CHAPTER - II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE
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- The work of Connell et al (1976)\(^1\) the earliest of the studies in migration contains a detailed discussion on women’s migration. Fernandex-kelly (1983) and Khoo (1984) concentrate on women and work both migrant and non-migrant in the world’s labour force. They discuss the problem in the wider context of problem of feminization of the workforce, de-skilling and devaluation of manufacturing work.

- Caste-kinship bonds and other kinds of village networks help rural job seekers to arrange such urban-based jobs (Banerjee, 1986).\(^2\) In the face of a high natural growth of population, rural-urban migration aggravates the situation of excess supplies of labour in the urban areas. Within the urban informal sector this tends to reduce the level of earnings and get manifested in a high incidence of urban poverty. Thus in the process rural poverty gets transformed into urban poverty – the phenomenon is also described as ‘urbanization of poverty’.

- Until the late eighties, it was observed that households with medium – to large – sized land holdings, with some investment in irrigation, did not have to move out of dry land regions for subsistence purposes (NIRD, 2000).\(^3\) Migration for such relatively wealthy households was mainly for ‘better prospects’ rather than a distress move’.

- Since the 1980s, however, feminist and gender perspective has been intensively incorporated into migrations studies (e.g., fawcels, khoo and smith, 1984 chant ed 1992).

A strong objection is raised that the male bias and female self-perception of their gender role have led to undervaluation of women’s role as workers (Singh 1984; Karlekar 1995). Singh (1984)\(^4\) refuted the assumption that female migration was solely a result of social and cultural practice.

The significance of employment prospect as a determining factor of female migration even in associational migration has been discussed by many micro studies (Sharma, 1986, Kasturi, 1990\(^5\); Neetha, 2004\(^6\), Chattopadhyay, 2005, Kaur, 2006). Macro data also evidences that work participation rates of migrant women in the largest cities was higher than non-migrant women as per 1971 census data (Singh, 1984). However, there are broad regional variations among the female migrants work participation rates, reflecting differences in social cultural norms practices related to gender roles embedded in the sending societies of migrants.

The differences in work participation rates are also observed along the line of religion and caste group of migrants. On the basis of a large sample survey in Bihar, Kerala and Uttar Pradesh, Oberai, Prasad and Sardana (1989)\(^7\) reports in all the urban areas of the three states, female migrants work participation rate are generally higher among christians and scheduled castes/Tribe whether married or un married.

Gender and generation may play a crucial role in migration decision – making and selectivity (Chant, 1992 and in this issue). For example women (either mothers and daughters) are more likely to feel responsible for the well being of other household members than their male counterparts and this may be an important factor in migration decisions especially when women’s employment opportunities in home areas are limited. Migration can also provide an escape from social and family constraints and give women a level of independence they may not easily have access to in their home areas (Gadio and Rakowski, 1995).

In the 1950s and 1960s small towns were generally seen as playing a positive role in development as the centre’s from which innovation and modernization would trickle down to the rural populations. A more recent and highly influential contribution to this positive view was the development of the concept of “Urban functions in rural development” (Rondinelli and Ruddle 1978; Belsky and Karaska, 1990) for which the most effective and rational spatial strategy for promoting rural development is to develop a well – articulated, integrated and balanced urban hierarchy.

It has been widely observed that the propensity to migrate increases with education (Connell ef. al., 1976, Banerjee, 1986) Banerjee’s study (1986) on the inter –state migrants in the sample was many times higher than that among the population from which they originated (in this case, Punjab, Rajasthan and UP).

In India, though rural – urban migration has been found to be modest (accounting for around 30 percent of the total urban growth) in the context of urban poverty, urban slums and informal sector employment a great deal has been talked in reference to rural-urban population mobility.

Around two fifth of the total urban growth in the third world is accounted by the rural-to-urban migration (Gugler, 1988). The process can be identified as ‘over-urbanization’ as long as.

