CHAPTER – 2
REVIEW OF SELECT LITERATURE

2.1. Migration: Meaning, Concept, Characteristics and Types

Meaning and Concept:

Richard E. Bilsborrow (1984: 34) defines the term, "migration", is reserved for those changes of residence to involve the complete change and readjustment of the community affiliation of the individual."

According Gorden Marshall (1998: 415) migration involves the permanent movement of individual or group across symbolic or political boundaries into new residential areas and communities. Sociological studies of migration are diverse and usually form part of large problems in research into kinship, social networks or economic development. It is conventional to distinguish push from pull factors in the analysis of migration. The former (for example high rates of unemployment in the area of origin) are usually viewed as inducing migration of a conservative, security-maximizing nature, while the latter (economic expansion in the host country or region) are said to encourage risk taking and income-maximizing migration. A distinction is also made between external migration (between countries)
internal migration (between region).

P.E. White and R.I. Woods (1980: 3-22) states that the definition of the verb 'to migrate' is to 'move from one place (country, town, house) to another'. The geographer's simple definition of migration is not very different from this general view: a migration is a change in the place of residence. Such a change of residence necessitates movement, although at a scale varying from a transfer between dwelling both in the same street to, at the other spatial extreme, inter-continental movements. Migrations, or change of residence, from only a small part of all the movement across the surface of the globe undertaken by mankind and distinction is often made between migration (involving change of residence) and 'mobility' or 'circulation'.

According to A.K. Gupta (1988: 55) migration is the spatial mobility of individual or group(s) from one geographic area to another for socio-economic motives. The genesis of migration partly lies in relative dissatisfaction with opportunity provides the main motive force behind migration.

H.C. Upreti (1981:2) defines the term migration as it conveys various meanings. Literally, it means the settlement or shifting of an
individual or a group of individuals from one cultural area or place of habitation to another, more or less permanently. The term has been defined in the New Webster's Dictionary as "the act or an instance of moving from one country, region or place to settle is another and the act or an instance of moving from one area to another in search of work".

Thus, migration involves the permanent movement of individual or group across symbolic or political boundaries into new residential areas and communities. Some times it involves temporary or seasonal or even on routine basis. Migration is 'a permanent or semi-permanent change of residence'. A distinction is also made between external migration (between countries) and internal migration (between region). Sociological studies of migration are diverse and usually form part of large problems in research into kinship, social networks or economic development.

Characteristics of Migration

According to Najma Khan (1986: 84-95) – The characteristics of migration are considered in terms of age, marital status, region and caste, educational attainment, current activity, industrial affiliation, occupation and income etc. of the migrants.
Age Composition: Age composition is the first factor which is taken into account to trace the characteristics of migrants. Most migrants first leave village at early working age. This is probably because the longer a migrant's remaining working life is the greater area in both the number of years over which he can earn return from work after migration and the intermittent periods of leisure in which such extra return can be enjoyed. Younger people may also be particularly like to migrate owing to their limited integration in the village social system. Khan (1986:84), Singh (1986:135) and many others found that young adult predominate among migrants. They have reported information about the age of the migrants along with the marital status and educational attainment at two points of time i.e., at the time of out migration and at the time of investigation. The excess of adolescent and young adult generally are observed among migrants. Age of the migrant at the time of out migration shows that more than half of the out-migrants left village at the age 15-24, another one-third at the age of 25-34.

Marital Status: Khan (1986: 87) finds in his study that a little less than three-fourth of the out-migrants were married and rest were unmarried at the time of out migration. The proportion of married rose
considerably after migration which shows that migration has not
affected the marriage of the out-migrants. The proportion of widower
among migrants was nil.

**Religion and Caste:** Caste occupies a very significant place in
rural society. Even now it represents socio-economic condition of the
people. It would be however interesting and worth while to study the
characteristic of migrants in terms of religion and caste. There are a
number of studies which have analysed caste structure of the migrants
in India. They sometime present similar, sometimes contradictory
results. Pal (1994: 236) and Khan (1986: 92) found that the lower
caste are more migratory. The members of schedule castes are more
likely to migrate than the members of other castes. The reason is that
they are generally landless and poorest in the rural areas.

**Educational attainment:** Education is one of the most
important characteristics of the migrants. Education in itself stimulates
out migration as it raises the level of aspiration and of unsatisfied
needs in the population of rural area. Individuals having attained a
high level of education in rural areas or smaller centres may have
difficulty in finding position corresponding to their skill and are thus
more prone to migrate. Besides, one may also expect that better
educated are better informed about opportunities as they make greater use of formal and informal channels of information thus they are more prone to out migrate (Khan, 1986: 84-95).

**Types of Migration:**

According to Richard E. Bilsborrow (1984: 52-53) there are predominantly three types of migrants observable which are almost inseparable– Step, Stage and Chain migration. Step migration refers to the process of successive moves by one migrant. Stage migration refers to a social pattern, a process by which some groups move from the countryside to other villages or small towns, others from villages to large cities. This image derives from one of Ravenstein's famous 'laws of migration': "...There takes place consequently a universal shifting or displacement of the population. Which produces "currents of migration", setting in the direction of the great centres of commerce and industry which absorbs the migrants.

Richard E. Bilsborrow (1984: 52) defines the Chain migration can be defined as that movement in which prospective migrants learn of opportunities and one provided with transportation and employment arranged by means of primary social relationship with previous migrant.
According to P.E. White and R.I. Woods (1980: 3-22) possible to use the concept of information flow to provide a cause for step migration, if indeed took place through the hierarchy at each new destination by first becomes exposed to information about opportunities occurring at next level in the hierarchy: it would imply that any step migration should take place in one direction, with the migrant moving from village to metropolis through other places which intervene of information from the metropolis not racing so far through that space as to affect the distant village. Villagers living near the metropolis and within its area of information supply would be likely to move direct to the large centre without steps on the way. Alternatively, step migration could come about a process whereby the migrant moves to the nearest larger place and, as a result of the more, changes his place according to utility requirement (for example be it obtaining further education or job skill) which then leads to further more.

2.2. Causes of Migration:

According to Najma Khan (1986: 82) the causes of high rate of migration in villages are extreme backwardness and poverty. The overall economic conditions are such that migration is the only way of survival for a large section of poor villagers.
M. Koteswara Rao (1996: 25) considers that people migrate to urban centre for a variety of reasons, such as availability of better job opportunities, higher wage rates and better educational facilities.

According to Biswajit Banerjee (1986: 42) several authors have argued that high levels of unemployment and underemployment in urban areas are caused by migration from rural areas.

According to A.S. Oberai (1983: 30) the low agricultural incomes and agricultural unemployment and underemployment are the major factors pushing migrants towards areas with greater job opportunities. The pressure and population, resulting in a high man-land, has been widely hypothesized as one of the important cause of poverty and rural out-migration. With a given mode of production, only a part of the labour force can be absorbed by agriculture. Unless the non-crop husbandry sectors (Dairying, poultry, forestry and fisheries) and cottage and small-scale industries in the rural area can take in the surplus, these people must move to the urban centres to be gainfully employed. But the pressure of population is certainly not the only cause of increasing unemployment and poverty of some sections of the rural population. Equally important causes seem to be the low rate of investment in agriculture, fragmentation of land ownership,
inequalities in the distribution of land and other productive assets, allocative mechanism which discriminate in favour of the owners of wealth and a pattern of investment and technological change which is biased against labour. One of the main reasons for this bias is the fact that much of the farm technology is imported from labour-scarce countries and favours the use of capital against the use of labour.

M. Koteswara Rao (1996: 141): In case of women, one would expect marriage was the most important reason for migration. In rural to rural migration stream more than 70 percent of female move for marriage purposes alone. Although marriage was the most important reason for migration among female migrants to urban area, associational migration is more in all the streams.

According to P.S. Majumdar (1978:115) the expanding employment opportunities and higher wages in urban areas, and the shrinking employment and comparatively lower wages in the stagnating villages, complement and reinforce each other, causing the so-called 'pull' and 'push' that result in the migration of wage earners from villages to cities.

