CHAPTER I
INTRODUCTION

The present study takes up “Economic Analysis of Gender and Migration with Special Reference to Cuddalore District” Migration of workers is a human phenomenon which has historical roots and wider implications. The search for the source of survival or quest for Eldorado, the blissful life, has ever remained the inspiring and the dovetailing force of migrations within countries or of trans-migration. Migrations have economic genesis but resulting socio-political cultural ramifications. Indeed, mingling of different cultures has had positive consequences as well as placing strain on the culture and life of the upcoming society affected in either way by migration. In economic parlance, migration is perceived as when a person is engaged or likely to engage in a remunerative activity in a place of which he is not a native or national.

Migration is an important feature of human civilization. It reflects, human endeavour to survive in the most testing conditions both natural and man-made. Migration in India has existed historically, But, in the context of globalization and opening up of the world economy it has assumed special significance for the country and the society. As a consequence of historical and economic factors, there are serious income disparities, agrarian distress, inadequate employment generation, vast growth of informal economy and the resultant migration from rural areas to urban, urban to urban and backward to comparatively advanced regions in the most appalling conditions.
Rural and Urban Migration

Migration of the rural population to the urban centres in search of better livelihood prospects is a noteworthy feature of the Indian economy. An employment opportunity in the urban formal sector, which offers protected employment for certain types of labour, is what attracts the villagers. But, the limited prospects in the formal urban sector pushes a majority of them into the hard core of the informal sector which is characterized by the unorganized small-scale business ventures operated with skills that have been acquired outside the formal school educational system. (Himal Chand 2005)

The urban conglomerations, in most cases, have their own limitations in affording employment for all the migrant villagers. The flow of the population towards the urban areas, coupled with the restrictive absorption power of the formal sector in those areas pushes a large number of skilled and unskilled labour from the rural area into the informal sector of the urban areas. The process of development in the villages is hindered by this exodus of productive labour that could have been fruitfully utilized for the integrated development of the region. The sad paradox is that neither the urban ventures are able to provide substantial livelihood to the majority of the rural migrants nor the villages are able to derive benefit of the underemployed who have become urban settlers. Efforts have to be taken at the places from where migration takes place to remedy this intricate problem.

The share of the migrants in the total population is higher in the urban areas than the share of the migrants in the rural areas. Females migrate more than the
males in the rural areas as well as in the urban areas as most of the female migration are due to their marriage. Males from both the rural and the urban areas have not shown any tendency to migrate to the rural areas as most of them migrate mostly for economic reasons. The lack of employment opportunities in the rural areas and the better employment prospects and the infrastructural amenities in the urban areas motivate people to migrate to the urban areas. Short distance migration in respect of rural to urban and urban to urban area is predominant among males. A comparison of the activity status of the migrants before and their migrations had indicated that the proportion of the males as well as those of the females had risen in respect of their activity status after migration both in the rural and in the urban areas. However, an excessive migration to the urban areas has its own serious consequences on the urban infrastructure, civic amenities, environment and the like. Thus, there is an immense need for developing the rural and the backward regions of the country to promote a balanced development and to prevent the disproportionate growth of the urban areas.

Geographic mobility plays an important role in the efficient functioning of markets. Moving people and capital to where they can be most productively utylized is essential to any working economy. Because migration may “grease to wheels” of the labor market. It is important to understand the determinants of geographic mobility. While it has long been hypothesized that individuals willingness to take risks may play an important role in migration, and therefore in the efficient function of labor markets, there is no direct evidence on whether risk attitudes do, in fact influence individuals migration decision (Jaeger, 2001).
For many years rural –urban migration was viewed favourably in the economic development literature. Internal migration was thought to be a natural process in which surplus labor was gradually withdrawn from the rural sector to provide needs manpower for urban industrial growth. The process was deemed socially beneficial because human resources were being shifted from locations where their social marginal product was often assumed to be zero to places where this marginal product was not only positive but also rapidly growing as a result of capital accumulation and technological progress (Richards Jelly 1970).

Migration in India.

