CHAPTER - I

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Recent Trends

The increasing scale of migration worldwide particularly in the latter years of the 20th century has made this phenomenon one of the major issues facing the human society and the governments. How could migrations be foreseen, modified, slowed down or halted are some of the questions to be asked, which ultimately amount to seeking to understand the phenomenon of migration. The most prevalent point of view holds to migration as a fluid movement and thus considers it in terms of 'flows'. The idea of 'flow' quite naturally leads to the notion of 'pressure'. But, for want of rigorous definition criteria, the term "migration pressure" has remained a little ambiguous up to now. There is an urgent need to define it more precisely. Here an attempt has been made to define a model by studying dynamic aspects of tribal migration pressure on the basis of an analysis of the situation prevailing in Malda district, West Bengal, India. The function of the model would be to allow a prospective study of potential migration flows, in this case, from the blocks of Malda to other districts or states in India.

Migration is referred to as the third sister in demographic studies. This phenomenon is as old as the history of mankind. Since time immemorial, people have been shifting from one place to another as families, tribes, hordes and other forms of social groups for food, shelter, security and other reasons. This movement of people from one place to another for the purpose of settling down is commonly known as migration, and has been a universal phenomenon. Population movement or migration responds much faster to economic changes than aggregate population size or growth. This movement can condition the nature, pattern and pace of economic growth causing major changes in the distribution of job, income and welfare. Migration is not a biological or genetic variable as fertility and mortality are rather it is the
outcome of social, cultural, structural and political forces, which exercise their supremacy on it. Migration takes many forms. It involves local movements of little economic significance. It may also encompass vast but temporary population movement in search of seasonal work. Further, it may involve a permanent shift from one socio-economic set up to another making a consequence over the social and economic output, structure, growth, employment patterns, as well as psychological changes in man engaged in migration. Migration may coincide with conquests. It may also bring about the creation of unorganized, unskilled and readily exploitable labour force that is common among the tribes in the Indian situation.

1.2 Aims and Objectives

(i) To throw light on the socio-economic life of the tribes who have been the pioneers of migration in the study area.

(ii) To analyze the settlement patterns of the tribal migrants.

(iii) To study the causes and consequences of tribal redistribution.

(iv) To find out the stress and strains at the place of origin of migration as well as at the destination.

(v) To examine the relationship between socio-economic and demographic development and the remittances sent by the tribal migrants to their native places.

(vi) To study the mode and patterns of migration, especially group migration.

(vii) To suggest the policy and strategies required for relieving the stresses associated with migration.

(viii) To find out any changes in environment due to tribal migration and such aspects as related to the phenomenon.
1.3 Hypothesis

An attempt has been made to test the following hypotheses related with the tribal migration:

(i) Tribal immigrants tend to move from relatively less developed regions (hilly) to less prosperous (undulating) regions.

(ii) Patterns of settlement are liable to change due to tribal migration.

These hypotheses have been put forward in the present study in such a form that they could be tested with the sample data.

1.4 Literature Review

There are several reasons why geographers devote attention to the study of migration, for example, the territorial redistribution of population is an attractive subject for a spatially oriented discipline, such as Geography. The dynamic aspects of migration have attracted more attention though at present interest in spatial processes and in spatial interaction are of much concern in modern geography than a concern with the spatial patterns. Since 1885, when Ravenstein first formulated the migration laws, substantial literatures have appeared with regard to the spatial mobility of population. A volume of definition of various concepts used in population studies has been published by the United Nations in an international dictionary of terms (UN, 1958) [320].

Migration is an important aspect of study in population geography. At one time people moved from one forest to another in search of food. Gradually with the growth of civilization people started doing away with the forest life and adopted the civilized ones. Migration has, therefore, broadened its scope.

1.4.1 Migration: A General Survey

Many scholars have defined migration. According to Smith (1960)[295], the word migration generally means all kinds of movement of population in
physical space with an assumption more or less implicit that a change of residence or domicile is involved. Lee (1969)[164] has put emphasis on permanent or semi permanent change of residence. His definition puts restriction on the distance of the move or the voluntary nature of the act and no distinction is made between internal or external migration. Sinha explained (1980)[293] how Mangalam (1968)[178] has suggested another definition. According to him, migration is a relatively permanent out movement away of a community, called migrants, from one geographical region to another, related by decision making on the part of the migrants, on the basis of hierarchically ordered set of valued ends, and resulting changes in the interactional system of migrants. Fortes (1971)[105] in his discussion about movement of people in Ghana distinguishes mobility from migration. While in mobility movement is within the boundary, in migration one crosses the border.

Migration may be viewed further as the leaving of a permanent residence by a human being in favour of other temporary or permanent residence by breaking off the social and cultural ties from the place of origin. Migration of a person within a nation is known as internal migration, while migration across national boundary is known as international migration. Migration occurs over time and space. Hence, the specified time in which migration occurs is known as migration interval and the area from which a migrant departs is known as the area of origin, and the area where a migrant arrives is known as the area of destination. The migrants who depart from a common area of origin and arrives at a common area of destination during a particular migration interval is termed as migration stream. The departure of a person from the community of origin is termed as out-migration or emigration, while arrival at the place of destination is known as in-migration or immigration. The balance between arrival and departure constitutes the net migration.
Population migration, i.e. a permanent or semi-permanent change of residence of an individual or group of people is a classic example of cultural diffusion, and has always served to enlarge the area of earth inhabited by man. For tens of thousands of years human being have settled throughout all the continents. The effects of migration result in changes to ethnic and political maps. Most modern nations, it is said, were more or less formed under the influence of population migration.

Throughout human history the directions of migration were constantly changing but the basic motive for migration have remained the same. The factors for migration can be broadly grouped into the following three categories:

a. The desire for better living conditions (including better means of production, housing, job, etc.). This can be called the “socio-economic factor”.

b. A risk to a group of people (organized as a tribe, community, ethnic, religious, racial group, etc.) from other competing groups. This can be called the “political factor”.

c. Natural hazards, e.g. flood, drought, earthquake, avalanche, or animal hazards (the latter was a more significant factor at the dawn of mankind, but to some extent still plays a role today. For example, some mosquitoes, which can cause serious illnesses, may prompt a migration or may be a factor in rejecting the idea to migrate to a certain place). This factor can be called the “ecological factor”.

All motives for migration to the greater extent can be grouped within the categories mentioned above. The “factor of coercion” can further be looked into in this context. For example, when people are forced against their will to migrate - being sold out as slaves, placed into penal servitude, forcibly deported, or “cleansed” (on ethnic, religious or other bases), the phenomenon
is known as “coercion” into migration. Unfortunately, this happened in the 20th century as well. But even the above-mentioned coercion factor could be placed under the title, “political factors”.

Migration is traditionally labelled as either internal or external. This division is correct if political boundaries serve as the major criteria to classify migration. In the present work this division has been followed. However, this is neither the only nor the most precise division, because sometimes either political boundaries are not well defined or recognized as state boundaries. For example, inter-republican migration in the erstwhile USSR used to be considered as internal migration by many Soviet geographers and demographers (especially in Moscow and Leningrad), but in the context of the Union Republics this was actually an external migration and was considered as such by the local scholars. Migrations may be further grouped in different ways. The Dictionary of Human Geography gives the following classification:

“Scale provides an essential criterion for classification, and so, migration may be international or inter-regional, inter-urban, rural-urban or intra-urban. Other criteria include time (temporary/permanent), distance (long/short), decision making (voluntary/forced), numbers involved (individual/mass), social organization of migrants (family/clan/individuals), political organization (sponsored/free), causes (economic/social) and aims (conservative/innovative)” Johnston, 1986, [146].

The study of migration serves a practical purpose. It helps to determine the motives, direction, and intensities of population movements and it tries to elucidate the effects of these movements – the socio-economic, political and cultural impacts, including the changes in demographic structures, and environmental changes in the areas of exit and entrance. Although in Western Europe and in North America there have been attempts to integrate the study of migration into economic and social theory, spatial analysis and behavioral theory; population migration yet remains mainly the subject of population
geography and demography. In the early 1950s the problems of modern population migration were studied by the Soviet scholars (including those in Soviet Georgia). This is especially true since population movement in the vast territory of the USSR was of great economic importance. The author carried out a pilot sociological survey to help identify certain trends of population migration in this country.

