CHAPTER 3

MIGRATION
MIGRATION

Along with population structure, growth and distribution, migration is an important element of demographic behaviour. There are natural factors like birth and death-rate, economic and social factors, in which migration plays an effective role. The migration is distinguished from travellers on the basis of some arbitrary criteria like the distance covered, the duration of stay, the purpose of moving, etc.

There may be different types of migration — internal or external. Internal migration refers to movement of population within the country, while external migration often called international migration refers to movement of population from one country to another. In external migration, the migrants move from one culture area to another but their number is insignificant. However, in the past, there were large-scale shiftings of population on account of international migration. Numerous races and tribes have poured into India at various times, chiefly from North-West and nationals of this country have also gone and settled in distant lands. But internal migration has been taking place all the time.
Thus external migration plays only an insignificant role and the internal migration is now the most important single factor that explains the growth of the urban community. Internal migration may be of the following types.

Temporary Migration:

Temporary migration may last from a few hours to a few years and includes visits to relatives and friends, visits to fairs and places of pilgrimage and journeys undertaken for business and pleasure.

Seasonal Migration:

In our country, people move from one village to another during the harvest period and return to the village, which is their permanent place. Seasonal migration also includes movement of hill population to the towns in plains at lower heights during the winter season and also the return of students and workers to their permanent places of abode, after their period of engagement.

Semi-Permanent Migration:

Some people work away from home but maintain their connection with their homes where their families reside and which they visit off and on and where they finally return after retirement or cessation of their employment.

Permanent Migration:

Some people leave their home permanently under econo-
mic or political pressure and settle elsewhere. In most cases the whole family moves out.

Marriage Migration:

This is a special type of permanent migration in which women leave their parents' home after marriage and go to live with their husbands. The husband's taking residence with his father-in-law is rare in India and therefore marriage migration is almost exclusively female in character.

In the Indian census, migration is only determined by the place of birth. A child born away from home becomes a migrant on coming home. There is no distinction between permanent and temporary or semi-permanent migration. Quite a number of people who are migrants return in their old age to their villages with which, they have all along maintained connection.

"Migration is a form of social interaction by which regions of varying levels of economic and social development and rates of development are connected by streams of persons by changing their residence and work-place from one region to another".¹

People constantly move from one place to another and these movements are very diverse in nature. The dis-

tance covered varies from a few kilometers to many kilometers. Similarly the duration of stay involved may also vary from a few hours to several years. A large number of movements are casual, such as visits to and from the place of work, shopping and travelling for business or for pleasure, etc. Such movements do not involve a sustained or a permanent change of residence and therefore have to be distinguished from migration which involves a change of place of 'usual' residence which in its turn involves taking-up of a life in a new or different place. This restriction on the concept of migration also eliminates other types of movements, such as the movements of nomad population groups that have no fixed place of residence, or the seasonal movements of persons who have two or more places of residence during a year.

From the economic point of view, migration takes place from a backward region characterised by inferior economic opportunities to an advanced region which is characterised by the existence of better living opportunities. Thus the motive generally is to improve the condition of living. Besides economic motive, there are a number of other factors which are of social, cultural, demographic and institutional significance. A brief description of these factors is given below.

Economic Factors:

Economic factors that motivate rural-urban migration may be classified under three heads: (a) The Push factors, (b) The Pull factors and (c) The General Economic conditions.

The Rural Push:

The push factor refers mostly to the poor agricultural conditions that compel people to leave the village. The pitiable rural poverty characterised by chronic unemployment, under employment, low-income levels, etc. usually pushes a part of the rural population to the urban areas. Adverse economic condition is the most important single cause of migration to cities cited in the sample survey report of nine Indian cities conducted at the instance of the research programme committee of the planning commission.

The process of development in many of the low-income countries has so far touched only a small fraction of the rural population and that too only in limited areas. The inevitable consequence of the inability of the development process to bring at least the majority, if not the whole, of the population on the beneficial spectrum of economic development is that a large portion of the growing popula-

tion is thrown, in the absence of productive employment opportunities, to semi-starvation and mal-nutrition.