The sources of early migration flows were primarily due to agro-ecological conditions related to population expansion and due to the new settlements or to the conquests. There was considerable information on the patterns of migration in India during the British period. Indian emigration abroad was a consequence of the abolition of slavery and the demand for the replacement of labour. This was normally through indenture, a form of contract labour, whereby a person would bind himself for a specified period of service, usually four to seven years, in return for the payment of their passage and a contract wage. They left for British, Dutch, and French colonies to work in the sugar plantations and subsequently for the tea and the rubber plantations of South East Asia. (Tinker 1874)

Historically information on migration has been collected since 1872. It was confined to reading information only on place of birth the 1961. The scope of collecting information on migration was enlarged by including the rural of urban status of the place of birth and duration of residence at the place of residence
In a country of India's size, the existence of significant regional disparities should not be considered as a matter of surprise. The scale and the growth of these disparities, however, are matter of concern. The ratio between the highest to the lowest state per capita domestic products, represented by the Punjab and Bihar in the first period of 1980 to 1983, and Maharashtra and Bihar in the second period, had increased from 1:2.6 in 1980-83 to 1:3.5 in 1997-2000.

In their study examined in 2001, the population of India had exceeded one billion. At that time, 67.2 per cent lived in the rural areas and 32.8 per cent in the town and cities. Between 1951 and 2001, the proportion of the population living in the urban areas had risen from 17.3 per cent to 32.8 per cent. Of the workforce, those in the rural areas had marginally declined from 79.3 per cent in 1981 to 77.7 per cent in 1991 and 58.7 per cent of the workforce were dependent upon agriculture in the year 2001 (Srivastava 1998).

The planning commission had estimated that 26 per cent of India's population lived below that of the poverty line in 2001. The rural poor concentrated in the eastern parts of India and in the rain fed parts of the central and the western parts of India which continue to have a low level of productivity in Agriculture.
Generally, India’s poor people had very meagre physical assets and human capital and belonged largely to the socially deprived groups such as the Scheduled Castes (SC) and the Scheduled Tribes (ST). All the above features had shown that the poor households participate extensively in migration activities and more recent labour studies had also reconfirmed that migration is a significant livelihood strategy for the poor households in several regions of India.

**National Commission on Rural Labour Report (2001)** in his study found that the demands for labour rose internally with the growth of the tea, coffee and rubber plantations, coal mines and later due to the development of the modern industry. Much of this labour was procured through some form of mediation and some portions of it had remained circulatory and had established and retained strong links with the areas of their origin. But as it settled down, it provided a bridgehead to the other migrants, whose numbers grew to satisfy the colonial demand for labour. Urban pockets like Kolkata and Mumbai had attracted rural labourers mainly from labour catchment areas like Bihar, Uttar Pradesh and Orissa in the East and Andhra Pradesh, Tamil Nadu and parts of Kerala and Karnataka in the South. The historical pattern of the flow of labourers had persisted even after independence.

In the past few decades, new patterns have emerged, challenging old paradigms. First, there have been shifts of the work force towards the territory sector in both the developed and in the developing countries. Secondly, in the developed countries, urban congestion and the growth of communication and infrastructure had slowed down the process of urbanization. Thirdly, in the developing countries, the work force shifts towards the secondary and the territory
sectors have been slow and have been dominated by an expansion of the informal sector, which had grown over a period time. In countries like India, permanent shifts of population and workforce had co-existed with the circulatory movement of the populations between the lagging and the developed regions and between the rural and the urban areas, mostly being absorbed in the unorganized sector of the economy (De Hann et al 2002).

Factors of Migration

There are certain factors which encourage migration to take place while there are many others which do not encourage the migration of the people. In migration, social, economic and political factors all combine together and exert a lot of pressure. In every country, there are laws to deal with migration, as large-scale migration very much affect in several ways, both the countries, the country from which the population migrates and the country to which it migrates. Migration also plays an important role in the distribution of the population of a country and determines the growth of the labour force in any area. The measurement and analysis of migration is useful in preparing the regional population projections (Danshen., 2003).