The movement of people is, however, both a cause and a consequence of the growth and distribution of population. In some areas of the world (especially in cities), migration, rather than natural increase, is the primary cause of rapid population growth. Despite the importance of the topic, migration appears to be the forgotten child of demography. Its neglect results in part from the paucity of information available about migration. Most countries have established register systems for the collection of data about vital events, but migration registers are uncommon. Moreover, even where information on movements is recorded, it tends to be documented infrequently, or on a scale that permits the formulation of only the most general findings.

Although migration and mobility studies have tended to be central to population geography, they have been a peripheral concern of demography. This is due in part to geography's long-standing concern with movement in general, and probably in part to the field tradition of geography, which makes geographers less dependent upon data collected and maintained by others. The following section presents an overview of geographers, approach to the study of migration. Although the geographic and demographic approaches to migration have become more complementary in the recent years, there still exist disparities in emphasis.

1.4.2 Migration: The Decision to Move

Migration, conventionally defined as a permanent shift of residence across predefined boundaries, may be considered to be a human response to
intolerable economic, social, and demographic forces in the environment. Presumably, migration is not the only response to those forces if alternatives are available.

Bogue (1969) had stated that there tends to be an identification of the self with the locale in which one has resided for a prolonged time, and some emotional strain is involved in leaving this locale and family, friends, and colleagues for a strange new environment.

Kosinski and Prothero (1970) had described that some people may choose lower levels of living, at least until pressures become severe, before leaving a home environment. Indeed, it appears that most people, particularly in areas where family ties and community bonds are keenly felt, choose migration reluctantly.

According to Wolport (1966), migration may be viewed as an outcome of the mismatching between individuals and their habitat. The relative impact of environmental stress, however, depends very much on individual attributes, such as the cumulative physical, emotional, social experiences of the individual combined with his endowment.

1.5 Migration: Stages in the Decision – Making Process

The decision to move or to stay is normally an outcome of a complicated process involving physical and psychological aspects of behavior. A simplification of the process, however, results in five major stages, as follows:

i. A problem arises.

ii. The affected individual becomes aware that the environment does not give sufficient satisfaction.

iii. He or she makes an inventory of possible solutions: those that entail moving and those that do not.

iv. He or she compares the alternatives.

v. The person makes a decision to move out or stay back.

The whole process is portrayed graphically in Figure 1.1.
1.6  Migration: Study of Model

One of the viable ways of studying migration is through models. These models are based on different social, economic and environmental set up. Obviously, such models can not in toto, be applied in Indian situation; nevertheless they provide some insight for building models as applicable in India.

1.6.1  Lee’s Migration Model

Factors that enter into a decision to migrate, according to Lee, are those associated with the area of origin, those associated with the area of destination, the intervening obstacles, and personal factor. The first three of these factors are represented schematically in Figure 1.2.
According to Lee's model, in every area there are factors that act to sustain people within the area and attract people further to it, and also there are other factors that tend to repel them. These are portrayed in Figure 1.2 as plus and minus signs. Other factors, to which people are essentially indifferent, are shown as zeros. Although migration may result from a comparison of factors at the origin and prospective destination, a simple calculus of plus and minus factors does not decide the outcome. The attraction to the move must be strong enough to overcome the natural inertia that always exists.

Furthermore, between two locations there exists a set of intervening obstacles of varying intensity. The most studied of those obstacles by geographers is distance. Personal sensitivities, intelligence, and awareness of
conditions elsewhere enter into the evaluation of the situation at the origin; knowledge of the situation at the destination depends upon personal contacts or other sources of information.

1.6.2 Norris’s Migration Model

The migration model developed by Norris can be shown as in Figure 1.3. The only difference between Lee’s and Norris’s models is the introduction of “intervening opportunities” by Norris. Intervening opportunities are not considered barriers to migration, because opportunities are part of the impetus to migrate, but they may deflect the migration from a predetermined destination.

Figure 1.3

Norris’s Total Migration Model

According to Norris, the cost factor, or economic barrier, is primarily a function of the distance between the origin and the destination. The longer the distance, the more it costs to move a household. The other barrier is psychological in nature, and exists in various forms. One is the fear of new or unknown experiences that desists some people from moving. Another is the
inability of some people to break ties with friends and relatives. Attachment to a particular area is a third.

1.6.3 Ravenstein's Model

Although no comprehensive theory of migration exists, there have been successful attempts to give a more or less universal explanation of migration. In the late 19th century E. G. Ravenstein (1885, 1889) [257] formulated a group of statements which he called "laws of migration" (when elaborating them as the base of empirical observation he cited examples from industrially well developed Western Europe and the USA). Although, more than a century has passed since the "laws of Ravenstein" had been elaborated, subsequent scholars have only modified them.

According to Ravenstein "laws of migration" are as follows:

i. The majority of migrants go only a short distance;

ii. Migration proceeds step by step;

iii. Migrants going long distances generally go by preference to one of the centers of commerce or industry;

iv. Each migration current produces a compensating counter current;

v. The natives of towns are less migratory than those of rural areas;

vi. Females are more migratory than males within their country of birth, but males more frequently venture beyond;

vii. Most migrants are adults-families rarely migrate out of their country of birth;
viii. Large towns grow more by migration than by natural increase;

ix. Migration increases in volume as industries and commerce develop and transportation improves;

x. The major direction of migration is from the agricultural areas to the centres of industry and commerce;

xi. The major causes of migration are economic.

These statements are called “laws” only conditionally, because they do not, of course, apply universally to all cases of migration. Nevertheless, for those who are familiar with migration trends in Georgia over the last decades, it is clear that these “laws” pertain to the situation in this country. According to the hypotheses of the present work the “laws of Ravenstein” might correspond to modern realities as well.

1.6.4 Migration Zone Model of Taylor

Taylor (1949)[307] proposed this model while studying the diffusion of population from cradle land of Central Asia that lies near the Caspian and Aral Seas. According to this model, the first settlers were born in this cradle land and with the origin of later races in this area the former migrated to the outside area forming the marginal fringe of the Central core. In this hierarchy, first of all the Negrito evolved which was forced to migrate towards the periphery by the Negro, who evolved later on. Subsequently, the Australoid evolved which forced the former two to migrate towards the periphery. In this way several races were evolved and migrated all over the world.

In support of his theory Taylor had made some propositions that are given below:

a. There has been a centrifugal movement of population from Central Asia to its nearest peninsulas, viz. Euro-Africa, Australia and the Americas.
b. There are several racial zones in each and every continent which are primitive as far as we go away from Central Asia which giving a clear-cut evidence of successive migrations of people in each and every continent.

c. Primitive races are found in the peripheral areas, e.g. the Negrito is found in Tasmania, Cape Colony, Greenland and Brazil. This shows the successive migrations of the Negrito people to the peripheral areas of the world.

1.6.5 Okun and Richardson’s Model

The model of internal migratory flows designed by Okun and Richardson (1961)[221] has been very popular for studying migration especially where inter-regional income is markedly different. The model assumes a closed economy not subject to international migratory movements, and it is made up of four regions, namely:

i. Stagnation region with low per capita income (LS)

ii. Stagnation region with high per capita income (HS)

iii. Growing region with high per capita income (HG)

iv. Growing region with low per capita income (LG)

It is the premise of this model that migration between similar regions should be discounted. And since there are four types of regions, it follows that theoretically the direction of migration can vary in twelve ways. Table 1.1 gives a format of the model.
Table 1.1

Direction of migratory flows according to Okun and Richardson (1961)[221]

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In the above pattern of flow, the low stagnation region experiences a net outflow of population consisting largely of unskilled labourers and their families. This outflow is considered beneficial to the region both in the short and the long run. Where migrants from this region settle in a high growing region, they tend in the short run to depress per capita income in the later region, but some benefits may accrue to the high growing region in the long run. The low growing region may attract or export population depending on the economic situation in other parts of the territory. The effects on income inequality of flows from low growing to high growing region is difficult to assess; in the short run such flows would tend to lessen income inequality by depressing per capita income in the high growing region. Flows that occur between high stagnation and high growing regions increase the gap in regional income since the out migrants would consist of skilled persons.