According to R.C. Saxena (1996:24) the main causes have been the increasing pressure of population on land on account of decline of
cottage industries and village handicrafts and an absolute increase in population. There have been more people depending on agriculture than land can support, resulting in uneconomic holdings, poverty, unemployment and indebtedness in the villages. Besides, a fairly large class of landless agricultural labourers has long been in existence, obtaining a somewhat precarious living even in good years and subjected to serious hardship in bad years. The number of such labourers has been increasing. The loss of land, owing to the accumulation of debt, the eviction of tenants due to the desire of landlords to increase their own cultivation, quarrels between the tenant-heirs after the death of permanent tenant, have been some of the factors increasing this class. There landless rural labourers are the first to feel the pinch of agricultural distress and improved means of transport enable them to leave the villages in search of work and higher wages in the urban areas.

According to R.R. Mishra (2000: 400) the economic development is usually unequally distributed over geographical areas and the development process is the main factor for rural-urban migration. Rural people regarded towns as 'promised land'. People prefer urban life for its formal administration, the rule of impersonal
law for order, money economy connected with wide marketing and banking, market oriented production, literacy, school education, a leisure class enjoying fine arts, institutional services for welfare and a standing police force.

According to O.S. Shrivastava (1994: 156-157) the 'push' factors force the migrants to leave the places where they were born and brought up. Lack of employment opportunities, increasing pressure of population on land, lack of facilities of education and health care, backwardness of the country life, insecurity etc. Push the people of rural areas to seek better pastures elsewhere. The 'pull' factors are opposite of the push factors. They include higher incomes in the urban areas or expectations about higher incomes, the possibilities of acquiring education and skill and hence increasing the employability, the presence of higher order health and medical services, the transport and communication facilities, better law and order situation in the urban areas and the total environment of urbanity and urbanism attract people from the rural areas. Even highly prosperous agriculturists start living in urban areas.

On the basis of the above few studies we may say that people migrate to urban centres for a variety of reasons, such as extreme
backwardness and poverty, availability of better job opportunities, higher wage rates, better educational facilities, low agricultural incomes and agricultural unemployment and underemployment are the major factors pushing for migrants towards areas with greater job opportunities. In case of women marriage was the most important reason for migration, but associational factor (with husband) was also found as an important factor.

2.3. Consequences of Migration

According to Richard E. Bilsborrow (1984:21) the consequences of migration for individual migrants were characterized by a pessimistic view about the opportunities of migrants in their places of destination. Difficulties in adjusting to an urban environment and culture, economic disadvantages compared to the native population, inability to move occupationally upward in the cities, and anomie and frustration were commonly cited. The migrants have been able to increased their welfare as a result of migration in spite of adjustment difficulties and urban unemployment. The effects of migration on areas of origin and destination depend on both the volume of migration and types of migrants that dominate the migration flows—e.g., characteristics affecting labour productivity
such as age, education, and place of origin, as well as intentions to stay and actual length of stay. The place of origin influences the ability of the migrant to adopt. Migrants who intend to remain in the destination area may have more of an impact on the destination area than those who are not sure. Conversely, those who do not remain may have acquired urban ideas and aspirations that influence socio-economic changes in their origin communities when they return. These are economic and demographic effects, though there may be many others as well. These can be conveniently divided into five categories— the effects on wages, income, and employment; on technological change; on income distribution; on fertility and demographic structure; and on the availability of amenities.

According to S.N. Tripathy and C.R. Dash (1997:24) the rural fertility is effected in several ways by migration. Because migration affects the level and distribution of rural income, which is expected to influence migration. Second large-scale out-migrants of unmarried adult males or females lead to an imbalance in the sex-ratio, making it a stupendous task to settle marriages. Third, heavy emigration and married males in search of employment opportunities can have adverse effects upon family structure, even contributing to family
dissolution. In any case, segregation of husbands from wives especially, during life-cycle phase when couples are fertile may lower fertility, at least temporarily. Fourth, the decisions to migrate and to start a family tend to occur at about the same stage in the life cycle. Thus, migration may lead to postponement of marriage. Fifth, in the case of rural-urban migration, increased contact with more modernized sectors may alter the value system of individuals, in rural communities leading to lower fertility norms.

According to D.S. Pal (1994:241) the one sided flow of population has not only created the spatial imbalances in the population distribution but also has adversely affected the rural areas and urban centres. Brain of the rural areas which is prepared by the villagers through their own limited sources of income by doing hard work, drain towards the town because there is no use of their brain in the rural areas. Economically sound persons of the villages also move towards the town due to insecurity, lack of proper educational, medical and other basic facilities and to earn more and more money. In the same way the skilled and unskilled labour force (Youths mainly) of the village also moves towards the town for their livelihood because they did not have the job opportunities in their native villages. Thus the
rural areas losing their money, mind and manpower. On the other hand the high concentration of population in the urban centres also create various problems of housing, instantiation, transportation etc. The Municipal Board fails to provide the proper civic amenities to all of its citizens. It also creates the air, water and noise pollution which adversely affected the health of the people.

According to Jyotirmaya Mohanty (1996:46) the impact of migration from the social and cultural points of view can also be analysed. Due to the maintenance of rural life patterns by the village migrants living in the urban areas, there would be 'ruralization' of the city and in contrast, due to seasonal rural urban migration and return or reverse migration, the 'modernization' of rural areas have become possible. The society and civilization at large get enriched due to the exodus of people to a variety of places. Migration also gives rise to the interaction and different communities who come closer and live together, Migration, therefore, is the means of cultural diffusion and social integration. The individual who migrates from one community to another units in him two cultures and ultimately he assimilates to the culture of his new surrounding According to.

Thus on the basis of the above narration of earlier studies we
may state that the consequences of migration for individual migrants were characterized by a pessimistic view about the opportunities of migrants in their places of destination. The effects of migration are divided into five categories— the effects on wages; income, and employment; technological change; on income distribution; on fertility and demographic structure; and on the availability of amenities. The impact of migration from the social and cultural points of view includes that the migrant unites in him two cultures and ultimately he assimilates to the culture of his new surroundings.

2.4. Migrant Labourers: Concept and Select Studies

2.4.1. Meaning and Concept of Migrant labourers

Migration is defined as a process of movement of an individual from the place of birth/origin or normal residence to a new place of residence. Labour migration is an important factor affecting the course of socio-economic development in India. Accelerated movement of people mainly from the rural and backward areas in search of employment has been one of the most important features of the labour market scenario in India during the post independence period. It has raised a number of concerns such as economic, social and political marginalisation of migrant labourers especially of those unskilled
people moving from relatively deprived and depressed areas in search of gainful employment and living. Migration is widely perceived as both induced by the extent vulnerability of social groups and also results in increased vulnerability at the point of destination (www.google.com).

According to William P. Scott (1988:257) migrant labourer is a labourer who finds employment in different places in different seasons of the year, who follows the path of the harvest. For example, in the United States migrant labourers/workers, often with their families, spend the winter in Florida and Georgia and move North through the Atlantic states in the summer, moving South again in the late fall.

According to Gorden Marshall (1988:416) marxist interpretation is that the migrant labour constitutes a 'radicalized fraction of the working class', the explanation for which cannot be reduced simply to the existence of labour shortages which migrant labour power often serves to address.

The terms migrant labourers is mostly used to refer to personal who move from home to work on a temporary basis in another area. Migrant labour is also seasonal labour. Such seasonal work is a feature of the unorganised sector.
2.4.2. Labour Laws Related to Migrant labourers:

There are laws which provide for the wages and welfare of migrant labourers. According to THE INTER-STATE MIGRANT WORKMEN (Regulation of Employment and Conditions of Service) ACT, 1979 (30 of 1979). The wages, welfare, and other facilities to be provided to inter-state-migrant workmen. According to the above act, some important provisions are as follows:

**Section–13.** Wage rate and other conditions of service of inter-state migrant workman:

1. The wage rates, holiday, hours of work and other conditions of service of an inter-state migrant workman shall,

   (a) in a case where such workman performs in any establishment, the same or similar kind of work as is being performed by any other workman in that establishment, be the same as those applicable to such other workman; and

   (b) in any other case, be such as may be prescribed by the appropriate Government:

   Provided that an inter-state migrant workman shall in no case be paid less than the wages fixed under the Minimum wages Act, 1948.
2. Notwithstanding anything contained in any other law for the time being in force wages payable to an inter-state migrant workmen under this section shall be paid in cash.

