “Population Crises Committee” none of the nine largest cities of India (namely, Bombay, Calcutta, Delhi, Madras, Hyderabad, Bangalore, Ahamedabad, Kanpur and Pune), each having about 60 per cent migrants in their total population, public safety is very poor in Pune, Kanpur, Delhi, Hyderabad, and Bombay. It is better in Ahamadabad and Bangalore. It is very good in Madras and Calcutta. Food cost is very high in Bangalore. Next come Calcutta, Bombay and

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Pune. Madras and Hyderabad are cheapest cities. The living space is very cramped in houses in Bombay, Pune, Kanpur and Calcutta, Hyderabad. It is better in Delhi, Bangalore, Madras, and Ahamadabad. In housing standards, Calcutta is very poor with only 57 per cent of homes having electricity and water, followed by Delhi (67%) and Bangalore (66%). It is normal in Pune (78%) Madras (76%) and Ahamadabad (71%) Kanpur (70%). It is very good in Hyderabad (81%) and Bombay (85%) of homes having electricity and water. Madras stands first in noise pollution and in traffic flood Hyderabad stands first. In urban living standard score, Ahmedabad stands first with 43 points and Madras comes second with 42 points. Kanpur, Calcutta, Bombay and Delhi score only 33, 34, 35 and 36 points respectively.64

(42) Rajesh Gill, (1994), The various studies conducted on migration in India have shown that people first migrate from the rural areas to small town or a medium size town and subsequently to metropolitan city. But, it is not so in this study. 89 per cent of studied people in Chandigarh and 95 per cent of studied people in Bombay had directly migrated to the city. People, 8 per cent in Chandigarh and 5 per cent in Bombay, had migrated second time. Only 3 per cent of respondents in Chandigarh had multi migration. When asked about the reason as to why they chose these places, they affirmed that the presence of some acquaintances had encouraged coming. Further, as indicated in most of the earlier studies, 92 per cent of the respondents belonged to rural areas (98 per cent in Bombay and 86 per cent in Chandigarth). Among those coming from urban areas, a higher proportion belonged to Chandigarh (14 per cent against 2 per cent of Bombay). It reveals that rural poor have changed as urban poor.65

(43) Shekar Mukherji, (1996), (1) The volume of total in- migration to metropolises depends on the city size, but it is negatively related to bank/plan investments made to all industries, but the proportion of in- migration for employment does not depend on the city

size, which is rather related to bank/plan investment to all industries (canonical correlation is 0.9999). (2) Migration for educational purposes occurs to those cities that are having relatively more daily factory employment (canonical correlation is 0.9997). (3) Volume of total in-migration is related to investment made to all industries and service sector, but not decadal migration (canonical correlation is 0.9996). (4) Decadal migration occurs to those cities having trade-commerce workers and service sectors of the economy, and partly also related to city size, but not to manufacturing sector of economy, or to investment to all industries/small scale industries (canonical correlation 0.9995). (5) Larger volume of total in-migration occurs to those cities which having high manufacturing and service sectors (canonical correction is 0.8927).  

(44) Alok Gupta, (1997), This paper has provided us some important causes to migration, especially agricultural prosperity and anti social elements. It is not only the rural poverty that induces urbanization (through migration) but the agricultural prosperity brought out by green revolution in some states also induces urbanization. For example, in Punjab, the urban growth rate increased from 25.3 per cent during 1961-71 to 44.5 per cent during 1971-81, while in Haryana, the comparable figures were 35.6 per cent and 56.4 per cent respectively. The activities of terrorists and militants have also been responsible for migration of rural people to urban areas and the residence of small towns to bigger cities for reasons of security and safety that the urban areas are expected to provide in greater measure in comparison to the rural areas.  

(45) Asha. A.Bhende and Tara Kanitakar, (1997), According to the 1971 census, out of 545 million persons in India for whom data on the birthplace are available, 375 million

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(68.80%) were immobile, in the sense that they were enumerated of their places of birth, whether these were village's towns or cities. Further, 170 million persons were not enumerated at their place of birth, and hence were declared as migrants. The heaviest migration in both the sexes is found in the age groups 15-34 and 35-39. The higher number of migrants in younger age is due to easy mobility of youths marriage, search for employment. It is due to the absence of all these causes that migration is very low in upper age groups. Further, 22.42 per cent males and 77.58 per cent females migrated from rural to rural. 37.13 males and 62.87 females migrated from urban to rural areas. The percentage of migrants from rural to urban areas was 52.07 and 47.93 per cent respectively. These data show that among migrants from rural to rural and urban to rural the percentages of females are higher in India. This is due to marriage migration. The chief causes of migration in urban areas are marriage, transfer of the earning member, search of employment and search of better employment. It was also observed that of all the migrants in 1971, the movements for 70.66 per cent were from rural areas and to other rural areas. It indicates that the pull factor does not seem to be operating very vigorously.68