The population explosion, from which the Third World is seriously suffering, results in lower land-man ratio and accumulation of surplus labour on land. In India, there was a phenomenal increase in the ranks of agricultural labourers during the decade, 1961-1971. A comparison of the number of agricultural workers between 1961 and 1971 census duly adjusted for differences in concepts, has revealed that while the number of agricultural workers has gone up from 124.7 million to 130 million during the intercensal period, the number of cultivators has decreased during the same period (1961-1971) from 93.2 million to 78.2 million. 4 Considering the extremely inadequate job opportunities on the increased number of persons without land holdings, it may be deduced that there has been a general accentuation of poverty in rural areas. While this is the situation in many low-income countries, in the developed countries the penetration of capitalistic methods of production into the agricultural sector has resulted in the consequent decline in the demand for farm labour and has led to large scale movement of labour out of the agricultural sector.

The Urban Pull

Some of the townward migration streams can be

regarded as the response to the pull exercised by the better economic opportunities and variety of amenities present in the urban sector of an advancing economy. In many countries, there is an urban bias in investment. Average wage and income levels in urban areas are usually much higher than in the rural areas. In many countries, the rural-urban income disparity has been widening. With the expansion of the employment opportunities, the income increases at a higher rate in urban areas as a result of a massive investment. It is but natural that job hunters and those who seek better opportunities will flock into these sectors. Migration from the "countryside to the cities bears a close functional relation to the process of industrialisation, technological advancement and other cultural changes which characterise the evolution of modern society in almost all parts of the world". 5

Push or Pull

There is a controversy as to whether the rural-urban migration is primarily caused by the pull or the push factor. However, in many instances migration seems to be a combined product of both the push and pull factors. As the International Labour Organisation study remarks "although the push factors of falling incomes and under-employment in

agriculture in most of the less developed countries are now very strong, they do not in the absence of strong pull factors, suffice to cause large shifts in man-power between occupations. High rates of investment, either in the economy as a whole, including agriculture or the industrial and urban sector as is the case in almost all of the developed countries.  

The Push Back Factor

Some scholars of urbanisation point out that in the developing countries there exists what is called the 'Push Back Factor'. Bose observes that 'under conditions of rapid population growth as a result of natural increase (i.e. births minus deaths), the push factor operates everywhere and not only in the rural areas. In fact there is a Push Back Factor in urban areas.' In India, for example, the labour force is sizable, the urban unemployment rates are high and there also exist pools of under-employed persons. All these factors act in combination as deterrents to the fresh flow of migration from rural to urban areas. We have called it the 'Push Back Factor'.

General Economic Condition

The city-ward and country-ward drift of population is sometimes influenced by the ups and downs of the 'business


cycle' and the economic fluctuations in different areas of sectors. In times of prosperity or boom, the expansion of urban economic activities is likely to pull rural people to the city. On the other hand, during depression this cityward movement declines and, if the depression is very serious, a net-village ward movement of the population may take place. Natural calamities and vagaries and crop failures may push large numbers of people out of agriculture.

Another economic factor that facilitates migration is an elaborate and efficient network of transport and communications system.

Demographic Factors:

That the differences in the rates of population increases between the different areas of a country is a most potential factor affecting internal migration. In Italy, high rural fertility has accelerated urbanisation whereas the low rural fertility in France has showed down the growth of the larger cities. The low natural increase in the population of many cities such as Brussels, Berlin and Vienna, has created a vacuum attracting migrants whereas the large Dutch and Flemish cities have attracted a relatively small number of migrants due to their own rapid natural increase. 8

Social and Cultural Factors:

Migration is considerably influenced by factors such as closeness of cultural contacts, cultural diversities, changes in social values, etc. Sometimes the customs and social values of the traditional society discourage migration, while changes in the social attitudes and values encourage it.

Improved communication facilities and the modernising impact of the radio, the television and the cinema, urban-oriented education, rural-urban interactions, etc., and the resultant change in the social values and attitudes are likely to promote rural-urban migration. The quest for independence, the desire to break away from the traditional values of social organisation, conflicts among members of the family, exclusion from the community circles for one reason or the other, or a feeling of being isolated, etc., may sometimes cause migration, especially if these belonging to the younger generation. Further, the allurement of what is called the "bright light", i.e. the social facilities of the town, may also pull some of the rural folks.

