CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION

I. Introduction: Why a Study of Urbanward Migration?

A fundamental characteristic of people is their movement from place to place\(^1\). Since the very dawn of humanity, people have migrated. Exoduses and migratory flows have always been an integral part, as well as a major determinant, of human history. Yet large intercontinental movements only began in the 16th century, with the expansion of Europe and the settlement of colonies. Over the last two centuries, migration rose to an unprecedented level, primarily owing to the globalization of economic activity and its effect on labour migration.\(^2\) While the number of international migrants is substantial (UNFPA:2006)\(^3\) and rising, the great majority of those who move continue to be internal migrants\(^4\).

Such individuals generally move from one region to another for economic reasons. Migrants are benefited by movement to urban industrial centers in a developing country like India, since there is easy availability of jobs. Changes would have to be made to adjust to the way of living and working in the new setting. Integration in the economic, social and cultural life at the destination would further aid the migrants.

\(^1\) Article 13 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights states that "Everyone has the right to freedom of movement and residence within the borders of each state" and "Everyone has the right to leave any country, including his own, and to return to his country." Quoted in United Nations 2002: "International Migration Report 2002", Department of Economic and Social Affairs, United Nations, New York, 2002, xiv+74 p.

\(^2\) Documentation of such moves is only a relatively recent phenomenon, but it is on the rise. This is particularly relevant for the developed countries attracting migrants from the less developed regions, leading to the evolution of a multicultural society at destination with its own problems of adjustment and integration.


\(^4\) These are individuals or families who migrate within their own country, i.e. within national boundaries, from one region to another. Usually they move from the less developed regions to the more developed regions, that offer prospects for gainful employment.
II. **Global Trends:**

II.1.a. Migration:

Around 175 million persons currently reside in a country other than where they were born, which is about 3 per cent of world population. The number of migrants has more than doubled since 1970. Sixty per cent of the world’s migrants currently reside in the more developed regions and 40 per cent in the less developed regions. Most of the world’s migrants live in Europe (56 million), Asia (50 million) and North America (41 million). Almost one of every 10 persons living in the more developed regions is a migrant. In contrast, nearly one of every 70 persons in developing countries is a migrant. (UN 2003:2).\(^5\) By extrapolating the growth of the known migrant stocks for the period 1990–2000, the UN Population Division predicted a total of between 185 million and 192 million migrants by early 2005.\(^6\)

Of the 21 million persons, or 14 per cent increase in the number of migrants in the world between 1990 and 2000, the total net growth in migrants took place in the more developed regions (Table 1.1), including North America, Europe, Australia, New Zealand and Japan. In contrast, the migrant population of the less developed regions fell by 2 million during the same period, mainly in Latin American countries and in Asia. In just the five years from 1995-2000, the more developed regions of the world received nearly 12 million migrants from the less developed regions, an estimated 2.3 million migrants per year.

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6 In recent years, the United Nations and its different agencies (ILO, UNFPA, UNDP etc.), the International Organisation for Migration, The Department for International Development (UK), the Dutch Institute, among others, are working on the problems faced by international migrants. Comparable figures for migrants in the world are now available for major world regions and countries. These figures are tabulated according to the country of birth of the migrant, and are comparable.
Migrants in the world are not distributed evenly across countries or regions. In 2000, migrants in the world constituted 8.7 per cent of the population in developed countries, while they accounted for just 1.5 per cent in developing countries. In the first group, the United States, followed by the Russian Federation, Germany, Ukraine and France hosted the largest number of international migrants in 2000. Asia is home to the four countries that have the highest proportion of migrant stock in their population- namely United Arab Emirates (74%), Kuwait (58%), Jordan (40%) and Israel (37%). Large shares of such international migrants are refugees, with high proportions in Asia and Africa (9 and 4 million respectively) (UN 2002:4). In the developing world, India, followed by Saudi Arabia and Pakistan, hosted the largest number of foreign-born persons in 2000 (UN 2002:11). The largest proportion of migrants from Asia migrates to West Asian countries (Zachariah 2002).

The largest migration from India has been to West Asia (96.0%), during 1990-94, especially to the six oil producing countries of Bahrain, Kuwait, Oman, Qatar, Saudi Arabia and United Arab Emirates (Zlotnik 1998). A majority of these migrants belong to the states of Kerala in south India and Punjab in north-west India.

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Table 1.1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Major Regions</th>
<th>Number (Thousands)</th>
<th>Number (Thousands)</th>
<th>Change: 1990-2000</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>World</td>
<td>153 956</td>
<td>174 781</td>
<td>20 825</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Most Developed Regions</td>
<td>81 424</td>
<td>104 119</td>
<td>22 695</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less Developed Regions</td>
<td>72 531</td>
<td>70 662</td>
<td>-1 869</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Least Developed Countries</td>
<td>10 992</td>
<td>10 458</td>
<td>-534</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Africa</td>
<td>16 221</td>
<td>16 277</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asia</td>
<td>49 956</td>
<td>49 781</td>
<td>-175</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Europe</td>
<td>48 437</td>
<td>56 100</td>
<td>7 663</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Latin America and the Caribbean</td>
<td>6 994</td>
<td>5 944</td>
<td>-1 051</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Northern America</td>
<td>27 597</td>
<td>40 844</td>
<td>13 248</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oceania</td>
<td>4 751</td>
<td>5 835</td>
<td>1 084</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

International Migration Report 2002, p.3

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India, in turn, has immigrants from the neighbouring countries of Nepal and Bangladesh.

II.1.b. Urbanisation:

Fuchs (1994:1), in the introduction to his book on Mega City Growth and the Future reminds us that - Mankind’s future will unfold largely in urban settings. As the world moves into the twenty-first century, it will also mark a demographic divide, passing from an age when most of its population resided in rural areas to one in which most will be urban residents.

This is essentially due to the rapid growth occurring in developing countries, which, over the next few years, must absorb nearly one billion additional urban residents, as many as they had in total in 1990. A major challenge for mankind is, therefore, (not only) an informed response to such unprecedented urban growth and the intelligent management of urban settlements, which, in the future, will serve as the abiding place of the majority of mankind, but also to the process of migration which is believed to be a major cause for this increase in urbanisation.

Table 1.2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Major Regions</th>
<th>Population (Thousands)</th>
<th>Percent Urban</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>World</td>
<td>3,150,451</td>
<td>48.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Most Developed Regions</td>
<td>898,061</td>
<td>74.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less Developed Regions</td>
<td>2,252,390</td>
<td>42.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Least Developed Countries</td>
<td>202,620</td>
<td>26.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Less Developed Countries</td>
<td>2,049,769</td>
<td>45.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Africa</td>
<td>347,164</td>
<td>38.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asia</td>
<td>1,552,944</td>
<td>39.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Europe</td>
<td>525,628</td>
<td>72.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Latin America and the Caribbean</td>
<td>434,432</td>
<td>77.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Northern America</td>
<td>266,883</td>
<td>80.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oceania</td>
<td>23,401</td>
<td>70.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs/Population Division


12 Comparable figures for Internal Migrants are difficult to obtain for the various regions and countries. Such figures are usually available from the Census Bureaus of the respective countries or from surveys carried out from time to time. As pointed out by Goldstein (1985), the type of migrants vary depending on the criteria used to define the migrant.
The accelerating rate of urbanisation is high among the least developed countries of Asia. For the period 1970 to 1990, the average annual growth rate of urban population was 6.5 per cent for Bangladesh, 3.4 per cent for India and 4.2 per cent for both Pakistan and Sri Lanka. However, the urban growth rate is dominated mainly by rural-urban migration and it contributes between three-fifths to two-thirds of this growth.  

II.2 Dynamics of Migration in India:

In India, according to the 2001 NSSO, the share of internal migrants is much higher than that of international migrants (Singh:2001). The proportion of Total Migrants for the major states of India in 2001 (Figure 1.1), indicates that 30.6% of the total population of India in 2001 was enumerated as migrants. The state of Maharashtra, Gujarat and Punjab had high proportions of migrants in their total population, at 43.1%, 37.9% and 37.7% respectively. Tamil Nadu, Uttar Pradesh and Bihar had low proportions of migrants at about 25% each respectively.