(46) Tiwari, R.S., (1997), Of the 424 workers of Kanpur city, 254 (60%) are migrants and the rest 170 (40%) non-migrant. Of the migrant workers, 94 per cent were married; of the non-migrants 72.94 per cent of workers were married. Most of the migrants workers belonged to non-scheduled caste/tribe community (51.96%) whereas, of the non-migrants, 59.41 per cent were schedule castes and schedule tribes. Majority of migrant workers were illiterates (36.61%) and of the local workers, 30 per cent were illiterates. The average age of migrant workers comes to 26 years. The average age of non-migrant workers comes to 32 years. Average size of household for migrant workers comes to 4.80 and for non-migrant

5.94. The average number of earners and dependents come to 1.09 and 3.66 for migrant’s and 1.80 and 3.96 for non-migrant workers respectively. On an average, a migrant worker works 11.62 hours and than of non-migrant 9.63 hours per day. From the survey, it was found that low income of workers at their native places is the principal cause for their migration. Next to this was the seeking employment in the city as 13.38 per cent of workers spelled out this reason. Other factors like family conflict (11.81%) and to educate children (5.91) were found of secondary importance. More than half of migrant workers (56%) did not wait at all for getting job in the informal sector. On an average, waiting period for a worker comes to around 3 months. During waiting period, most of the workers stayed with their relatives, friends or family members. Of the total migrants, 95 per cent of them got job through relatives and friends and only 3.54 per cent through other sources such as notice board and personnel contacts. From the survey, it was found that 7.08 per cent of migrant workers started work in the informal sector, which fetched those lower earnings than what they had at their native places. On an average migrant worker earned Rs.313.85/- per month that was 3 times higher than the per capita income at their native places (Rs.103.71/-) per month.69

(47) Bora, R.S., (1998), The majority of hill in-migrants of Delhi city lived with their families, relations or friends. The average size of household was 3.7 persons, in which there were 1.3 workers. Among the workers, the process of in-migration was highly selective infavour of males (79%) belonging to the age group of 15 to 49 years. At the time of arrival in Delhi, majority of the in-migrants were unmarried and educated, with the varying levels of education. The major causes of their leaving the village of origin were economic push factors. About 86 per cent of the respondents said that they preferred to the Delhi as a destination because of the presence of their own rural household members, relatives and

friends. This preference is well justified because 63 per cent of the in-migrant workers got their first job with the help of relatives and friends. Majority of the hill in-migrants (63%) were able to acquire a job within six months of arrival in Delhi. Among the hill in-migrants two-thirds in workers had permanent salaried jobs. The proportion of unemployed was negligible. Those who were employed were able to increase their income by about 13 times during the course of the 17 years of their stay. Expectations of income were more than fulfilled by the actual income earned. In brief out-migration in the case of individual migration was indeed beneficial. About half the sample group did not remit any amount at all. The in-migrants living conditions in Delhi appeared to be satisfactory to them.70

(48) Srivastava, R.S., (1999), Migration is prevalent among the age group of 16-40 years. This is even more the case with poorer, semi-permanent or temporary labour migrants.71

(49) N.S.S. Fifty Fifth Round, (2000), Migrants are concentrated in different types of work in rural and urban areas. In the rural areas, self-employment is the predominant activity followed by casual work, which engaged by 34.4 per cent of male migrant workers. In urban areas, regular employment engaged 55.6 per cent of the male migrant workers while self-employment and casual work engage 31.1 and 13.30 per cent of male migrant workers respectively.72

(50) Padmanaban, K., (2000), The population of the Vaniyambadi and Ambur towns registered a growth of about 35 per cent to 40 per cent during the last 2 decades and the growth has been more than double in respect of Wallajah due to especially migration. The ceramic Industry (Parry ware) on the peripheries of Ranipet Municipality has pushed its

population from 29,281 in 1971 to 42,583 in 1991. In Tirupattur, the growth of population has been from 40,347 in 1971 to 55,282 in 1991 for which the sandal wood industry is said to be one of the main factors. The textile and dyeing factories of Gudiyatham has contributed to its population growth from 63,007 in 1971 to 85,237 in 1991 and the Beedi industry has contributed to the growth of Arcot, with its population of 30,230 in 1971 growing to 45,205 in 1991. Conversely the absence of industry or commerce contributed to very slow urbanization, for example, the Thanjavur town, which is devoid of any major industry of commercial houses, remains only a slow growing or static municipality.73