In India, "Marriage Migration" is the predominant type of female migration, because the Hindu custom is to take the bride from a village other than one's own. According to the National Sample Survey, more than 46 per cent of
the female migration to urban areas is caused by marriage. 9

Geographical and Physical Factors:

Geographical and physical factors such as distance, natural barriers, size of the country, weather and climatic conditions, meteorological disasters like floods, droughts, etc., have also been found to have influence on the movement of people.

Institutional Factors:

Institutional factors, such as the government policy in respect of migration, encourage or discourage migration. For instance, the adoption of 'Jobs for the sons of the soil' policy by the State Governments in India will certainly trim migration from other states. 10

There are positive and negative aspects to the migration provoking situation. Migration may occur in search for opportunity to improve one's lot in life. In that case the destination exerts as a "pull" on the migrant. It is a positive aspect for provocation of migration. Migration may also occur as flight from an undesired social or economic situation. These situations constitute and expel 'push' on the migrant. This may be taken as the negative aspect to migration-provoking situation. 11

10. Ibid. p. 256.
This "push" and "pull" theory gives rise to the various social and economic variables, which explains that a major social change is taking place and the people are making adjustment to it. Apart from this, the general economic conditions also affect migration. Thus the push factors, the pull factors and the general economic conditions affect the migration.

In the area we have taken for survey, it has been found that the push factors that compelled people to leave villages referred mostly to the poor agricultural condition, the rural poverty characterised by chronic unemployment and under-employment in agriculture, resulting in low level of income.

In a developing country, internal migration may be of two types: (a) movement to settle in new areas with a view to exploiting the idle resources, and (b) migration in response to the process of industrialisation. Under the first type, the migration occurs due to building of dams, opening of new factories or any other such programme which is taken with a view to developing the economy. The second type of migration is due to the process of industrialisation which mainly results in the movement of people from the rural to the urban area or from smaller towns to bigger towns in search of industrial employment. Kanpur being an industrial centre, the internal migration has been of the second
type and is the consequence of increase in employment opportunities in the city.

**Method of Measuring Migration**

To measure the crude rate of migration to different sub-areas within a given total area, the number of migrations during the year is divided by the midyear population of the total area. The rate of out-migration from a given place of origin during a given year is commonly computed by dividing the number of out-migrants from the place by the midyear population of the place of origin and the rate of in-migration to a given place of destination is computed by dividing the number of in-migrants by the mid-year population of the place of destination. The net migration rate is perhaps the most commonly computed migration rate for any given place. It is simply the ratio of the net number of migrants to or from the place, divided by its population at midyear. Migration rate standardised for age and sex may also be computed. If the requisite data are available, age specific migration rates for different years may be combined to produce migration rates for cohorts.¹²

It is customary to classify the techniques used for measuring or estimating internal migration into two categories: direct and indirect techniques. The direct technique is based on data obtained from direct questions

asked during a census on the movements of persons. The indirect techniques of estimating migration do not require special questions; the extent of migration can be estimated from the total counts in a census and the available age.

(I) Direct Measures for Estimating Migration

1. Place of birth: In almost every census, a question is asked on a person's place of birth. On the basis of the information obtained through this question, all enumerated persons in the population can be classified in either of the following two groups: (i) Migrants or life-time migrants defined as persons who are enumerated in a place which is different from the place where they were born; and (ii) Non-migrants defined as persons who were enumerated in the place where they were born. The category of migrants is then further sub-divided into various migration streams on the basis of specific places of birth and places of residence.

There are several advantages as well as disadvantages of using information on the place of birth to measure lifetime internal migration. It is obvious that the question on the place of birth is simple and easy to ask, and it is easily understood. Even in such a straightforward question, there are also possibilities of response errors, which should not be overlooked.
Usually, the answers to the census questionnaire are given by the head of the household. It is possible for him not to know the exact birthplace of each member of the household. Moreover, the possibility of deliberate misreporting for some political reasons cannot be completely ruled out. There may also be a tendency to report a better known place as the place of birth, instead of a little known or remote rural place. Sometimes inaccuracy occurs because of boundary changes in the political regions of which the respondent is unaware.