(i) rural-urban migration leads to a misallocation of labour between rural and urban sectors in the sense that its raises urban unemployment, under employment and poverty, and

(ii) rural-urban migration increase the social cost for providing for a country’s growing population (Gugler, 1988)\(^\text{11}\)

Kaur (1996)\(^\text{13}\) has analysed spatial pattern of male rural to urban migration based on district-wise data of 1971 census. She has classified the districts into three categories, i.e., areas with relatively high proportion of rural-urban male migrants among total urban male population (24 percent and above), areas with moderate proportion (16 to 24 percent) and areas with relatively low proportion (below 16 percent). The distribution of 356 districts according to the above classification was 24.4 percent, 36.0 percent and 35.7 percent respectively.

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The regions having districts with high rural-to-urban male migration areas were described as those witnessed rapid development of mining. Industrial activities, service sectors, considerable colonization and rapid expansion of administrative and security machinery were due to new political and strategic importance accordance to the areas.

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- Some studies have shown that high and middle – income households constitute a significant and growing proportion of urban farmers, who often engage in the activity for commercial purposes, consequently, in several cases, the poorest groups (often including newly arrived migrants) are excluded from access to land as a result of both formal and informal gate-keeping processes in the city (Mbiba, 1995; Mlozi ef al., 1992)\textsuperscript{15}.

- In Tropical Africa analysis focused on migrants coming in search of jobs that offered wages and working conditions regulated by legislation and collective bargaining. They would spend several months trying to secure such a job, but if unsuccessful, eventually return to the village. Hutton (1973) found a clearly established pattern in the middle 1960s.

Of the unemployed men she interviewed, three-quarters planned to leave if they could not find work, typically within less than six months. More than three-quarters of these intended to return to their rural home. Going home, however, was only a temporary measure. Only 11% of the unemployment surveyed felt that they would stay there.

- The paper by Lall, Selod and Shalizi (2006)\textsuperscript{16} synthesizes the current state of knowledge concerning internal migration in developing countries. They provide a policy-oriented survey of the research carried out on internal migration in developing countries over the past five decades. Some of the questions around which they summarize the findings relate to how internal migrants behave at different stages of the migration process, how to internal migrants behave at different stage of the migration process, how do migrants prepare for migration, how do they migrate, what are the difficulties they face on arriving in urban areas and what links do they maintain with rural areas.

- According to R.D. Maurya and Gadkar (2006) recognized researchers on migration at the Ambedkar institute of social Research, MGNREGS has reduced migration by 15- 20 percent in some villages of mandla. Jhabua, Dhar and Dindori .Field level observations shows that this reduction is seen especially in the case of women and families with more than one or two male adult workers who stay behind in the expectation that they will get work locally. The scheme has improved the bargaining power of migrants by tightening the labour market and pushing up wages.

In 1962, Sjaastad developed a human capital model of migration. He suggested that the migration added to human capital formation. He assumed that people would migrate when benefit from migration outweighed the migration costs. Benefits of migration were measured in terms of potential income gains due to migration and benefits arising from location preferences. Cost of the migrations included, transport cost to move from one place to another, opportunity cost of foregone earning between jobs, psychological cost in the form of separation involved in leaving one’s native place and settling down in an unfamiliar environment.

- In the rural areas, sluggish agricultural growth and limited development of the rural non-farm sector raises the incidence of rural poverty, unemployment and underemployment. Given the fact that most of the high productivity activities are located in the urban areas, the rural-urban income differentials, particularly for the poor and unemployed, are enormous. Thus many of them migrate to the urban areas in search of Jobs. Even when jobs in the high productivity activities are limited in number relative to the supply, and after they are not accessible, population still flows to the urban areas in search of opportunities in the informal sector.