(51) Rogaley et al., (2001), Migration rates are high both among the highly educated and the least educated and among seasonal migrants there is a high preponderance of illiterate people.74

(52) Shekhar Mukherji, (2001), As per the 1991 census data, the majority of the in-migrants in four largest metropolises are illiterates and semi-literates. So, they are not absorbed in professional or administrative or even clerical work. They are indeed absorbed in very low-grade work where wages are low; productivity very low grade, insecurity and cut throat competition prevail. In terms of housing situation, due to heavy migration to cities and high urban fertility, housing shortages have been very acutely increasing and leading to proliferation of squatter settlements, shanty towns, sticking slums and pavement dwellers. For instance, Bombay has more than 50 per cent of population as slum dwellers and Calcutta (43%) and Delhi (30%) follow the suit. To disclose the housing conditions of in-migrants in metropolises, this paper quotes an another study of migration to Greater Bombay (Mukherji, 1991,10-24) which reveals the following facts: (a) 48.3 per cent live in only one room. (b)
57.5 per cent have no toilet facility. (c) 36.1 per cent are denied water facility. This paper overall conveys a message that migration which does not improve migrants’ economic condition adequately nor permits their social mobility. Rather it leads to a colossal waste of human resources and of national potential. So the migrants are in fact moving from rural poverty to urban poverty.75

(53) Census of India, (2001), According to the census of India 2006, Out of the total population of 1,028.6 million persons in India as at the 2001 census, about 307 million were reported as migrants born outside the village town of their enumeration. Out of these migrants about 216.7 million were females, out numbering their male counterparts (90.4 million), mostly due to change of their residence due to marriage. The data on migration by last residence show that the total numbers of migrants were 314 million. This number, it may be recalled is more than the number of total migrants by place of birth (307 million). This is due to a significant numbers of persons, who go out for various reasons like education, as agricultural laborers, on seasonal migration, etc, but return to the place of birth and were found to be present at the time of enumeration and thus were not migrants by place of birth but were migrants by last residence. (3) The most important reason for migration among males was due to work/employment (37.60%) followed by those who cited “moved with households” as the reason for migration (25.10%) who had to move when the households moved for any reason. Among female migrants 53.70 per cent reported migration due to “moved with household” as the reason. Number of females’ migration due to work/employment is 2 million (9%) in the country. It may be interesting to note that about 6.5 million migrants cited “Move after birth” as the reason for migration, a reason added for

the first time in 2001 Census. In other words, at least 6.5 million children were born outside the place of residence of their parents. There are about 9.5 million (18.90%) migrants, who have cited "other" reasons for migration.\(^{76}\)

(54) Mosse et al., (2002), based on a study of villages in the western India Rain-fed Farming Project have shown that the incorporation of workers in the labour market depend upon their social network. Migrants with superior social network are able to get their jobs more quickly than the migrant devoid of such social network.\(^{77}\)

(55) Mitra, A. and Gupta, L., (2002), In Delhi slums friends and relatives act as a social network to the migrants, which provide initial income support, information, accommodation and access to jobs in the informal sector.\(^{78}\)

(56) Ravi Srivastava and Sasikumar S.K., (2003), Of the 27.40 per cent who changed place of residence as per 1991 census, 8.8 per cent moved for employment reasons and 2.3 per cent had business motives. The proportion moving due to economic motives was higher for males (27.80 per cent moved for employment reasons and 7.10 per cent for business reasons) compared with females (only 1.8 per cent moved for employment reasons and 0.5 per cent for business reason). Migration rates are high both among the highly educated and the least educated. Males predominate in most labour migration streams. In the urban informal sector, friends and relatives act as a network they provide initial income support, information, accommodation, and access to jobs in migrants. Field studies show that a majority of migrants either remit or bring home savings. Remittance is mainly used for purposes like consumption, repayment of loans and meeting other social obligation. Migrant labourers, whether agricultural or non-agricultural, live in deplorable conditions. There is no

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\(^{76}\)Census of India, (2001), "Data Highlights", Migration Tables CD1, D1 (Appendix), D2 and D3 Tables), pp.1-35.


provision of safe drinking water or hygienic sanitation. Most live in open spaces or make shift shelters. Food costs more for migrant’s workers who are not able to obtain temporary ration cards. Labourers working harsh circumstances and living unhygienic conditions suffer from serious occupational health problems and are vulnerable to disease. As the employer does not follow safety measures, accidents are quite frequent.79