It has a direct, effect on both the receiving and the sending areas in conjunction with the natural increases in the population of those areas. The effects may be large or small depending upon relative size of the migrant and the non-migrant populations, and the extent of development taking place in the area. It also affects the economic growth the social welfare, the socio-cultural and political environment of a country or region, or of a territory (Vikhas Jha 2005).
1.4. Different forms of Migration

Migration refers to a change of place for living purposes for almost a long and stable period. It implies the giving up of some political boundary, however, small it may be for living in another area or country. When people leave one place and go to a new place for a temporary period of time, it does not amount to migration from the demographic point of view. Family and individual migration had played an important role in the growth and the distribution of population (Anup K.Karan., 2003).

Depending upon the point of migration, migration had been classified into four different forms:

i) In- migration

ii) Out- migration

iii) Immigration, and

iv) Emigration

The terms in-migration and out-migration are related to the internal forms of migration whereas the Immigration and Emigration are related to the international forms of migration. However, the distinction between the internal and the international migration is increasingly becoming an artificial one. The basic impetus behind the international and internal migrations within the third world nations is economic betterment.

In-migration refers to the migration into a place from another place within the same country and out-migration refers to the migration from out of a place to another place within the same country (MD. Abdulla Al-Masun et al., 2004).
1.5. Migration Streams

A group of migrants with a common origin and destination is called a migration stream or a migration current. A stream may also have a counter stream that is, a flow of migrants in the opposite direction for example.

i) Rural to Rural

ii) Rural to Urban

iii) Urban to Rural, and

iv) Urban to Urban

1.6. Migration as an Investment in Human Capital

Labour migration had been extensively studied by economists, sociologists and demographers. Economists have contributed to the understanding of the geographic mobility of the population through the development and the testing of the human capital model of migration. Human capital consists of the income producing skills, knowledge, and experiences that are embodied within the individuals. This stock of human capital could be increased by specific actions – investment in human capital which requires present sacrifices for a stream of future earnings, over one’s lifetime. Such actions include providing more education giving added training and maintaining one’s health. Migration to a higher paying job is also a form of human capital investment since it entails present sacrifices to obtain higher future earnings and migration might take place in all situations where there was a potential for an increased life time earnings. But there are costs
associated with the migration investment which should be weighed against the expected gains.

The main costs were transportation expenses forgone income during the movement, psychic costs of leaving family and friends, and the loss of pension benefits. If the present value of the expected increased earnings exceeds the present value of these investment costs, the person would choose to move, and if the opposite was considered true, the individual might conclude that it was not worthwhile to migrate, even though the earnings’ potential in the destination area might be higher than in the present location.

Migration from one area to another in search of improved livelihoods is a key feature of human history. While some regions and sectors fall behind in their capacity to support populations, others move ahead and people migrate to access these emerging opportunities. Industrialisation widens the gap between rural and urban areas, inducing a shift of the workforce towards industrialising areas. There is extensive debate on the factors that cause populations to shift, from those that emphasise individual rationality and household behaviour to those that cite the structural logic of capitalist development. Moreover, numerous studies show that the process of migration is influenced by social, cultural and economic factors and outcomes can be vastly different for men and women, for different groups and different locations. The present study has tried to find out the socio-economic profile of the sample migrant workers (male and female) who were residing during the study period in the study area. The study also has attempted to find out the direction of migration, the pattern of migration. That is whether migration had
taken place individually or as nuclear families or as joint families and the factors that had influenced migration in respect of the socio-economic changes that had taken place among the migrants in terms of the changes in their income, their assets’ position, savings and outstanding debt and the changes in their employment pattern. An attempt had also been made to identify the problems faced by the migrants as also the suggestions put forth by the migrants to make their stay more beneficial to them in future, especially for the informal workforce and more specifically for the migrant of male and female workers.

Due to globalization and the opening up of the international borders for economic activities, the movement of the people from one place to another had become more frequent and rapid. Internally, urbanization, industrialization and better transportation facilities had provided a greater momentum to the migration of people from the rural to the urban areas. The causes for migration varied from place to place. Both in-migration and also out-migration bring about vast changes in an economy in its socio-economic and demographic aspects. The findings of such micro studies and the primary data collected are of much importance for framing policies and programmes for planning and development.