In India it is common for girls to go to their parents' house for their first delivery. The child born at the home of its mother's parents, by definition becomes a life-time migrant, though for every other purpose, he/she is a non-migrant. It has, therefore, been suggested that for a proper analysis of migration information, the usual place of residence of the parents should be taken as the place of birth of such a child rather than the place where the birth actually occurred.\(^\text{13}\)

A limitation of estimating migration on the basis of information regarding the place of birth is that it assumes a single movement directly from the place of birth to that of enumeration. Actually, some persons may have moved into the place of enumeration from some place other

than the place of birth. Another limitation of this approach to the measurement of migration is that it assumes that all persons enumerated at their places of birth are non-migrants. This may not be necessarily true, for some of these persons may have moved out of their places of birth during the intervening period but may have moved back to their places of birth in time for the census enumeration. The exclusion of such return-migrants from the category of migrant is a serious weakness of the birthplace data for migration estimation. Another problem associated with the use of birthplace information for measuring life-time migration is that of the time of migration. The migrants, according to their birthplace statistics, may have moved into the place of enumeration four days or fifty years before the date of enumeration. The birthplace statistics do not convey any idea about the timing of the movement.

Thus it is comparatively easy to collect information on the birthplace of persons and to estimate the volume of life-time migration on the basis of such statistics. But there are certain limitations in this approach.

2. Duration of Residence: Sometimes a question on the duration of residence at the place of enumeration is included in the census questionnaire. An analysis of information obtained through this question forms another approach to the study of migration. Persons who have lived in the place of enumeration all their lives are treated
as non-migrants. The following categories are included as migrants on the basis of their duration of residence at the place of enumeration and these include "all who have ever migrated: (a) those born outside the area of enumeration and (b) those born in the area of enumeration who had some time lived outside it." 14 Thus, while measuring migration on the basis of the question on the duration of residence, we take into account the number of returned migrants, in the place-of-birth approach we exclude the number of returned migrants from the category of migrants.

Though the duration of residence approach fills a serious gap in the place of birth approach, it is customary in many countries to differentiate migrants from non-migrants on the basis of birth statistics. The most important aspect of the data duration of residence is the information on the timing of the last move of life-time migrants. In this approach, therefore, the time of year of the move is a differentiating variable in contrast to the distance or the political boundary used in the place of birth approach.

In many countries, it is customary to differentiate migrants from non-migrants on the basis of the place of birth statistics and then classify the migrants according to the duration of residence in the place of enumeration. Such type of analysis has been found to be very useful in the study of migration.

The advantages and disadvantages of using information on duration of residence at the place of enumeration to measure migration need to be noted. The most significant advantage of this approach, as pointed out earlier, is that it takes into account the number of return-migrants, that is, those persons who were born in a given area but who subsequently moved out of that area and later returned to it. These returnees are categorised as migrants according to the duration of residence approach which, incidently, gives us some indication of trends in the past migration.

There are, however, some problems associated with the accuracy of the data on duration of residence. The person, usually the head of the household, who gives the information, may not know exactly the duration of residence of each person in the household. As a result, we may have a large number of persons about whom information on this point is not available. It has also been observed that the percentage of those for whom information on duration of residence is not available are higher for females than for males. The data on duration of residence are also affected by the digit preference tendency of the respondents. Thus the number of persons reporting round figures like 10 or 15 years as duration of residence is very high as compared to the number of those who report durations like 3, 7, 11, 13, etc. Recall lapse on the part of the respondents may also result in the inaccuracy of the data.
3. Place of Last Residence: As pointed out earlier, one of the weaknesses of the place of birth data is that they assume one single movement from the place of birth to the place of enumeration and therefore, this approach to the study of migration does not give any indication about the residence at the time of the last move. In order to obtain information on the last move, it is essential to ask about the place of last residence. This information may then be classified in two categories: Migrants whose place of last residence and place of residence differ, and non-migrants who have never moved outside the area of the last residence. This identifies all migrants and covers all persons who migrated at any time during their life-time.