1.7 Migration Studies: Contributions Of The IGU (International Geographical Union)

At the international level, the International Geographical Union (IGU) has played a leading role in promoting researches in Population Geography viz. in the fields of population pressure on physical and social resources, international migration and redistribution of population, macro population issues and micro population issues, as well as urbanisation. During the post-
1980s population study has attracted more attention of geographers because of the efforts of the I.G.U. that established Commissions on Population Geography, National Settlement Systems and Working Groups on Rural Development and Transformation of Rural Habitat.

The contributions of the I.G.U. Commission have, however, been well documented since 1964. During the period 1964-68, population issues of developing countries were given due consideration, particularly pressure on physical and social resources. Though migration was not highlighted, per se, but issues related to population pressure and overcrowding in urban areas were studied that had an element of movement of population (Kosinski and Prothero, 1970) [159]. Perhaps such studies paved the way to make more concerted efforts on migration studies in population geography. In the next four years (1968-72), studies on international migration became the focus. I.U.S.S.P supported such activity. In the next term (1972-76), the focus of the I.G.U. Commission on Population Geography was not migration. ‘Perspectives on macro-population’ was considered as well. Migration aspects were included here by default. However, the additional objective was the use of behavioral approaches in the study of reproductive attitudes and of migration. During the same time the I.U.S.S.P had a special committee to study urbanization and population redistribution. The I.G.U. Commission kept close touch with this committee.

From 1976 onwards the I.G.U. Commission took the issues related to population redistribution very seriously. “Redistribution” involves migration of all types and in different regions of the world. It may be pull or push migration on one hand, and international or marriage migration on the other. Serious attempts were made to investigate the general problems of redistribution and the associated policies. Africa, of course, became the focus of such studies as it was undergoing rapid transformation from colonial powers, coupled with new phase of post-independence development, natural calamities followed by political problems and inter-tribal conflicts. In order to
maintain long term interest on Africa, a small task force of the Commission was appointed. Nevertheless, the focus of population migration and distribution did not limit to developing countries, but to the developed world as well. I.U.S.S.P. Committee on Urbanization and Population Redistribution was still confining and was working close to the I.G.U. Commission. Here the emphasis was on theoretical constructs, policy oriented researches, decision-making processes, population policies and their implementations (Webb, Naukkarinnen & Kosinski, 1982)[341]. Internal migration in the developed countries was given due consideration. Redistribution continued with redeemed interest studying various aspects, such as development processes in different countries. South Asia became an area of concern. National, regional and local policies affecting redistribution, impact of national development plans, and how development projects have been influencing population and refugees were the additional themes (Kosinski & Elahi, 1985)[156]. The push migration of refugees were not studied in a narrow political perspective though this region has suffered sizeable refugee problem due to partition of India in 1947, liberation of Bangladesh in 1971 and later from the Afghan problem. The environmental refugees due to floods also became part of the investigation.

At the end of the I.G.U. Commission term of 1976-80, the interest on Asia and Pacific region remained unabated. Perhaps both the regions are laboratories for research in population geography due to the varieties and variations in population composition and growth. In addition, migration of all sorts was then taking place. The notable ones were changing urban concentration of population, migration and circulation and linkages of development projects with changes in population patterns. The sub-themes for population research were remittances, movement, explicit and implicit policies, and government perception, emerging concentration patterns, density changes, population decentralization, internal migration, development transition and mapping of demographic variables.
From 1980 onwards, population became an interesting field of investigation. The researches were carried out under the I. G. U. Commission on population geography. The I.G.U. Commission continued its interest on migration and population redistribution. One important focus was to find out the links between redistribution of population and the worldwide development processes. Post-independent era in Africa witnessed a quick spur of development of all sorts (Clarke and Kosinski, 1985)[66], the issues were related to development in under-populated areas where migration added new dimensions to the existing scenario in population distribution. These issues were (a) demographic inter-mediation, (b) demographic impact, (c) mobility transition, (d) migration labour, (e) resettlement of displaced population, (f) environmental issues, (g) political economy of movement, (h) availability of water in rural and in interior areas and the new sites for population location. Population geographers were not lagging behind in observing the international decade of women. Special attempt was made to study their role in population redistribution, particularly sex differentials in migration. The social and demographic aspects of female migration were given due considerations, such as the impact of female migration on demographic trends, female labour movement and the new role of women in the family and society. In general, female mobility was given a fresh look.

In 1983, the I.G.U. Commission participated in the XVth Pacific Congress in Dunedin, New Zealand. The venue was ideal for evaluating mobility, identity and policy in the concerned region. The small population groups separated by physical factors do attain specific characters. Islands are best examples of separations. But due to the facilities of easy movement among the islands, the issues like mobility, identity, social and cultural changes have become interesting areas for research in population geography. From 1984 onwards, the I.G.U. Commission on population Geography had lasting interest on internal migration in relation to disasters, and international migration with regard to migrant workers and refugees.
Redistribution of working population in agrarian and industrial regions is equally important. However, such trends are part of the global phenomena. The associated issues are (a) Redistribution of population and workforce: global analysis and overall patterns, (b) Redistribution of the agrarian labour force, urbanization and methodological approach, (c) Population policies, regional planning, demographic trends and redistribution of population in agrarian regions, (d) Urban growth, rural-urban migration and settlement systems: causes and social impact. While studying population redistribution over several years, one factor that repeatedly occurred was environment, such as droughts and floods. The disasters were not only natural, but man-made as well. In fact, in some cases latter ones were more dangerous than the former. With this objective in mind, a special effort was made by the I.G.U. Commission to study population and disaster (Nag, 1989)[216].

The 24th International Geographical Congress in Tokyo had stressed upon the migration as a thrust area in IGU activities. The IGU appointed several bodies apart from the Commission on Population Geography, which have academic interest in population studies.

It may be mentioned here that migration, conventionally defined as a permanent shift of residence across predefined boundaries, may be considered to be a human response to intolerable economic, social, and demographic forces in the environment. Presumably, migration is not the only response to these forces if alternatives are available.

A number of countries, as a result, are using transmigration (a term to denote government sponsored population movement) programme to control their population or to have a proper population distribution to each region depending on the available resources. For example, every year some inhabitants of Java, Bali and Lombok move to Sumatra, Kalimantan, Sulawesi and East Timor in Indonesia under the prevailing transmigration programme.
In India, however, there is no such type of transmigration programme, but the spontaneous rural-urban migration has played its significant role in reducing the pressure of population growth in rural areas where village resources mostly depending on land are more or less stagnant over a period of time. Though most of the migration in India is circular in nature, it occurs mostly among males who migrate to urban areas for their livelihood leaving their wives and children in villages. Such separation of wife and husband certainly reduces their fertility and, hence, the overall growth rate of rural areas.

1.8 Motivational Factors of Migration in General

Migration of population is an international phenomenon. Migration occurs over space. It has an important place in population geography. Migration is a worldwide problem. In every country including India, there is rapid migration from rural to urban areas. Though India is an agglomeration of vast number of villages, yet in Indian villages facing acute socio-economic crisis, interpersonal income differences are getting enlarged day by day. So, poverty-stricken, landless, illiterate, unskilled, or semiskilled labourers migrate from rural to urban area. Intra-rural inequality becomes, at once, the main cause and a serious consequence of rural emigration (Nag, 1989)[216].

There are many factors affecting migration, such as, (1) Socio-economic factors, (2) Geo-political factors, (3) Demographic factors etc. Basically, the causes of people’s mobility in the underdeveloped countries appear to lie in the rural areas (origin place) excepting the attractiveness of the rural growth centres or urban centers Dasgupta et.al,1976; [81]. These studies aimed at identifying the socio-economic characteristics regarding origin and destination of the migrants. There are several motivating factors, therefore, that have to be understood in terms of origin and at the place of destination.