**Section–14.** Displacement allowance:

1. There shall be paid by the contractor to every inter-state migrant workman at the time of recruitment, a displacement allowance equal to fifty percent of the monthly wages payable to him or seventy five rupees, whichever is higher.

2. The amount paid to a workman as displacement allowance under sub-section (1) shall not be in addition to the wages or other amount payable to him.

**Section–15.** Journey allowance etc.

A journey allowance of a sum not less than the force from the place of residence of the inter-state migrant workman in his state to the place of work in the other state shall be payable by the contractor to the workman both for the outward and return journey and such workman shall be entitled to payment of wages during the period of such journey as if he were on duty.

**Section–16.** Other facilities:

It shall be the duty of every contractor employing inter-state
migrant workmen in connection with the work of an establishment to which this act applies–

(a) to ensure regular payment of wages to such workmen;
(b) to ensure equal pay for equal work irrespective of sex;
(c) to ensure suitable conditions of work to such workmen having regard to the fact that they are required to work in a state different from their own state;
(d) to provide and maintain suitable residential accommodation to such workmen during the period of their employment;
(e) to provide the prescribed medical facilities to the workmen, free of charge;
(f) to provide such protective clothing to the workmen as may be prescribed; and
(g) in case of fatal accident or serious bodily injury to any such workman to report to the specified authorities of both the states and also the next of kin of the workman.

Section–17. Responsibility for payment of wages:

1. A contractor shall be responsible for payment of wages to each inter-state migrant workman employed by him and such wages shall be paid before the expiry of such period as may be prescribed.
2. Every principal employer shall nominate a representative duly authorised by him to be present at the time of disbursement of wages by the contractor and it shall be the duty of such representative to certify the amounts paid as wages in such manner as may be prescribed.

3. It shall be the duty of the contractor to ensure the disbursement of wages in the presence of the authorised representative of the principal employer.

4. In case the contractor fails to make payment of wages within the prescribed period of make short payment then the principal employer shall be liable to make payment of the wages in full or the unpaid balance due, as the case may be, to the inter-state migrant workman employed by the contractor and recover the amount so paid from the contractor either by deduction from any amount payable to the contractor under any contract or as a debt payable by the contractor.

Section–18. Liability of principal employer in certain cases–

1. If any allowance required to be paid under section 14 or section 15 to an inter-state migrant workman employed in an establishment to which this act applies is not paid by the contractor or if any facility
specified in section 16 is not provided for the benefit of such workman, such allowance shall be paid, as the case may be, the facility shall be provided, by the principal employer within such time as may be prescribed.

2. All the allowances paid by the principal employer or all the expenses incurred by him in providing the facility referred to in sub-section (1) may be recovered by him from the contractor either by deduction from any amount payable to the contractor under any contract or as a debt payable by the contractor (Manohar and Chitaley, 1989: 414-429).

The Inter-State Migrant Workmen Central Rules, 1980:

Wages Base Rules:

Rule–25. Rate of wages – The rate of wages of a migrant workman in an establishment where he is required to work which is neither same nor of similar kind as is being performed by any other workman in that establishment shall not be less than the rate of wages paid by the principal employer to a workman in the lowest category of workmen directly employed by him in that establishment or the minimum rate of wages notified by the central government under the minimum wage Act, 1948 for the same or similar type of work performed by workmen
in any scheduled employment in the area in which the establishment is located, or the rate of wages payable of the workmen for performing same or similar kind of work in that establishment in the state in which the establishment is located whichever is higher:

Provided that if there is any dispute in this regard or with regard to applicability of wage rate to a migrant workman under sub-clause (b) of sub-section (1) of section (13), the same shall be decided by the Deputy Chief Commissioner (Central).


Rule–27. No wage period shall exceed one month.

Rule–28. Payment of wages – The wages of every migrant workman in an establishment by a contractor where less than 1000 workman are employed shall be paid before the expiry of the seventy day and in other cases before the expiry of the tenth day every month.

Rule–29. Payment on termination – Where the employment of any migrant workman is terminated by or on behalf of the contractor, the wages earned by the migrant workman shall be paid before the expiry of the second working day from the day on which his employment is terminated.
**Rule–30.** Mode of Payment – All payments of wages shall be made by the contractor on working day at the work premises and during the working time and on a date notified in advance and in case the work is completed before the expiry of final payments, shall be made within forty eight hours of the last working day.

**Rule–31.** Wage due to every migrant workman, shall be paid to him direct or to other persons duly authorised by him in this behalf.

**Rule–32.** All wages shall be paid in current coin or in currency or in both. Wages shall be paid without any deduction of any kind except those specified by the Central Government by general or special order in this behalf or permissible under the payment of wages Act, 1936.

**Rule–33.** A notice showing the wages period and the place and time of disbursement of wages shall be displayed at the place of work and a copy sent by the contractor to the principal employer under acknowledgement.

**Rule–34.** The principal employer shall ensure the presence of his authorised representative at the place and time of disbursement of wages by the contractor to the migrant workman; and it shall be the duty of the contractor to ensure the disbursement of wages in the presence of such authorised representative.
Rule–35. The authorised representative of the principal employer shall order under his signature a certificate at the end of all the entries in the register of wages (Inter-state migrant workmen Act-1979, 2004: 22-32).

Thus section 13-18 of the inter-state migrant workmen (Regulation of Employment and condition of service) Act 1979 (30 of 1979) provides ample scope for the migrant labourers to eek out their livelihood in a dignified manner. The rules 25-30 of inter-state migrant workmen central rule 1980 defines the rate of wages, wage-period, payment of wages, mode of payment is an elaborate way to enable the labourer to assert their right forcefully.

2.4.3. Select Studies on Migrant Labourers:

D.S. Pal (1994:233-43) has dealt with three objectives related to the rural-urban migration: (1) To explore the various causes of rural-urban migration in the study area, (2) To examine the socio-economic characteristics of the migrants, (3) To explain the consequences of the migration over the societies of the both rural areas and urban centres. The study is based on the primary data collected from the migrant households residing under the limits of municipal board of Auraiya town, through a questionnaire/schedule. Out of the total migrants only hundred have been selected randomly as sample migrants for the
interview. The observation related with the various socio-economic characteristics of the migrants were analysed in the break-ups of four social groups (upper caste, backward caste, schedule castes and others) of the migrants. The results show that more than half of the total migrants have migrated in the decade 1970 to 1980. Distance base: 68 percent and the total migrants are from within the distance of 20 km. from the town. Education base: half of the migrants of scheduled caste and others are illiterate followed by the backwards 33 percent and upper caste 22 percent. Occupation base: the highest number 80 percent of the upper and backward castes migrants were farmers while the 75 percent of the scheduled caste migrants were engaged in labour work at their native place. Annual Income base: 95 percent of the scheduled castes migrants are falling under the lowest income group. This study explored that there are four main causes of migration in the town i.e. business, service, security and in search of job.

It is worth noting that most of the migrants (82.5%) of upper castes and backward castes (73%) migrated to this town in search of job (labour work) for their livelihood. The above observation reveals that the one sided flow of population has not only created the spatial
imbalances in the population distribution but also has adversely
effected the rural areas and urban centres. Brain of the rural areas
which is prepared by the villagers through their own limited source of
income by doing hard work, drain to wards the town because, there is
no use of their brain in the rural areas. Economically sound persons of
the villages also move towards the town due to insecurity, lack of
proper educational, medical and other basic facilities and to earn more
and more money. In the same way the skilled and unskilled labour
force of the village also moves towards the town for their livelihood
because they did not have the job opportunities in their native villages.
Thus the rural areas losing their money, mind and manpower.

