CHAPTER - 1

INTRODUCTION
Excessive growth of metropolitan areas accompanied by disparities in regional development, leads to the deterioration of urban environment and drains out governmental and natural resources through increasing demand for infrastructure and housing. As a result of these adverse developmental consequences of excessive metropolitan growth, the developing countries are eager to encourage population distribution policies compatible with their development strategies (Findley, 1981: 144).

If population growth in developing nations was the issue of 1970's, population distribution and mobility are the issues of the 1980's and continues till now. In the early 1970's, half of the less developed countries considered growth of their metropolitan areas excessive, while by the early 1980's almost all did so (Richardson, 1984: 262-65).

One of the most dramatic changes that has occurred in less developed countries within the past few decades is a surge in rural to urban migration. Rural-urban migration in excess of urban opportunities and social services is one of the main factors contributing to the continuation of underdevelopment. It could, therefore, be argued that the current problems associated with rural outmigration are far more pressing than those experienced in historic development of the industrial nations" (Lee, 1985: 122-23).
The major concern of the third world countries of today is, therefore, to arrest the exodus of rural to urban migration. The solution to this crucial problem, however, mainly lies in tackling the problem of abject poverty of the rural areas of origin of outmigration. In this study, therefore, an attempt has been made to understand the basic determinants of outmigration from the rural areas of the Uttar Pradesh Himalayas which is traditionally an out-migrating region and its consequences on the local economy.

1.1 THEORIES AND MODELS RELATED TO MIGRATION

Today, throughout the world, migration is contributing to economic and social development by enabling man to overcome "the tyranny of space", the primary policy objective of rational science. Migration consist of a variety of movements that can be described in the aggregate as an evolutionary and development fostering process operating in time and space to correct rural-urban inter urban and intra-regional imbalance. It also may spread information, when migrants are more skilled than those living in the region of destination and it may break the cake of custom enveloping migrants and make the latter a dynamic force (Spengler, 1958, 173).

Revenstein (1885) was the first scholar, who proposes his law of migration. According to Ravenstein
migrants move from areas of low opportunity to areas of higher opportunities. The choice of destination is regulated by distance. Further he observed that each stream of urban rural migration, produces a counter stream of rural-urban migration, although the former tends to dominate the latter. He also points out that the urban residents are less migratory than the rural. Migration streams will be a built in tendency to increase overtime as a result of new innovation in the field of technology and communication. Finally he says that economic motive is always predominant in the matrix of factors influencing the decision to migrate (Revenstein, 1889 : 241-301).

"Everelt S Lee, the Sociologist, has provided what is probably the most appealing and most concise "general", non-rigorous framework for analysing the internal migration process (Todaro, 1976 : 15). He begins with a broad definition of migration simply as "a permanent or semi-permanent change of residence, and every act of migration involves an origin, a destination and an intervening set of obstacles" (Lee, 1954 : 47-57).

According to Lee (1954), there are four important factors, which enter the decision to migrate and the migration process are following (i) Factors associated with the area of origin, (ii) Factors associated with the area of destination, (iii) Intervening obstacles and (iv) Personal factors. He has presented these factors by a
schematic diagram, shows that there are positive and negative factors at the place of origin as well as destination, which he shows by pluses (+) and minuses (−). Zero (0) represent the force toward which people are essentially indifferent.

While migration may result from a comparison of factors at origin and destination, a simple calculus of +’s and −’s does not decide the act of migration. The balance of + and − of movement must be enough to overcome the natural inertia which always exists. Furthermore, between every two points there stands a set of intervening obstacles which may be slight in some instances and unsurmountable in others. The most important of these obstacles is distance. In some cases physical barrier like the Berlin wall may be interposed, or immigration laws may restrict the movement.

Finally there are many personal factors which affect individual threshold and facilitate or retard migration. Lee utilizes his basic conceptualization of migration as involving a set of origin and destination
factors, a set of intervening obstacles and a series of personal factors and formulas a number of general hypothesis about volume of migration, the development of stream and counter stream and characteristics of migrants, the main Antique of the Lee's theory is that it is of limited help for policy analysis in developing counter's because of its high degree of generality and the interdependance of many of its hypotheses.