The motives of the migrant is difficult to ascertain because he is, at times, so mixed up that the individual himself is unaware of the factors
responsible for his migration. A combination of attractive as well as repulsive forces is always working simultaneously, and migrants may not be able to identify clearly the factors that have been responsible for their migration Mobogunje, 1970[170]; Mukharjee, 1981[206]; (Trager, 1998)[316]. As mentioned earlier, the causes of migration are never simple, except in the case of forced migration, in which case a direct political motive is clearly discernible. The individuals who decide to move from their place of origin to other places generally take a number of factors into consideration. The factors influencing migration are not only numerous but are also very complex, and vary from place to place and from time to time. It may be assumed that the regional disparities in economic activity and population problems are the basic factors, which initiate migration. Various authors have presented their views on the factors that are responsible for migration. Some have laid emphasis on economic factors, some illustrated social factors, and some have opined cultural factors while some have described migration as a combination of all the three factors.

Majumdar (1960)[175] gives the following causes of migration: Insufficiency of cultivable land, disputes in family, presence of friends and relatives who might help the migrant to get a job, ruination of the hereditary occupation and loss of business, the attraction of the city life, the absence of employment opportunities commensurate with their education in their native place, the desire for investment, official transfer, search of employment, political reasons, and accompanying other elderly migrants.

Lakdawala (1963)[163] states that it is very difficult to find out the initial motivating factor. According to him, “A ‘push’ from the village for a person may be operative because there is a ‘pull’ from the town or vice versa.

Aurora (1967)[14] had opined that in all types of migration these two factors – ‘push’ and ‘pull’- are present. He refers to these pull factors as the attainment of a higher standard of living, the possibility of receiving better treatment, better educational facilities, prestige in the home society as a person with
wider experience. He gave the following reasons for the push factors: high population pressure on land, break-up of the joint family, and unsettled political conditions which might bring about economic and even physical insecurity of the people.

Ganguli (1973)[107] also lays stress on wider economic, political and cultural reasons, which cause migration.

Joshi (1973)[147] hypothesized that two types of migrants exist. "On the one hand the illiterates, unskilled migrant labourers, who remain rurally-oriented, who stay in towns for only a limited duration and who can thus be considered outwardly mobile" and in contrast, "the high aspiring, village abhorring, would be permanent town-dwellers".

Pal (1974)[227] explained that relatively better conditions of living and better prospects in the city motivate the villagers to migrate.

Connell, John C and Dasgupta (1976)[72] investigated the social factors affecting the propensity to migrate. These factors, according to them, include such demographic influences as age, sex, the family size, family conflict, family structure, marriage system, "system avoidance migration", and the social factors outside the village, such as urban educational prospects, opportunities for pleasure, etc.

Chandna (1989)[52] had observed that the central parts of India covering large parts of Madhya Pradesh and eastern Maharashtra recorded in-migration. Some incidence of in-migration, here, was attributable to reclamation of new agricultural land and settlement of scheduled caste population.

1.9 Economic Factors

In the developed countries, migration is a symptom of development. On the other hand, in a Third World country like India, migration, especially,
labour migration is a symptom of poverty, underdevelopment, spatial disorganization and regional disarticulation.

Internal migration, irrespective of the economic standard of a country, is mostly studied in four forms: i.e. rural to rural, rural to urban, urban to urban and urban to rural. Rural - urban migration has played an important role in the growth of cities in both the developing and the developed world. Whether migration is made across the international boundaries or within the national boundaries, it is considered to be the result of socio-economic forces acting at the places of origin and destination.

Ravenstein (1885,1889)[257] had identified many of the generalized laws of migration. He thought that migrants move from areas of low economic opportunities to areas of high opportunities. Distance normally regulates this choice of destination. Each stream of rural-urban migration produces a counter stream of urban-rural migration. The urban migrants although are less migratory than rural migrants, the volume of migrants increases with improvements of transportation and communication and rapid expansion of trade and industry. Ravenstein put more emphasis on the behavior of people rather than upon the individual or upon the structural condition of the place.

But the main problems associated with the rural to urban movement in the third world countries are that the people are moving from unemployment to under employment, from poor field to dirty pavements and from one poverty region to another, resulting in colossal waste of human resources and perpetual human misery.

The typology builds upon Fairchil's scheme that implies that man is sedentary until he is impelled to move by some forces. In Petersen's view, migration may be innovative or conservative. Innovative migration refers to movement of people as a means of achieving a new agenda in life. It may also be conservative meaning that there may be some move in response to changing conditions without compromising the status quo. The consequences
of migration are considered innovative or conservative in terms of the situation defined by either the individual or the activating agency.

Henry (1932)[134] found that some village situations encourage their inhabitants to seek works elsewhere during the slack seasons only. This is due to the prevailing ecological situation, which makes the demand for agricultural labour highly seasonal. Rural mobility generally increases, therefore, in response to heavy labour demand during the period of harvest. Labourers often take up harvest work outside their home village. Such harvest migration was prevalent in the nineteenth-century Ireland.

Salz (1944)[271] maintained that occupation as an activity determines the social position of the individual while analyzing the occupation as one of the major factors in migration. He observed the following:

a. There is an anchoring function. It means a commitment to aid, assist, and help and, in gist, it acts as a positive resource for the migrant.

The nature of the relationship between migration and the environment varies greatly across the developing countries, as the countries differ in natural resources and climate, level of development, government policies, social institutions and customs. It is also observed that rural population growth results in growing land fragmentation, rural under employment and out migration. The question is what impact do these trends have on the environment? The major forms of environmental deterioration associated with population growth and urbanisation include deforestation, soil degradation, watershed destruction and urban encroachment on prime agricultural land. Increasing number of people and animal and the expansion of agriculture actuate a stress on the rangelands. The development of new water resource alters nomadic pattern. Deforestation has become a serious problem, because energy demands for wood and charcoal have increased and the land is being cleared for agriculture and
settlement. The decline in tree and bush cover reduces soil productivity and promoted erosion.

The relationship between the villages and a wider economic network appears more prominently, as development proceeds increasingly to determine the rate of migration. Trager(1998)[316] depended upon the idea that rural-urban migration is determined by the income disparity between the two regions, as conditioned by the better probability of getting an employment in an urban place.

The proprieties of a village to expel the migrants can be substantially explained by its own level and distribution of agricultural income. A villager's livelihood prior to migration is affected by his place in the demographic gamut and the other social hierarchies of which he is a part. This must also be viewed in a wider context than the village - the cultural environment of the region and the ethnic group to which the migrant belongs.

b. The second, which has a subtle negative effect, is that of stratification or restrictiveness brought by the homogenizing effect of forming coteries.

There have been previous attempts to conceptualize migration within a typological framework. Unlike fertility and mortality, migration cannot be analyzed in terms of psychological and or non-cultural factors only, but must be differentiated with respect to social, economic and personal factors. It is, therefore, understandable that all aspects of this complex process have yet to be addressed in the construction of a comprehensive typology. One important migration component, not considered in previous typology building, is the personal characteristics of the individual migrant.

Mitra (1954)[194] found that in 1960-61 the Calcutta Industrial Region sent out Rs. 276 million by postal money order, the average value of a money order being Rs.46 only. It is an indicator of an unreal psychological pull factor of urban area.
Lee (1956) [164] a sociologist, depending on Ravenstein’s laws of migration, has developed a general framework for analyzing the internal migration process. However, Lee’s model is of limited help for policy analysis in the developing countries because of its loose structure, general statements and too much interrelatedness of many of its hypothesis.

Petersen (1958) [238] developed a typology which is universal in nature and it is considered as a basic step toward formulating a general theory of migration. Here he analyzed both the international and national migration.

Upreti (1981) [319] has quoted the view of Bouge who believed that migration has a very strong ‘push’ stimulus, which tends to be less selective with respect to the community of origin, than migration, in general, which has a very strong ‘pull’ stimulus. He observed that the selectivity of out-migrants from any community tends to vary directly with the strength of the attractive ‘pulls’ from other communities and inversely with the expulsive ‘pushes’ from the concerned community.