1.7 Gender Implication of Migration-Global View

Over the last 50 years, one of the basic characteristics of the migratory system had been an increasing participation of women in population movement. For example more women than men now move in the Philippines, the Republic of Korea and Thailand, as they move into the tertiary and the service activities, these countries had created employment opportunities for women even though these jobs
were temporary and were without any security and were extremely low paid jobs. The female labour force was docile, non-unionized, vulnerable and exploitable. Many other women had gone earlier into low-paid service occupations such as domestic services; and some were engaged in degrading activities such as working as prostitutes (Commercial Sex workers) Women often had to accept a double burden to act as a family provider and also to act an income earner.

Women dominate migration streams in Latin America as well as in the Western Europe. In contrast, male dominance had characterized most of the migration streams in Africa, Middle East and South Asia and there was a substantial diversity among various countries and even within the various regions. A complex situation had emerged when the age of the migrant was taken into consideration; for example, there was some evidence in Africa of a transition from male domination to female domination at more advanced ages. (Sundari and Geetha, 2000)

In Pakistan, most of the female migration was marriage related migration or movement as a part of the family migration. Thailand had differed because of the cultural homogeneity of the country and its flexible and social structure. The migration of young single women to Bangkok had increased in recent years. In the process of migration to Bangkok, women had outnumbered men in a 3:2 ratio and many who had migrated come from the poor northeastern region of the country were found to be illiterates. They had obtained work in the service sector, where they had a low status; and they usually considered themselves as better off than what they were before they had migrated.
Compared to Thailand, Philippines had a longer history of female migration. Domestic service was the main occupation of the female migrants, whereas white-collar occupations were found to be dominant, in the case of non-migrant women in the urban areas. There was no programme directed towards the improvement of the job skills in the case of single woman migrants.

Korea too had shown a pattern of female domination in the migration. Towards urban areas Unlike in the case of Philippines and Thailand, in Korea a high proportion of the female migrants had been absorbed in the production sector, though the service sector continued to absorb a sizable proportion of the migrants.

Iran differed from the countries of East and South-East Asia, as its conservative Islamic traditions, and cultural rigidity did not permit its women to have any flexibility in respect of their mobility. India is a country with an uneven development and a confluence of cultural influences. The men dominate the migration streams to the large cities but women dominate in short distance movements within the rural areas. The studies related to female migration in our country have still been in a formative stage.

1.8 National Sample Survey Organisation (Nsso’s) Views on Gender and Migration

Both NSS and census data provide information on the reasons for migration, based broadly on the following aspects—employment, education, movement of the family marriage and others. According to the NSSO, the detailed categories of reasons were as follows. Employment related reasons were (1) in
search of employment, 2) in search of better employment, 3) to take up employment or better employment, 4) transfer of service or contract, and 5) proximity to place of work. The remaining reasons were 6) for studies, 7) for acquisition of own house or flat, 8) to overcome the housing problem, 9) social or political problems, 10) health, 11) marriage, 12) migration of parents or other earning members and 13) others including natural calamities and the like.

The major reason for the females to migrate had been due to marriage both in the rural and in the urban areas. Among the females in rural India, 90% per cent had migrated on account of their marriage. Among the female migrants in the urban areas, while on the whole about 64% had migrated due to marriage, the corresponding proportions were about 61 per cent for those who had migrated from the rural areas and about 55 per cent for those who had migrated from the urban areas themselves. Migration among the females was due to the movement of the parents or earning members and it was found to be the highest in the urban-to-urban migration stream. Among the males, the movement for employment was the most common reason for the rural to the urban movement. Nearly 57 per cent of these movements were due to reasons related to employment.

**Motives for Migration**

The main underlying principles that had been observed in respect of population migration in recent years could be listed as follows:-

1. When the population growth in a region exceeded its economic growth, it tended to create a ‘pressure’, and emigration to an area of lower pressure might then occur, unless barriers of some sort had been erected;
correspondingly, a region of low population pressure would tend to attract immigration of people;

2. Such population movements were probably economically desirable, and on the international scale it should benefit the world’s total production;

3. Trade fluctuations were associated with an unevenness in the migratory flows which was a natural consequence of the first principle stated above.