(57) Sethuramalingam, V., (2004), In Chennai, the slum population is 10,79,414 of which 5,48,517 are males and 5,30,897 are females. Among them a substantial number of people are migrants seeking jobs and fortunes in urban areas. In these slums, it was found that 65 per cent of the houses are permanent, the rest are semi-permanent and temporary houses. Nearly 70 per cent houses have only one room and about 25 per cent two rooms. 80 per cent of the households have electricity and 60 per cent have television and about 45 per cent had radio. Only 27 per cent of the houses have access to drinking water within the home. 55 per cent have water nearby and the rest have to go more than 500m to access it. Even more of a health hazard is the fact that 35 per cent of the households have no toilet facility and that nearby 45 per cent of the households have open drainage or no drainage. And 25 per cent of the households have no independent kitchen while over half use kerosene stoves—generally in a part of the one room that’s a house.80

(58) Priya Deshingkar and Sven Grimm, (2005), (1) Migration is a routine livelihood strategy of poor households which helps to smooth seasonal income fluctuations and earn extra cash to meet contingencies or increase disposable income. Remittances play an important role to increase the living conditions. In the poor state of Bihar remittances

constituted one-third of the average annual income of household with the proportion being much higher among the landless. (2) Whether or not migration is poverty reducing, it is a tough undertaking. Migrants travel and live in very difficult conditions. They work long hours in harsh conditions, injuries are common and there is inadequate medical assistance or compensation. Water, fuel, sanitation and security are major problems. They quote a study by DISHA, an NGO in Gujarat that found that over half the migrants slept in the open and the rest had very perfunctory accommodation. They face harassment, abuse, theft, forcible eviction or the demolition of their dwellings by urban authorities or police. The sexual exploitation of women by masons, contractors, the police and others is routine but unreported by women for fear of the consequences (loss of employments, violence). Children are even more vulnerable to such abuse.81

(59) Shalid Sadruddin Naravah, (2005), Large groups of land less, unskilled, uneducated, illiterate laborers and petty farmers leave their village and go to distant large towns or cities like Bombay, Delhi and Madras. They do not go to their neighboring smaller town centers, because these regions have already reached their saturation point and failed to provide even the minimum services to the migrants. The bulk of new entrants into the urban labour force seem to create their own employment or to work for small-scale, family-owned enterprises. The self-employed were engaged in a remarkable array of activities, ranging from hawking, street vending, letter writing, knife sharpening, and junk collecting to selling fire works, engaging in prostitution, drug peddling and snake charming others find jobs as drivers, cabbies, mechanics, carpenters, small-scale artisans, barbers, apprentices and personal servants. As a result, worker productivity and income tend to be lower in the informal sector than in the formal sector. More over, workers in the informal sector do not

enjoy the job security, decent working conditions, and old-age pensions. As many members of the household as possible, are involved in income generating activities, and they often work very long hours. Most inhabit shacks that they have built themselves in slums and squatter settlements generally lacking minimal public services.\(^{82}\)

\(60\) Ram. B. Bhagat, (2005), It may be observed from 1991 census that the two criteria \([\text{POB (22,26,18,000), POLR (22,58,87,000)}]\) give a difference of nearly 3.2 million migrants. POLR criterion gives higher estimates of internal migrants than POB and is true for earlier census also (Census of India 1980). It is likely that POB criterion may not be able to capture those migrants who have migrated any time before the census but has returned at the time of enumeration, whereas POLR is able to count them as migrants. With regard to the migration streams, a major difference \((21,58,000)\) is found in rural to rural stream, POB \((14,28,87,0000)\) and POLR \((14,50,45,000)\). This is way because, rural to rural migration in India is basically a short duration migration occurring related to the marriage of females who leave their parent’s house and join their husbands’ household. However, they often visit their parental households. As Indian Census counting is based on the de facto status of a person, it is quite likely that some of those women will be enumerated at their place of birth. It seems to be true for the urban to rural and urban to urban streams of migrants also who move to their place of origin after retirement or due to other reasons. It is therefore clear that POB criterion under estimates the internal migrants rather than the POLR criterion.\(^{83}\)

\(61\) Yogendra K. Sharma, (2005), The urban population has increased to about 22 crores in 1991 from over 6 crores in 1961. The number of urban areas also has gone up sharply from 2365 in 1961 to 3768 in 1991. The causes for the rapid urbanization are the