Harishwar Dayal and Anup K. Karan (2003:223-57) have
studied the causes and consequences of migration of both the tribals
and non-tribals of Jharkhand Region. The study is based on primary
data collected from 12 villages of the state of Jharkhand selected from
three clusters of the state. Data were collected in two rounds from
these villagers. In the first round a census level survey were conducted
in each of the twelve selected villages then twenty five percent of the
sample were selected from further and detailed investigation. In all
these villages participatory Rural Appraisal were also conducted
covering some important aspects of the village economy in general and migration in particular. The incidence of migration is high in Jharkhand. A large number of the migrants engaged in short period migration. The nature of migration differs on the basis of the socio-economic class of the migrants. The main reasons of migration from Jharkhand are found economic in nature. The main purpose of migration for most of the people is to earn money for improving their well-being or to fight against their deprivation. Migration has wide-ranging consequences on both the migrants and those who stay behind. In has caused increase in income and expenditure of the migrating households. As a result a large number of them feel improvement in their economic condition. They have improved their standard of consumption, the condition of housing and sanitation and increased expenditure on social occasions. Migration has motivated the migrants to acquire skill and to educate their children. They have learnt better methods of cultivation also because of migration. There are some adverse impacts of migration as well. Increase in workload, increase in the incidence of disease, neglect of children and their education, loosening of family ties and the incidence of desertion of family are some among them.
Jonathan P. Parry's (2003:217-47) study focuses on long-distance rural migrants to the steel town of Bhilai. The Bhilai Steel Plant (BSP) was built with soviet aid and by largely migrant labour drawn from all over India. It was one of a handful of mega-projects intended to kick-start India's modernisation, epitomising the Nehruvian dream. The central question addressed here concerns the extent to which its workforce have become permanent urban dwellers or form part of a pattern of rotating migration. The argument is that different patterns of migration are characteristics of workers in public and private sector factories and at different levels of the industrial hierarchy. The aristocracy of labour are most likely to become fully-fledged townsmen. Surprisingly, this pattern is not significantly inflected by regional origin. The supposedly visceral commitment of migrants from Bhojpur to their villages dues not make them more likely to return there. There are pragmatic reasons why not, but the study suggest that this is also a consequence of the extent to which the BSP workforce has internalized a vision of modernity which antithetically constructs the village as an area of darkness – a 'waiting room' from which one hopes to escape.

Geert De Neve's (2003:251-79) study presents a critique of a
discourse, commonly found in anthropological and historical accounts, that stereotypes rural labour migrants as unreliable workers who are not yet fully committed to industrial work regimes and who keep prioritising rural responsibilities above industrial needs. Based on data collected in the garment industry of Tirupur, South India, it is shown that rural migrants can and will be conceived of by their urban employers as more committed and hardworking recruits than the so called 'locals'. Employers discourses of migrant workers are examined and four case histories of migrants are discussed, is not just the mechanical outcome of a long-standing familiarity with an industrial and modern life-style. Rather, the commitment of migrant workers has to be understood in relation to their expectations of and encounters with modernity, which for most migrants are shaped through experiences of socio-economic spatial mobility. Commitment can be expected to be high where rewards are substantial. The study engages with modernity both as a discourse about the nature of industrial employment and life-style and as a set of expectations and achievement which comprise the experiences of modernity for those involved.

Ben Rogaly and Daniel Copporal (2003:281-309) had studied
the changing social and spatial identities in the countryside of contemporary West Bengal. It draws on a study of interactions between those seeking wage work in agriculture and the people trying to recruit them. We find a continuing and nested process of both self-identification and categorization. Unconscious as well as conscious ethnic affinities are consolidated and changed. At the same time, identities are used instrumentally by workers to make the outcome of negotiations less demeaning and by employers to bargain more effectively for the work force they need. The context is one of the emergence of capitalist production relations in agriculture, presided over by a coalition government led by the communist party of India (Marxist). The newly prosperous agriculture has been a source of wealth for capitalist employers, reinforcing constructions of difference in relation to the migrant workers they employ. At the same time, many employers are attracted by the prospects of urban jobs and lifestyles and invest in their children's education. Migrant workers show a similar ambivalence, being attracted by the potential earnings and consumption possibilities arising out of being employed in the West Bengal. 'Rice bowl' and simultaneously repelled by the dangers they associate with the place.
U. Tataji (1986:183-99) in his paper on "Rural-urban migration and work organisation in a slum" takes up the question of the absorption of the migrant labour force in the formal and informal sectors of the urban economy and the pattern of work organisation. The empirical situation is a slum in the city of Vijayawada in Coastal Andhra. He questions the assumptions of the distinction between the formal and the informal sector and finds himself in agreement with other critics such as Sinclair, Breman and Papola. His major point of criticism stems from the way the migrants get themselves recruited to certain lower level jobs and the nature of the work organization which does not permit an easy entry into them. Vijayawada is a trade-transport centre. The low level jobs are only apparently open to all. Tataji shows that the work organisation in the so called informal sector is highly diversified with regard to recruitment, scale of operation, level of skills and their collective action (union) to bargain with the employers for job security and benefits. Hence the dichotomy of formal and informal is simplistic and desegregate analysis of the diversify of labour markets and work organization is necessary for a proper understanding of the nature of employment of the rural migrants in the urban economy.
Hadi Ghaffari and S.P. Singh (2004:443-51) attempt to identify the major push and pull factors responsible for rural outmigration. The study is based on cross sectional data collected from population census 1991 and statistical Abstract of U.P. (1992) for 50 districts of Uttar Pradesh state. The data collected were analysed on variables such as rural literacy, urban literacy, average farm size, net irrigated area as percentage of net sown area, level of urbanization measured at the proportion of urban to total population, employment in non-household manufacturing in both rural and urban sectors, employment in the urban territory sector, mechanization, and per capita net area sown. The results of three were impressive. The three explanatory variables in the pull model explain 51% variation in rural urban migration, while the another four explanatory variables in the push model explain 41% of the variation in rural-urban migration. Considering the fact that rural urban migration depends on a number of social, economic, demographic, political, cultural and educational factors, the magnitude of $R^2$ in analysis indicates the good fit of regression models. Thus, control the flow of rural-urban migration, more educational facilities including more schools and colleges of good quality need to be established in the vicinity of villages and
small towns. Since lack of development of the non-household manufacturing sector in the rural areas is an important contributing factor in rural-urban migration, development of industrialization process in rural areas is a necessity. Also lack of irrigation facilities acts as a significant push factor for rural outmigration. Therefore, they suggest that to abate the unbalanced flow of rural population to urban areas, high priority must be given to development and irrigation facilities in rural areas.

K.K. Sharma (2003) finds in this exploratory study that the skilled and unskilled labour force of the village also moves towards the town for their livelihood because they did not have the job opportunities in their native villages. The daily migrant labourers come from very short distance from rural to urban area and do not become a part of industrial hierarchy, the argument is that different patterns of migration are characteristics of workers in public and private sector factories, and at different levels of the industrial hierarchy.

K.S. Murthy and K.R. Murthy (1980:387-97) have examined the pattern of internal migration in Maharashtra in relation to age, sex, marital status, rural-urban residence, movements by distance and
occupation on the basis of 1971 census migration data. The main findings of the study are: (1) Female in-migration was more in urban Maharashtra, (2) the in-migrants to Maharashtra are largely from the neighbouring states especially from Gujarat, (3) the volume of migrants is inversely related to the duration of residence in the State, (4) migrants are more in economically active age-group (25-59), and, (5) of the 22 districts, four districts greater Bombay, Poona, Thana and Nagpur have received more number of urban migrants.