Lewis-Fei-Ranis model of development devised in 1961, was extended form of the process of rural-urban labour transfer developed by Arthu Lewis in 1954\(^{19}\). They developed the model on the basis of two sectors-traditional rural subsistence sector and a high productivity modern urban industrial sector. They assumed that urban industrial sector earnings should be minimum 30 per cent higher than average rural earnings. They argued that capitalists in urban industrial sector would reinvest all the profits leading to an increase in the capital stock in the modern sector. This would increase the labour demand until all surplus rural labour was absorbed in the urban industrial sector.

The study by Yeshwant (1962)\(^{20}\) based on a rural survey revealed that small cultivators and agricultural labourers were more likely to migrate. Low caste people migrated to improve their economics and social position. However, most socially backward communities showed less migratory tendencies than others.

The Kunj Patel’s study (1963)\(^{21}\) on rural labour in Bombay City. This study shows that acute poverty in villages and a slightly better-off condition of migrants rural condition encouraged migration to Bombay for employment. Moreover, the rural households benefited economically due to migration and the remittances helped the rural households in improving their agricultural operations to some extent.


\(^{20}\) T.S. Yeswant, “Rural-Migration – A case Study in Four Ramanathapuram Villages”, Agricultural Situation in India, Vol.27, No.6, September, 1962, pp.665-663.

Roberts (1981)\textsuperscript{22} has analyzed the relation between agricultural development and migration in rural Mexico. The analysis showed the differential relation between the agricultural development and rural out-migration.

Nijam Khan (1986)\textsuperscript{23} examined the characteristics of rural out-migrants, migrants and non-migrants and the pattern of movement with the help of her survey date of twenty villages in Uttar Pradesh. The analysis of the socio-economic conditions of villages showed that, predominantly scheduled caste villages and villages with very poor economic conditions were found to be chronically out-migrating. Analysis proved that there was a direct relationship between volume of migrations and population heterogeneity. It was found that caste, education and occupation had linear relationship to migration.\textsuperscript{24}

Ramesh Chandra Choudhary’s (1991) study on Migration of Rural Labour was based on his rural survey of six villages of the district of Samastipur in 1991\textsuperscript{25}. This study revealed that the landless agricultural labourers and socially, economically backward class people has more migratory tendency than others.

Literature on migration both from the place of origin and place of destination takes into account the common demographic characteristics like age, education and marital status of the migrant. Regarding the causes of migration the studies present

\textsuperscript{22} Kenneth D. Roberts, Agrarian Structure and Labour Migration in Rural Mexico, Working papers in U.S.-Mexican Studies, 30, University of California, San Diego, 1981.

\textsuperscript{23} P. Yousuf, Interrelation Between Poverty, Unemployment and Migration Unpublished Doctoral Thesis, Maharaja Sayirjiao University, Barodo, 1983.


different view. A few studies show that people economically well placed were more migratory than others. But majority of the studies show that only socially and economically weaker sections move from their native places to other areas, especially to urban areas. Almost all the studies have supported the view that employment motive was the main cause for migration.  

- Bangne (1969) and others have developed push and pull theory to give a better explanation of causes of migration. According to Bangne, opportunity to improve one’s lot in life then it constitutes ‘pull’ of the destination but when migration occurs in order to escape from undesirable social and economic situations it constitutes expulsive ‘push’ of the place of origin.

- Das Gupta (1984) emphasized that for the better understanding of effects of rural-urban migration on agricultural production, a distinction must be made between the immediate effects due to the departure of the workers and the long term effects due to the changes in the system of production.

- In the case study of Ahmadabad, Papola (1979) observed that migrants did initially enter the informal sector, but many of them graduated to the formal sector over a passage of time.

- According to Dr. Adiseshiah showing down of urbanization rate in India during 80’s was due to rigidities which were coming up specifically in context of the declining rural-urban migration.

Roa\textsuperscript{31} focused on the adverse effects of rural-urban migration on rural as well as urban areas. He pointed but that due to movement in large numbers of people from rural areas while on one hand villages were deprived of young talents, a working force which might be needed for rural development on another hand an economic strain was exerted upon the city to provide advanced educational facilities and subsequent employment opportunities.