The data on the place of last residence may be used to measure migration in exactly the same way as data on the place of birth are used. The data on the last residence are cross-classified with the data on the place of enumeration with a view to obtaining the volume of immigration, outmigration, and net migration between the place of origin and the place of destination. The data on the place of the last residence are more useful for an analysis of migration, when cross-classified with the data on the duration of residence.

The important advantage of the data on the place of residence in the study of migration is that it reflects a direct movement from the place of origin and the place of destination.
4. **Place of Residence at a Fixed Prior Date**: In some countries, a question about the residence on a specified date is included in the census questionnaire or in sample survey questionnaire. The replies obtained to these questions are useful in any study of migration, for migration interval is clear-cut, migration status is determined by a comparison of residence at two definite points of time; and a migrant is defined as a person whose residence at the census date differs from his residence at the specified prior date. Such information is very useful in analysing current migration and for computing the "period migration rate". In a study conducted by the International Institute for Population Studies, Bombay, in 1965, on Rural Migration Patterns in South Maharashtra, a question on the place of residence five years earlier (between 1961 and 1966) was put to all persons above the age of 4 years. The data indicated that in the period migration rate was higher for females (8.7 per cent) than for males (3.5 per cent).

Any measurement of migration on the basis of residence on a fixed prior date is simple and specific. It is therefore, considered by many demographers to be a more

17. Ibid. p. 43.
satisfactory and useful measure for migration analysis than the measures based on place of birth data or the last residence data. Certain limitations of this approach, however, need to be noted. The possibility of inaccuracy in the data due to recall-lapse cannot be ruled out. When the reference period for the question on the place of residence on a fixed prior date is not the same as that of the intercensal period, such data cannot be used for determining the components of intercensal population growth.

(II) **Indirect Measure For Estimating Net Internal Migration**

In addition to the measurement of migration based on information obtained through direct questions on migratory movements asked in a census and in surveys, it is possible to estimate net intercensal migration by using the population counts in two successive census operations.

The growth in the population of any area is due to a natural increase (excess of births over deaths) as well as to migratory movements. If the population counts of an area at two points of time are available and if the numbers of births and deaths, which have occurred in that area, are also known, it is possible to compute the expected population count at the end of the interval in the absence of any migration. The difference between the observed (actual population count at the end of the period) and the expected population gives the estimates of the net change due to migration. Such estimates can be arrived at by adopting
(1) the use of vital statistics and (2) the use of estimates of the probability of survival.

(1) The Vital Statistics Method: In a country or a place where reliable information on births and deaths of inhabitants is available, the estimates of a natural increase between two successive census operations can be obtained. The estimates of net migration can be arrived at by subtracting the natural increase from the total population change. It should be remembered that the estimates of net migration obtained by vital statistics method include international migration figures also. This equation to estimate net migration is a form of the balancing equation

\[ \text{Net } M = (P_1 - P_0) - (B - D) \]

Where, \( \text{Net } M \) is the Net Migration,
\( P_1 \) is the population at the later census,
\( P_0 \) is the population at the earlier census,
\( B \) is the number of births in that area during the intercensal period, and
\( D \) is the number of deaths which occurred in that area during the same period.

In developing countries however the data on births and deaths obtained from vital registration system are not accurate and adequate. Hence they are of poor quality. The errors in the reporting of births and deaths, therefore, affects the estimation of net migration based on this approach.
(2) The Survival Ratio Method: This approach for estimating the net internal migration for the period of two census operations is based on the survivorship probabilities obtained from the existing life-tables. The basic information needed is the age distribution by sex, as enumerated in each area in two successive census operations and a set of survivorship ratios which may be applied to the population of the first census in order to derive an estimate of the number of persons expected to survive to the second census. The difference between the enumerated population at the end of the second census and the expected population is the estimate of net internal migration.

In case appropriate life-tables are not available or where the use of the available life-tables is forbidden for one reason or the other, the estimates of net migration may be obtained by computing the survival ratios of two consecutive census operations.