W. David Hopper's (1955:13-22) study of labour patterns outlined in this article was undertaken as a part of a larger study in the structural aspects of a village economy, and was designed to fill three needs of such a village analysis: First, to give a picture of seasonal employment and the use that is made of time; secondly, to give an indication of the co-efficient implied by the village technology; and thirdly, to indicate the capital use and wage structure of the society. This study divided the village population into three groups-landlord, service and agricultural workers. The agricultural group had the highest average employment and the least average idleness, the service group were second highest in average employment for the 45 weeks studied, but had the highest average and most sustained
idleness, the landlord group had the least employment and while average unemployment was slightly less than that for the service group it was subject to much wider variation with seasonal periods when it was as low as 5% of total time available to the group. The peak periods of employment in agricultural operations occurred in March and November-December and were associated with work on the rabi crop. However, sugar cane provided an important sources of "off Season" employment as did work connected with the Kharif crop. Productive activity devoted to work other than agriculture accounted for an average of 7.5% of all the time periods studied in any two weeks and while the weekly proportion of time devoted to this activity showed some fluctuation, the variation gave no indication of a seasonal pattern. Animal care, herding and feeding absorbed the surplus population of the village during the slack in agricultural work. Time spent in this category account for 6 to 8% of the available periods during the peaks of agricultural activity, but rose the over 30% at mid mansoon the time of lowest productive employment. Time spent outside the village in marketing, visiting relatives, etc. indicated no strong seasonal trend, but was slightly associated with the illness in the village. Eleven percent of the surveyed time was spent in
miscellaneous activities like attending Pujas or village meals, taking part in festival entertaining guests in the village averaged 9.5% of the surveyed periods and reached its maximum at mid-monsoon when over 15% of the reported 4% of the people were either active or ill.

N.E.C. Vidyasager (1986:241-79) in a paper, "subsistence and labour mobility", consider the migration of labourers dry to wet village in northern Karnataka, the problem of labour migration in the Bellary District of Karnataka where the canal irrigation was introduced in the late 1950s. He identified factors the explain emigration of labourers of a dry village, Mahakhadaku, to the wet village. he connects the migration of labour to the migration and colonization of entrepreneurial farmers who came from Andhra Pradesh, with their capital and skill of flow irrigation. They bought land from the local peasants who were skeptical of canal irrigation, even before canals were dug and brought about dramatic agricultural development in the Tungabhadra canal region. Wet cultivation generated a demand for labour. In response agricultural labourers from the dry region migrated to the wet region mostly on a seasonal basis. Vidyasager desaggregates emigration from Mahakhadaku and identifies two streams one consisting of those taking up service (such
as teachers, drivers and contractors) in government and private undertakings. The second consists of agricultural labourers migrating to wet village on a seasonal basis. Second category constitutes 74 percent of the total emigrants in the sample. Vidyasagar discusses the consequences of migration for the migrants labourers in the village. He shows that because of migration, the agricultural labourers can maintain themselves at the subsistence level and above the poverty line. Subsistence in the need, the stable resources lie outside the village in the wet area and seasonal migration in the answer.

M. Koteswara Rao (1996:3-134) has analysed the pattern and correlative factors of rural-urban migration with reference to Andhra Pradesh. The specific objective of the study are as follows: (i) To analyses the trends in urbanization ad urban growth for the period 1901-1991, (ii) To examine the character of the patterns of internal migration (iii) To study the occupational structure of migrants (iv) To explore the determinants of rural-urban migration. This study statistical techniques used the analysis include simple ratio, to examine the volume and magnitude of internal migration. The analysis of trends in urbanization for the period 1901-1991 show that the pace of urbanization has accelerated regularly except during the decades
1951-61, which could be attributed to the de-classification of 79 towns at 1961 census, as a result of the application of stricter definition to identify settlement as urban. An analysis of trends in urban growth by size-class of towns and cities for the period 1901-1991 indicates that the proportion of population in cities has increased by more than two times i.e., it increased from about 25 percent in 1901 to a little more than 65 percent by 1991. This suggests a shift in the spatial pattern of new urbanization away from the traditional areas of urban growth and the concentration of growth in medium towns and cities in Andhra Pradesh. An analysis of migration by flows shows that largest component of migration in the state has been the movements within the rural areas followed by the rural to urban movement. The reason for the predominance of rural to rural movement in the state could be sought from the seasonal character of agricultural occupations. A similar pattern could be observed in the case of out-migration. However, the result prove dominant role in the process of internal migration in the districts. The result of the analysis of rank correlation between the total workers and migrants workers in each activity for the state as a whole, show that the rank correlation value are significant for mining and quarrying, manufacturing construction,
trade and commerce, transport and communication are highly correlated the significant at one percent level. The occupation such as mining and quarrying construction and trade and commerce are highly correlated with migration in rural areas. Apart from non-agricultural activities a expected, the agricultural activities are also positively associated with migration in urban area. In the case of the industrial variables, growth rate of industrial output and rural-urban income differentials stand out prominently and the coefficients of these variable are significant at one percent and five percent levels respectively.

Uma Rani and H.S. Shylendra (2001:187-217), in a paper makes an attempt to look at the seasonal migration in a tribal village of Dahod (erstwhile Panchmahals) district of Gujarat. The study analyses the nature and extent of migration over two time periods, the migrants' activities, and their working and living conditions at the place of migration. The data for the paper is drawn from two household surveys carried out for the larger study pertaining to two periods viz., 1993-94 and 1996-97, in a village called Mahudi. The first surveys for the year 1993-94 pertains to 316 sample households accounting for 60 percent of the total households. The second survey
of 1996-97 pertains to 45 households of the same sample randomly chosen in two areas. Seasonal migration among the tribals seems to continue as a common and a regular phenomenon even today. This seasonal migration has resulted in improving the land man ratio temporarily in the village and as such we find that the migration in largely a result of both push and pull factors in rural and urban areas as observed in the study. The consideration of the wage differential does not arise in the absence of any alternative employment. What is perhaps interesting to note from this study is that an intervention by a development agency in one part of the village, bring about a change in the intensity of migration, though the magnitude remains the same over the period. The reason for the magnitude being similar could be that the period of assessment of migration after an intervention is too short, i.e., four year; and there also seems to be a generation of surplus labour among the households from the farm sector, not an a result of mechanization of agriculture but as a result of population growth. Thus, we feels that the issue of seasonal migration has to be addressed at two levels in the semi-arid areas. One, at the origin, i.e., the village and two, at the place of destination i.e., in the migrant places. At the village level we find the need for such development interventions
which can alleviate the household distress conditions and reverse the tendency for distress migration. As long as migration remains a reality, interventions even in the urban areas for improving the living and working conditions of the migrant workers also becomes important. The major need in the place of destination is increasing the bargaining capacity of the migrant workers.

Anil Gumber (1996:85-120), in a paper presents the overall trends and pattern of seasonal migration in one of the fastest growing Indian states. Various determinants and consequences of seasonal out-migration are examined from an indepth study of 20 village located in a backward district. This paper highlights the general pattern of seasonal migration in Gujarat. It is followed by a case study of the magnitude and determinants of seasonal migration among households displaced due to construction of a major irrigation dam in the Panchmahals district. The study is based on primary data collected through a sample survey of the affected households as well as non-affected households remaining in the affected villages. To get a fair cross section of affected households in the sample, all the 42 affected villages were arranged in descending order according to the proportion of submerged cultivable area in the village. The 20 villager, where
more than one-third of the cultivated area was submerged, were selected for the study. There 20 sample villages covered nearly 70 percent of the total of 2500 affected land account holders ("Khatedars") from all the 42 village. The submergence of villages resulting from the construction of the Panam Dam and the associated dislocation have resulted in a decline in the resource base of the affected households. Almost every household has experienced a decline in the size of land holding; the average size has declined from six acres to three acres after submergence and 86 percent of the households (compared to 47 percent in the past) now have less than four acres of land. The three factors, namely, the decrease in the size of operational holding, productivity and cropping intensity, have forced the affected households to look for non-land based economic activities. More than three fourths of the affected households in fact supplemented land based income through casual employment; and in nearly fifty percent as the main source of livelihood. As casual work was not available throughout the year at and near the resettlement sites, 42 percent of the affected households out-migrated seasonally. The dislocation has raised the seasonal mobility among the affected households considerably. The mainly go to Kheda district for crop
harvest and to Vadodara and Ahmedabad cities for construction activities. An analysis of the determinants of the seasonal out-migration shows that a household with larger family size, smaller size of holding, lower levels of irrigation, cropping intensity and productivity, and non-availability of employment in the neighbouring area, is more likely to out-migrate seasonally than others. Although the seasonal wage income constituted more than half of the total annual income of the majority of affected households, most of the households (60 percent) seemed to be living below the poverty line.