\(^{82}\) Shalid Sadruddin Naravah, (2005), “Rural-Urban Migration in India”, MIT, USA, pp.4-6.

following three factors. (1) One important factor is the nature increase in population. The birth rate in the urban area in 1971 has been estimated at 30.1 (per thousand) with death rate at 9.7 (per thousand). In 1978 the birth rate declined to 27.8. The death rate fell slightly to 9.4. This had caused the growth rate to be high because of large difference the two rates. This natural factor must have added a lot to the phenomenal population growth of urban areas at 46 per cent in 1971-81 decade as against 19 per cent rise in rural population, and over 24 per cent for the total population. (2) Of the total rise in urban population, while a major contributory factor is the natural growth, a part is also contributed by migrants from rural areas. Their number at the moment is not exactly known. But, it can guess that it may be some thing to do with the swelling of urban population. (3) As cities expanded, the out laying rural areas have been included in the urban areas. Of course, at the time of reclassification these areas held rural population. But, they are counted as urban population by virtue of being classified as urban areas. In future, these are bound to acquire the features of urban life. 84

(62) The Hindu, (2006), The migrant slum dwellers of Laggere, migrants from Uttara Karnataka, who came to Bangalore in search of a better life, have spent 15 years here. But, they are not officially recognized residents of the locality. They do not have ration cards, voter cards or any other proof of identity of residence. They can neither vote nor avail themselves of subsidized food or state-sponsored medical benefits. As per the Food and Civil supplies Department’s guidelines, they are eligible to get a kilo of rice at Rs.3.5, wheat at Rs. 2.75 a kilo, sugar at Rs.13.5 a kilo and a liter of kerosene for Rs.10. But the unavailability of ration cards, have forced them to buy rice at Rs.15 a k.g. and kerosene at Rs.40 a liter in the black market. They not only have to buy wood for Rs.40 at Nelamangala but also have to

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argue with bus drives to transport it to their homes. Residents of Gorguntepalya slum also have a similar story.85

(63) The Hindu, (2006), The study, which was conducted by the Tirupur Municipality, reveals that 1.26 lakh residents out the 3.52 lakh (36%) live in slums on the banks of the Noyyal and on land belonging to the railway, Government and others. The proliferation of slums is mainly due to the explosive growth in the last decade. Hundreds of families move to Tirupur every month in search of employment. The exorbitant rent and spiraling land costs are forcing these people to settle in the slums. Literacy rate in these slums is just 37 per cent. The study also reveals that 21,362 families dwelling in the 88 slums, 60 per cent are that of hosiery workers, 15 per cent of construction workers, 5 per cent of sanitary workers and 10 per cent of self-employed persons. 18,661 houses out of 21,362 have tiled roof and only 658 have thatched roof. All of them lack piped drinking water, proper sanitation and in some cases, even electricity supply. None of the 88 slums has a school or community building. If this is the case of Tirupur Municipality, the condition of the peripheral areas, where migration is rapid owing to scarcity of land in the town, is even worse. So the living condition of migrants, despite being earned a very reasonable income, is pathetic, due to the exorbitant rate of livelihood.86

(64) The Hindu, (2006), Migration from rural areas to urban centers might be a common phenomenon. But in some cases, it is preventable. For instance, a chunk of residents belonging to Ayyampalayam abutting on Tiruhi-Namakkal highway would be forced to shift their homes to the city, in the absence of a prompt official intervention in the form of regular bus services. Though the TNSTC operates a couple of buses, the residents are not satisfied

with the services reportedly due to the inconvenient timings. Assured bus service is all the office-goers and school/college students required too remain where they are.\textsuperscript{87}

(65) Sebastin, T.K., (2007), About 80 per cent of Malabar migrant fathers were engaged in cultivation and remaining 20 per cent in the category of casual labour. But, 14 per cent of sons moved on to other fields, 3 per cent opted teaching, another 3 per cent government service and banking. Another 3 per cent turned themselves as religious and less than 1 per cent as shopkeepers.\textsuperscript{88}

II.4.2 Abroad studies

(1) Dorothy S. Thomas, (1938), after an exhaustive study of prevalent knowledge regarding migration, arrived at the conclusion that persons in their teens, twenties and early thirties are more migratory than other groups.\textsuperscript{89}