4. Immigration and emigration might be associated with each other, in the sense that areas with a relatively large intake might also be the areas with a relatively large outflow;

5. The intensity of migration had varied inversely with the distance travelled; this was probably more true in the case of internal migration compared to that of external, and was related to the cost of travel.

6. Migration might be selective with regard to sex, age, occupation and skills and the ‘brain-drain’ is a well-known phenomenon found in many parts of the world.

7. Immigration of unskilled labour was unfavourable in respect of local unskilled labour but might benefit skilled labour. The above principles were not altogether coherent as a set of rules; and there were gaps and overlaps between them.

Until recently, rural-urban migration was viewed favorably in the context of economic development. Internal migration was thought to be a natural process
in which the surplus labour was gradually withdrawn from the rural sector to provide the needed manpower for the urban industrial growth.

The impact of migration on the development process was much more pervasive than its obvious exacerbation of urban unemployment and underemployment.

The migration process would by itself tend to alter the pattern of sectoral and geographic economic activity, income distribution and even population growth. All economic policies have would have a direct as well as an indirect effect on the level and growth of either the urban or the usual incomes or of both and they will have a tendency to influence the nature and the magnitude of migration stream. Although some policies might have a more direct and immediate impact (for example, wages and income policies and employment promotion programmes) there were many others though less obvious in the short run would in the long run turn out to be no less important (Michael P. Todaro et al., 2005).

Included among these policies, for example, would be the land tenure arrangements commodity pricing polices credit allocation taxation, export promotion, import substitution, commercial and exchange rate policies, the nature of public investment programmes, attitudes towards private foreign investors, the organisation of population and family planning programmes, the structure, content, and orientation of the educational system, the functioning of the labour markets, and the nature of public policies towards international technology transfers and the location of the new industries. There is thus a clear need to recognize the central importance of the internal migration and for many countries even international
migration and to integrate the two way relationship between migration and population distribution on the one hand and the economic variables on the other into a more comprehensive framework designed to improve developmental policy formulations.

**Features of the Migrant Labour Market**

Migration of population is an international phenomenon. People used to migrate in the parts as well. But in these days, there is an increasing trend of the migration of people from under developed to the developed countries resulting in brain drain. Usually qualified, competent and healthy people migrate in search of jobs and for improving their professional career. Migration is usually indulged in by the youth when there is some over zealousness on their part to work hard. Male migrants are always larger in number when compared to the number of the female migrants.

**Intervention of Middleman**

The migrants at the lower end of the market comprise mostly of unskilled casual labourers or those who own or hire small means of livelihood such as carts and rickshaws and were self-employed. Migrant labourers were exposed to large uncertainties in the potential job market. To begin with, they have little knowledge of the market conditions and the risk involved in high job search costs. The perceived risks and costs tend to be higher the farther they are from their home. There are several ways by which migrants minimise such risks and costs. For a number of industries, recruitment is often made through middlemen. In many cases, these middlemen are known to the job seekers and may belong to the source
areas on their own. This is generally the case where the ‘bridgeheads’ have been established, lowering the potential risks and costs (Mossed et al. 2002).

**Friends and Relatives as a Source of Job Market**

In the urban informal sector friends and relatives act as a network and the job market is highly segmented and based around people of the same caste, religion and Kinship. Social networks provide the initial income support, information, accommodation and access to jobs.

**Recruitment through Contractors**

In the construction industry, workers were largely recruited through contractors who settle the wages, retain a part of their earnings apart from the payments received from the employers and sometimes they also play the supervisory roles. In the fish processing industry in Kerala, recruitment takes place through contractors, who often use networks of older women to recruit people. In the case of domestic maid servants in Delhi, a number of voluntary organizations get involved in the recruitment process. Most of the maids were from the tribal belts of Jharkhand and Chattisgarh. While a new set of private recruitment agencies has sprung up, the church also plays an active and more benign role in bringing them potential employers and the employees together.