Figure: 1.1

Source: Table D-2, Migrants Classified by Place of Residence, 2001

Figure: 1.2

MAJOR STATES
PERCENT URBAN MIGRANTS
2001

Source: Table D-2, Migrants Classified by Place of Residence, 2001

Figure: 1.3

MAJOR STATES
PERCENT URBAN MIGRANTS FOR WORK
2001

Source: Table D-3, Migrants Classified by Place of Residence, Duration of Residence and Reason for Migration, 2001
The share of migrants to urban areas of these states (Figure 1.2) indicates that 36.4% of the urban population of India is enumerated as migrants in 2001. The comparable figures for the states of Maharashtra and Punjab are 46.9% and 44.2% respectively. Both these states have proportion of urban migrants above the share of urban migrants in India. Himachal Pradesh, Haryana and Uttranchal also have high proportion of urban migrants.

Economic motive is what drives migration to urban areas. The proportion of migrants who move for reasons of Employment and Business to urban areas of the major states indicates that 33.3% of the urban migrants come in this category. 39.6% of the urban migrants to Maharashtra and 35.3% for the state of Punjab moved for this reason in 2001. Gujarat, Himachal Pradesh and West Bengal also had a high proportion of migrants who moved for economic reasons.

Table 1.3 Comparison of Indicators of Socio-Economic Development

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Area (in thousand sq.k.m.)</th>
<th>INDIA</th>
<th>PUNJAB</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Population (in millions)</td>
<td>1028</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Density of Population (persons per sq.km.)</td>
<td>325</td>
<td>484</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Population Growth Rate</td>
<td>21.54</td>
<td>20.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percent Urban Population</td>
<td>27.8</td>
<td>33.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Birth Rate (per thousand population)</td>
<td>25.4</td>
<td>21.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Death Rate (per thousand population)</td>
<td>8.4</td>
<td>7.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Infant Mortality Rate (per thousand Live Births)</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1.3 Comparison of Indicators of Socio-Economic Development

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Expectation of Life at Birth</th>
<th>60.8 (1999)</th>
<th>66.7 (1997)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Percent Gross Irrigated Area to Gross Cropped Area</td>
<td>38.3</td>
<td>92.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rice Yield (quintals per hectare, 2002-03)</td>
<td>18.0</td>
<td>35.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wheat Yield (quintals per hectare, 2002-03)</td>
<td>26.2</td>
<td>42.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maize Yield (quintals per hectare, 2002-03)</td>
<td>16.4</td>
<td>20.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Barley Yield (quintals per hectare, 2002-03)</td>
<td>20.3</td>
<td>32.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oilseeds Yield (quintals per hectare, 2002-03)</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>9.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cotton Yield (quintals per hectare, 2002-03)</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>4.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Foodgrain Yield (quintals per hectare, 2002-03)</td>
<td>15.6</td>
<td>38.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Pulses Yield (quintals per hectare, 2002-03)</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>7.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Cereal Yield (quintals per hectare, 2002-03)</td>
<td>17.8</td>
<td>38.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of Registered Factories (2001-02)</td>
<td>144800</td>
<td>13439</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percent Workers Employed in Factories (2001-02)</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>2.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Per Capita consumption of Power (2002-03)</td>
<td>373.0</td>
<td>870.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percent Villages Electrified (2002-03)</td>
<td>83.8</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex Ratio</td>
<td>933</td>
<td>878</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percent Scheduled Caste Population</td>
<td>16.20</td>
<td>28.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Workforce Participation Rate</td>
<td>32.25</td>
<td>33.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Literacy rate (Total)</td>
<td>64.84</td>
<td>69.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Literacy Rate (Females)</td>
<td>53.67</td>
<td>63.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Effective Couple Protection Rate (2000)</td>
<td>46.2</td>
<td>65.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percent Population below Poverty Line (1999-00)</td>
<td>23.62</td>
<td>5.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percent Households with safe drinking water</td>
<td>77.9</td>
<td>97.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percent Households with Electricity</td>
<td>55.85</td>
<td>91.91</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

III. Study Area:

Situated in the north-west of India, the state of Punjab shares its western border with Pakistan. A small state, with an area of 50,362 square kilometers, its population according to the 2001 Census of India was 24.3 million people. This comprises 1.5% of the geographical area of India, and about 2.4% of its population in 2001. The Sikhs are the predominant religious community and account for 63% of the state’s total population, followed by the Hindu’s (35%), Muslims and Christians (1% each).

Punjab has a long history of migration, as this was the route taken by invaders and travelers to reach India in the past. The partition of the country in 1947 resulted in mass migration between the two divided parts of the state\textsuperscript{16}. More recently, it also witnessed large-scale migration of labour to its rural area, in the wake of the green revolution.\textsuperscript{17} An effort is made to assess the existing situation of socio-economic development in Punjab, comparing it with that in India.

III.1. Socio-Economic Development in Punjab:

Despite its small geographical area, Punjab supports a much larger population per square km compared to the country in 2001. Its population density in 2001 was 484 compared to 325 for India. The rate of population growth at 20.10% has been slightly behind that for India in 2001. Punjab has a much larger share of its population living in urban areas compared to India. 33.9% of the population in Punjab lived in urban areas compared to 27.8% for the country. The sex ratio in Punjab according to the 2001 Census is 878, which is more favourable to males. Punjab has 28.9% of its population enumerated as Scheduled Caste. This is higher than that for India at 16.20%.

Punjab has a higher work participation rate in 2001 compared to the country. The total literacy in Punjab is 69.65% compared to 63.36% among the female population. However, it compares favourably with the status of literacy in the country.

Chapter One

Introduction

Map 1.1.

LUDHIANA CITY
LOCATION OF STUDY AREA

BOUNDARY

INTERNATIONAL
STATE
DISTRICT

KILOMETRES

10 20 30 40

Ludhiana City

LOCATION OF PATIALA

INDIA

LOCATION OF PUNJAB

DISTRICT
Development in the health sector has taken rapid strides in the creation of infrastructure and facilities even at the village level. The result of the development of the health sector is that birth and death rates in Punjab are significantly below that for the country as a whole. The infant mortality rate is also better as compared to the scenario for the country. The effective couple protection rate in Punjab is 65.5% and compares favourably with the rate for India at 46.2%. The population of Punjab has an overall better quality of life, visible in a higher expectation of life at birth in comparison with that for the country.

Economic development in Punjab has been led by agriculture and green revolution. Punjab has 92.9% of its gross cropped area under irrigation, while the proportion of the gross cropped area to the total area of the state is also high. The state is self-sufficient in food grain production and contributes significantly to the national food buffer stocks. The major crops produced in the state include wheat, rice, cotton, maize, barley, oilseeds and pulses. The yield of all the crops is substantially higher than that for the country in 2001.

In addition, thousands of manufacturing units across the state have led to fairly high income levels. The major industries in the state include cotton textiles, woolen textiles, hosiery, cycles, cycle parts, agricultural implements, machine tools, sports equipment among others. The share of employment in the registered factories is also higher than that in the country.

Investments in roads, rural electrification, safe drinking water and schools, health centers etc. have provided the people of Punjab with the basic amenities of life still unavailable in large parts of the country.

III.2. Industrial Development in Punjab:

A predominantly agricultural state, Punjab has lagged behind in the development of its industries. At the time of Independence, Punjab was relatively industrially backward. The partition of the state in 1947, and its re-organisation in 1966, further weakened Punjab's industries. The industrial sector in Punjab was virtually bypassed as far as public investment was concerned, neither did the private corporate sector come forward to fill the gap. In this process, Punjab remained
deficient in large scale industrial units and its industrial structure constituted small and medium sized industries. However, the nineties was a period of transformation in the industrial scenario in the state. In recent years, the state has witnessed a growth of new technology and heavy investment, export oriented industries. The package of incentives announced under the New Industrial Policy also encouraged Non-Resident Indians to invest in Punjab.