According to George\textsuperscript{32}, “The decision to migrate is nearly always a difficult one. It is hard to balance objectively both the effect of leaving the present residence and expected advantages of a new home.

According to Toshio Kuroda\textsuperscript{33}, “Uneven distribution of economic activity, the level among regions and regional reproductive differentials of Population tend to accelerate migratory movement”.

Majudar\textsuperscript{34} listed the following causes of migration: Insufficiency of cultivable land. Disputes in family. Presence of friends and relatives which might help the migrants to get a job, ruination of the hereditary occupation and loss of business, the attraction of city life, the absence of employment opportunities commensurate with their education in their native place, the desire for investments, official transfer, search for employment, political reasons and accompanying other elderly migrants.

\textsuperscript{34} Majudar, D.N., Social contours of an Industrial City, Asia Publishing House Bombay, 1960.
The studies of Stolt Men\textsuperscript{35}, Saxena\textsuperscript{36}, Simic\textsuperscript{37}, Bhargava\textsuperscript{38} and Bose\textsuperscript{39} observed that natural calamities like drought and flood caused large scale migration from villages to urban centers.

Jain and Lucas\textsuperscript{40} documented that in societies like India, Traditional social factors and usually hereditary occupational background of individuals play an important role in determining economic opportunities and migration.

Comparisons of rural and urban incomes are notoriously problematic. The usual basis is some index of urban wage rates and a crude index of agriculture incomes, such as the prices fetched by cash crops. These measures provide an indication of sudden shifts in urban or rural incomes\textsuperscript{41}.

Shaw’s (1979: P 74-105)\textsuperscript{42} analysis of rural out-migration within and among Latin-American countries. Variations in the system of land tenure are significantly related to the rate of rural out-migration from different provinces in both Chile and Peru. Comparing sixteen countries, Shaw shows further that it is not absolute population pressure, but access of labour to land, as mediated by land ownership that affects rural out-migration.

41. Lipton (1977: 146-153,430-440) provides data on rural-urban differentials in wages, incomes and expenditures for nineteen developing countries and discusses the shortcomings of such data.
42. Shaw (1975): for a comprehensive bibliography of recent literature on labour migration in Latin America, Lowder (1979).
Young adults predominate where migration in search of employment is concerned. They are usually unmarried, but even when married have less at stake in the rural areas than their elders. They frequently lack control over resources, land in particular, and wield little power in local affair. To put it into universal terms, they are at a transitional stage between adolescence and adulthood and not yet firmly committed to an adult role in the local setting.

Young Latin women thus are potentially mobile independent of a spouse. Faced with limited rural opportunities, they turn to the cities where many households can afford to offer them the low pay and limited benefits that go with domestic service. There may be a second flow of independent women those who have brought their children up and join the young family household of a son or a daughter in the city-to resume a role of housekeeping and childrearing.

The preponderance of men over women in rural-urban migration in most of Asia, in Africa, and in Oceania reflects a widespread tendency for male migrants to leave wife and children in their rural area of origin. If the Industrial Revolution engendered the distinction of home and workplace, the separation of worker and dependents has been drastically magnified for many third world families.

While studying the determinants of migration Stone find out the majority of the males migrated from Britain to South Africa in search of better employment opportunities.

Singh\textsuperscript{47} observed that majority of the rural people migrated to towns because of adverse agricultural conditions, unemployment or underemployment and over population in the rural areas.

Bhatt and Chawla\textsuperscript{48} find out that a great majority of the migrants in Ahmadabad city slums left their villages due to unemployment, drought and famine conditions.

Singh and Yadava\textsuperscript{49} and Dhesi\textsuperscript{50} have areas is causing that unemployment in the rural areas is causing rural-urban migration in a significant way.