(2) Lowry Nelson, (1955), disclosed in his book that push factors operating at the points of origin are such variables as high rates of natural increase creating a population pressure on the supply of resources (for example, migration away from rural areas), depletion or exhaustion of natural resources (erosion of top soil in the southeast causing farmers to migrate westward), droughts, floods and climatic fluctuations (movement out of the dust bowl of the great plains in the 1930’s) and acute social, political and religious maladjustments or contact (the dramatic shift of the Mormons from Nauvoo, Illinois, to the great salt lake valley in 1847). Pull factors at work in points of destination include the discovery and development of new resources (as gold in California and Alaska), new inventions and industries (as the automobile factories in and around Detroit) and pleasant climatic conditions (as in Arizona and Florida). Some variable may operate as either push or

\textsuperscript{87}The Hindu, (2006), " A peculiar cause of migration from Ayyampalayam to Tiruchi" Monday, July 24, p.3.
\textsuperscript{89} Dorothy S. Thomas, (1938), "Research Memorandum of Migration Differentials", New York: Social Science Research Council Bulletin, p.38.
pull factors such as Technological changes (the factory system pulling people to cities and the tractor creating a surplus agricultural population pushing people out of rural areas), government policies (the agricultural acreage reduction program of the 1930’s displacing many tenant farmers, and land grants bringing settlers to new areas), entertainments and amenities (the profusion of urban facilities and their absence in rural areas) and personal factors (presence or absence of friends or relatives).

(3) United Nations Report, (1957), In Latin America young married females’ movement to urban area in search of employment was higher than the males’ movement.

(4) William Peterson, (1958), Internal migration is one of the most important determinations of population change in America. Every year approximately one American out of every five moves to a different residence, and a considerable fraction migration is highly significant in economic and cultural terms.

(5) Ralph Thomlinson, (1965), Migration is peak at the age group of 15 to 35. Below and above this age group, migration decreases steadily. Sex differentials vary according to the kind of migration under consideration. For long-distance moves, males predominate, for short distances, females. Race is another important factor in determination of migration. During most of United States history, Negroes were less migratory than Whites. But, in recent decades Negroes have been making inter state moves at slightly greater rates than Whites. Further, professional men are of above average mobility, while unskilled and semiskilled workers are among the least mobile segments of the populace. Unemployed persons are more migratory than employed. Demographers are especially curious about the effects of migration on the other two basic populations’ variables. Do migrants adopt the

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reproductive practices of their new destination places or do they maintain their old habits? Answer to this question is not fully known but what we have been able to learn is that such change (or refusal to change) varies according to the type of move and various traits of the person moving.93

(6) Mangalam, J.P., (1968), Migrants prefer to go to a place where the social organization is as similar as possible to that in their place of origin.94

(7) Flinn and Cartano, (1970), found that 7 per cent of in-migrants of Bogota, the capital of Colombia, have moved there directly without intermediate steps.95

(8) Seung Gya Moon, (1972), found that in Korea, 86 per cent of migrants from two village clusters had only made one move and the rest two or three.96

(9) Sabot, (1972), found that the earning of educated migrants in the urban areas of Tanzania was 1.75 times greater than that of uneducated migrants.97

(10) Balan et al., (1973), It has been widely noted that migrants tend to choose destinations where there are relatives and friends.98

(11) Carvajal and Geithman, (1974), Migrants on the whole do appear to have increased their private welfare as a result of migration in spite of high and rising levels of unemployment.99

(12) Robert V.K. Emper, (1977), This study analyses 900 Tzintzuntzan emigrants those who became in-migrants of Mexico City. The prime objective of this study is to

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understand the Tzintzuntzan out-migrants living condition in Mexico City. At the time of their initial departure from the village the great majority of migrants are below age 30. As regards education level, the majority of in-migrants are incomplete primary (47.1%). There is no proportion of graduate. In terms of family type, nuclear family is more prevalent (67.6%) rather than the truncated (23.8%) the joint (8.6%) families. Truncated family contributes with 23.8 per cent. The mean household size is 5.9 persons, which is slightly lower than the origin with the average of 6.2 persons. The first urban job is usually a temporary commitment especially since most Tzintzuntzenos, lacking appropriate experience or credentials for high-level occupations, enter the labor market in unskilled or semiskilled positions such as factory laborer, merchants, pottery making and selling and shopkeeper. In addition to bedroom furniture, all migrant households contain at least a table, chairs, wardrobe, closets and dish shelves. After these ubiquitous necessities-radios (94%) television (75%) stoves (72%) and iron box (80%) are found in the majority of migrant homes. Tape recorder (46%), washing machine (20%), automobiles (14%), telephones (3%), refrigerators (20%), are less common and generally are restricted to the more affluent homes. All of the migrant’s households have electricity, 85 per cent have drainage, 77 per cent have direct & access to water. 69 per cent have glass windows and 60 per cent have painted facades. 49 per cent have three or more rooms. Single room apartments are found among only 14 per cent of the migrants and two room places among 35 per cent. In addition 43 per cent of the homes have private bathroom facilities and 22 per cent have shower baths. Most migrants live in small, rented apartments, while only a minority (31%) own homes or are currently paying off home mortgages.  