Table 1.4. Industry-group wise Statistics relating to Registered Working Factories

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Industry group with NIC Code</th>
<th>Number of Factories</th>
<th>Number of Employees</th>
<th>Fixed Capital</th>
<th>Net Value Added</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture and Animal Husbandry Services</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>4130</td>
<td>2153</td>
<td>2392</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food Processing Industry</td>
<td>1421</td>
<td>82010</td>
<td>188109</td>
<td>165383</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finishing of Textiles</td>
<td>934</td>
<td>72922</td>
<td>257399</td>
<td>86037</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leather Products Manufacture</td>
<td>218</td>
<td>5467</td>
<td>10200</td>
<td>4414</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wood Products</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>1489</td>
<td>2427</td>
<td>881</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paper and Paper Products</td>
<td>183</td>
<td>10144</td>
<td>59786</td>
<td>15742</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Publishing and Printing</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>2017</td>
<td>4020</td>
<td>-1272</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manufacture of fuels</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>308</td>
<td>234</td>
<td>185</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chemicals &amp; Chemical Products</td>
<td>169</td>
<td>11438</td>
<td>105939</td>
<td>67122</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rubber and Plastic Products</td>
<td>199</td>
<td>16019</td>
<td>21441</td>
<td>13175</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-Metallic Mineral Products</td>
<td>298</td>
<td>9172</td>
<td>17886</td>
<td>12668</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iron and Steel and its Products</td>
<td>484</td>
<td>18309</td>
<td>55107</td>
<td>24969</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fabricated and Structural Metal Products</td>
<td>810</td>
<td>21200</td>
<td>25185</td>
<td>24930</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Special Purpose Machinery (Sewing Machines)</td>
<td>793</td>
<td>19520</td>
<td>40528</td>
<td>36404</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electric Gadgets (Motors, Transformers)</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>8133</td>
<td>42141</td>
<td>6048</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medical and Photographic Equipment</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>622</td>
<td>1830</td>
<td>619</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Auto Parts etc.</td>
<td>208</td>
<td>12801</td>
<td>30320</td>
<td>21326</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transport Equipment cycles, motorcycles etc.</td>
<td>486</td>
<td>32043</td>
<td>47824</td>
<td>37210</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Furniture, Sports goods etc.</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>3444</td>
<td>4071</td>
<td>4199</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Annual survey of industry, 2003-04

The Table 1. gives a general idea of the status of industrial development in the state. Agro-based industries like food products and beverages; cotton textiles and woolen textiles dominate the industrial economy of the state. Apart from this, the Light Engineering Industry, comprising the Special Purpose Machinery, Cycles and Fans also employs a large number of workers. These industries claim a relatively higher share of employment, fixed capital, and a greater part of the income generated from this sector. Industries that are ancillary to these, like the Fabricated Metal Products industry which includes the stamping, forging, rolling etc. of metals; the
chemical and rubber products industries also have a relatively large share of employment.

Development in Punjab has been uneven and disparities exist between regions, in terms of education, health, standard of living etc. The district of Ludhiana has the highest level of human development (Punjab Human Development Report, 2004) in terms of education, expectancy of life and adjusted per capita income. The district has the highest share of the states population in 2001. It experienced the highest share of decadal growth rate between 1991 and 2001, at 24.7%. It also accounts for the highest share of the states urban population and the migrant population. Ludhiana district has surpassed all other districts both in the field of Agriculture and small scale industries. The district headquarter, Ludhiana, is an industrial Metropolis and the largest urban centre of the state.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Amritsar</td>
<td>2505034</td>
<td>3074207</td>
<td>12.35</td>
<td>12.66</td>
<td>22.72</td>
<td>40.00</td>
<td>0.700</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bathinda</td>
<td>965301</td>
<td>1181236</td>
<td>4.86</td>
<td>4.86</td>
<td>19.89</td>
<td>29.78</td>
<td>0.674</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fatehgarh Sahib</td>
<td>454919</td>
<td>552466</td>
<td>2.24</td>
<td>2.28</td>
<td>21.42</td>
<td>33.89</td>
<td>0.740</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Faridkot</td>
<td>455005</td>
<td>539751</td>
<td>2.24</td>
<td>2.22</td>
<td>18.65</td>
<td>28.08</td>
<td>0.698</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ferozepur</td>
<td>1448903</td>
<td>1744753</td>
<td>7.14</td>
<td>7.12</td>
<td>20.42</td>
<td>25.81</td>
<td>0.689</td>
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The city of Ludhiana has made rapid strides in the field of industrial development also. This is a direct result of its premier position in the hosiery manufacturers, engineering goods, sewing machines and cycle industry. More than 80% of the demand of the entire country in woolen hosiery goods is met by Ludhiana. Woolen hosiery and engineering goods are exported to a number of countries also.
Other industrial units include machine parts, nuts and bolts, oil expellers, diesel engines, electrical goods, threshing machines etc. The phenomenal growth of industry in this town has earned it the name of Manchester of India and Osaka of India.

The world is changing, and migration - both internal and international- is contributing to that change. However, within development studies, migration (till recently) has not received the attention that it deserves (de Haan:1999:1). This is truer for the phenomenon of internal migration in a developing country like India. Urbanisation, labour force participation, decline in the quality of life and migration in excess of the 'carrying' capacity of these urban centres, especially in Asia (Hauser: 1957) has encouraged studies of migration. Migration is a major contributing factor to the problem of a decline in the quality of life in urban areas and urban surplus labour. The migrants do not generally have a commitment to the city and almost always maintain strong links with place of origin by way of family left there, investment in land, house, business etc. Todaro (1974).

IV. Review of literature:

A study of urban-ward migration is of key importance as it influences the lives of individuals, and urban growth (Puri, 1987; Johnson, 1991; Mathur, 1992). This increase in urban population by way of immigration affects the absorption capacity of industrial units, trade and other urban social services in the city (The Times of India, 1999:1; Parnwell, 1993; Mathur, 1994; Livernash, 1995). A study of cityward migration thus becomes relevant in the present day scenario, for a clear understanding of its trends, causes and consequences on the city's evolution and growth. Broadly, migration is a relocation of residence of various duration and various nature. But, generally, rural-urban migration dominates the domain of research and planning as it plays an important role in changing the lives of migrant families both at the place of origin and destination.

20 Todaro 1974
IV.1. Approaches to the Study of Migration:

In recent years, there has been a change in the way migration studies approach the phenomenon of migration. Earlier studies were based on the different laws and theories of migration focusing on the individual migrant. Current studies also focus on households and communities, apart from individuals. Listed below are the theoretical approaches to the study of migration.

The seminal contribution of Ravenstein\(^\text{21}\) (1885 and 1889) provided the first ever theoretical construct for the study of migration. His “Laws of Migration” have stood the test of time and still remain as a starting point for research in migration. His laws may be listed as follows:

1. The rate of migration between two points is inversely proportional to the distance between these two points. Migrants who travel long distance tend to go by preference to one of the large centres of commerce and industry.

2. There are normally “currents of migration” towards towns and eventually towards the most rapidly growing cities, in stages, to the most remote corner of the country.

3. “Each main current of migration produces a compensating countercurrent”. Thus, rural-urban migration will have a balancing stream of migration from the urban to the rural area.

4. Urban dwellers are less migratory compared to those living in rural areas.

5. Improvement in the means of transport, communication and development of manufactures and commerce lead to increased migration.

6. Females predominate in the short distance stream of migration.

7. The economic motive of migration predominates the factors that influence the decision to migrate, due to the desire inherent in most men to improve themselves materially.

Zipf\(^\text{22}\) (1946) gave a model of migration based on the “principle of least effort”. According to him, the magnitude of migration between two cities was the


factor of the distance separating them. Greater distance required greater effort to overcome the hurdles and hence reduce the number of migrants.

Stouffer 23 (1940) gave his concept of “intervening opportunities” in his attempt to improve Zipf’s “principle of least effort”. According to him, linear distance is a less important determinant of migration than the nature of space. He considered distance in socio-economic rather than in geographic terms. Distance is not as important as the number of opportunities available. According to him, the number of persons moving from a given distance is directly proportional to the number of opportunities at that distance and inversely proportional to the number of intervening opportunities. He expressed it as

\[ Y = K \frac{X_1}{X}, \]

Where \( Y \) = expected number of migrants from a place to a particular concentric zone or distance band around that place; \( X_1 \) = The number of opportunities within this band; \( X \) = the number of intervening opportunities between the origin and mid-way into the band; \( K \) is the proportionality constant.

Lee 24 (1966) provided a simple and appealing framework for the analysis of the process of internal migration. He summarized the factors that enter the decision to migrate and the process of migration into four categories as follows:

1. Factors associated with the area of origin
2. Factors associated with the area of destination
3. Intervening Obstacles and
4. Permanent Factors

Based on the above factors, Lee formulated a number of hypotheses about the volume of migration, stream and counter stream and the characteristics of the migrants. His theory is a general framework and has limited value for policy as it does not specify the inter-relationship between the dependent and independent variables.