Mehta (1987) [189] has noted the point raised by Gaur & Nepali (1962) who were trying to indicate rural poverty and increase in family size as the main factors of moving out from eastern Uttar Pradesh villages to their urban destinations.

Saxena (1977) [274] has nicely pointed out the survey report of Rao & Desai who observed in their survey on Greater Delhi that 71 per cent of the migrants were sending money regularly back home and of these, 90 per cent reported that they had to send the money to maintain their families. Thus, there exists a family bond in spite of out-migration from the respective home.

Saxena (1977) [274] has also quoted the observation of Padki (1964) where he had studied at the village level on elder migrants having returned to the village from Bombay and the younger ones aspiring to move out to the metropolis indicates that inadequate family occupation in the former case and
assured jobs in Bombay in the latter case were the main reasons of migration, followed by their preference to work in the metropolis.

Wolport (1965)[349] gave a decision - making model of migration emphasizing upon the place utility concept and arrived at a field theory approach to the behavioural aspects of decision to migration. He could not, measure place utility however.

Friedlander (1965)[106] hypothesizes that a certain minimum level of income is necessary before migration can take place, and evidence from Puerto Rico supports his hypothesis.

Sovani (1965)[297] found that the households with maximum propensity to migrate belonged to the lowest and the highest income groups.

Beijer (1965)[20] points out that “migration is a necessary element of normal population redistribution and an arrangement for making use of the available manpower”. He observed that migration involves a complete change and adjustment of the community affiliation of the individuals while Jansen regards migration as a ‘demographic problem which influences the size of population at both the places - the place of origin as well as the place of destination’.

Srivastava & Ali (1981) [300] has quoted in their article the version of Hassan who found that the Kols have a preference for an agricultural occupation but they have taken up other jobs when jobs of their choice were are not available. It is, however, necessary to mention that a large number of tribals are not free to choose their jobs as being in debt. Their debtors in their occupation guide them.

Mangalam and Harry (1975) [179] have suggested that there is no inherent reason why the physical movement of people from one geographical locale to another should affect deviant behaviour, unless the interact ional pattern that ad stabilized the migrants’ social organization prior to their migration is somehow upset in the process of residential relocation of the collectivity".
Olusanya (1969)[223] found that 75 per cent of migrants from the five villages in Western Nigeria left for towns mostly due to economic reasons.

Todaro (1969)[313] found that rural-urban migration is determined by the income disparity between the two regions, conditioned by the probability of securing urban employment. He also developed a hypothesis that the nature of the relationship between the village and a wider economic network appears, as development proceeds, increasingly to determine the rate of migration. The impact upon migration of rural-urban income differentials has become the central focus of many recent migration studies, stimulated by availability of testable hypothesis.

Lewis (1970)[166] had observed that most information is dependent on previous migration flows. He also found that one of the main factors in continued emigration overseas from the Lebanese village of Hadchite “were the letters and money sent back by earlier emigrants – concrete evidence of success”.

Mabogunje(1970)[170] found that Nigeria’s predominant migration flows have been away from the coast towards relatively underdeveloped land in the Western and Northern regions.

Rampel (1970)[252] in his study of migration in Kenya compared migration rates between tribal groups, keeping other variables constant and concluded that “the explanation of the limited significance of the rural-urban expected income differential, which appears to co-respond best with the data available, is variation among ethnic groups in their prosperity to migrants, given a particular rural-urban expected income differential”.

Brigg (1971)[36] found that people tend to move from poorer to wealthier areas for economic gains, promoting a massive exodus from rural to urban areas. But it is not merely economic gains, which promotes the movements from rural to urban areas; rather it is inequality in land ownership, hunger and unemployment that plays significant roles.
Schultz (1971)[276] claimed in his analysis of Colombo data that “the distance of migration reflects the cost of the migration processes”.

Sabot (1972)[267] showed that the earning capacity of educated migrants in urban areas of Tanzania was 1.75 times greater than that of uneducated migrants.

McGee (1973)[184] found in rural villages in Hong Kong that migration of men to the city has resulted in women doing the agricultural work and children doing domestic work.

Bose (1973)[28] had identified that internal migration in India has been mostly studied in term of rural and urban migration and especially migration to big cities. In different region of India, there is a growing conflict between the ‘son of soil’ and the ‘outsiders’ migrants from other states of India and the root of the conflict lies in economic factors.

In a study by the Sarder Patel University DERC, on economic and social implication of green revolution, found that in Punjab and Rajasthan, the huge new labour requirements of the early stages of the wheat revolution were by 1973 drawing many migrants, mostly seasonal harvest labourers from as far as Deoria district in U.P.

Essang & Mabawonku (1974)[98] tested such a hypothesis (that man/land ratios would decline with out-migration) in six villages in western Nigeria and found the hypothesis confirmed.

Helen & Brian (1975)[131] had observed that migration is normally viewed as an economic phenomenon. Though non-economic factors obviously have some bearing, most studies agree that migrants leave their area of origin primarily because of lack of employment opportunities and in the hope of finding better opportunities elsewhere. This movement brings about changes in the composition of the population that result in the problems of the migrants in the new environment.
Connell (1976)[69] on the basis of their evidence from village studies have concluded that another structural determinant of migration is inequality. According to them “Migration is indeed the child of inequality”. It is from the village where land is most unequally distributed and that migration rates are highest, though it is both the rather poor and the rather rich who migrate, rather than, in general the poorest, the middle or the richest ones.

Sarkar (1982)[272] found that West Bengal was dependent on manual type of manpower from rural areas of other north Indian states. Although West Bengal was the largest recipient of rural in-migrants from other states.

Kayastha & Mukherjee (1979)[152] stated that unlike in developed economics where migration occurs in association with qualitative change and vertical shift in the labour force, labour migration in the low-income countries occurs as a spatial symptom of underdevelopment and regional disarticulation in the space economy.

Gill (1981)[108] marked that movement over territories is a characteristic feature of all human population irrespective of their stage of economic development.

Mukherjee (1981)[190] claimed that labour migration in low-income countries occurs as a spatial symptom of diseases of under development and regional disarticulation of space economy. The anti - development process of new colonization still at work maintain polarized capital accumulation in a few metropolises and also in a few regional pocket and they induce distress migration even today.

Khan (1981)[154] argued that migration is a process of redistribution of population which is generated due to defective organization of space economy i.e. the socio-economic disparity, steaming out of man’s relation with geometrical diversity, exerts pressure on population to move at least horizontally if not vertically. He observed that selective migration is largely attributed to economic reasons and also for pursuing higher education. The
female migration, a dominating scene in an exogamous society, is attributed to social practices of kinship development. A large proportion of rural to urban female migration is also associated with the rural male out-migration in India. A lion’s proportion of rural male out migrants is steered towards agglomerated urban areas that are considered potential for employment.

Pathak (1982)[234] had tried to identify various aspects of the periodic movement of agricultural labourer from drought prone areas of the western districts to agriculturally prosperous areas of the eastern districts of West Bengal. He also observed that irrigation system has failed to diversify the cropping pattern in the drought-prone areas, agricultural productivity of the land has dwindled and ravages of famine are not very infrequent, people might be migrating in search of more remunerative employment concentrated in a specific period at specific destinations.

Oberai (1989)[220] opines that in many Asian countries, as in the third world countries, in general, rural poverty, manifested in low agricultural incomes, low productivity and under employment are the important factors in pushing migrants out of rural areas towards areas having greater employment opportunities.

Folger (1985)[104] established two principles, firstly, if two areas are in different economic regions the relationship between distance and the number of migrants may be different from the relationship within an economically integrated area and secondly, rates of net migration between two areas tend to be directly proportional to differences in level of living and inversely proportional to the distance between them.

Mukherjee (1985)[209] observed that poor quality of land, or a low level of cash cropping either because low demand for cash crops, which reduces income, or because poverty compels peasants to migrate which is found in India, migration begins and ends in poverty, compounding urban involution
and dependency, resulting in massive waste of human potential, both at place of origin and destination.