(13) David M. Heer, (1978), This study has evaluated that the advantages and disadvantages which were happened by migration in U.S.A. Age is the major differential in

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migration rates. In U.S.A. in 1971 about 41 per cent of all persons 20 to 29 years old had changed their residence during the past year. Among children 1 to 9 years old 28 per cent had changed their residence. The lowest proportion of migrant was found among the elderly with 3 per cent. There was little overall different in the migration rates by sex. On the other hand, until recent years males have been predominant among immigrants to the U.S.A. Self-employment is an important determinant of migration status. In 1971 only is 3 per cent of self-employed males migrated, as compared with 7 per cent of wage and salary workers. In an analysis of internal migration in the U.S.A., Kunzites and Thomas have shown that the net flow of migration within the U.S.A has been away from those statuses where average income is low and toward where it is high. Climate also influences the migration. Florida, for example, has always had highest rate of in-migration despite the fact that its average income has not been high. The sunny skies of California exert a similar pull. Marriage and continuation of marital ties also is important inducements to migration. Too, maintaining martial or family ties is a chief inducement for the wife and children when a family head decides to migrate.¹⁰¹

(14) Khorev, B.S., (1978), Between 1926 and 1970 migration accounted for 57 per cent of the growth of urban population in the USSR (105 million persons), natural increase of the urban population for 26 per cent, and the conversion of rural communities into the urban ones for 17 per cent. It implies the fact that even though the natural increase of urban was low, the pace of urbanization remains high, because of high mechanical growth. This, incidentally, has been a characteristic of many large cities the USSR. Even though the urbanization is high in the USSR, which is somewhat reduced by the pendulum migration

that refers a person’s daily journeys to and from work from his settlement. For instance in a country as large as the USSR, daily journeys to and from work from various settlements are made by at least 12 per cent of the mean annual number of workers and employees, including that students in higher and specialized secondary educational establishments. If we add this population into the migration assort, the proportion of urban migrants would be very higher. So, the migration of population from country to towns is already being replaced by the significant factor of pendulum migration in USSR. ¹⁰²

(15) Hompson and Levis, (1980), In the U.S.A., on the basis of the census reports, during 1950-1960, the roles played by migration and natural increase in population change between 1950 and 1960 varied from region to region. In the Northeast, both the metropolitan area’s population growth was due to natural increase. In the North central region, approximately 80 per cent of the metropolitan area’s growth was due to natural increase, while the non-metropolitan areas just over one-half their natural increase (27, 94,000) through out-migration (-14, 02,000) and therefore grew very slowly. The increase in the south’s metropolitan areas came from a relativity of natural increase (40, 90,000) and a net in-migration (27, 19,000) which nearly two thirds of the volume of the natural increase. The non-metropolitan areas of the south had a natural increase of approximately 5 million, lost nearly four-fifths of that amount through out-migration. The net in-migration rate of the metropolitan areas of south (14.6 per 100) was nearly the same as the net, out-migration rate of non-metropolitan areas (-14.4 per 100). It implies that the 4 million non-metropolitan populations of south migrated to the metropolitan area of the same south. ¹⁰³

(16) Michael P. Todaro, (1980), This paper has completely analysed that the relationship between migration and some other variables such as education, distance, age, etc. In Africa, the problem of migrant school leaves is widespread. Although single men still appear to dominate the migration streams in Africa and Asia, married men (many accompanied by their families) and single woman are now more prevalent in Latin America migration patterns. In addition to the primary economic motives people migrate (1) to improve their education or skill level (2) to escape social and cultural imprisonment in homogeneous rural area (3) to escape rural violence and political insatiability and (4) to join family and friends who have previously migrated to urban areas. Almost all studies show a positive correlation between migration rates and urban or state destination contacts in the form of friends and relatives such contacts can provide important information on job openings as well as or low cost accommodations to the migrants. The negative effect of distance on migration, as predicted by traditional “gravity” models, is pronounced in most studies. Migrants tend to move to cities and towns in their own state or region, but they will move longer distances if the destination wages and employment opportunities are considerably higher. More highly educated migrants are therefore likely to travel longer distances than those with less education.\textsuperscript{104}