Neither of the life-table survival ratio method and the census survival ratio method can provide estimates of net migration for persons born during the intercensal period. It should be noted that the migration estimates obtained by the census survival ratio method are better than those arrived at by computing life table survivorship probabilities as the former has bulk, correction for the errors in age, inherent in census data.
(3) Migration Rate - A migration rate is the number of migrants related to the population that may have migrated during a given migration interval. The migration rate is computed as follows:

\[ m = \frac{M}{P} \times K \]

where, \( m \) is the rate of migration for the specified migration interval,
\( M \) is the number of migration or the number of persons migrating during the interval,
\( P \) is the population exposed to the likelihood of migration during the interval, and
\( K \) is 100 or 1000.

Migration In Kanpur

One of the important features of the population of the metropolitan city of Kanpur is that a large percentage of its population consists of migrants. The Table 3.01 and Figure 3.01 gives an idea decade-wise of the number of population as migrants and their proportion of total population. The number of migrants is constantly increasing. It was 3.71 lakhs in 1951 but 4.71 lakhs in 1971. However, this proportion of migrant population to total population came down from 52.68 per cent in 1951 to 36.96 per cent in 1971. This was due to the increasing base of the total population of the town.
Table 3.01  Total Population and Proportion of Migrants in Kanpur City since 1951-81

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Total population</th>
<th>Number of migrants</th>
<th>Proportion to total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1951</td>
<td>7,05,383</td>
<td>3,71,599</td>
<td>52.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1961</td>
<td>9,71,062</td>
<td>4,79,667</td>
<td>49.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1971</td>
<td>1,275,242</td>
<td>4,71,360</td>
<td>36.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1981</td>
<td>1,639,064</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Various Census Reports.

A special report on Kanpur city by Bhatnagar in 1961 showed that the largest number of external migrants in Kanpur were from Pakistan, Nepal, and Burma (Table 3.02). Very few people migrated from Non-Asian countries like the U.S.A., U.K., and African countries.

Among the internal migrants from the other states of India chiefly from Punjab, Bihar, Madhya Pradesh and West Bengal.

Table 3.02  Migrants in Kanpur According to the Place of Birth

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Countries</th>
<th>1951</th>
<th>1961</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pakistan</td>
<td>48,891</td>
<td>30,339</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nepal</td>
<td>2,202</td>
<td>2,225</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burma</td>
<td>620</td>
<td>337</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>417</td>
<td>251</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other States</td>
<td>36,903</td>
<td>52,247</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Number of Migrants in Kanpur
1951 - 71

Proportion of Migrants to Total Population in Kanpur 1951 - 71

Fig. No. 3-01
Table 3.03  Percentage of Migrants in KAVAL Town Groups by Place of Birth 1961-71

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of city</th>
<th>% of migrants to total population</th>
<th>% of migrants to total migration population</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Kenpur</td>
<td>49.4 36.96</td>
<td>16.4 10.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lucknow</td>
<td>43.1 33.46</td>
<td>10.4 7.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agra</td>
<td>33.5 26.50</td>
<td>28.6 29.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Varanasi</td>
<td>31.1 17.40</td>
<td>35.1 25.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Allahabad</td>
<td>34.9 21.93</td>
<td>29.7 24.62</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Proportion of Migrants to Total Population in KAVAL Towns 1961-71

KAVAL TOWNS

Fig. No. 3·02
However, the largest number of migrants in the Kanpur city has been mainly from the districts of Kanpur itself which in the year 1961 was 78,995. The other districts in order of importance were mainly neighbouring districts from where persons of low economic status migrated to Kanpur in the hope of employment and better living conditions. Among these districts from where migrants came in comparatively larger numbers were Unnao (21,746), Fatehpur (20,987), Rae Bareli (16,641), Farrukhabad (14,075) and Pratapgarh (14,985).

Comparing the percentage of migrants of Kanpur with those of other KAVAL towns shows that Kanpur has the highest number of migrants as well as the largest proportion of out-born population (Table 3.03 and Figure 3.02). Next in order come Lucknow, Agra, Varanasi and Allahabad. The reason for the high percentage of out-born population in Kanpur, seems to be its position as a centre of trade and commerce.