Economists have also formulated a number of models to study the phenomena of migration in statistical terms. According to Todaro\textsuperscript{25} (1969), the decision to migrate includes the perception by the potential migrant of an expected stream of income that is a function of both the prevailing urban wage and the probability of obtaining employment in the urban sector. According to him, migration is stimulated by rational economic considerations of relative benefits and costs, mainly financial, but also psychological. The decision to migrate depends on the expected, rather than actual rural-urban wage differential. This expected differential is determined by the interaction of two variables - the actual rural-urban wage differential and the probability of successfully obtaining employment in the urban sector. The probability of obtaining an urban job is inversely related to the urban unemployment rate.

His theory has been criticized on a number of points, including the fact that potential migrant shave equal information about the job market, that wages in the traditional sector are always lower than wages in the modern sector. The model also does not emphasise the role of the non-economic factors.

**IV.2. Early Studies of Migration:**

In India, most of the early studies on migration were attempted by Geographers, based on Place of birth statistics collected in the census. These early studies looked at the volume of migration, its types, the direction of flow of migrants (Davis, 1951); trends in historical migration (Zachariah, 1964) as well as migrant selectivity.

**IV.2.a. Migrant Selectivity and Pattern of Flows:**

In order to tackle the problems associated with migration to urban areas, it is imperative that we must have knowledge of the process of migration, i.e. who comes to the city and why they come there. Various methods and indices are used to measure migrant selectivity.\textsuperscript{26} The most common method is to compare the characteristics of migrants with those of non-migrants. It is generally assumed that migrants differ from the non-migrants in terms of their traits, characteristics, and attitudes. Studies indicate that young, educated and unmarried males have the highest


\textsuperscript{26} United Nations Manual VI.
propensity to migrate. There is, however, very little discussion on and evidence of the economic selectivity of migrants to the cities. This could be a result of data limitations, since it is difficult to collect data on the income and wealth of households at the time of their migration. However, this may have important implications since the entry sector at destination and their stay in the city may be determined by it. Studies have also examined the characteristics of migrants both before and after their move.

While scholars believe that it is the lowest strata that has the highest propensity to migrate since it is agricultural labour that provides a constant and ready flow of labour into non-agricultural occupations, the validity of this statement has been questioned. It has been hypothesized that propensity to migrate is likely to increase with income up to a point and then decrease. This implies that rural development may result in increased migration rather than less. Another point that should be made here is the incidence of step migration. In case of the study area, it is well documented that rural areas experienced large-scale migration of agricultural labourers in the mid-sixties as a result of the green revolution. It has also been brought to light that mechanisation of agricultural operations in Punjab and other problems have reduced the demand for such workers. What then is the plight of these same workers? Do they move to the city, or back to origin? Do they move cyclically in search of work?

Migration studies by Zachariah and others point out to the fact that migrant characteristics at destination reveal the post migration picture. What actually motivates migration is the pre-migration characteristics, especially with respect to age, education, marital status, work and occupation status, wage/income earned, single or family moves, job expectations and quality of information before migration.

27 For selectivity of migrants to urban areas see Zachariah 1964, 1968; UN Manual VI (1970), Kamble (1973), Oberai and Singh (1983), Premi (1985), Davis (1961), Bose (1978), Murthy and Murthy (1980). Migration research in India gained impetus after the 1961 Census, when for the first time, migrants were classified as being from rural or urban areas. It became possible to delineate streams of migration, both by distance and by residence. Studies looked at inter-state and intra-state movements for various residence and distance streams; Gosal and Krishan (1975 and others).

28 ILO 1960: 125
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IV.2.b. Why Migrate?

The conclusion drawn from both descriptive and analytical studies of migration is that people migrate primarily for economic reasons. The greater the difference in economic opportunities between urban and rural areas, the greater the flow of migrants from rural to urban areas. While distance is usually a significant intervening obstacle, its negative impact can largely be offset by the income differentials, especially for the more educated migrants. In addition to this primary motive, people migrate: 1. To improve their educational or skill level. 2. To escape social and cultural imprisonment in homogeneous rural areas; 3. To escape from rural violence; 4. To join family and friends who had previously migrated to urban areas.

If this is true, then a decline in migration to urban areas means that opportunities for employment are declining there. It could be that it is the poor who are migrating there; or the shorter forms of movement are more prevalent there. (Todaro (1974): 69).

It is generally agreed that the causes of human migration are extremely diversified. Only rarely can a move be attributed to one cause since, in most cases, several reasons operate.\(^{33}\)

Census questionnaires include a direct question on - 'why did you migrate?' The primary interest is to know whether the migrants were 'pushed' out of the rural areas or 'pulled' by factors operating at the urban destination. It is not even clear whether the migrants had a clear plan for migrating to a particular destination. The broad conclusions that have been reached from responses given by migrants in surveys are that people migrate primarily for economic reasons. Accordingly, economists have formulated models in which migration is a function of differences in economic opportunities between urban and rural areas. However these models neglect the fact that there exists a wide variety of economic forces which have a differential impact on the rural community. For example, some migrants may leave the rural area permanently owing to loss of land, while others may leave to save up to buy some agricultural land, while other may leave to buy some agricultural capital goods for the farm. Migrants articulating the reasons may come from different groups and the reaction of persons with these different motivations to policy measures may be

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different. Lipton (1976: 397) has argued that migrants should be asked to state the factors that had changed their balance of preference between urban and rural areas.34

Migration studies have, in general, paid more attention to the economic motive for migration, since it is agreed that most migration occurs when varying levels of economic development and thus of incomes/wages exist between regions. Most of the theoretical and empirical research on migration has been influenced and guided by the Todaro (1969)/ Harris-Todaro (1970) model. In this, migration to the urban formal sector occurs as a result of rural and urban wage differentials. Excess labour supply may result in migrants not being able to get employment in this sector. Consequently, when deciding to migrate, an individual balances the probability of being unemployed for a considerable period against the positive differential between urban and rural real incomes. Rural-Urban migration continues so long as this differential exists.

Fields (1975), Mazumdar (1975) and others have modified this model to include the informal sector. It may be assumed that entry here is free, search for a formal sector job is conducted from the formal sector and that job search is just a part time activity. The income earned in this sector is used to finance their urban job search. This sector is thus a 'transition' sector for migrants entering it. Yap (1976) and others have drawn inferences on mobility out of the informal sector from data on the proportion of migrants with varying duration of urban residence in the informal sector. It is also essential to know how far migrants who form the market for informal escort jobs form part of the market for formal sector jobs.

Migrant perceptions about the 'push and pull' factors actually drive migration. Available information about differential opportunities determines their perceptions about the process. Very little work has been done on the nature and content of information flows received by potential migrants. And what role they play in the formation of expectations at destination. Knowledge of this is important because we can find out whether their expectations are consistent with their first job. It is widely presumed that the initial urban experience of migrants does not satisfy their expectations.

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Job search strategy is reflected by the nature of information on which the migrants base their moves. The implicit assumption in the Todaro/Harris-Todaro model is that job search is essentially urban-based. To the extent that search for an urban job is rural based, the contribution of migration to urban employment and underemployment, and the likelihood of mismatch of expectations are reduced. It becomes important to have estimates of rural-based job search. There is some fragmentary evidence to suggest that it is this kind of job search that may be important in India.  

There is a need to focus more minutely on individual reasons for migration. The Census gives a macro perspective of the reasons of migration since it gives seven broad categories, viz. Employment, Education, Business, Natural Calamities, Marriage, Family Moves and Other Reasons. According the Parnwell, and also Skeldon, a lot of information is lost since a large number of the migrants are included under the categories of Other Reasons and Family Moves. Motives for individual migration decisions to the city need to be probed.

Singh and Kaur (2007) classified the causes of migration to Ludhiana into five broad categories of Economic, Social, Psychological, Political and Natural. This was done to bring out the important push and pull factors of migration of the respondents. Migration occurred to escape from economic hardships in the place of origin, mainly poverty, low employment and better wages and more employment in Ludhiana. The guidance of relatives and friends was found to be the most important social cause of migration. The presence of a well established and strong network was found to be an important motivational force behind migration to Ludhiana. This is also supported by the findings of Singh and Singh (2001).