Arjan de Haan's (2003:189-215) study focuses on the variety of ways in which migrants' encounters with modernity have been structured and perceived. It takes 'modernity' as referring to a set of conditions relating to industrial work and living in the colonial and postcolonial periods. Rather than criticising the nation of modernity, it unpacks it and tries to show how different groups of migrants may have differentially perceived their move from countryside to city. It describes the relative continuity between rural and urban work, illustrated in a continuity of livelihood strategies straddling rural and urban areas. It then goes on to describe how the experiences of labour migrants differed according to and were structured by—gender,
generation, regional, religious and caste backgrounds and identities.

A.S. Ahluwalia (2003:280-291) in a paper seeks to present an analysis of the labour engaged in the Readymade Garments, Bakery, Stone Quarry and the Man made Fiber Textile Industries. All these industries have been covered under the unorganized sector surveys, conducted from time to time, by labour Bureau, Ministry of Labour, Government of India, Chandigarh. This paper assumes that a large chunk of labour engaged in the unorganized sector is migratory in character and as such the data collected by the labour Bureau regarding 'Working and living condition of the workers in the unorganized sector' also holds true in respect of most of the migratory labour. Main finding: (a) Analysis of sex, caste and skill base: The employment of women was as high as 51.87 percent in the Readymade garments Industry. (b) Analysis by Employment status and length of service base: Majority of workers, i.e., 54.3 percent, in the stone quarry industry were employed on temporary basis whereas all the workers in the remaining three industries were permanent. (c) Average Daily Earnings base: The average daily earnings of piece rated men workers, in the highly skilled category were Rs. 108.00 in the Readymade Garments Industry. (d) Hours of work, Rest interval
Majority of workers covered in the industries under discussion were working for 8 hours a day. The proportion of workers having 10 or more as daily hours of work was quite significant in the Man made Fiber Textile Industries wherein 16.2 percent of the male workers and 25 percent of female workers were working for 10 or more hours per day. Majority of workers also had to facility of rest interval of more than half an hour to one hour per day.

Filippo Osella and Caroline Osella's (2003:109-136) study discusses relationship between ritual change and out-migration in rural Kerala, South India, via ethnography of Kuthiyottam, a sacrifice of human blood standing metonymically for full human sacrifice. Migration-in particular to the Gulf has accelerated ongoing processes of commoditisation of ritual practices. While this has led to an overall democratisation of ritual, it has also heightened anxieties about the authenticity of ritual performance, leading to widespread and tense debates about what is 'traditional' and what is not. While low caste or new moneyed sponsors do not have either the symbolic or practical capital necessary to conduct 'traditional' rituals, their ritual naivete allows for an acceleration of processes of introduction of new styles and innovations. Migrants are thus veritable innovators, introducing
new aesthetic forms and a novel sense of religiosity. But oppositions between 'traditional' and 'new/modern', orthodoxy and heterodoxy, authentic and inauthentic, are clearly unsettled by the ritual performed themselves: here the emphasis is on creativity, aesthetic sense and the abilities to shift popular taste and introduce new artistic performance.

Anup K. Karan (2003:102-139) in the present paper attempts to highlight the emerging trends and pattern of labour migration in rural Bihar. Besides this, one of the general objectives of this study is to examine the socio-economic factors behind labour migration from rural areas of Bihar and its impact on the individual migrants, their families as also on the village society and economy as a whole. The study is based on the primary survey data collected at two points of time after a gap of approximately 18 years from randomly selected 6 villages of north Bihar. Out of these 6 villages 2 each are from three districts viz. Gopalganj, Madhubani and Purnea. The data has been collected under two major research projects conducted during 1981-83 and 1999-2000. The proportion of migrants has approximately doubled and has become widespread. Besides this, the nature of migration has changed from short term to long term. This is attributed to the fact that unlike in the past now workers constitute nearly two
third of the total migrants. Many people, particularly from upper castes, now also prefer to work outside as it means that they can slowly break the existing caste taboos that exists in the village. While the upper caste people do not do any manual wage work in their villages because of caste taboos, they undertake also variety of work-wage work or low-paid self employed work-in their place of migration. This explains an important reason of upper caste youth migrating in large numbers. In case of lower castes also many migrate to extricate from the clutches of the prevailing caste discrimination and exploitation at the hand of employers. The caste and class analysis of migrant workers shows that while workers from lower caste and class are resorting to migration as an 'escape from exploitative employer' workers from upper caste and class are migrating for economic benefits. However, in both the cases there has been increase in migration of longer duration. In fact that nature of occupation at destinations, workers from lower caste and class are involved in requires longer stay of migrant workers at the destination. Migration in these case is not seasonal in nature. Workers from lower caste and class are largely illiterate and or less educated and are absorbed in low quality occupations in urban informal sector (Karan, 2003: 102-139).
Uma Rani & H.S. Shylendra (2003:337-360) in a paper makes an attempt to look at the seasonal migration in a tribal village of Dahod district of Gujarat. The study looks at the nature and extent of migration over two time periods, the migrant activities, and their working and living conditions at the migrant place. The study basically tries to show how in the process of development, rural urban migration and its concomitant urbanization have been viewed only partially as indicators of economic growth, without taking into consideration the harsh realities faced by the migrants. The data for the paper is drawn from two households surveys carried out for the larger study pertaining to two periods viz., 1993-94 and 1996-97, in a village called Mahudi. The first survey for the year 1993-94 pertains to 316 sample households accounting for 60 percent of the total households. The second survey of 1996-97 pertain to 45 households of the same sample which have been resurveyed in the village. Seasonal migration among the tribals seems to continue as a common and a regular phenomenon even today. This seasonal migration has resulted in improving the land-man-ratio temporarily in the village and as such we find that the migration is largely a result of both push and pull factors in rural and urban areas as observed in the study. The
consideration of the wage differential does not arise in the absence of any alternative employment. What is perhaps interesting to note from this study is that an intervention by a development agency in one part of the village, brings about a change in the intensity of migration, though the magnitude remains the same over the period. The reason for the magnitude being similar could be that the period of assessment of migration after an intervention is too short, i.e., four years; and there also seems to be a generation of surplus labour among the households from the farm sector, not as a result of mechanisation of agriculture but as a result of population growth.

Harishwar Dayal and Anup Kumar Karan (2004:130-140), in a paper, examine the phenomenon of seasonal and commuter migration from the northern and central plains of Bihar and seasonal short-term and long-term migration from Jharkhand. The data for the present paper has been taken from a larger on going study being conducted in the plains of Bihar on the "Dynamics of Poverty and Employment". This paper attempts to understand the phenomenon of seasonal and commuter migration on the basis of a survey conducted in 36 villages across six districts in the northern and central plains of Bihar. Six villages each were chosen from the districts of Nalanda, Rohtas,
Gopalganj, Gaya, Madhubani and Purnea. The selection of districts, blocks and villages were done keeping in mind the social, economic and technological heterogeneity of rural Bihar. A combination of quantitative (household and village level interview schedules) and qualitative techniques (RRA and case studies) were used to collect data. The intensity of migration is highest in Madhubani (25%) followed by Gopalganj in Madhubani as high as 35%. The highest figures for both total and male seasonal and well as permanent migration is also seen in Madhubani (19.91) Though Purnea comes a close second in terms of seasonal migration (11.89%), it seems that there is very little permanent migration from Purnea. Amongst the six districts, Gopalganj and Rohtas have a considerably higher proportion of male permanent migrants (about 10% respectively) as compared to seasonal migrants. Other than the seasonal and permanent migrants, a large number of workers were also found community to the neighbouring villages and town/cities on a day-to-day basis. The data on daily commuters was collected at the village level and it shows that the neighbourhood migration (daily commuters) is also higher in the villages where the number of seasonal migrants is higher. In other words, the districts with higher proportions of seasonal migrants
(Madhubani and Purnea) also have higher numbers of commuter migrants and vice-versa. Looking that the districts with a higher proportion of permanent migrants have lower numbers of commuter migrants have lower numbers of commuter migrants (Rohtas and Gopalganj). The seasonal and short-term migration is the characteristic feature. Ratio of female migrants to male migrants is 1:2. The short-term migration among female is the predominant form. More than 80 percent of the people belonging to scheduled caste and Scheduled Tribes, migrate for short period while this percentage is lower for other castes groups and Christians. Nearly 81 percent of the landless migrants migrate for short period. Similarly the illiterates and less educated among them migrate for short period. Of the total out migrants about half are illiterate. High incidence of migration is found among the age-group of 15 to 49, for males and 15-29 for females. For the males 15-29 is the potential age for migration. Around 30 percent of the migrants were women. Most of the female migrants from landless and small land holding migrate for short period. Economic reasons were the main factor for migration.