Rathor & Premi (1986)[256] have analyzed that the consequences of rural male out-migration are disturbing the regional economic development. It has been observed that young and skilled population, which are change prone population, dominate the rural-urban migration stream. Therefore, this process deprives the place of origin, of the potential workforce. In such mechanism the backward areas (the place of origin) are left with traditional and dependent population and, hence, remain underdeveloped.

Rao (1977)[253] in his study suggested that six demographic indicators to discern the stage of socio-economic development: growth rate, birth rate, death rate, general fertility rate, net rural-urban migration rate and proportion of urban population. His focus was mainly on different elements of population dynamics as representative of development level. Here, a major point of caution is that the interpretation of a given population dynamics has to be done in the context of total situation of an area. For example, rural urban migration may suggest a high employment potential of towns in general, but in some real world situation it may be the result of rural impoverishment as is the case in many of the densely populated developing countries and areas within them.

Mehta (1987)[190] has considered that natural resource like land is an important determinant of internal migration. Population pressure on land has been identified as an important “push” factor in studies following push-pull perspective.

Oberoi, Prasad & Sardana (1989)[220] referred to rural-urban migration as a resultant of rural-urban income differentials but they did not discuss the factors which control those rural - urban income differentials.

Mehta (1990)[190] had tried to throw a light on the mobility of people in developing countries like India. He observed that it is different from mobility.
associated with developed economics. In countries like India internal mobility symbolizes, among other things, movement away from total unemployment, deprivation and starvation to a condition of underemployment and bare survival. It is largely horizontal displacement from one kind of poverty to another.

Employment opportunities and development play a significant role in the patterns of migration in the mountainous regions (Shrestha, Clarke & Ahmed. 1991)[282]

Mehta (1990)[190] has pointed out that a comprehensive understanding of migratory ethos of any populace, was, however, contingent upon comprehending: (I) the processes responsible for spatial movement of people; (ii) the role played by development strategies in determining the degree of spatial mobility; and (iii) the policies that may be adopted to direct migration-development relationship.

Sengupta & Chanda (1991)[278] concluded that the spatial mobility patterns in the country do not seem to have undergone any significant modification in terms of both direction and magnitude over the past century or so. The pockets of chronic population pressure have not witnessed any significant improvement in their population resource nexus, large-scale out-migration notwithstanding. The continuing massive out-migration from these backward areas has failed to provide any relief to these states, in terms of pressure on their resources. It signified that out-migration was no solution. Instead, a substantial restructuring of society and economy was perhaps essential to mitigate the regional inequalities in population resource relationship.

Dasgupta (1976)[81] pointed out that rural-urban migration may induce a high proportion of migrants in sending back remittance, but the sums involved, absolutely and as a proportion of income, reflect lower earning and are, therefore, usually smaller.
Parfit (1998)[231] observed migration patterns worldwide, with a focus on reasons for relocation and consequences of migration flows. He considered pull factors, such as the lure of a new destination, improved jobs, and better living conditions, as well as push factors, including political unrest or natural disasters.

1.10 Social Factors

Van (1960)[334] suggested that close kinship might promote a chain migration, which significantly increases the rate of migration.

Family size plays a vital role in migration. Most indications suggest that migrants tend to come from relatively large families i.e. from families in which both need and earning capacity have expanded relative to local earning opportunity.

Upton (1967)[332] has observed that a positive correlation of migration with the proportion of income from non-farm sources in six Nigerian villages

Prabhu (1968)[244] explained that the process of in-migration becomes selective. His study shows how selectivity operates on the basis of the region, religion, caste, occupation and so forth. His study also reveals that almost 90 per cent of the in-migrants in the city of Bombay stayed with their relatives, friends and parents.

Goldscheider (1971)[112] has pointed out the importance of personal factors in migration. He also suggested that the motivation behind the decision to move must be inferred from migration selectivity or, in other words, from the personal characteristics of movers.

Goldstein (1972)[114] had concluded that “efforts to identify basic causes of migration, and particularly movement from rural areas, have pointed to a tremendous range of motivating factors which vary from locality to locality, from one point in time to another and from great specificity to a high level of generality”.

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Gosal (1961)[118] had mentioned that migration is not only a shift of people from one place of abode to another but also it is most fundamental to the understanding of ever changing space content and space relationships in any area.

Goddard (1973)[111] observed in Northern Nigeria. There is a prevalence of nuclear families, and the social restrictions against women workers. These meant that in three villages around Sokoto male migration was limited to short term seasonal migration.

Hendershot (1977)[133] reports a study on differential fertility of migrants in the Philippines within the “Assimilation” and “Social Mobility” models. The study concludes that rural-urban migration is selective to persons with unusually high aspirations and potentiality for upward social mobility such as higher levels of education, higher income, and aspiration for more education or better jobs. The urban environments were found to be congenial and migrants approved of and used contraceptives more often than the non-migrants, though the differences observed were not statistically significant.

Nag (1981)[213] observed that distribution must be planned to do away with the extremes in population densities. He pointed out that in 1969, the districts along the old railway line experienced high density, positive growth rate and population change, along with high percentage of urban population, high potential for in-migration and inter-district migration. The areas elsewhere have reverse tendencies.

Nag (1983)[214] made a detailed study of the role of women in the socio-economic setting of Zambia. He found that women’s control over land, property and lineage places them in an important position in the society. They play a crucial role among other things, in decision-making process related to migration although it is men who migrate in a large number. The migration of male in urban areas has resulted in numerical dominance of the females in rural areas and of males in urban areas. This imbalanced distribution of male
and female populations has affected the household structure in particular, and the Zambian social set-up in general.

Rathor & Premi (1986)[256] have analyzed that the female migration, a dominating scene in an exogamous society, is attributed to social practices of kinship development (associated with “The incest is tabooed”). A large proportion of rural to urban female migration is also associated with the rural male out-migration in India.

Nag (1986)[215] made an interesting study of the population of Zambia by using the 1969 and 1980 Zambian census data, and the indirect estimation that followed. He found that the spatial mobility of the population in Zambia is linked with the development of many activities in the city. He emphasized that the family structure and family need directly influence the nature of migration. Female migration, however, he added, is a function of educational level.

Premi (1989)[245] had analyzed inter-district migration (within the state of enumeration) in India using data from the 1961, 1971, and 1981 censuses for Rajasthan district. Principal population movement was described and the motivation for international migration by sex was also discussed by him.

König (1998)[155] conducted a study based on a socio-economic and migration survey conducted in 1996 in a rural Indo-Fijian settlement in western Viti Levu, the main island of Fiji. First, the social composition of the concerned population was analyzed, then agricultural (sugar cane) and non-agricultural economic activities were described. The main part of the paper deals with internal and international migration of the inhabitants and their relatives, including migration of women after marriage.

Emigration of Indo-Fijians from Fiji is a special concern after the coup of 1987. This paper shows the extent of emigration in a rural settlement and its effects on the remaining population. Finally, the migration pattern of the Indo-Fijians and that of the Fijians was compared.
1.11 Cultural Factors

Bose (1968)[29] has observed that in Calcutta there is a situation of cultural pluralism with different linguistics and regional in-migrant communities living in their own cultural world.

Caplan (1972)[48] made a study of social change at village in Western Nepal. He observed that the cobblers were much prone to migration rather than the land owning Brahmin community. The said migration had an impact on rural craft-related occupations.

Singh (1974)[287] had explained that rural to rural migration from the nearby villages occurs due to the rigorous attitude of zamindars, social boycott, religious or cultural pursuits, relocation due to floods, increasing population, search for food and employment and famine conditions and so on.

A similar conclusion was drawn by Subedi (1988)[305] like Chapman (1985)[56] who argued that population movement was a basic feature of Melanesian life in pre- and immediately post-contact times. He observed that movement of Melanesian people was part of their life and associated cultural landscape.