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IV.2.c. Patterns of Flow and Direction of Movement:

Human Geography is concerned with the movement of people over space, i.e. on identifying spatial patterns and directions of movement. The distance factor is inherent in geographic research and figures prominently in the well-known "gravity" model in which migration between places is directly proportional to their mass (e.g. city size) and inversely proportional to the distance between them. In this context the importance of accessibility and availability of transportation and communication networks to facilitate and encourage movement is readily seen. The close linkages between the geographic and economic approaches to migration are also seen in the focus of geographic research on the role of differences in economic opportunities and government investments on population redistribution across areas or regions. The role of distance differs depending on characteristics of migrants (Rose (1958): 13 of people on the Move). In migration studies, a comparison of expected flows, predicted on the basis of a gravity model and actual flows can sometimes be more instructive than the analysis of flows themselves (Berry and Schwind, 1969, quoted in People on the Move: 13).

Apart from a basic pattern of migration and a regional profile, one must probe the issue of short-term migration trends and other non-permanent forms of moves to the city. Such moves are generally clubbed as circulation. Available data from the Census and the NSS does not consider such moves. However, such patterns of movement are more relevant in the third world context and have an importance all their own. According to Skeldon (1986) the total volume of urban migration may be significantly underestimated since such short-term, temporary moves are excluded. Vaguet (1997) feels that the reason for rural areas in India retaining their population is the existence of such temporary forms of movement to the city.

In studies of internal migration, the direction of flows has been of great concern to spatially oriented researchers who have tried to introduce vectors as a measure and representation of both volume and direction of migration. (Tarver and Skees, (1967), pg. 13 of People on the Move). It is in relation to the study of spatial

patterns of flows that most models used in the study of migration have been developed.

Oberai and Bilsborrow (1984) argue that territorial mobility is a complex phenomenon, embracing space, residence, and time and activity changes. The notion of 'space' or the areal unit is inherent in any kind of move. The concept of distance in space involves not only geographical distance, but also economic and social distance. They agree that while the criteria of geographical distance is generally vague (Pg.33 of Oberai and Bilsborrow, 1984), that of economic and social distance is empirically difficult to develop. Most studies on migration in India are restricted to the first because of limitation of census data. Economic distance embraces movements between market centres or between centres of production; or between centres of particular types of industry or occupational specialization. It is based on costs and availability of communication, information and transport networks. Stouffer (1962) stressed social distance through arguing that the volume of inter-area migration was a function of intervening opportunities, the number of people in each area and the number of competing migrants. Specifically, the concept can be used to categorize the types of moves in terms of physical 'separations' e.g. From accustomed circle of family and friends, from particular ethnic group/ social groupings to which the mover belongs. The greatest social distance is when the moves occur across national boundaries. (Oberai and Bilsborrow, 1984, pg.33). For example, a move from a slum neighborhood into a nearby vicinity mainly inhabited by one or more other racial groups will involve sociological and possibly economic implications that are far greater than some long distance moves between ethnically similar areas.40

IV.2.d. Consequences of migration:

This aspect has the greatest bearing on research application, since it is an undeniable fact that migration affects the society at origin and destination; and the

40 Oberai, et al. (1983); op.cit. Pg.34.
psyche of the migrants themselves (Mangalam, 1968). These consequences can be measured in demographic, social and economic terms as also cultural and political.

Another aspect of the consequences of migrations the study of "migrant assimilation" (Eisentadt 1953) or "migrant adjustment" (Parnwell 1993) in the city. This deals more with the sociological aspect of migration.

Rawat (1993) has studied the impact of rural-urban migration on family structure, social mobility and caste stratification, as also on socio-economic development in the Garhwal region of U.P. in India. The migration problems of adjustment and the maintenance of a separate social and cultural identity in a large city have been studied by Joshi (1994) for Delhi. He considered the case of Kumaoni migrants.

A study based on survey data examined job search and earnings of migrants in the city of Madurai (Santhapparaj, 1986). The study examined pre-migration occupation and job expectation, job search, migration network, time lag involved in getting an urban job and low migrants jobs differ from their expectations.

Mukherjee (see Prothero and Chapman, 1985) points to increased circulation among those engaged in the urban informal sector, as compared to those in the organised sector, with more stable jobs. This is because of two conflicting forces (as discussed in Mitchell, 1961: 278 and as quoted in Mukherjee, 1985) centripetal (social forces) which draw a migrant back to origin and centrifugal (economic forces) which induces him to leave home. The finding of a general trend towards casualisation in the whole economy and the marginal impact of industrialization on employment during the 80's (Bhattacharya and Mitra, 1993) indicates circulation even in the organised sector.

Gill and Abbi (1982) have studied the impact of migration on the rural economy of Punjab. They examined the impact of migratory labour on daily, monthly, yearly wages, general employment conditions and on the opportunities of the local labourers in Punjab. Another study looks at the impact of migration on the

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rural labour force, by way of employment, earnings and characteristics of the migrants in the district of Ludhiana (Sidhu and Grewal, 1984).

Oberai and Singh44 (1983) analyzed the consequences of migration to Ludhiana City under various heads.

- Under labour force participation, they analyzed the participation rates by age, sex, migrant status, and origin of migrants. The female labour force participation was analyzed on the basis of age, caste and education.

- When considering the structure of labour force in urban areas, they looked at opportunities of jobs and income among migrants and non-migrants, the time lag in getting a job, their job mobility, a comparison of migrants, from rural and urban areas with respect to the above, and also the chances of migrants getting a job in the high wage, urban formal sector. Employment in formal sector is studied in detail.

- With regard to the pattern of earnings, increases in migrant earnings with increase in duration of stay are examined. Also, wage discrimination among migrants and non-migrants.

There is a need for the government to meet the civic amenities and basic needs of the growing number of migrants in the city (Sharma, 1987; The Times of India, 1999:1). Demand for water, electricity, transportation and routing will increase in future and there is a growing need for consideration of these by planners and authorities.

A recent study, Dupont and Dureau (1994) examines the strategies for temporary migrants and commuters, how they fit into the city space- both geographical and economic and so on. Mazumdar (1987:1100) also points to the prevalence of this type of migration in cityward streams, in many developing countries. Such moves are generally lumped together with the more permanent migrants in Census returns. A study by Vaguet (1997) points to the fact that three fourth of India’s population is still rural. He suggests that these areas are able to retain most of their population. According to him, temporary migration and a

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diversification of activities in the rural informal sector helps absorb this growth of population.

The impact of migration at the place of origin and destination is essential for any study of migration. This can be studied at the individual level by way of migrant adjustment at destination. Though this deals more with the sociological aspect of migration, nevertheless, it is important to focus on the problems of migrant adjustment in the city and their perception about the moves.

In case of the existence of short term, temporary moves in cityward migration, it becomes important to probe the nature and extent of the linkages with the origin or the place of birth, by way of remittances, investments, social contacts and so on.

Bilsborrow et al. 45 (1984:22) point out that the prevalent view is that the consequence of migration for migrant households and individuals is favorable, while for the society it is harmful. The individual benefits are seen to occur at the expense of a net loss to both rural and urban areas and a decline in social welfare, through overcrowding and increased pollution in urban destinations and a greater regional concentration of wealth, income and human capital. However, Bilsborrow disagrees with this view, since existing evidence is not only conflicting but it is methodologically flawed.

Santhapparaj 46 (1998) examined rural-urban migration and links between migrants and migrant households in their place of origin. He used data from a primary survey in the city of Madurai to study the nature, characteristics and consequences of migration from the place of destination. He found poor probability of remittance by a migrant to rural areas. Unmarried migrants, those with land or house assets have a higher probability to remit. The closeness of ties with the rural area, eg the presence of a close relative, possession of land or house has a strong influence on the decision to remit. The majority of the migrants sent remittances to meet rural household consumption expenditure, which was found to be their main contribution to the rural economy. Remittances cannot be seen as a general panacea to poverty alleviation. As seen above, relatively few people from any population migrate

across international boundaries and those that do tend to come from a fairly small number of areas of origin in any country. The benefits of remittances are likely to be concentrated in quite limited areas of any country and are as likely to increase inequalities as to alleviate poverty. By increasing inequalities, remittances may actually lead to increasing feelings of relative deprivation among those who do not receive income from overseas thus exacerbating poverty. The current preoccupation with remittances has a certain downside. It has diverted attention away from other equally important dimensions of the migration-development nexus and countries are looking carefully at the international flows of remittances relative to their allocation of aid (Skeldon 2004). In general, international migration is unlikely to be the decisive factor in the eradication of poverty at the national level. Large areas in any poor developing country are likely to lie beyond the ambit of the receipt of remittances from overseas and other strategies need to be pursued in order to reach them.

Zachariah47 et al (2002) note that characteristics of migrants are of two types. They include characteristics that do not change, such as sex, birth year etc. The analysis of such characteristics often throws light on the factors associated with migration, leading to a better understanding of determinants of migration. Changing personal characteristics such as age, education, skill, occupation, marital status etc help to assess the consequences of migration. The study analysed the consequences of migration on Kerala's economy and society with respect to financial resources, human resources, housing, and housing quality and ownership of household consumer durables. The characteristics of migrants both before and after migration throw light not only on the factors associated with migration, but also help to assess the consequences of migration. The authors point out that remittance should include remittances received by family members, both in cash and in kind. Again, some information should also be included about whether the family in turn also sends remittances to the migrant. This is in line with earlier studies (Oberai :1984).

Nevertheless, the majority of those who move do so internally and the emphasis on the linkages between migration and poverty must be upon internal population movements, which essentially implies the linkages between rural and

urban sectors. Remittances from internal migrants to the largest cities in a country back to the villages may be a significant factor in poverty alleviation. At the national level, however, such remittances clearly do not contribute to any gains in foreign exchange earnings. Neither may they be as significant in terms of total amounts of cash sent back to particular villages as remittances from international sources. However, their spread throughout rural origins is likely to be greater simply because the range of origin areas is greater in internal migration than it is in international migration. (Skeldon 2005: 55) 48

The internal migration to the cities need not be permanent but can consist of regular or irregular circular movements between villages and city and town. Evidence suggests, too, that the poorest people may move only locally, perhaps to a plantation or other centre of commercial agriculture within the rural area itself. Essentially, households are seeking to diversify their resource base in order to minimize risk.

Temporary employment in a city becomes as much a niche in the household resource base as are access to fields in both wet and dry agricultural areas. It is not so much that rural householders are using migration to better their position as migration, sui generis, does not exist “out there” as a “thing” that can be manipulated. Rather, household members choose to move or not to move depending upon a number of reasons or needs and subject to a number of constraints. Modern communication systems allow greater numbers of people to travel more frequently over greater distances than before, for example. Networks of relatives and friends established through prior migration facilitate future migration. Institutional networks of labour recruiters and brokers link household members with opportunities outside the local. (Skeldon 2005:57) 49

IV.3. Studies of migrant integration in the world:

The world migration report 50 2003 of the international organisation for migration points out that “integration is complex in nature and has no fixed requirements”. Certain basic conditions need to be respected in order to make integration happen. For the migrants, these include

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- Command of the language of the host population
- Access to the educational system of the host population
- Access to the job market at destination
- Possibility of upward mobility through education and job performance
- Religious and cultural freedom, among others.

Abu-Lughod\textsuperscript{51} (1961) attempted to examine to what extent working migrants come in contact with associates from different backgrounds. She found that migrants cluster together not only residentially, but also on the job. She examined the integration of migrants in the city of Cairo based on residential location, economic, social and cultural adjustment of rural migrants in Cairo.

Bijl\textsuperscript{52} (2007) points to integration as the “full and equal participation of ethnic minorities in society”, based on (i) acquisition of language and basic knowledge (ii) structural integration, looking at aspects of work and education (iii) social-cultural integration, considering the social contacts, political participation, perceptions, sense of belonging, being accepted. While the motives for migration and the characteristics of the migrants (age, sex, education etc) helps a migrant make choices, the social networks that are in place provide opportunities to help the migrant make these choices. At the same time, the host society also offers opportunities to the migrant to interact with its members and become integrated. Successful integration is reflected in the extent and speed of participation in various domains like economic, social and cultural.

Based on her survey of literature, Hartung\textsuperscript{53} (2007) points out that integration also includes the quality of these connections and the process of acquiring a

membership status in the existing society. Thus, integration is considered as a process involving different dimensions and societal spheres.

Khoo and MacDonald 54 (2007) considered integration from the point of view of the ‘settlement success’ of the immigrants to Australia. They proposed a framework for examining settlement indicators across four dimensions of immigrant settlement – social participation; economic participation; economic wellbeing; and physical wellbeing – with a number of indicators for each dimension.

IV.3.A Studies of economic aspects of migrant integration:

Abu-Lughod 55 (1961) found that far greater homogeneity of the work force exists in the smaller firms in Cairo than would have been expected by chance. Far from isolating the migrant from his fellow villagers, his job may actually consolidate his village ties. The small firms in Cairo were found to employ only a few people, usually from the same family. Migrants depend on their compatriots to guide them to their first jobs. Sometimes, migrants seek out well known “successes” from their village to give them employment.

Piché et al. (2002) examined the relationship between national origin and economic Integration, after controlling for demographic factors (age and sex), human capital (duration of schooling, knowledge of languages, previous work experience) and length of residence at destination. They also considered training subsequent to migration. Economic Integration considered access to a first job and the ability to remain in the labour market during the first 18 months. Results show that national origin is relevant to the economic integration of new migrants. The time required to find a first job at destination is considered as an indicator of the speed of integration of the migrants. They also consider the process that leads to the labour market an important stage in becoming economically integrated. They include in this any

gainful employment, salaried or autonomous, full time or part time and of whatever duration. This helps them to identify individuals capable of being integrated into the labour market, or as they term it "employability".

Piché et al (2002) capture the capacity to maintain oneself in the labour market to account for the duration dimension of employment. They measure it as the number of weeks worked during the first 78 weeks (18 months or 1 and ½ years) after migrating to Montreal. This reference period dictated by the fact that attrition from the sample becomes rather important after the 78th week. They also included migrants who did not work, giving such migrants a value of zero for that week. Their results show a link between access to a first job and continued employment. Migrants from the regions that are disadvantaged in access to a first job are also disadvantaged with respect to the duration of employment. Having desirable qualifications will have little influence on the process of securing employment and of remaining employed. Previous work experience ensures access to and duration of employment of the migrants. They attribute this to the fact that a new migrant with previous experience who is ready to accept remuneration that is low relative to his human capital will find employment more easily than a migrant with little or no previous work experience.

IV.3.b Studies of social aspects of migrant integration:

Wirth (1938) considered urbanism as a characteristic mode of life that may be approached empirically from three inter-related perspectives- (1) as a physical structure comprising a population base, a technology and an ecological order; (2) as a system of social organisation with a characteristic social structure, a series of social institutions and a typical pattern of social relationships. And (3) as a set of attitudes and ideas and a constellation of personalities engaging in typical forms of collective behaviour.

With respect to Social Adjustment, Abu-Lughod (1961) points out that personal relationships, based on extended kinship groups, enmeshes large numbers of

the migrants to Cairo. Such informal social institutions provide moral support to the migrant as well as insurance against the insecurities of urban life, i.e. isolation in poverty, sickness and death.

Hendrix\textsuperscript{60} (1976) points to the importance of the integrative function of informal primary ties in urban industrial society. Migration disrupts primary ties and hinders migration by strongly integrating people into their own community. He considers kin ties and the residual category of acquaintances as the two major types of informal involvement in his study. A third category is identified as network connectedness, which was based on interaction among respondents acquaintances already identified.

Lindquist\textsuperscript{61} (1993) examines migration for work in the Philippines and argues that international migration flows are a complex set of links that connect individuals and communities to the national capital region and ultimately to places abroad. Structural imbalances between the international economy and national government policy provide conditions for potential movement. However, this is translated into migration flows only when links between various people, places and mediating structures are actually activated through social networks. Interpersonal relationships, once established, sustain the system of migration that emerges.

De Haan\textsuperscript{62} (1997) analyzes the role of families in the process of rural-urban migration in India. He opines that the continuous circular form of this migration should be explained as a consequence of rural family strategies. Already established kinship relations, or marriage opportunities in the future act as a centripetal force, drawing the labour migrants back to their communities of origin time and again. Migration for work is informed by economic and cultural considerations which determine the socioeconomic behavior of men and women.