When migration for industrial employment takes place, there is movement of households from rural to urban areas. Among the migrants there are males, females and they can also be grouped under workers and non-workers. The position of migrants according to sex distribution can be seen from the Table 3.04.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sex</th>
<th>Total number of migrants</th>
<th>Number of migrants in the district</th>
<th>From other districts</th>
<th>From other States</th>
<th>Outside India</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>4,71,360</td>
<td>49,735</td>
<td>3,26,785</td>
<td>65,645</td>
<td>29,195</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>2,73,260</td>
<td>24,865</td>
<td>1,94,775</td>
<td>36,880</td>
<td>16,740</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>1,98,100</td>
<td>24,870</td>
<td>1,32,010</td>
<td>28,765</td>
<td>12,425</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** Census of India 1971, Series 21, U.P. Part II-D(ii) Migration Tables - D.M. Sinha

Out of the total 4.71 lakh migrants in Kanpur more than 3/4 migrants were either from Kanpur district itself or from other districts of U.P., the reason being the hinterland of Kanpur is densely populated rural areas and unemployed rural persons move for jobs in the city. One interesting feature of migrants from the district and with other migrants is that the female (24,870) outnumber male (24,865) among the migrants from within the district. This is due to the fact that within the district migrants, marriage migration is predominant in which due to patriarchal society girls leave the house of their parents and go to the husband's house.
Table 3.05  Number of Workers and Non-workers and Their Percentage in Migrants in Kanpur as 1971

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Migrants</td>
<td>4,71,360</td>
<td>2,73,260</td>
<td>1,98,100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(100.00)</td>
<td>(100.00)</td>
<td>(100.00)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Workers</td>
<td>2,09,640</td>
<td>2,02,855</td>
<td>6,785</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(44.57)</td>
<td>(74.23)</td>
<td>(3.43)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-workers</td>
<td>2,61,720</td>
<td>70,405</td>
<td>1,91,315</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(55.53)</td>
<td>(25.77)</td>
<td>(96.57)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figures in parenthesis represent percentage.


This fact is further corroborated by Table 3.03 which shows that among the male migrants in Kanpur about 3/4 are workers and 1/4 non-workers. In just contrast among the female migrants only 3.43 per cent are workers and 96.57 per cent non-workers. The high influx of migrants in Kanpur has been a continuing phenomenon. This necessitates the investment in the rural areas to prevent the diversity of expected migrants to the Kanpur agglomeration. Some of the parts of the hinterland of Kanpur city like Panki, Armepur, Jajmau, etc. are being developed and it is expected that the pressure of the population in the city will decrease to some extent. Recently Rania has been selected for industrial development.
Migrants of Low-Income-Group

The shift from rural to urban areas includes persons of generally low-economic status. This justifies the preference of the survey only for families of low-income-group.

The investigation showed that out of the total number of 500 households surveyed, 366 families migrated to Kanpur and the remaining were locally settled population of the low-income-group. Thus the observations showed that about 73.2 per cent households of the workers of the low-income-groups were of rural origin and migrated from their villages due to their unemployment or insufficient income. Among the various factors responsible for migration, interest in city life has attracted only 3 per cent of the low-income-group migrants. The other factors revealed by the migrants were meagre income at the place of origin, not enough land to cultivate in villages, unemployment conditions in rural areas, family differences, insecurity conditions and some other social factors.(Table 3.06)

The low-income-group migrants include people who migrated within the district, within the state of Uttar Pradesh as well as outside the state of Uttar Pradesh. These people belong to different castes and have adopted different occupations in order to earn a living for themselves.
Table 3.06 Causes Responsible for Migration in Case of Households of Low-Income Group, 1985

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Causes</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Meagre income</td>
<td>135</td>
<td>36.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not enough land to cultivate</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>19.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unemployment</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>21.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family differences/discard</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>16.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interest in city life</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>3.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social place and security</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marriage migration</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1.91</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Based on Field Survey, 1985.

Out of the total low-income-group people included in the survey, 1,815 were migrants. Among the total migrants 18.4 per cent were from within the district, 71.5 per cent from other districts of Uttar Pradesh and 10.02 per cent from other states. It is notable that among the low-income-group families not even a single person was from outside the country (Table 3.07).