Colfer (1985)[67] arrived at a similar conclusion as noted by Chapman in her study. She found that movement means for Kalimantan women stay back in the villages while their husbands and brothers go away to earn money. These studies, in general, indicate that population movement is not a new phenomenon. It has persisted in these societies from the earliest beginnings and continued till date to make it an expression of existing cultural themes.

Brubaker (1998)[40] in his article addresses a neglected link between migration and ethnicity or nationality in Europe. It explores migrations of 'ethnic unmixing' or 'ethnic affinity'. Ethnic unmixing and ethnic affinity have somewhat different connotations and call for attention to two distinct respects in which ethnicity may figure in such migrations:
A. As a push factor at the point of origin.
B. As a pull factor at the point of destination.

1.12 Technological Factors

Yeswant (1962)[356] explained in his study of four South Indian villages that most migrant groups were small cultivators and agricultural labourers. He also noted how in Tamil Nadu villages introduction of pump sets attracted the need for the cobblers, who made the leather buckets. Consequently, the cobblers had to find alternative jobs in the villages (which were not readily available) or they were compelled to have in search of sustenance.

Mehta (1987)[189] has quoted the opinion of Widjojo who has opined that investment in technology and thereby reducing population pressure on land could perhaps reverse the tendency of decreased availability of land.

Vasaria (1972)[335] has observed that the technical changes, if it results in providing more employment opportunities than in displacing labour, would surely promote migration.

1.13 Political Factors

Weiner (1982)[344] has stated that the governing elites of the Gulf States are basically interested in using their abundant wealth to develop their countries without the least disruption of the existing political structures. In order to accomplish this goal, they have imported workers to construct airports, roads, communication network etc. from South Asian countries rather than from the neighbouring Arab lands for fear of losing their political autonomies. They do not allow these migrant workers to become citizens.

1.14 Social Network and Communication Factors

Social network seems to provide the best mechanism for migration since it mediates between structural factors and individual activity particularly where the government is unable to provide the safety net required for the majority of low-qualified migrants. The barriers to migration, i.e. information, travel,
entry into the job market, and maintenance of status quo etc. are relatively eased with the help of network ties. Particularly, at present, computer Internet system is providing all sorts of information related to the job market. In fact, almost all migrants who have been abroad have sought the services of social network, especially during the period of crises. Such services include ready cash, mental and moral support, liaising with the local community.

Stouffer (1940)[303] hypothesized that “the number of persons going to a given distance is directly proportional to the number of intervening opportunities in explaining the deterrent effect of distance on migration”.

Connel (1969)[73] observed in Ghana that the opportunity of a ride on one of the many trucks plying to the towns with farm produce has stimulated a great deal of general mobility. He found that 74 per cent of urban migrants had first traveled to town by transport vehicle.

Gupta (1972)[123] had illustrated in a study of migration to urban Delhi that the improvement of transport and communication, the increase in educational level of the population and general economic development have contributed to the increase in migration in recent years.

Dasgupta (1976)[81] opined that there is a threshold distance around a town, within which the rate of migration from villages increases with distance – only at distances above this threshold does the normal deterrent effectively operate.

Banerjee (1983)[15] while enumerating data on 11,651 respondents in Delhi found that 86 per cent in the sample had relatives or co-villagers, or both, living in Delhi at the time of their arrival. These networks of personal commitments, patronize decision for migration, diminish the psychological costs of migration, lessen the monetary costs by providing necessary information and material assistance.
McEvoy (1971)[183] found that long distance migration was beginning to decline in Saboke as nearer logging work at neighbourhood had become gradually available.

Sahota (1990)[269] reports in his study of regional movement that distance is the most consistently significant variable, which acts as a deterrent for migration.

Pohjola (1991)[242] theoretically identified two possible effects of the network link process associated with migration:

i. The first being an anchoring function, whereby these connections mean a commitment to aid, assist, and help and, in gist, act as a positive resource for the migrant.

ii. The second, a subtle negative effect, is that of stratification or restrictiveness brought by the homogenizing effect of forming coteries.

Shah (1996)[281] analyzed the role of the informal network (friends / relatives) in migration, and social adjustment of South Asian male migrants moving out to Kuwait. He observed that, in general, unskilled workers seemed to depend more heavily on recruitment agents than the skilled ones and the incidence of harassment as a consequence of irregular papers, uncongenial work environment and ultimate deportation was higher among the unskilled than the skilled workers. He collected evidence of 800 migrants in one district of Kuwait where networks of friends and relatives had initiated additional migration, supported migrants, and enabled the migrants to secure better paid jobs, while contributed to higher levels of satisfaction among the migrants.

Begum & Mahmood (1999)[19] had analyzed that the concept of network can be understood from affiliations existing among blood relations, relatives, friends, neighbours, fellow town folk, people who shared ethnic interests, common organizational membership such as community or sport clubs, similar religious denominations etc. Figuratively speaking, the bonds which
are present between and within these groups could be analogous to the following definition: inanimate network is defined as being a fabric or structure of threads, cords or wires, or the like, crossing each other at certain intervals, and knotted or secured at the crossing.

1.15 Combined Factors

Davis (1951)[82] had examined that the Indian population has often been considered as a less mobile population, where a vast majority spends their entire life span at their birthplace. Though in terms of proportion, the migrants in India may appear to be insignificant, yet in terms of absolute numbers they make up an impressive figure.

Zachariah (1964)[357] had pointed out that in some instances, migrants comes to the city in search of a first job. With increasing contacts in the city and its employment potentials, most of the people become gradually able to get some employment. The first jobs are those that are easiest to get, and may, therefore, be of a relatively low status. With further exposure to city life and the possibility of greater experience in non-agricultural occupations, greater contact with influential people, and further training and achievement, migrants may be able to rise on the occupational ladder.

Bose (1967)[78] had illustrated the volume of migration that is certainly large. He pointed out that over 30 per cent of India’s population was born outside the town or village in which they resided in 1961.

Kosinski & Prothero(1970)[158] put emphasis on such studies that would pave the way to make more concerted efforts on migration studies in population geography. They observed that between 1968 and 1972, a number of studies on international migration became the focus. I.U.S.S.P.

Zelinski’s (1971)[359] Mobility Hypothesis, though quoted extensively in migration literature, has not adequately been tested empirically in systematic way. To examine the validation of this hypothesis the level of development has to be treated as independent variable. It is hypothesized that as development
in rural areas takes place, the permanent out-migration first increases and then gradually slackens with attainment of high level of development in the area, though there is higher acceleration in sectors of circulatory and commuting migration. Further as out migration varies along development transition of rural areas, there would also be corresponding differences in the flow of migration and the characteristics of migrants.

Contemporary research on migration shows that the numerous attempts have been made to identify the key determinants of migration, such as ecological factors (Sly 1972), employment pattern (Lansing and Muller, 1967) Psychological factor (Dejong and Garden, 1981) etc.

Kansakar (1974)[148] had attempted to trace history of migration. Most workers on population movement has focused upon contemporary patterns. There has, however, been a dearth of work that links the historical with contemporary patterns of population movement.

Amin (1974)[10] argued that the decision of the migrant to leave his place of origin is completely pre-determined by over all strategy of development, which is the result of colonization and capitalism.

Beaman & D'Arcy (1980)[17] considered various aspects of mobility and migration in the mover-stayer typology. They hold that mobility and migration cannot be analyzed by a single measure; rather several dimensions are required including: repeat migration; return migration, population turn over, long term stability, and population growth. In other sense, however, their approach is more restrictive than the former two in that only internal movement is portrayed ascertained from data on Canada.

Hugo (1978)[136] had framed a policy relating to population distribution which takes full account of (a) the wider social and economic forces that shape the pre-existing patterns of population mobility, and (b) the nature of state in which the policy is to be initiated.
Smith & Krishnan (1994)[294] and Krishnan & Odynak (1986)[161] had extended Petersen's schema into a typology that considers only the migrant (excluding the agency or equivalent), and two points in time (at least) rather than just one time point (time of arrival, or time of migration). Employing Petersen's migratory forces, the focus here is on how the migrant evaluates his/her position at the place of destination at time two, that is, whether his/her socio-economic status has gone up, remained the same, or has gone down (the latter aspect is not considered by Petersen). While this typology takes into account both the causes and consequences of migration with respect to the migrant, the personal characteristics of the individual are still not an issue.