Lewis (1954: 139-91) for the first time given the model of development to give consideration, at least implicitly, the process of rural-urban labour transfer and later formalised and extended by Fei and Ranis (1961: 533-65). This model is known as L-F-R model and it because the reviewed "general" theory of the development pours in "Labour samples", third world nations during late 1950's and 1960's. In this model the economy consists two sectors: (i) rural subsistence sector (ii) urban industrial sector. In the rural subsistence sector productivity is zero or very low and resulted samples labour, whereas in urban industrial sector, productivity is high and labour from rural sector is gradually transferred. Both Labour transfer and urban employment growth are brought about by output expansion in the modern sector. Such investment is made possible by the excess of modern sector profits over wages on the assumption that the "capitalist" reinvest all their profits. Finally, the
level of wage in urban industrial sector is assumed to be constant and determined as a fixed premium over a constant subsistence level of wages in the traditional agricultural sector. However, at the constant urban wage, the supply of rural labour was considered to be perfectly elastic.

The above process of modern sector growth and employment expansion is assumed to continue until all "surplus" rural labour is absorbed in the urban sector. Thereafter the labour supply curve becomes positively sloped and both urban wages and employment will continue to grow. The structural transformation of the economy will have taken place with the balance of economic activity shifting from rural agriculture to urban industry.

Sjaastad (1962: 80-93) in his "Human Investment theory" says that decision to migrate is an investment decision involving costs and returns distributed over time. According to him the returns are divided into money and non-money components. Non-money returns include changes in "psychic benefits" as a result of locational preferences. Similarly cost includes costs of transport of disposal of movable and immovable property, shift of a resident. There are psychic costs too like leaving familiar surroundings, giving up one's language and culture, adopting new habits and social customs etc. He assumes
that in deciding to move, migrants tend to maximize their natural life span incomes and they have at least a rough idea of what their life span income streams would be in the present place of residence as well as in the destination area and of the costs involved in migration.

Todaro's (1976 : 28-29) model of rural urban migration assumes that migration is based primarily on privately rational economic calculations for the individual migrant despite the existence of high urban unemployment. He postulates that migration proceeds in response to urban-rural differences in expected rather than actual earnings. Expected earnings are measured by "the difference in real income between rural and urban job opportunities" and "the probability of a new migrant obtaining an urban job".

Todaro's model (Todaro, 1985 : 258-61) has four basic characteristics.

(a) Migration is stimulated primarily by rational economic consideration of relative benefits and costs, mostly financial but also psychological.

(b) Decision to migrate depends on "expected" rather than actual urban rural real wage differential. Expected gain on differential is determined by the interaction of two variables, the actual urban
rural wage differential and probability of successfully obtaining employment in urban sector.

(c) The probability of obtaining an urban job is inversely related to the urban unemployment rate.

(d) Migration rates in excess urban job opportunity growth rates are not only possible but rational and even likely in the face of wide urban rural expected income differentials.

A Schematic framework showing how the varying factors affecting the migration decision interest is given in figure.

Todaro and Harris (1970 : 126-42) utilised and extended the basis Todaro framework to construct a two-sector internal trade model of migration and unemployment which made it possible to give explicit attention to the impact of migration on rural income, urban and rural output and total social welfare. The two sectors, urban and rural are distinguished for analytical purposes from the viewpoint of production and incomes. Thus it is assumed the rural sector specialises in the production of agricultural goods, part of which are traded to the urban sector in return for the manufactured good in which it specialises. It is assumed that the rural sector has the choice between using all available labour to produce
agricultural goods are using only part of its labour to produce food while "exporting" the remaining labour to the urban sector (i.e. through migration) in return for wages paid in the form of manufactured goods. Thus it is assumed that the typical migrant retains his or her ties with the rural sector. Rural and urban interlinkages enables Harris and Todaro to assess the welfare and distributional consequences of migration, they are not necessary for demonstrating the private rationality of continued migration in the face of using urban unemployment.

Apart from methodological and conceptual problem of estimating income and their differentials for the particular origin and destinations areas, a major weakness of the Todaro model, as also of other income differential models, is its assumption that potential migrants are homogeneous in respect of skills and attitudes, complete information for working out probability of finding a job in urban modern sector. Some other assumptions of these models, e.g. migrants often work for modern sector job, wages in the traditional sector are always lower than wages in the modern sector, have also been questioned by researchers in recent years.

Other major shortcoming of income differential models is that they are partial, since they do not
emphasise the role of non-economic factors in the mobility decision. Secondly, they abstract from the structural aspects of the economy.

1.2 FINDINGS OF SOME IMPORTANT INTERNATIONAL STUDIES ON MIGRATION

In many Asian countries, as in the third world in general, rural poverty manifested in low agricultural incomes, low productivity, and underemployment, is an important factor pushing migrants out of rural areas towards areas with greater employment opportunities. A number of recent studies have noted the increasing unemployment and declining incomes of rural poors in developing countries. With the higher labour land ratio, there has been no proper development in non-crop husbandry sector also (dairy, poultry, forestry, fishing). Cottage and small-scale industries in the rural sector also fail to expand to absorb the surplus labour (Oberai and Helm, 1983: 2-3).

Lack of access to resources, in particular to land ownership constitute one of the major incentives to outmigration. The tendency to migrate is generally stronger among the landless labourers. In Togo, for example, in the plateau of Dayers, three-quarters of the labour migration is composed of labourers who are landless at the time of departure (Dasgupta, 1981). In Latin America also, the inequitable distribution of land is a
major factor in the migration process (UN Report, 1983: 194).

Technological changes also influence migration mainly through its effects on income and on employment opportunities in agriculture. In general, income-increasing technological change (for example new irrigation scheme) will have a positive effect on the willingness of would-be migrants to remain in their original location. However, technological change might create further inequality in income distribution, such as the widely discussed effect of green revolution in areas of unequal land ownership. Technological change will also influence cropping patterns and the relative importance of individual crops in the system. This can have both positive and negative effects. For example, the introduction of new labour-intensive and high value productivity crops, such as tobacco, may bring about a major income increase in the region, which will help to retain rural people in situ. On the other hand, shift from multicropping system to monocropping large-scale, mechanized, plantation crops could reduce both income and employment for the lower income groups and will increase migration (UN Report, 1983: 194-95).

While the forces above described have led to rural-rural and rural-urban migration among the very poor, the opening of schools in rural areas has probably also
done much to stimulate out migration by providing education and increasing awareness of other opportunities among rural youth. Some migrate to further their education, while others migrate as they become dissatisfied with the prospects of rural life (Oberai and Helm, 1983: 6).

A few studies also seems to support the hypothesis that migrants are attracted to cities in search of better entertainment or "bright light", or better educational facilities for their children. In addition, a number of factors such as the presence of friends and relatives in urban areas to provide initial assistance, and the desire of migrants to break away from the traditional constraints of inhibiting rural social structure, have been cited as likely determinants of outmigration (Findley, 1977).

One can say that "the movement of people from one area to another has generally been associated with some level of dissatisfaction that individuals feel about the conditions in the first area and the expectation that their hopes can be realized in the other area" (Skeldon, 1990: 125). Early scholars focussed on factors which could "push" people out of one area and factors which could "pull" them to their destinations. There are also other factors which might encourage potential migrants to stay in their places of origin (home "pulls") or
discourage them from moving to a possible destination (reverse "pushes"). The push-pull explanation of migration has been one of the principal themes of a substantial position of migration literature, perhaps reaching its clearest and fullest expression in "Lee's theory of migration" (UN, Monitoring Report, 1985: 188).

There are factors which push and pull; a migrant can be associated with poor quality of land, unequal distribution of land, the absence of rural credit facilities. Other push factors include lack of educational facilities, the lack of rural employment opportunities, low rural income or social tensions in small communities. The availability of higher paid jobs, better quality education and health services, or the "bright lights" or urban entertainment can pull people toward certain areas like urban centers (Simmons, 1984: 156).

The most obvious impact that outmigration has on communities of origin is the removal of population and the extreme result of this process is depopulation. It is not that everyone migrates but, with the exodus of younger people, villages lose their reproductive capability, the older people die off, and the settlements, gradually decline. In Europe, the "deserted villages" has been a theme since well before Industrial Revolution, although
the precipitous decline of rural population did not occur until the middle of the nineteenth century (Skeldon, 1990: 169).

Even where rural populations are not declining, outmigration still has major consequences for the communities of origin. The impact of migration on rural communities, long ignored, has become a major recent research area (White and Woods, 1980: 55). Migration is seen to have a negative impact on rural areas, based upon the assumption that the villages are being drained of their youngest, most innovative and best trained populations who move to the towns. The future leadership potential in the villages is thus removed. The money that can be saved by migrants in town is limited, because of comparatively higher living standard than rural areas (Lipton, 1977: 230-37). It is argued that the amount remitted not of great consequences. And the money that does reach the village is more likely to be used for conspicuous consumption and education than for productive investment in rural enterprises (Rampel and Lobdell, 1978: 324-41).

Some of the scholars have seen the impact of migration as being essentially positive. In the first set of patterns migration of labourers from rural to urban areas is considered as an essential factor of economic
development and improvement of rural income. Whatever variables are considered in the theory of neo-classical approaches see migration as an adjustment process, which satisfies a micro-economic rationality and brings into play mechanism that should lead to a better allocation of resources, an increase in the income of concerned categories, and a reduction of income inequalities. In the long run, as a consequence of the increase in the urban demand, the terms of trade develop in favour of agricultural sector. The growth of real income in agriculture - as a result, an increase in marginal productivity tends to eliminate the actual reason for immigration (Lewis, 1954 : 139-43).

Second approach to the impact of migration on the sending areas would be negative in the short run and positive in the long run. This analysis is based on the hypothesis that migrants are not the "marginals of the rural areas", contrary to the dualist model, but are employed and relatively skilled labourers. As a result, emigration decreases the average product in agriculture in the short run. In the long run, however, migration affects development in a more dynamic way through productive use of remittances, which brings about capital accumulation, technological change and income diversification (Stark, 1980 : 73). In the third approach, it has been suggested that migration has
positive effects in the short run but does not lead in the
long run to economic growth. The departure of under-
employed labourers with minimal or no qualification
relieves the labour market without decreasing
substantially the level of production. The income of
migrant families increases because of remittances. The
analysis of long-term migration dynamics shows that it is
not likely that migration transmits economic growth from
urban to rural areas, that it has no appreciable effect on
the strategic variables of developments and that it may
even drain the long run economic growth in the sending
areas (Tapinus, 1981: 36-46).

The effect of migration on the level of production
in agricultural sector can be seen in different ways.
When youth migrates and women are given sole
responsibility for agricultural activities and additional
child labour or wage labour is insufficient, it is
possible that production will decrease in the long run.
In some extreme situation migration may bring about a
decline of food production to a level insufficient to
satisfy the local needs and may lead to an increase in
food imports. Of course, migration is not the only factor
affecting a dependence on food imports, but may contribute
widely to it, as revealed by many examples (UN, FAO
Report, 1982). Another study suggests that, as a result
of migration, the agricultural patterns will be
characterized by a return to extensive farming and a decline of seasonal farming except when it is possible for migrants to return frequently to assist on the farms (Connel, 1977).

Existing research regarding the impact of migration on the flow of technology to rural areas arrives at two very different conclusions. With regard to the positive contribution of migrations to rural technology, studies in Guatemala, Peru, Tanzania and New Guinea show how return migrants bring in new crops and techniques (Connel, 1977). Miracle and Berry have more generally argued that the cosmopolitan view point of migrants tends to encourage innovation (Miracle, 1970: 88). Some argue that migrants may be less effective in stimulating farming innovations in rural Java than they are in encouraging trading, diversification of products and the extension of transports (Hugo, 1978: 288). On the other side, the headmen in five Malaysian villages were united in their view that men who had been away for urban construction jobs did not bring back skills useful to the villages (Standring, 1982: 21). Moroccan migrants working in transportation, custodial work or simply factory job did not bring any new skills to village. Western Columbia's migrant work skills, which they picked up outside have little relevance for the local economy, they tend to make no contribution to either technology or capital because
region is very poor and has no opportunities for investment. Their new ideas on consumption and communities traditions are rejected by village elders (Simmons, 1984: 172).

Another consequences that population mobility might have in facilitating structural change in communities of origin that should be raised is its possible impact on the other demographic variables, fertility and mortality. There is evidence for both seasonal fluctuations in fertility and overall lower than expected fertility (Ptter and Kobrin, 1988: 88). But recent analysis of logitudinal data for developing countries has shown that there is increasing evidence for a rise in fertility with the onset of modernization (Dyson and Murphy, 1985: 399-440).

The significance of return migration varies according to the duration of absence. In the case of seasonal or short-term migration, the return of the migrant is a particular means of conveying ideas and practice that might cause new departures. A more serious problems concerns the return migrants after several years of absence. Some consider return migrants are important means of transferring experiences. Returns are selective and it is not at all certain that those migrants who are well trained and dynamic will choose to go back to their
rural place of origin. There are, however, also examples which show that migrants who have moved to other rural areas have taken advantage of their acquired experience and tried to launch new agricultural activities (UN, Proceeding of Expert Group, 1984 : 203-4).

Return migrants can also act in more direct ways to transform their communities of origin and to introduce "progress" to what they consider to be a backward society. Migrants on their return often play a major role in adopting and promoting agricultural innovations or in the establishment of small commercial enterprises. The capital they have accumulated outside the community can facilitate the purchase of land or vehicles or the setting up of a store (Sajaastad, 1962 : 80-93). Return migrants may play a role in more radical change in rural areas and may wish to use their new found knowledge to benefit the people and their aspiration may meet resistance in challenging established practice and in promoting change. When migrants fail in the cities and return to their village frustrated in their ambitions can also contribute to radical change at place of origin (Gmelch, 1987 : 131-40).

1.3 FINDINGS OF SOME IMPORTANT INDIAN STUDIES ON MIGRATION

Migration has become a world wide phenomenon in recent years. Millions of people all over the world move
out of their normal place of residence to seek their fortune elsewhere. Migration by and large is given by economic factors that induce people to migrate in the modern period. However the exact circumstances under which people migrate from time to time and place to place vary considerably. Migration is having for reaching impact not only on the migrants but also on the society at large, both in the place of origin and destination. Migration has virtually become a lively topic for serious study.

Studies on migration are very few in India because, historically speaking, migration has never been considered an important demographic issue on account of the small volume of internal migration compared to the total size of population. The perception of internal migration has been mostly in terms of rural to urban migration and especially migration to big cities. In other words, internal migration has been viewed almost wholly as a concomitant of urbanization (Bose, 1983: 137).

Prior to 1951 census of India, data on migration (based in place of birth) were available only for inter state migration. In 1961 some more detailed tabulation were included with the help of extended questionnaires during census operation. Now it is possible to get
detailed picture of internal migration in India. In 1971 census, there has been direct question on migration in respect of place of last residence. This question was introduced to overcome the limitation of migration data base in place of birth (Bose, 1983 : 138-39). In 1981 and 1991 there has not been much difference.

Davis (1951 : 71-86) made a brief analysis of internal migration in India based on his observation of 1981 census data. Again in 1975 in his article he has mentioned that migration has a number of socio-economic, cultural, political and demographic impact at the place of origin and destination. Rural-urban migration has had a profound impact on the nature of urbanization and economic development (Davis, 1975 : 71-86). Mathur (1961) and Zachariah (1960) in their study concentrated on internal migration during 1901-31 and 1941-51 in order to measure and describe its magnitude, assess its contribution to the process of population distribution and demarcated areas of population gain and loss.