Table 3.07 Low-Income Group Migrants in Kanpur by Place of Birth, 1985

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Heads</th>
<th>Population</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of migrants</td>
<td>1,815</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of migrants to total population</td>
<td>70.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of migrants from within district to total migrants</td>
<td>18.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of migrants from other districts of Uttar Pradesh to total population</td>
<td>71.53</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Based on Field Survey, 1985.
As the low-income-group migrants were mainly from within the district, they were also from the adjoining districts of Unnao (13.7 %), Hamirpur (12.5 %), Rae Bareli (10.8 %), Etawah (5.1 %) and Farrukhabad (1.7 %) and also from poverty-stricken densely populated districts of Uttar Pradesh, namely, Gonda (9.9 %), Basti (9.9 %) and Balia (7.9 %).

Among the migrants, backward class people (33.70 %) were predominant, followed by Scheduled Castes (29.51), Brahmins (17.14 %), Thakurs (8.56 %), Scheduled Tribes (5.37 %) Banias (4.44 %) and Muslims (1.28 %) in that order (Table 3.08 and Figure 3.03).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Caste</th>
<th>Proportion to total migrants</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Backward class</td>
<td>33.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scheduled caste</td>
<td>29.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brahmin</td>
<td>17.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thakur</td>
<td>8.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scheduled tribes</td>
<td>5.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bania (Vaijnya)</td>
<td>4.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Muslim</td>
<td>1.28</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Based on Field Survey, 1985.
The survey also revealed that 61.90 per cent were workers among the migrants and they have adopted different occupations as peons (5.06 %), domestic servants (25.52 %), labourers & sweepers (17.15 & 11.64 %), and clerks (4.81 %), while some following individual vocations (35.82 %) as carpenters, masons, weavers, potters, hawkers and others (Table 3.09 and Figure 3.04)

Table 3.09 Migrant Workers According to Their Occupation in Low-Income-Group, 1985

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Heads</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total Migrant Workers</td>
<td>1125</td>
<td>61.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peons</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>5.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Domestic servants</td>
<td>287</td>
<td>25.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Labourers</td>
<td>193</td>
<td>17.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweepers</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>11.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clerks</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>4.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self employed</td>
<td>403</td>
<td>35.82</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Based on Field Survey, 1985.

The survey showed that maximum migrants were in the age-group of 18-59 years (48.8 %) followed by that of 0-18 years (46.6 %) and 60+ (4.6 %) (Table 3.10 and Figure 3.05). From the table and figure, it is also clear that 61.95 per cent are workers among the migrants of which the maximum are
Migrant Workers According to Occupation in Low Income Group 1985
(As Surveyed)

Number

400
300
200
100
50
0

Migrant Workers

Peon
Domestic Servant
Labour
Sweeper
Clerk
Self Employed

Fig. No. 3.04
### Table 3.10 Proportion of Migrants, Workers Among Migrants, Literates Among Migrants, According to Age Group in Low-Income-Group, 1985

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age group</th>
<th>Proportion of migrants</th>
<th>Proportion of workers among migrants</th>
<th>Proportion of literates among migrants</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>All Ages</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>61.95</td>
<td>33.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0-18</td>
<td>46.6</td>
<td>16.03</td>
<td>21.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18-59</td>
<td>48.8</td>
<td>42.96</td>
<td>11.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60+</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>2.96</td>
<td>0.81</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Based on Field Survey, 1985

In the age group of 18-59 years (42.96%) followed by those of 0-18 years (16.03%) and 60+ years (2.96%). It is also evident from the same table and figure that 33.59 percent among the migrants are literates and the literacy is maximum in the age-group of 0-18 years (21.06%) followed by those of 18-59 years (11.72%) and 60+ years (0.81%).

Thus we conclude that the maximum number of the migrants in the Low-Income-Group are workers and literacy is the highest in the age-group of 0-18 years. This implies that parents of the Low-Income-Group are getting interested in educating their children.
Migrants and Workers & Literates Among Migrants by Age in Low Income Group 1985 (As Surveyed)

Fig. No. 3-05