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Bauer and Zimmermann\(^{63}\) (1997) argue that network migration is central to actual migratory movements. They investigate the determinants of network migration for ethnic Germans using two crucial variables—connections to friends from the country of origin and also their settlement close to relatives and friends at the destination. Duration of residence and rural residence at destination, tend to decrease such connections. Such connections increase with population density. Education, length of stay in a reception camp, and per capita government expenditures are found to decrease the likelihood of settlement in proximity to close relatives and friends.

Skeldon \(^{64}\) (1997) examined rural-urban migration in Thailand and its role in poverty alleviation. He concluded that, overall, such migration has positive effects for the communities of origin, as it helps to alleviate poverty. His study suggests that the impact of remittances among rural internal migrant families can be substantial and be responsible for wealth differences within rural communities. The urban sector becomes another resource base for rural populations that can sustain them during rapid change processes. Informal social networks reinforce migrant work in the informal sector and segmentation of the labor force. Such social networks may be formalized into associations and help in securing migrant’s housing and living. Migrants are integrated in a variety of ways into city life.

Anwara Begum and Mahmood\(^{65}\) (1999) identify four main functions of Social Networks that aid international migrants by helping them to overcome obstacles or barriers in the process of migration. Their study is based on a sample of international migrants from Bangladesh. These functions include information about jobs, travel assistance, entry into the job market and maintenance of status quo at the destination. They base their networks on affiliations existing among blood relations, relatives, relatives,

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friends and neighbours, fellow townsfolk, people with a shared ethnic interest etc. Migrants make use of different networks to achieve different ends. Friends and relatives or intermediaries, which account for a substantial proportion of migrants across different countries of destinations, helped with information for jobs. A majority of the migrants traveled with middle men or friends and very few traveled alone. Most of the migrants procured jobs with the help of middle men or intermediaries. Their study ignores the remittances carried home by the migrants themselves, examining only other, more secure channels.

Piché et.al. (2002) found that the presence of old, established networks that function well help migrants of particular national origin to successfully integrate into the labour market at destination. They point out that people who move from long distance areas have limited socio-economic interaction with the local population and find it difficult to adjust to the conditions in the new place. On the other hand, their adjustment would be smooth due to the presence of persons from their place of origin, (relatives or friends) who are more or less settled in the new place.

Palo et.al.** (2007) examine migrants’ social integration into the host society, using the European community Household Pane. The study uses migrants own perception about their integration rather than the attitudes of natives towards these migrants, as has been the norm. Migrants’ social relations are examined, focusing on two main questions- how often do the migrants talk to their neighbours and how often do they meet friends or relatives not living with them. They relate this pattern to the age, marital status, educational level, activity status and household size.

IV.4. Studies of migrant integration in India:

Chatterjee** (1971:146) points out that there are categories of persons ‘stabilised’ in towns who do not identify themselves as townsmen. Using out-migration rates for Bombay, she attempts to distinguish categories of migrants who are more or less stable. She borrows from the work of Mitchell (1956) who suggested

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that the term 'stabilized' should be used to refer to being settled in town when no intermittent journeys are made back (to the place of origin, usually a rural home). The implications of this are (a) a man can live in a town without being stabilized and (b) possibly, a man can be stabilized without being urbanized, or committed to urban life.

'Stabilization' thus refers to the degree of commitment of an individual and might be measured by the number or intensity of contacts with other people, the number of exchanges in which involved and so on.

Banerjee 68 (1983) studied interactions between labour migrants to Delhi and their urban-based contacts. His study is based on interviews with 1615 heads of migrant households. He suggests that migrants regard kinship bonds as stronger than village and caste ties, based on their pattern of preference for assistance from relatives rather than co-villagers. 86% of the rural migrants reported having relatives and/or co-villagers living in Delhi at the time of their arrival, and virtually all received some form of assistance from their contacts. However, co-villagers tended to be contacted if relatives failed to secure a job for the new migrants within a reasonable time. The most common pattern of assistance provided by both relatives and co-villagers included room, food, and job search. New migrants prefer to obtain board and lodging from relatives. A consequence of chain migration is the concentration of persons from the same village or kinship network in particular occupations. 36% of the wage employees in the sample had relatives and/or co-villagers working for the same employer. This suggests that migration induced by urban-based contacts (accounting for 42% of the migration in this sample) will be low if the sectors in which job opportunities are expanding are dominated by non-migrants.

Inbanathan 69 (1988) points out that migrants have to make changes in their lifestyles and culture to conform to the style of life and expectations of the host society, so that they can function effectively in the new environment. He considers

migrant adaptation using three related concepts of (i) accommodation (ii) integration and (iii) assimilation.

Accommodation is the first stage in which there is limited acceptance by the migrants to the norms of the host society. Integration is an intermediary stage where the migrants develop closer or more intimate relations with the members of the host society. However, they do not inter-marry. There are changes in their lifestyles and some of their natal cultural items are dropped, with selective borrowing from the culture of the host society. Assimilation involves inter-marriage and complete identification with the host society. The earlier group identity disappears and a new group identity emerges, that of the host population.

The study is descriptive and is based on a sample of Tamil residents from backward and scheduled castes in a resettlement colony in Delhi.

Desai 70 (1994) describes the increasing complexity of interactions between urbanisation and migration. She examines the evidence of urban patterns of living arrangements and the division of family labour. Migration plays a key role in individual and household adjustment strategies to changing conditions at rural origin and urban destination and in the community in general. Her study is based on a survey of three slum settlements in the city of Bombay, drawn from a random sample.

Desai 71 (1999) studies the attitudes and behaviour of migrants which may help in their adaptation and assimilation in a new milieu. She considers the characteristics of migrants to study their process of adaptation and integration. External factors like friends, relatives and organisations of own community and interaction with the host population have a part to play in the process of assimilation. Her study is based on a sample of elite and vernacular groups in the city of Ahmadabad, drawn from a stratified random sample.

Sivakumar 72 (2000) found that a substantial portion of the migrants who moved to a town in Tamil Nadu had close relatives at the destination at the time of moving to the town. A larger proportion among them had been helping their relatives

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after migration, at least in the initial period. However, he concludes that that having
relatives and friends in the town at the time of migration was not supported
empirically as most of the migrants came from the surrounding rural areas and were
familiar with the town, even in the absence of close relatives and friends. Besides,
there are no language and cultural barriers for the migrants in this town since almost
all the migrants were from the study district itself. They are not viewed as strangers
in the town. In long distance moves from one region to another, migrants would have
language and cultural barriers and need to find similar cultural groups for settlement.

Singh and Kaur\textsuperscript{73} (2007) identified relatives and friends as the major agents for
migration for migrant labour in Ludhiana city. Respondents migrated to Punjab due to
the presence of a strong social network. This is supported by other studies. They
point out that it is difficult to distinguish between networks that rely solely on
relatives and friends and those that rely on middle men, intermediaries who help to
procure jobs, as boundaries are porous.

\textbf{IV.5. The Issues}

Unlike other demographic ‘events’ such as fertility, mortality and nuptiality,
migration is not an unambiguous demographic variable, but a theoretical construct
that must be defined operationally (Bilsborrow (1984):8).\textsuperscript{74} A substantial body of
useful and insightful literature has developed as a result of interest shown in the
varied aspects of population mobility and migration by practitioners in the social
sciences. Over the years, urbanization, industrialization, economic adjustment,
cultural diffusion and social integration have attracted researches taking up the study
of migration. Most of the generalizations, models and theories have been developed
out of Western Migration experiences. More studies deal with the process of
immigration rather than internal migration.

The literature on migration in developing countries has been extensively
surveyed and reviewed (e.g. Nelson (1969); Brigg (1973); Byerlee (1974); Connell et
al (1976); Yap (1977); Todaro (1976b); Singh (1998); de Haan (1999) and others).\textsuperscript{75}
Most of these reviewers agree that despite the considerable volume of research on this

\textsuperscript{74} Bilsborrow, OpCit. pg 20.
\textsuperscript{75} Mentioned in B.Banerjee, (1987), Op.cit. pg.2. Also add the new ones.
Chapter One

Introduction

subject, our understanding of the migration process and its implications continue to be
deficient in many respects. As the world grapples with the problems of international
migration impacting the developed nations, developing countries must look to manage
internal migration better than in the past, especially with respect to urban-ward
migration. The purpose of this thesis is to throw light on some of these issues,
especially with respect to cityward migration, and to test a selected number of
assumptions and hypothesis put forward in the literature.

The mechanism of migration occurs when an individual decides it is
preferable to move from a place rather than to stay there, and where the difficulties of
moving are more than offset by the expected rewards (Kosinski and Prothero,
1975:4). The concept of ‘push and pull’ best helps to understand this mechanism. It
has been pointed out that a ‘push’ factor can be identified in the out-migrating area,
such as lack of employment prospects, unemployment, low incomes etc. ‘Pull’
factors such as the prospect for higher pay, availability of jobs, better living
conditions etc. operate at the origin. However, Standing argues that “it would be
better to depict the process of migration in terms of a general process of socio-
economic change and development. Explanations based on ‘push and pull’
formulations presume that people are inherently sedentary, which is no truer than the
presumption that they are by nature migratory”.

Migration research has mainly been concerned with four types of questions:
Who migrates? Why? What are the patterns of flow and direction of movement?
What are the consequences of migration? (Mangalam (1968:15). While
geographers have tended to concentrate on the third question, they have also
attempted to address the other issues. Urban planners were concerned with congestion
and the inadequacy of basic services, and sociologists devoted special attention to the
problems of social and personal disorganization – especially political unrest, crime
and delinquency – and to the effects of city life on the family. Economists have
focussed more on economic factors influencing migration, the causes and

G.Standing, (1984): “Migration Surveys in Low Income Countries: Guidelines for Survey and
Development and Planning No.41. Institute of Economic Growth, Delhi. Himalaya Publishing house;
pg.2.
consequences of migration between regions, and the effects of labour market
conditions on migration rates between states and districts in various countries. The
focus has been on aggregate factors influencing migration, especially wage and
income levels and levels of unemployment...exclusion of non-economic variables and
the failure to analyze migration at the individual or household level, the level at which
migration decisions are generally made. Geographers have tended to concentrate
more on the spatial patterns and the direction of movement of people, largely based
on secondary data. The focus for them is not so much on who migrates, or why, or
even on the consequences of migration but on the movement of people over space. 80

Another issue of importance today is the question of migrant adjustment at
destination and the problems they face, i.e. how well do the migrants fare in the
cities? How do they go about earning a living? How informal sector employees differ
from those that join the formal sector? What is the nature and extent of the non-
permanent movement? 81 There is a broad agreement among international migration
managers that migration rewards a society only when accompanied by successful
integration. Without integration, it gives rise to stresses and strains that can seriously
harm social cohesion. (UN 2003). 82 Recent focus, particularly for international
migration studies, is on the assimilation and integration of migrants in a new milieu
(UN 2005: 299-311). 83

V. Objectives:
The main objectives of the study are:

- To study the volume, trend and pattern of migration to Punjab and
  Ludhiana city
- To examine the concentration of migrants in the districts of Punjab
- To examine the work pattern of migrants at different stages of their life

To study the linkages that exist between migrants and their family, and the adjustments they make

To examine the level of integration of in-migrants to Ludhiana city

VI. Research Questions:

The study will attempt to answer the following research questions:

- What is the trend and pattern of migration to Punjab? What is the regional pattern of concentration of migrants in the districts of Punjab?
- What is the magnitude, extent and motives of migration to Ludhiana city? What is the direction of migration to Ludhiana city?
- What is the Pre-migration and Post-migration pattern of work of the migrant respondents?
- What kind of linkages develop as migrants adjust to life in the city?
- What is the Level of Integration of migrants in Ludhiana based on the pattern of Economic, Social and Cultural adjustments that they make at destination?
- What is the pattern of Economic, Social and Cultural Integration of migrants by Industry groups, Duration of Residence and Distance of migration?

VII. Nature and Source of Data:

The present study largely depends on primary data from a field survey in Ludhiana in response to a pre-determined questionnaire. The questions are in line with the objectives of the study.

The study also makes use of secondary data, from the sources listed below:

VII. a. Secondary Data

- Migration Tables from the Census of India
Table 1.5. Secondary Data Sources Used

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of Data</th>
<th>Data Used</th>
<th>Tables</th>
<th>Year</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Census of India</td>
<td>Migration (Punjab)</td>
<td>D-1, D-2</td>
<td>1971</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Census of India</td>
<td>Migration (Punjab)</td>
<td>D-1, D-2, D-3</td>
<td>1981</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Census of India</td>
<td>Migration (Punjab)</td>
<td>D-1, D-2, D-3</td>
<td>1991</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Census of India</td>
<td>Migration (Punjab)</td>
<td>D-1, D-2, D-3</td>
<td>2001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Census of India</td>
<td>Migration (Ludhiana)</td>
<td>D-IV</td>
<td>1971</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Census of India</td>
<td>Migration (Ludhiana)</td>
<td>D-2</td>
<td>2001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Census of India</td>
<td>Migration (Districts)</td>
<td>D-2</td>
<td>2001</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Skeldon (1986:759) highlights many of the difficulties inherent in analysing migration patterns purely on census data. He also points out that—“while these (difficulties) can be substantial, the Census is usually the major, often the only, source of migration data referring to the country as a whole and we must depend on it despite its deficiencies”.

VII.b. Primary Data

- Preliminary Field Work in Ludhiana City in 1998
- Field Work in Ludhiana City between July 2000 to February 2001

VIII. Methodology:

VIII.a. Sampling Design:

The sample selection has been done at two levels a) from Industry and b) from Slums. From the industry, the sample has been drawn from the two major industries in the city, namely the Hosiery and the Light Engineering Industry. The Hosiery Industry is largely made up of Woolen Hosiery and Cotton Hosiery, which itself comprises of T-shirts, Shirts, Suits etc. apart from the conventional hosiery items. Most of these units operate as small and medium scale units and there is heavy dependence on ancillary units for finishing of the work, eg, dyeing, Embroidery, Tubular operation, Washing, Buttoning etc. The Light Engineering Industry mainly comprises of Sewing Machine and Cycle Industry. This again operates as medium and small units, with heavy dependence on ancillary units for switch making, condenser, rubber washers, shuttle race, sewing machine boards, machine-arm, stamping, nickel polishing etc. for fans; and tyres, stamping, nuts and bolts, hub, seats, nickel polish, cycle rims, etc for the cycle industry.

The reason for drawing the sample from industries is that according to the Census of India, about 50% of the male migrant workers in Ludhiana were

concentrated only in the manufacturing industry in 1991. Ludhiana is a known hosiery metropolis and earns a lot of foreign exchange from export of cycles also. Hence these two industries were taken up. These two industries also have the highest proportion of employees among the industries operating.

In order to choose the sample the procedure adopted is shown in Table 1.2. From the ancillary unit, all the migrants were taken in case the number of workers was few. The number of respondents varies, depending on the type of work done and the number of workers in each unit.85

Figure 1.4. Diagram to show selection of sample

For slums, a total of four slums were selected, based on their distance from the Industrial area. A larger sample was drawn from the Industry as compared to the sample from the slums. The reason for choosing the sample from industry was to avoid the difficulty of getting migrants who had come to the city only recently to look for work and to get working migrants. Males of working age groups usually remained absent from the slums during the day and return late at night. It was easier to get an idea of work related migration this way and avoid an over-representation of recent migrants in the sample.

VIII.b. Tools and Techniques:
The following tools and techniques were used.

**Secondary Data**-

1. Descriptive
2. The data from the Census of India, Migration Tables has been used to analyse the pattern of migration in Urban Punjab.
3. Percentage share distributions have been calculated to understand the pattern.
4. Tables and charts have been made where required for the analysis.
5. Choropleth maps have been made to understand the Regional pattern of concentration of the migrants in Urban Punjab.
6. Value of location Quotient has been calculated to understand the regional pattern of migrant concentration and make the maps.
7. GIS software is used to prepare the maps at the district and state level.

**Primary Data**-

1. **Defining the migrant**- For the purpose of the study, a migrant is any male or female working in the industry in Ludhiana, who is above the age of 15 years and not more than 50 years. S/he should have been in the city for at least 6 months of continuous stay.
2. The main tools used are frequency distribution of the variables/indicators.

VIII.c. Research Design:
The research has broadly been organized into 7 Chapters, as follows.

Chapter 1. Introduction.


Chapter 3. Migrant Selectivity, Patterns and Motivation- A Field Study Approach.

Chapter 4. Migration and Work.

Chapter 5. Social Dimension of Migration- Adjustment and Linkages.

Chapter 6. Integrating Migrants in an Urban Industrial Environment

Chapter 7. Summary and Conclusion