P. Koteswar (2004:252-265) in the present study has examined the process of seasonal migration in Mahaboobnagar district of
Andhra Pradesh. Main objectives: (1) To find out the socio-economic background of the migrant labour in rural areas. (2) To examine the factors of seasonal migrants. (3) To study the dynamics of relationship between contractors and labourers. (4) To examine the life-styles of the migrant labour? A pilot house-to-house survey has been conducted to identify the seasonal migrants. Through this procedure 12000 families were identified as seasonal migrants, which is the universe of this study. In this study primary data was collected based on observation, case study and interview schedule methods census reports, newspaper, reports, secondary panchayat board records and other related materials for the study. Most of the seasonal migrants are in the age group of 26-45 years. A majority of the seasonal migrants were illiterate, and were from the backward castes (84%). Most of their families were nuclear families. They were either small self-cultivating agriculturists or agricultural labourers. Large proportion of them were owing 1 to 2 acres of cultivable land. A sizable section among the respondents belonged to Lambada, Madiga and Mala communities. The data indicates that the higher the income, the lower the rate of seasonal migration and vice-versa. The majority of them (90.3%) have not learned any new skills after migration. The majority
of respondents have reported that there is work competition among migrated labourers. (1) A majority of seasonal migrants extended moral, social and financial help to their co-workers. If they fell sick or suffered from any health problem. (2) The majority of respondents (80%) mixed freely with the other workers without any caste barriers. (3) The majority of seasonal migrated place but no other cultural problems. (4) A majority of the seasonal migrants have developed independent personal relations with non-migrants after migration. The study revealed that there was no improvement in the respondents economic status after migration. Majority of the seasonal migrants have opined that due to the high cost of living in the migrant place, they could not improve their economic status.

N.D. Kamble (1973: 189-214), on the basis of place of birth data, made an attempt to study the volume, direction, nature and characteristics of migration apart from an examination of its effects on residents of destination. It was observed that the volume of inter-state migration, accounted for, only, 3.2 percent of population, and that the net inflow of migrants has been highest (about 50 percent) in the state of West Bengal followed by Maharashtra, Delhi, Madhya Pradesh and Punjab, the study points at the occupational differences between
migrant and non-migrant in states like Maharashtra and West Bengal. It indicates that migrants mostly seek employment in manufacturing industry, trade, commerce and other services. While non-migrants are concentrated in agriculture and allied activities.

Mahendra K. Premi (1984: 274-285) had examined the pattern of internal migration in India during 1960s and 1970s. In the 1961 Census, 144.8 million person (constituting 33.0 to total population) were enumerated outside their birth place hence, considered as migrants. In the 1971 census, 166.7 million persons (or 30.4 percent of the total population) were counted as migrants as the number of migrants increased further to 204.2 million by 1981 census, which constituted 30.7 percent of the total population. These figures imply that the overall migration rate in India was lower during 1960s in comparison to the 1950s, but remained more or less at the same level during the 1970s. The study further observes that rural to rural migration forms the dominant migration stream in all the three censuses, although there has been substantial increase in the proportion of rural to urban and urban to urban migration.

Arup Mitra (1993: 610-616) has examined the urban employment, migrant labour and structural adjustment in India. The
data base for the study in both census (1981 & 1991) and NSSO 43rd round Survey (1987-88) on internal migration. The study finds that urban employment structure recorded a declaration in the share of manufacturing in total workforce during 1981-91. The employment prospects particularly in high productive sector in urban areas in fact appear to the bleak. The rural urban migration rates more importantly for economic reason have been modest during the 1980's and the rates are found to decline further during the 1990's. Even under the assumption that structural adjustment programme would be implemented successfully.

According to Muhammad Wasif Siddiqi (2004), Pakistan like other developing countries in the region has witnessed accelerated process of urbanization. The country experienced massive urban population explosion the due to immigrants coming from India, right at its inception. A majority of them settled in the urban areas particularly, Karachi and Lahore. It was estimated that a significant number of people arrived in Lahore and other centers of Punjab. This phenomenon alone shot up the population of these cities two to three folds in a short span of time. The resulted in server pressure on the urban land and infrastructure of these cities. The total population of
Lahore district was 6.32 million, while the migrants among them were 1.03 million, which constituted about 16.4 percent of the whole population. Thus the area is faced with growing education, water, sanitation and other social problems because of squatter settlements that are rapidly emerging to house these migrants. Consequently, urban social sector has been over-taxed. The percentage of population may well be over 50 percent in the slums of Lada's. Thus rural-urban migration is fuelling the problems like pollution, congestion and crime. This study was conducted to see the status of migrants and factors contributing to rural migration in Lahore district. In the process of economic development, economic factors play a more dominant role than the non-economic noes.

Beatriz Carrillo (2004:310-325) has examined rural to urban areas since the start of economic reform have consequences on almost every social, economic and political issue in the people's Republic of China. This paper maps the developments of rural to urban migration in reform era China, explaining the repercussions of the household registration system on migration patterns, the economic and social inclusion of rural migrant workers into urban communities, and the formation of migrant communities bases on ethnic ties in some of
China's major cities. The paper ends with a discussion of the consequences of both regional and rural-urban inequalities on future population flows, and on the possibilities of social tensions brought by the increasing presence of rural migrants in urban China.

According to Lakhwinder Singh (2007: 13-34), Rural economy of Punjab has been undergoing structural transformation. But the dependence of rural population in general and rural labour in particular for earning livelihood from the rural economy continues. This process of rural transformation has perpetuated the distress among the rural workforce. It is strange phenomenon that migrant labour continues to pour into the rural areas. The rural economy of Punjab, due to wage, gap continues to attract huge among of inflow of people from other poorer state of India. Rural-rural migration, which is largely seasonal and stay of workers in most cases, is less than six months. Therefore, the official statistics on migration grossly under record the rural-rural migration. Attempt has been made this paper to fill this gap. Despite the fact that rural real wage rate has declined between the period 1990 and 2000. However, rural-rural migration has increased during the same period. The majority of the migrants (more than 90 percent) are able to find work in agriculture up to 50 days in a
year. It has wide ranging implications for the rural-rural migration and level of living of the families of the migrants.

Two decades have passed since Kevin Gray (2006: 381-390) study that migrant workers first entered Korea to fill labor shortages in the small and medium business sector. In response to the many difficulties faced by migrant workers in this highly exploitative sector of the economy, a dynamic civil society movement has emerged to provide day-to-day support for the migrant workers as well as propose alternative policy frameworks for their employment. Whilst the important role played by these organizations has been recognized, migrant worker activists have criticized this movement as being paternalistic & unresponsive to the needs and concerns of the migrant workers themselves. Migrant workers have accordingly begun to organize themselves & to directly to pursue their own interests, there have also been tentative movements towards solidarity between migrant workers and the domestic labor movement. Despite the political significance of these developments migrant worker activists remain in a highly vulnerable position and the continued development of this movement is by no means guaranteed.
Michele Ford (2006: 313-334) has examined the attempts by Indonesian migrant labor NGOs, migrant workers organization and trade unions to promote the labor rights of Indonesian migrant workers employed overseas. In recent years trade unions in Indonesia have increasingly been forced to acknowledge the existence of overseas labor migrants. But NGOs have dominated migrant labor advocacy initiatives and grassroots migrant labor organizations such as the Indonesian migrant worker 'Union (IMWU) have developed independently of existing trade unions. Unions in Indonesian, like unions in other countries of origin, have been only marginally involved in migrant worker issues because of their physical boundedness within the nation state and their focus on the formal sector. In other words, the fact that unions operate primarily at the national and sub-national scales and the difficulties they home had incorporating workers employed in less structured work place, and particularly in the informal sector, limits their capacity to assist or organize citizens employed outside the boundaries of the nation-state. This paper argues that unions must move beyond their traditional structures and spheres of influence in order to address the needs of
overseas migrant workers, who represent an increasingly important union constituency in countries such as Indonesia.