(17) Donald T. Rowland, (1992), This study was conducted by the Chines Academy of the Social Sciences in 1986. The survey covered 0.2 per cent of households in 74 cities and towns in China and collected information on 1, 00,267 persons. The main objective of this study was to discuss the family characteristics of in-migrants. Among the in-migrants, nuclear family was predominant than the other type of family. Data on causes of movement disclosed that the economic factors were the main factor for migration followed by study,

training, marriage, and family migration. Retirements, ill health, going with relatives contributed very little part in the migration. Persons, who at the time of interview had been in their household without official registration for at least two days but less than one year, are called temporary migrants. In the survey, there were 3,376 temporary in-migrants were identified in the survey. Among the temporary migrants the proportion of males was less than the females. More than 66 per cent temporary migrants stated “visiting” as their reason for moving. In all types of temporary migration, relatives were the main providers of accommodations. Among the temporary migrants 45 per cent of males and 39 per cent of females had been engaged in agriculture or factory work before moving. Another 27 per cent of the females were either “retired” or “house work” as their occupation. Among the in-migrant population who moved in the 10 years before the survey, 73 per cent said their income was “better” after migration and only 5 per cent said it was “worse”. The young were particularly likely to notice improvement income, while a substantial minority people aged 55 year and over (33 per cent) thought that their income had remained “the same”. The majority of recent, in-migrants also though their housing was better than before the move, but 15 per cent said that were “worse”.105

(18) Cecilia Menjivar, (1994), Migrants draw information from members through inter personal network.106

(19) Nels Thomlinson, (2005), This report examines the interaction between income and migration from one borough or census area to another within Alaska, which is one of the youngest of the 50 states in U.S.A., during the 2004 period. The study covered approximately 1, 72,000 persons who resided in Alaska. The different in average yearly income between the

never moved group and the moved at least once group is significant. The stationary group earned almost $6,000 in average yearly income more than the group who moved at least once, and more than double what the group who moved yearly received. Data on urban residents and income revealed that there was a small, but significant, difference between those who lived in a single urban area and those who moved between urban areas. These moves may have been prompted by a loss of job, by a better opportunity in one of the other urban areas, or by strictly personal reason. However, the data showed that those who moved between urban areas typically had a lower income than those who remained in one place.\textsuperscript{107}

\textsuperscript{20} The Hindu, (2006), The average population in China’s towns increased by 27.5 per cent to 9,511 in 2005 from the year 2000. More than half of China’s 20,000 towns had a population of over 30,000. A town in China is defined as having a population of between 2,000 and 1,20,000. Statistics also show that the end of 2005, there were on average 520 enterprises in every town of which 180 were industrial Enterprises. And the fiscal revenue of the towns in 2005 rose 130 per cent to 22.1 million Yuan (2.76 million U.S. dollars) from the year 2000. “The rapid development of towns and the emergence of tertiary industry have created tremendous job opportunities for rural labourers”, said Zhang Weimin, deputy director of NBS, adding that more than 100 million rural laborers work in the country’s towns. Statistics show that the number of people working in enterprises in every town averaged 5,444 in 2005, an increase of 35 per cent from 2000. Electricity was available in 99.5 per cent of towns, a postal service in 97.8 per cent of towns and medical services in 99 per cent of towns.\textsuperscript{108}

(21) Blessing Uchenna Mberu, (2006), With regard to the migration and living condition in the five regions of Ethiopia, education shows a consistent positive relationship with living conditions. Having primary education significantly improves living conditions by 24 per cent when compared to those with no education; secondary and higher education improve household living conditions by 72 and 96 per cents respectively. In terms of the gender of head, household with female heads have significantly better living conditions than males. In terms of the religion, Muslims have marginally better living conditions than other religious groups such as Catholic and Protestant. The age of the head of a household has a positive relationship with living conditions. As age increases, living conditions increase as well, the eldest age category (those aged 50 years and above) consistently have better living conditions than those in the younger cohorts. People who earn incomes from non-agricultural enterprises like trading, those who earn salaries, and those who receive remittances and rents are significantly better off than those who earn agricultural income. Living in a rented home and rent-free homes are related to a decrease in household living conditions by 35 per cent and 66 per cent respectively to living in own homes.109

II.5 Summing up

To sum up, this chapter has presented the 104 reviews comprising of theories of migration (9), methods and impediments of measuring internal migration (4), theories of fertility (5), indigenous empirical studies (65) and empirical studies abroad (21). All these posh theories and empirical studies have egged on the researcher to delve deep into the in-migration of Tiruchirappalli city.