One aspect of the movement of people that has attracted the attention of early demographers with respect to volume, direction and distance of migration. According to Zipt (1946 : 677-86) "number of people going from one city to another should be function of distance separating them, since the effort required to cover
greater distance would presumably increase as did the distance". In the Indian context these hypothesis are put to test by many Scholars (Joshi, 1957 : 32-46; Gosal, 1961 : 106-121; Desai, 1964 : 725-30; Sen Gupta, 1961; Rao, 1977 : 1-7; Burkhadt, 1978 : 1-5).

Another aspect of migration that has attracted the attention of the researchers in the field of migration is selectivity of migration. It has been held by different researchers that persons in their late teens, twenties and early thirties are more migratory than other age groups. Age is the only factor that explains the differential migration (Gist, 1955 : 147-60; Bulsara, 1964; Zachariah, 1964).

The famous "push and pull" theory explains the migratory movement of men in terms of socio-economic imbalances between two places. There are two forces working on at the place of origin (push) and place of destination (pull). Number of Scholars (Bhargava, 1971 : 26; Barnwal, 1971; Gare, 1973 : 131-37; Lakshmia, 1974 : 89; Bose, 1978 : 25-26) have explored the motivational aspects of migration and stressed the role of push factor for the motivation of migration, whereas on the other side Tapan and Majumdar (1969 : 509-22) have stressed the importance of pull factors. Sovani (1966) in his study has taken the view that they (push and pull) do not work in isolation, rather they reinforce each other.
Yadava (1989) in his study has examined the nature of rural to urban migration from a set of rural communities in order to provide theoretical answers to some of the question concerning the differentials, pattern and consequences of movement process at the micro level. Several studies in India have shown that most of migrants go to the urban centers from agricultural households rather than from other occupational group. In this context the studies of Singh and Yadava (1981) is important.

In India, a number of urban surveys sponsored by the Research Programme Committee of Planning Commission of India during the 1950's have been conducted and it is reported that, between 40 to 70 percent of migrant interviewed said that they had moved because of unemployment, meager income and insufficient land (Sovani, 1966). While Deshmukh (1956) in his study, the migration from some villages in Delhi, found a perfect rank correlation between unemployment rates and migration rates. Connel (1976) found a powerful influence of literacy on different type of migration at village level. It is also observed that the educated people in India, migrate to urban areas not only because they do not have jobs in rural areas commensurate with their education but they develop a distaste for traditional work in villages (Kothari, 1980).
A number of studies on rural-urban migration in South Asia in general and India in particular have shown a positive relationship between the rate of rural-urban migration and the level of education attained by migrants. These studies (Banerjee, 1986; Oberai and Singh, 1980; Premi, 1980; Zachariah, 1968) say that other main determinants are high unemployment rates, meager income, high population growth, the number of previous migrants, dissatisfaction with housing, the demand for better schooling, and rural-urban wage differentials.

On the other hand, rural urban migration provides a great source of cheap labour for the industries in cities and changes the occupational structure of households in villages (Singh and Singh, 1982). In several studies it has been found that an absence of males in villages who are of working age affects the agricultural production system marginally (Misra, 1982: 224-53). This has been reported that because of male migration, women tend to take more part in agricultural labour (Aurora, 1967).

A village study of Uttar Pradesh has reported that traditional economic and social ties between castes involved in Jajmani relationship are breaking down — giving a new dimension to economic and social relationships — other social impact of migration would
include change in the role of children and women, changes in occupational pattern and work force participation ratios (Srivastava, 1968).

The demographic impact of migration when analysed (Visaria, 1969 : 257-83) indicated that although the high fertility of recent migrants may inflate overall fertility in urban areas, the low fertility of rural women whose husbands had separated from them may lower overall rural fertility levels. The separation of husbands from their wives has been found to be one of the important factors causing migrant and non-migrant fertility differential in rural areas of India. It has been reported that there is a clear relationship between migration and fertility on the basis of the data on parity of migrants and non-migrants (Singh and Yadava, 1981 : 159-65). Rele (1963 : 183-99) analysing a fertility survey, found that certain rural areas in Banaras Tehsil, U.P. in 1956, the fertility of couples with husband working in cities was lower than that of couples working locally. Visaria (1969) in his study of 23 villages in two districts of Gujarat and Maharashtra, also reported lower fertility for women, whose husbands were absent for more than six months than those with the husbands present. Prasad (1986) while studying the 1971 census data of India, has observed that migration of rural people is very selective, that mostly young, active and single person migrate and that
separation of husband and wife reduces the fertility of migrants. Rawat (1984) in his study of a village in U.P. hills, has found that fertility is higher among wives of non-migrant husbands than migrant husbands.

Oberai, Prasad and Sardana (1989) in their study found that, outmigration flows are relatively higher in Bihar and Uttar Pradesh than in Kerala. Although a process of selectivity with respect of education is in evidence in the outmigration flow in all three states. This, along with the fact that relatively young persons dominate the outmigration streams in Bihar and Uttar-Pradesh. In all three states, the poor and unemployed out-migrate in larger proportions. In Bihar, it is the landless who are more prone to migration. The study shows that many returned migrants do bring back some skill and resources. The impact of remittances on the incomes of outmigrant households has been far from marginal. More than half of the households receiving remittances spend them on household goods, food and clothing. The effect of outmigration on production and agricultural technology shows the adoption of HYV is highest among returned migrant followed by outmigrant households. In Bihar and Kerala, a high proportion of outmigrant households use the costly modern agricultural implements.

The literature survey shows that although there are good number of studies covering aspects of in-
migration, there are a few to cover outmigration. There are many studies on outmigration but are mainly relating to the plain areas. On hill area - specially U.P. Himalayan region, the work done is very limited and confined to sociological aspects only.

The present study thus aims at to fill this gap by studying at micro-level, main determinants and socio-economic, demographic implications of outmigration as well as main characteristics of outmigrants.

1.4 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

This present study aims to understand the nature of rural outmigration in general and male outmigration in particular from the rural areas of Uttar Pradesh Himalayan region and its relationship with the socio-economic and demographic characteristics of the region. It also aims to examine the consequences of outmigration at the places of origin.

Uttar Pradesh Himalaya is an economically underdeveloped region of Uttar Pradesh. Here, both rural and urban economies are weak. The underdevelopment of the economy has a close relationship with rural outmigration from the region. A good majority of males have migrated from this area to various urban centers for seeking gainful employment leaving their kith and kin in the villages. Approximately 40 percent of total population
and 66 percent of male population from this region has migrated and this process continues unabated. Consequently, this phenomenon has affected the society of origin in a number of ways, which has created socio-economic and demographic peculiarities in the region.

The following are the objectives set for the present study.

1.5 OBJECTIVES:

(i) To study the general socio-economic and demographic structure of the region.

(ii) To analyze the magnitude and the main characteristics of rural outmigrants in general, and gainful rural outmigrants in particular.

(iii) To identify the basic determinants of rural outmigration from the area.

(iv) To evaluate the socio-economic, demographic, and other consequences of outmigration on the rural economy of the area.

The above objectives can be translated into some of the hypotheses are listed below:

1.6 HYPOTHESIS

(i) Insufficient per capita arable land and lack of employment opportunities in non-agricultural
sector will induce outmigration from rural areas.

(ii) Levels of education are alone not responsible for outmigration. They work as a catalyst.

(iii) The overall experience of returned migrants discourages the outmigration.

(iv) The income level of outmigrating households are likely to be higher than non-migrant households.

(v) The gain from outmigration are not being utilized for the economic development of the area, instead most of it is going for conspicuous consumptions.

Having framed the objectives, an attempt is made to test the set of hypotheses. The following chapter describes the study region, villages and households, which have been selected on the basis of suitable sampling techniques. It also highlights the methodology used in the analysis and detailed description of selected variables.