J.N. Choudhary, Om Prakash, O.N. Jha and P.K. Jha (2004:60-71) in a paper makes an attempt to analyse the seasonal migration stream in the socio-economic perspective. The objectives of the study therefore relate to: (1) study the socio-economic characteristics of seasonal migrants; (ii) study the reason for migration; (iii) study technological changes in origin are due to migration; and (iv) study the problems at the destination area. The households having seasonal migrants were sorted out from the total six hundred samples and data were collected separately from these households with the help of specifically prepared schedules. There were 32 sample migrant households in Nalanda, 21 in East Champaran and 24 in Madhubani districts. Thus, a total number of 77 seasonal migrant households were selected for the present study. For the foregoing analysis it appears that migrants were educationally in better position than that of non-migrants. It may indicate that literacy was one of the motivating factors to migrate. As high as 58.44% percent of seasonal migrants fall in the age group of 25-40 years followed by 33.77 percent in 15-25 age group. Thus, majority of seasonal migration was observed in
younger generation who were educationally better than non-migrants. The castewise analysis of the migrants indicate that most of them belonged to intermediary castes (54.55%) followed by scheduled castes (40.56%). The main reason for the intermediary caste migrants is to supplement to family income. However, for the scheduled caste migrants the question of survival is attached. The results further indicate that most of the migrants (57.14%) return home twice a year. So far as change of work-place is concerned, the study indicates that 85.11 percent of the seasonal migrants do not change their destination place. In the context of the income, it has been found that migrants engaged in non-agricultural activities remitted higher among than the migrants engaged in agricultural activities. Nearly 71.43 percent seasonal migrants reported reason for migration as unemployment and underemployment. Migration due to these reasons had inverse relationship with agricultural development. On the perception of the migrants the study reveals that 33.33 percent opined for accumulating wealth whereas 66.67 percent referred to exception of better employment opportunities. In regard to the transfer of technology it was noted that .99 percent of migrants took HYV seeds and an equal percent also adopted these seeds.
R.R. Mishra and A.R. Reddy (2005:98-104) made an attempt to identify the factors responsible for inducing migration in the Rural Bihar. The study examines the influence of various socio-economic factors on migration of respondents under investigation. They proposed the null hypothesis, "various socio-economic factors (independent variables) included in the analysis do not affect out migration in the study area". Analysis was made for seasonal and permanent migration separately. The study suggested that members of agricultural labour households which have larger number of members and higher dependency ratio coupled with lower income have greater chance for moving out on a seasonal basis. On the other hand, those belonging to higher caste educated households with larger number of dependents are more prone to permanent migration. Finally they have concluded that dependency ratio and size of holding are two most important factors inducing migration from study area.

A study of Sukhdev Singh and Amandeep Kaur (2007:151-164) focuses on causes and consequences of migrant labour in Ludhiana City. Their paper was based on the data collected from 90 migrant labourers and 45 local residents of the three major migrant settlements in Ludhiana i.e., Sherpur, Jodhewal Basti and the area adjoining Bhai
Randhir Singh Nagar. Socio-economic characteristics of the sampled respondents revealed that about one-third (33.44%) of the migrant respondents were in the age group of 25-30 years while 25.56 percent were in age group of 30-35 years. Half of the respondents (50%) hailed from backward castes like Yadavs and largely belonged to Hindu religion (81.11%) and were married (77.78%). The average family size of the migrants residing at Ludhiana was 3.76 and at their native place was 2.77, which showed that about 60 percent of the family members have migrated to Ludhiana. The data indicates that 41.11 percent of the migrant respondents were illiterate and nearly half of the migrant respondents i.e., 48.84 percent had education upto primary level. About 48.89 percent of the respondents were engaged an industrial labourer and 18.89 percent of the respondents were working as casual labourers. About 45 percent of the respondents had monthly income ranging between Rs. 2500-3000, while one-third earned between Rs. 2000-2500 per month. The study led to the conclusion that 55.56 percent of the migrants hailed from the state of Bihar while 31.11 percent had come from uttar pradesh and were largely from backward castes having education upto only primary level. Almost all the migrants came to Punjab with the help of their
relatives and friends who were already living and working in Punjab. About 48.89 percent of migrants were engaged in industrial works and also a big number of respondents were working as casual labour. Both push and pull factors stimulated migration. Among the push factors, sheer poverty, widespread unemployment at native places were the major factors for migration while from the pull side, better opportunities for work in Ludhiana and the help from relatives and friends were the major causes. The migration yielded manifold impacts. Most of the migrants respondents have changed their food habits, dressing pattern and occupation from farming to skilled labour of various types. Migrant labourers were able to reduce their indebtedness at native places besides providing education to their children. The migration of labourers also has a favourable influence on the local employers because migrants are cheaper and amenable ones. However, the large-scale migration had also created many problems for the local population. There has been an increase in the emergence of slums, unhygienic surroundings, the problem of bad peer group and the problem of insecurity and kidnapping etc.

The above studies suggest that

1. Migration takes place due to the impact of numerous 'push' and


4. The labour force migrate in the formal and informal sectors of the urban economy (Tataji, 1986: 183-201).

5. There is a relationship found between out-migration in rural area and change in ritual performance (Osella, 2003: 109-137).

6. The socio-economic factors (seasonal and permanent migration) affect migration from rural area to urban centres (Mishra and Reddy, 2005: 98-104).

7. Seasonal migration takes place more in Tribal villages (Uma Rani and Shylendra 2003: 337-359) than others.

8. There are implications of rural-urban migration on the rural livelihood and resource base (Uma Rani and Shylendra, 2001: 187-217).

9. The occupational differences between migrant and non-migrant labourers suggest that migrants mostly seek employment in
manufacturing industry, trade, commerce and other services, and non-migrants are concentrated in agriculture and allied activities (Kamble, 1973: 189-214).

10. The main reason for *seasonal migration* was both push as well as pull factors (Rani and Shylendra, 2001: 187-217).

11. Seasonal migrants face language problem in the migrated place but no other cultural problems (Koteshwar, 2004: 252-265).

12. The patterns of internal migration and the occupational structure of migrants are important determinants of rural-urban migration (Rao, 1996: 3-131).

13. The studies suggest that members of agricultural labour households which have larger number of members of agricultural labour and higher dependency ratio coupled with lower income have greater chance for moving out on a seasonal basis (Mishra and Reddy, 2005: 98-104).

**Methodological Issues:**

The main methodological issues suggest that studies have focussed mainly on rural urban migration, and some of the studies small level and some others are large scale studies.

**Rural-Urban Migration:** Most of the studies concerning migration

**Small level Studies:** Some microscopic studies have been done by the researchers e.g. Pal (1994), Parry (2003), Neve (2003), Tataji (1986), Rani and Shylendra (2001), Karan (2003), Ahluwalia (2003), Choudhary and Jha (2004), Singh and Kaur (2007). The findings of such studies are based on the single or few villages, single town and single city as unit of study.

**Large Level Studies:** Some of the macroscopic studies done by the scholars include Dayal (2003), Regaly (2003), Ghaffari (2004), Rao (1996), Murthy and Murthy (1980), Vidyasagar (1986), Rani and Shylendra (2001), Gumber (1996), Osella and Osella (2003), Dayal