Ram (1987)[249] observed that it was also pretended that 'the factors associated with the migration are not easy to trace' perhaps because migration is a single-origin multi-destination process and migrants leave the area where they had lived before the migration.

Nag (1989)[216] during the 1972-1976 term visualized that the focus of the I.G.U Commission on Population geography was not only migration. A perspective on 'macro population' was considered as well including behavioural approaches in the study of reproductive attitudes and of migration. During the same time the I.S.S.P. had a special committee to study urbanization and population redistribution. The I.G.U Commission kept close touch with this committee.

Nag (1989)[216] has also pointed out that the contribution of the I.G.U Commission has been well documented since 1964. During the period 1964-68, population issues of the developing countries were given due consideration, particularly pressure on physical and social resources. Though migration was not highlighted, per se, but issues related to population pressure and overcrowding in urban areas were studied which had an element of movement.
Emke-Pouloupolos (1990)[96] examines migration behaviour in Greece during the period 1970-1990. The study includes the structure of the migrant population by age, sex, and socio-economic status; reasons for migration; social and economic consequences to migrants after settling in Greece; acculturation or marginalization of migrants; and migrants' health, family status, occupations, and employment status. Also considered was the impact of migrants on the Greek culture and socio-economic system, the duration of their stay in Greece and reasons for migration to other countries.

Pirozhkov, Malinovs'ka & Marchenko examined various aspects of migration in Ukraine. They included the socio-economic and demographic characteristics of families involved in migration, trends in international migration, a survey of historical trends in migration, current migration trends, emigrant and immigrant characteristics, and the determinants of migration.

Faragó, Tamás (1998)[101] had briefly reviewed migration trends in Hungary during the eighteenth century. Aspects considered include dimensions and directions of migration, regional differences, places of origin and destination of migrants, types of migration, motivation, and forced migrations.

1.16 Study Area

The study area, the district of Malda is included within the Jalpaiguri division in the state of West Bengal, India (Figure 1.4) and is the southernmost part of the north Bengal districts. This district is situated between 24° 40' 20" and 25° 32' 08" north latitudes and 87° 45' 50" and 88° 28' 10" east longitudes (Figure 1.5). The district occupies an area of 3,733 sq km and supports 26,37,032 persons (males 51.6% and females 48.4%) (According to the 1991 census) living in 1,641 inhabited villages out of 1,801 villages and four towns with an average density of 706 persons per sq km. The sex ratio is 938 females per 1,000 males. There is 6.5 per cent of the total population as scheduled tribes, which is higher than the state average (5.59%). This district covers some 4.21 per cent of the area and holds 3.88 per cent of the
LOCATION MAP OF MALDA DISTRICT
Figure 1.5

MALDA DISTRICT
Administrative
2003

References

- International boundary
- State boundary
- District boundary
- Block boundary
- Municipality
- District headquarters
- Block headquarters

Source: NATMO Map
population of the state of West Bengal according to 1991 census. About 92.93 per cent population of Malda district is rural while 7.07 per cent are urbanites. The percentage of rural population is the highest among all the districts of West Bengal. The district comprises two sub-division, 11 police stations and 15 community development blocks. English Bazar is the district headquarters. The district took its names from the town of Malda. The word Mal in Arabic means wealth that probably signifies prosperity of trade. At present, English Bazar is popularly known as Malda, and Malda town of the early days is now known as Old Malda.

Many environmental problems, including elimination of tropical forests, desertification and damages to the biodiversity are most clearly evident in the district as one common in the third world countries. While rapid population growth is often considered an important factor in environmental degradation, solid empirical evidence on its role is almost nonexistent. Understanding the effects of population on the environment requires careful consideration of the full range of factors responsible for environmental deterioration and how they interact with demographic factors. By environment, we basically refer to the geographical environment. The land, the oceans and the atmosphere i.e. the earth, and its biosphere, account for the total ecosystem. The geographical environment is not independent; it is constantly affected by socio-economic factors, human activities, and technology. This environment is complex, dynamic, continuously changing in a developing system. Hence, migration of people from certain natural environment to other new environment involves complex modes of adoption, moulding, and changes, especially in pioneering settlements or frontier zones, plantation, mines and forests. Population pressure in the place of origin acts as one of the causes of out-migration, and evidently, immigration into new areas also leads to new addition to already existing pressure of population. Notwithstanding that, migration mainly occurs due to marked regional disparities; and these spatial and social disparities must be reduced in order to slow down either migration flow or consequent environmental deterioration. Most studies on migration link
population factors and those of the environment focus to analyze the impact of population growth on resource use. Population movements also affect, and are affected by the natural environment.

The nature of the relationship between migration and the environment varies greatly across the developing countries, as they differ in natural resources, climate, and level of development, government policies, social institution and customs. It has also been observed that rural population growth results in increasing land fragmentation, rural under employment and out migration. The question is what impact do these trends have on the environment? The major forms of environmental deterioration associated with population growth and urbanization include deforestation, soil degradation, watershed destruction and urban encroachment on prime agricultural land. Increasing numbers of people and animals and the expansion of agriculture exert stress on rangelands. The development of new water resources alters nomadic pattern. Deforestation has also become a serious problem, because energy demands for wood and charcoal have increased and land has been cleared for agriculture and settlement. The decline in tree and bush cover have further reduced soil productivity and promoted erosion.

There is very little research directly linking migration to environmental degradation. In the district of Malda, forest and scrubs used to cover the whole of the Barind region. But the arrival of the tribal people from the neighbouring districts to Malda caused deforestation and finally changed the area into an agricultural land. Subsequently this district has became a populous area although low rainfall and drought have become common phenomena.

1.17 Limitation of the Work

In any research work the investigation has to face some problems. The present study also has been constrained in various occasions and at various point of time particularly by the whims of man. The following is a brief of
lapses, which could not have been overcome despite the best intention of this investigator.

1. The area selected for the present study comes under the restricted area as declared by the Government of India. The restriction is due to the nearness of the study area to the international boundary with Bangladesh (Figure 1.6). The researcher was compelled to furnish his findings on the basis of topographical maps of 1:63,360, as maps of 1:50,000 scale have not been published by Survey of India. As a result much of the survey was conducted by him on the field.

2. The tribal villages are situated in the remote inaccessible areas due to which it took long a time to study in the field and to check field data.

3. Political instability in the district during the period of field work and an atmosphere of all round tension and suspicion further put off the prospect of undertaking extensive field work in the interior parts of the study area.

4. There were practically no co-operation available from the various Government Departments during the pre-field and the field sessions.

5. There is no village-wise record of tribal migration in 1991 census. Thus, the work has been unintentionally hindered in targeting the exact population size of the study area.

6. The frequent mobility of the tribal migrants was responsible for the change in number, space, time lag associated with migration.

7. During the survey, researcher came across the following two situations:

A. The individual occupying the selected unit at the time of survey had migrated into other parts of the village.

B. The listed household had moved to some other villages within the same block.

In these cases researcher had tried to find out whether any individual by the particular name appearing in the list had ever lived in that house or in other villages if he had lived and moved out of the house to occupy some other
presidence within the village. The researchers searched out the particular household at the new address and interviewed the head of the family.

1.18 The Need for this Study

In a country like India where three fourth of the entire population live in rural areas, rural to rural, rural to urban shifts dominate all other forms of migration. Every year there is huge exodus of people from the villages of Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, Madhya Pradesh, Jharkand and Orissa to metropolises in search of job and means of livelihood. Malda is being one of the most backward districts of West Bengal with 92 per cent of its population still living in rural area. A study on migration is bound to throw light on some unknown aspects of tribal migration. Moreover, Malda is one of the less studied district of the state of West Bengal and, in a way, of the country.

The real cause and consequence of tribal migration in India, as a matter of fact, has not been adequately studied. It was, therefore, felt that this study should be undertaken in order to have a better understanding of the process of tribal migration and help the planning process of the State to be more field based and authentic.