**Lower Wages**

Workers have to depend upon advances and irregular payments. Migrants often get lower wages than those of local labourers. The migrant status of the labourers had accounted for 38 to 56% of differences in wages in Chennai city. They work for long hours and at odd hours too. Moreover the payments were not
made on time. Piece rates are prevalent which had mostly provided greater flexibility to the employers.\textsuperscript{1} Of course, the migrants might also prefer these wage systems, as they could maximize their returns on a per day basis, raising the possibility of the saving part of their wages. But in many cases organized migration had resulted in credit-labour interlocking and the net return to the labourers might have no relationship to wages at the destination areas.

**Exploitation of the Women Workers**

Employers often prefer migrant labourers to local labourers, as they would be cheaper and did not develop social relationships with the place of their destination. Women migrants were the worst affected; they were generally paid less than the male migrants. In the construction industry they are viewed as assistants to their husbands, and were confined to unskilled jobs. The consequent segmentation was used as a justification for the low payments of wages. Women also were faced with a greater sense of insecurity. In the fish processing industry, they were badly exploited in terms of working conditions, wages, living conditions and were also sexually harassed (Sardamoni, K 1995).

**CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK**

The following flowchart depicts the conceptual framework of the present study. The study concentrates on gender and migration which includes male migration and female migration with special reference to employment migration. Employment migration depends upon push and pull factors which cause family and individual migration. Both male and female migrate for the improvement of their economic status.
1.16. The Rationale

Economists are interested in the study of migration as it is related to business cycles, supply of skilled and unskilled workers, growth of industries and a change in the occupational and employment status of the migrants. Planners and policy makers are concerned with migration as it is associated with the socio-economic development of a country. In India and many other developing countries, one of the side effects of an unprecedented population growth as well as
that of industrialization and economic development is a rapid increase in the internal migratory movements. The emergence of such a massive phenomenon, especially which of a rural-urban migration had attracted the attention of planners and policy makers to the problems arising out of such a migration.

A gender perspective avoids the dangers of treating women’s migration as a special case and / or as deviant from men’s migration and highlights women as agents of change throughout the migration process. At the same time, the concept of gender also directs attention beyond noting similarities and differences to emphasizing how the experiences of women and men in the migration process are often based on and perpetuate gender in equality and promote gender for migrants women. Most research and discussion on migration based on does not pay specific attention to the gender perspectives of migration in terms of both the differences and in equalities in the experience of migration processes and the contributions, needs and priorities of female and male migrants. Numerous studies show that the process of migration is influenced by social, cultural and economic factors and outcomes can be vastly different for men and women, for different groups and different locations.

The present study has tried to find out the socio-economic profile of the sample migrant workers (male and female) who were residing during the study period in the study area. The study also has attempted to find out the direction of migration, the pattern of migration. That is whether migration had taken place individually or as nuclear families or as joint families and the factors that had influenced migration in respect of the socio-economic changes that had taken place among the migrants in terms of the changes in their income, their assets’ position,
savings and outstanding debt and the changes in their employment pattern. An attempt had also been made to identify the problems faced by the migrants as also the suggestions put forth by the migrants to make their stay more beneficial to them in future, especially for the informal workforce and more specifically for the migrant of male and female workers.

Schemeta

**Chapter I:** It is an introductory chapter deals with Migration in India, migration as an investment in human capital, Gender implication of migration-global view, Features of the migrant labour market, The rationale and Schemeta.

**Chapter -II:** This is a chapter on the review of literature which encompasses theoretical background and empirical studies.

**Chapter – III:** It analysis the present research methodology and profile of the study area.

**Chapter – IV:** It analyses the socio-economic characteristics of the sample male migrants, factors determining migration and studies pros and cons of migration.

**Chapter – V:** It analyses the socio-economic characteristics of the sample female migrants, factors determining migration and pros and cons of migration.

**Chapter –VI:** It makes a comparative study on the male and female migration with testing of hypotheses.

**Chapter – VII:** This chapter presents a summary of the findings of the study, and the suggestions made on the basis of the findings of the study. Further more the scope for future research is also given.
CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE