2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter is devoted to a review of the literature related to the present study. For any research, a review of the past studies related to the subject is useful in several ways. It helps in defining concepts and operational definitions, in formulating testable hypotheses, specifying test condition choice of analytical tools as empirical models and in evaluating the findings of the research in the light of the results of earlier studies so as to explain the differences if any.

2.2 REVIEW OF LITERATURE

A review of earlier studies on issues related to the research problem undertaken is attempted here.

The first comprehensive model of development to give consideration atleast implicitly, to the process of rural –urban labour transfer, was the one
developed by Lewis\(^9\) and later extended by Ranis and Fei\(^10\). The combined structure is known as the L-F-R model. This particular model considers migration as an equilibrating mechanism which through the transfer of labour from labour–surplus sector to labour–deficit sector brings about equality between two sectors. The model being based on a concept of dual economy, comprising subsistence agricultural sector, characterized by unemployment and underemployment and a modern industrial sector, characterized by full–employment, where “capitalists” reinvest the full amount of their profit. In the subsistence sector, the marginal productivity of labour is zero, or very low and workers are paid wages which equals their cost of subsistence.

In this dual economy, migration, from the subsistence sector to industrial sector, increases the industrial production as well as capitalists’ profits, and therefore this profit is fully reinvested in the industrial sector, which further increases the demand for labour from the subsistence sector. This process continues as long as the ‘reserve army’ of the disguise unemployed whose supply


to the urban industrial sector is assumed to be elastic at the given urban wage. It might continue indefinitely if the growth rate of population in the rural sector is higher or equal to the rate of labour outstrips the growth rate of the population in the rural areas.

This theory has been criticized by many researchers on various grounds. Firstly, migration is not induced solely by unemployment and underemployment in the rural areas, although that seems to be most important factor in the decision to migrate. Secondly assumption of high rate of expansion of capitalist sector, which is expected to withdraw the disguised employed from the subsistence sector, seems to be invalid for the developing countries, as the rate of growth of the modern industrial sector has been lately too low.

Sjaastad\textsuperscript{11} developed the human capital model of migration. He suggested that migration added to human capital formation. He assumed that people would migrate when benefits 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 migration 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.

Todaro\textsuperscript{12} has presented a human investment theory of migration which treats the decision to migrate as an investment decision involving costs and returns distributed over time. The returns are divided into money and non-money components. Non-money returns include changes in “psychic benefits” as a result of vocational preferences. Similarly, costs include both money and non-money costs, such as costs of transports and wages foregone while in transit, of disposal of movable and immovable property necessitated by a shift in residence. The psychic costs include leaving of familiar surroundings, giving up of one’s language and culture. Although, he has taken into account money cost and non-psychic benefits, what he assumes is that in deciding to move, migrants tend to maximize the net real life span incomes and they at least have a rough idea of what their life–span income streams would be in the present place of residence as well as in destination area and of the costs involved in migration. However, researchers in

the developing countries have noted that high urban unemployment rates mean that migrant needs to include in his decision to migrate, by assessing his chances of getting an urban job. A model that takes this explicitly into account is the one provided by Todaro.

Arthur Lewis formulated a simple two sector model of the economics of labour transfer between the subsistence rural sector and the modern urban industrial sector which was later extended by Ranis and John Fei (Ranis and John Fei). According to the Lewis-Fei-Ranis Model, the marginal productivity of labour in the subsistence sector was zero or very low, while workers in the urban sector were paid highly. With such differences in wage rates, migration takes place, from the subsistence to the productive industrial sector. This increases industrial production as well as the entrepreneur’s profit. Since this profit is assumed to be reinvested in the industrial sector, it further increases the demand for labour from the subsistence sector. The process continues as long as surplus labour exists in the rural areas. It might continue indefinitely if the rate of population growth in the rural sector is greater than or equal to the rate of labour out-

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migration, but it must end eventually if the rate of growth of demand for labour in
the urban area exceeds rural population growth.

Building on Ravenstein’s theory Everett S. Lee\textsuperscript{14} developed a “General
Scheme into which a variety of spatial movements can be placed”. The author
divided the forces exerting an influence on migrant perceptions into ‘Push’ and
‘Pull’ factors. The former were ‘Negative’ factors tending to force migrants to
leave the place of origin, while the later were “positive” factors attracting
migrants to destination areas in the expectation of improving their lot. Lee
hypothesized that factors associated with origin were conditions which would be
more important that those associated with destination areas. These forces
associated with the area of origin and destination were governed by personal
factors ‘which effects the individual thresholds and facilitate or retard migration”.
Lee’s approach is reflected in a broad range of studies, particularly sociological
studies dealing with migrant selectivity.

Todaro\textsuperscript{15} suggests that the decision to migrate includes the perception by potential migrant of an ‘expected’ stream of income which is a function of both the prevailing urban wage structure and a subjective probability of obtaining employment in the urban modern sector. Todaro’s basic model and its later extensions consider the urban labour force as distributed between the relatively small modern sector and traditional sector. The wage rates in the traditional sector are not subject to the same set of forces which maintain them at high levels in the modern sector, but are determined competitively. As a result of lower wage rates and the temporary nature of employment in the traditional sector, earnings in this sector are substantially lower than those in the modern sector.

In this context, Todaro portrays rural – urban migration as a two-stage process. In the first stage, the migrant arrives in the urban area and in many cases, remains either unemployed or employed in the traditional sector, while hunting for a modern sector job in the second stage, he often succeeds that all potential migrants have equal information about the urban labour market as well as equal access to the urban jobs.

But a major weakness in his model challenged by other researchers is of the assumption that potential migrants are homogenous in respect of skills and attitudes and that they have complete information for working out the probability of finding a job in the urban modern sector.

Todaro points out that although the Lewis-Fei-Ranis model of development is both simple and roughly in conformity with the historical experience of economic growth in the west, it has the assumptions which are sharply at variance with the realization of underdevelopment in most third world countries. The migration models consider the rural–urban wage difference as the key determinant of rural - urban migration. This was perhaps true of the migration that took place in the industrialized countries in the past. But today, in the urban areas especially in the developing countries the problem of unemployment has almost stippled the economy. Thus, a prospective migrant who leaves the rural areas to obtain a better employment opportunity in the urban economy faces the risk of not getting an urban job and at the same time losing his old rural employment. Hence, a rational migrant should take into account, besides the
wage difference and the future prospects, the probability of getting the urban job.

Paul Singer\textsuperscript{16} has explained that development is first of all the difference between the developed and the not developed countries. Such differences are essentially qualitative although their entire effects may be listed and quantified. The basic difference between capitalist industrialized countries and countries which are not industrialized and which have half capitalist economy is structural. It cannot be overcome by economic growth, seen as a merely quantitative charge. An undeveloped country may grow economically and become ever less developed than before. Development does not occasion significant international migration because it is and has been until now an essentially national process of structural charge. Industrialization produced by development is not conditioned upon international integration, but it strives to charge the international division of labour by relying primarily on the domestic market. The possibility that development can bring about international migration should not, therefore, be ruled out. But we know of no actual experience yet.

Ravenstein\textsuperscript{17} developed the law of migration; on the basis of it Lee developed the theory of internal migration in 1966. The theory mainly argued about pull and push factors in migration. He concluded that migration took place on the basis of positive and negative factors in the place of origin and at the place of destination. Intervening obstacles made people move from place of origin to the place of destination, in which personal factors were also counted. The main limitation of this theory was its high degree of generality.

Now let us consider some theoretical underpinnings. Though sustained migration occurred in the post–industrial revolution era, systematic attempts to understand the process started only later. The origin was a little more than a century ago, when Ravenstein made a pioneering attempt. Based on an analysis of 1881 British Census and subsequently drawing data from more than 20 countries, he came to observe that migrants largely move from areas of low opportunity to areas of high opportunity and migration gets accelerated with growth of transport, communication, trade and industries. Further, Ravenstein

observes that each stream of rural –urban migration produces a counter stream of urban –rural migration, although the former tends to dominate the latter.

Amitash Kundu\(^\text{18}\) in his paper explains that the migration pattern over the part two census decades shows significant changes, the most important of which is the declining rate of migration over time in both rural and urban areas – more sharply for males than for females. While accepting the fact that mass development programmes may amount for this trend to some extent, the decreasing mobility of both the rural as well as urban population poses a major challenge for development strategies. In an attempt to look at the population mobility in the context of development dynamics, this paper considers the interstate variation in the incidence of migrants in general and interstate migrants in particular, the growing immobility is also examined in relation to the process of accentuation of regional imbalances.

Biswajt Banerjee\textsuperscript{19} has examined the causes and consequences of rural-urban migration on the urban labour market. The study is based on the survey data of 1600 respondents conducted in 1975-76 in Delhi. The concept of this study was that the worsening of the situation in the rural areas was a valid reason for migration. But the main cause for migration was the desire to earn money, to repay debt, or the potential migrants need not be physically present in urban center. Urban based contracts have played a major role in passing information on job opportunity to the rural potential migrant. Further it shows that migrants did not remain unemployed for considerable periods on arrival in Delhi, and majority of the migrants arrived with pre-arranged jobs. Majority of the migrants entered into informal sector employment.

Mehta\textsuperscript{20} examined the socio-economic aspect of migration in Kanpur city, with the help of primary data collected from 1500 households (1000 migrant and 500 non-migrant households). The data analysis shows that three forth of the in migrants were rural out migrants.


Among the various causes for migration, incidence of poverty in rural areas was the first cause followed by inadequate days of employment. Most of the migrants migrated with an aim to get jobs in factories, followed by jobs in government department and in the informal sector. The analysis on source of information for migration shows that the dominant role was that of informal source. Generally earnings of the migrants had improved after migration. A sizeable proportion of the labour migrants (21 percent) households were improved after migration. The analysis of economic impact of migration shows that migration improved the economic status in migrants’ native village. The remittances were mainly used to educate the children of the farley to perform marriage of blood relatives, for purchasing durable goods and clearing debts.

Tiwari\textsuperscript{21} analyzed the main cause of migration among the migrant workers based on a survey of Kanpur City. It was found that among the migrants, majority of them migrated from rural area to the urban centre. This study shows that rural push makes possibility of getting determinants of rural-urban migration rather than the urban pull factors. The analysis on job search and information flow

shows that the migrant got information about jobs through their friends and relatives. Moreover, due to migration the majority of the migrants benefited economically.

Human capital in terms of education, skills, knowledge, age and health determines access to economic opportunities. Individual human capital therefore has long been seen as a key determinant of migration probability, and there is a significant amount of evidence indicating that those with better education and skills have a comparative advantage in labour markets. This suggests that the better off are likely to be represented disproportionately highly in migration streams. However, educational attainment may be of limited significance in migration decisions where other assets are important. The study of sites in Bangladesh, Ethiopia and Mali by de Haan et.al., found that differences between migrants and non-migrants in terms of education were limited, whereas differences in migration propensities could be explained by physical asset holdings. Somewhat surprisingly, given the likelihood that costs of international migration exceed costs of internal migration. Adams'\textsuperscript{22} regression analysis of male

international migration from Egypt indicated that the effect on migration (as most migrants worked in unskilled employment), was overwhelmed by the impact of landlessness combined with agricultural employment which ‘pushed’ people abroad.

Narayanan\textsuperscript{23} study shows that the true inter-regional migrations of worker in India is a continuous process in time and space. However, inter-regional migration is often characterized in India by discrete process in time and space due to lack of continuous data on migration. An obvious drawback of discrete migration data is that it conceals all information and implications relating to the actual spacio temporal process of inter-regional migration. This paper contributes in developing a sample dynamic migration model for the purpose of estimating the spacio-temporal continuity of migration process. Also this paper estimates the dynamic model by standard econometric techniques and obtain the continuous path of migrations for selected years by the technique of econometric analysis.

Portes\textsuperscript{24} has observed that the migrants are viewed not only as individuals carrying their personal skills, but also as members of groups and participants in broader social structures that affect in multiple ways their economic mobility. Migrant networks are sets of interpersonal ties that connect migrants, former migrants and non migrants in origin and destination areas through ties of kinship, friendship, and share community origin. They increase the likelihood of internal movement because they lower the cost and risk of moving and increase the expected net returns to migrate.

Domestic and familial responsibilities as well as traditional divisions of labour limit migration opportunities for women, particularly in sub-Saharan Africa. For example, Hampshire found that Fulani women have inequitable access to migration networks used by men. Furthermore, relatively low levels of education and lower wages at destination discourage female migration in Kenya. Francis\textsuperscript{25} found that the impact of widespread male labour migration can lead to long term disempowerment of women who become dependent on men for cash,


as evidenced in Bihar in India as well as parts of eastern and southern Africa. Lucas\textsuperscript{26} states that in other regions such as Latin America, and countries like the Philippines, the majority of rural–urban migrants are women, possibly because daughters send more remittances than sons.

Gulati\textsuperscript{27} explains that there is considerable scope for alleviating the problems women working overseas face by appropriate policy interventions by government and meaningful community efforts. Once it is acknowledged that a large number of women national working aboard could be facing problems, the question to be asked is whether women in some occupation are more vulnerable and exposed to exploitations than in other occupations. For women in domestic service or entertainment industry, international attention is necessary on a priority basis. The problem of domestic and entertainment workers are illegally hired and whose employment is sought to be hidden from local authorities. It is a violation of law by the employer and has to be dealt with accordingly by such countries. The important thing to ensure internationally is that the overseas


domestic on entertainment worker is given due protection from being falsely implicated such violations. And whatever internationalization can help in this regard, it must strive for.

Singh’s study shows that about 30 per cent of Indian population are migrants based on place of birth and place of residence concepts adopted in Indian census. The differences in level of migrants are very little. The level of migration from 1961-1991 shows decline by about 5 per cent. The differences between two migration concepts are mainly observed in inter district migrants which probably suffers due to instruction given to enumeration regarding inclusion of children born at hospitals to be treated as migrants. The streams in migration data indicate decline in percentage of migrants in 1981-1991. The movement in recent years has reduced in 1991 compared to 1981. A detailed analysis of changing pattern needs to be undertaken to explain emerging pattern by migration stream. Economic factor among females remains as main factor behind their movement. About one per cent of male and less than half per cent of

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female moved due to natural calamities factors such as floods, droughts and so on.

Santhapparaj’s study reviews the general characteristics of rural – urban migration. The study confirms that the migrant migrates from the rural subsistence sector to the urban areas and is mostly employed in the urban subsistence sector. Among the various push and pull factors of migration the economic factor is the important one in determining the migrations process. However to take to macro level decision and initiate policy to channeling the migration in order to get maximum benefit without causing any social evil is a more intensive study of this area required. However, this study emphasizes the need for effective land distribution policy and an increase in the real income of the rural subsistence sector to avoid rural exodus and its related problem in the urban areas. It has been observed that remittances from the migrants do not have any significant influence on the rural economy except that they help migrant households in meeting their basic needs. Hence more micro level studies are

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required before going for a clear idea about issues such as internal rural out-migration and promotions rural development through remittance.

Chanhan\(^{30}\) has explained that rural to urban migration has been declining in Andhra Pradesh over the last few years because of the formation of new town. In the case of rural to urban migration, there is an increasing trend over time with male migrants dominating. Rural to urban migrants are more interdistrict and interstate than within districts. In inter-district migration, women dominate. Interdistrict migration into Hyderabad from adjoining district mainly due to the fact that it is the state capital. The number of international migrants in Andhra Pradesh is very small they are mostly from Pakistan, Nepal and human larger number of international migrants is in Hyderabad. The proportion of women who migrated for employment is very low both in urban and rural areas. Women’s migration to urban area for employment as well as marriage has increased. More migration is also due to family movement. Movement of population to the city is largely influenced by economic factors and that to villages, largely dominated by social reasons.

Zachasrich, et.al.,\textsuperscript{31} study shows that nearly 1.5 million people of Kerala now live outside India. They sold home more than Rs.4000 million a year by a way of remittances. More than a million families depend on internal migrant’s earnings for subsistence, children’s educations and other economic requirements. The paper also analyses the determinants and consequences of internal and external migration. It offers suggestions for policy formulations for the optimum utilization of remittances sent home by the contracts and the expertise brought back by the return migrants. Migrations in Kerala began with demographic expansion and contractions. The prevailing cultural minutes of Kerala in which its people believe that anything can be achieved though affectations and any rule can be circumvented with proper political connection, must change and be replaced by a liberalized open economy with strict and definite rules of the game.

According to Tunali\textsuperscript{32} theory, migration selection equations should be modeled as a function of the costs of migrating, relative wages between source


and destination, and factors determining the probability of finding work such as employment rates and individual educational attainment. Most evidence from macro-level migration equations show that average wages at destination have a positive effect on migration.

Subramanian and Balasubramanians\textsuperscript{33} study focuses on the trend, pattern, characteristics, reasons and effects of migrations in the cities of Tamilnadu, Chennai, Coimbatore, and Madurai. For the State as a whole intradistrict and interdistrict migrations is found to dominate. Interstate migration is found to be correlated with economic potential. The single largest reason for male migration is employment. Interestingly, female mobility for employment increased more than three times between 1981 and 1991. The authors conclude that migrant population has a positive impact on the local population: it adds to be economically active, educationally qualified and occupationally skilled population and is therefore a blessing and not a burden provided the human resource is hardened properly.

\textsuperscript{33} Subramanian K.P. and Balasubramanian, C.K. “Migration: Blessing or Budu: A Study of Tamilnadu and its Cities”, \textit{Urban India}, Vol.XX, (2), 2000, pp.91–120.
Rani and Shylendra brought out that seasonal migration of labour force from rural to urban areas in the third world countries had been observed in the last few decades, and was not a new phenomenon. In the nature took place was by way of seasonal migration to urban areas. The migration shifted temporarily the rural household’s dependence on livelihood from local to external and far off places. Such a migration was of circular character wherein the rural migrants did not settle permanently in cities but continued to maintain close link with their areas of origin, where they returned regularly and remitted substantial part of their income. Seasonal migration resulted in improving the land-man-ratio temporarily in the village. Migration was largely a result of both push and pull factors in the rural and urban areas. At the same time there also existed the harsh reality of migrants who worked and lied in inhuman conditions at the destinations where basic civil amenities did not exist for them which needs to be addressed. The intervention by the development agency led to a considerable change in the socio-economic conditions of the tribals.

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Shampa et.al., study clearly indicates that a western region has always been net gainer followed by the northern region, while the southern region has been the constant looser followed by Central and Eastern regions. The development approach adopted by the Indian society during the last fifty years has not been conducive for achieving a balanced regional distribution of population. On the other hand the losing regions will have lack of skilled manpower needed for the development. The brain drain would likely to hamp the growth of the economics of the region in new future. What is needed is a change in the policy of the government and other social bodies. Balanced regional growth approach should be given priority in the development plans of India. Liberalization policies and economic reforms are likely to continue. Hence, achieving optimal regional distribution of populations under globalization is a challenge for the Indian policy makers in the 21st century.

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Mukherjee\textsuperscript{36} observed that women in West Bengal who were engaged in saree and lungi weaving became idle as the sarees made by them could not compete with mill made sarees. When other migrants visited home, they requested them to take them to Delhi where getting job was relatively easier. Only women from the districts of West Bengal such as Nadia, Hooghly, Burdwan, Siliguri, Jaipaguri, Midnapore, the districts of 24 Parganas and others migrated to Alaknanda slum of South Delhi. Job opportunities for women in Delhi were higher, hence migration of women. With their low end skills such women got employed in the household sector as maids, cooks and ayahs work in the destination area, some part time and some full time. Some of them also found limited opportunities for nursing the sick and the aged, mainly in the household sector. The social bindings and social capital of mutual trust and goodwill amongst the migrant women were immense. They supported each other, lived as a group and also helped each other get jobs. They faced certain difficulty at Delhi as in a big city like Delhi, one could find as much work as necessary to earn a decent living for themselves and their families back home.

\textsuperscript{36} Mukherjee, N, “Perspective Migrant Women from West Bengal”, \textit{Economic and Political Weekly}, Vol. XXXVI, (26), 2001, pp.2337-2379.
Mukherjee\textsuperscript{37} studied the case of migrant women from Nadia, Hooghly, Burdwan Siliguri, Jalpaipuri and Midnapore districts of West Bengal. Many of the women migrants had left their families behind and had taken the hard decision of seeking livelihoods in alien surroundings and culture of posh Delhi and surroundings areas. He has found that most of the migrants were poor, they were mentally prepared to undergo a lot of discomfort and difficulties, which accompanied such migration. They were prepared to take risks in alien lands so as to make a living for their families.

Smith et.al.,\textsuperscript{38} find evidence for a concave relationship between wealth and livelihood diversification in Uganda where the ‘very poor’ (the landless and asset deprived) were unable to diversify, the ‘poor’ and ‘average’ pursue the most diverse livelihood strategies, and finally the ‘rich’ usually had a narrower livelihood range. Social capital is often cited as a significant determinant of population mobility, particularly due to ‘segmentation’ of migration streams between specific regions of origin and destination due to kinship and other

\textsuperscript{37} Neela Mukherjee, “Migrant women from West Bengal – ill-being and well being”, \textit{Economic and Political Weekly}, June 30, 2001, pp.2337-39.

networks. Social networks and affiliations with formal institutions such as trade unions and community based originations facilitate labour migration, for example by providing initial accommodation and employment at destination or information on employment opportunities facilitating job search.

Migration may be too risky an option for poor communities lacking developed social networks with migration destinations. Certain individuals and households living in traditional sending localities may be discriminated against because of issues of culture and identity such as gender, ethnicity, religion and caste, which may disable opportunities if migration is not seen to be socially or culturally acceptable. Certain cultural groups may lack access to migrant networks, where these develop within cultural boundaries. For example, among the Fulani ethnic group the Burkina Faso migration was traditionally restricted to the high status class, although the increase in migration propensity among low status households in recent decades has diminished such distinctions.

Skeldon\textsuperscript{39} study has examined a series of hypotheses based on evidences elsewhere on the relationship between migration and poverty. He found that

migration broadens the horizon of people’s access to sources and that remittance economy helps reduce poverty but also increases inequality. He has further argued that migration would involve both brain gains and brain drains and those who are the poorest do not migrate. He has acknowledged the fact that a clear relationship between volume and patterns of migration and poverty from the existing data does not allow a complete analysis. The present empirical base needs to be improved to facilitate rigorous testing of the causal relationship between migration and poverty. Finally, he argues that migration may be the root cause of poverty and unemployment as well as the result of poverty.

Kancs and Julda’s study brought out that migration movement on the Baltic States, and the determinants and consequences revealed that mostly unemployed labourers migrated from the Eastern Europe to Western Europe for finding employment. The author observed that 3-5 per cent of home countries working population might migrate after opening labour markets in European countries. The study found that labour migration is increasing in the destination

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countries, income relative to home countries, income and the stock of existing migrants from Baltic States.

A study conducted by Solanki\(^{41}\) on migration among the rural artisans in Roshtak and Nagaur districts during the year 1996-2006 reveals that most of the black smiths and carpenters migrate from rural to urban areas for better earnings, employment and leaving artisanal better trade. He has observed that over a certain period there has been little incidence of such migration. The study found that majority of the artisan was untrained and lack of awareness about market potential of their product.

Alternatively, migration may be the only option available to certain groups who are excluded from profitable work at origin. Mosse et al.\(^{42}\) study examine the opportunities and experiences of seasonal rural to urban migration among Scheduled Tribe populations in western India. Urban informal sector work is highly ‘ethnically’ differentiated; with tribes people limited to low pay, unskilled,


less secure work at destination. However, within the tribal group, the poor and better off have different experience of migration. Whereas migration among the better off is used to manage risk and build assets, migration is more common among poorer people and often leads to labour ‘bondage’ or sale of assets. The poorer are more likely to undertake long-term migration of entire households to settle debt accumulated at high interest rates for subsistence purposes. Because of this, migration often serves to increase intra-community inequality among Scheduled Tribe Communities.

Bhattacharya\textsuperscript{43} finds that states with a relatively high proportion of Scheduled Tribes in the population have higher rural to rural migration rates, whereas Scheduled Caste populations have the opposite effect on migration. He argues that Scheduled Tribes ‘are outside the Hindu caste system and therefore are not ‘ordained’ to specialize in certain specific occupations. Further, unlike Scheduled Castes who are dispersed geographically, STs are concentrated in certain areas within states and in which they usually have a sizeable presence and they may therefore feel freer to move within these areas than SCs do generally’.

Brahim Saber⁴⁴ in his working paper on employment effects of productivity improvement and migration of skilled workers reveals that the employment of unskilled labour effects on skilled labour productivity improvement, alternatively with and without skilled migration between two countries under the assumption that the level of unemployment benefits depends on the average income observed in each country. As a consequence, the wage for unskilled labour is linked to the wage for skilled labour. It is observed that, skilled productivity improvement of skilled labour. He has found that skilled workers wages and employment evolution in Europe over the past decades, Wages for all skill levels have risen steadily; over this period, and employment prospects of less skilled workers have been deteriorating. He has concluded that, rise of unemployment of unskilled workers can be attributed to the absence of emigration between European country because migration can improve employment.

However, as stressed by de Haan, the impact of poverty and vulnerability on migration incentives is context dependent, and evidence shows that there are significant differences within countries and regions. Rural out-migration is often perceived to be the result of poverty, particularly in the case of seasonal

migration, in which the poor migrate in search of alternative livelihoods in response to the deleterious effects of, for example, the dry season on agricultural production and livelihoods, impairing home production and increasing vulnerability.

Hampshire’s\textsuperscript{45} studies of Mali and Niger have found that in such conditions it is the most destitute who migrate seasonally, and the limited benefits are outweighed by loss of production and weakened social networks that result from out-migration. Research on the Fulani ethnic group in Burkina Faso’s Sahel Region takes a vulnerability approach to poverty measurement, using ownership of physical assets (cattle) through which household saving/dis-saving is mediated, and human assets (household size and number of adult men), and finds that inter-regional migration is more likely to occur among men from wealthier households. Those with limited assets are precluded from choosing migration as a livelihood strategy due to the substantial costs involved in migrating and the opportunity costs of labour.

They also experience lower economic returns because they have little or no access to more profitable activities during migration such as animal trading, and cannot afford to travel over a wide area or for long periods in order to maximize returns. Local livelihood diversification strategies are less costly in terms of assets, potentially less risky, and therefore more feasible for the poor. Hampshire notes that it is when the poor households are ‘forced’ to migrate through lack of alternatives that negative impact on sending households and communities occur.

It is extremely difficult to separate cause and effect when analyzing links between poverty and migration due to the impact that migration can have on improving or deteriorating welfare for migrants and non-migrants at destination and source over time. Poverty may induce people to migrate in order to improve their livelihoods but may in turn result in them becoming further impoverished and more vulnerable. Certain households or communities involved in migrant networks may derive long-term benefits that obscure causal relationships between initial wellbeing and mobility – e.g. De Haan, et.al.,46 documented that better –off households from one Malian village had profited from an extensive

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migrant network in neighboring Cote d'Ivoire. Migration has economic and social costs that require access to and control over resources. Kothari presents a useful analysis of how poor people’s migration choices are impaired by different forms of social exclusion, which result from inequitable access to different capital resources and institutions. These include economic assets (e.g. Land ownership, savings), human capital (e.g. education, skills, age), social capital (e.g. kinship networks), cultural capital (e.g. ethnicity, caste, gender, language), geography (e.g. natural environment, rural remoteness) and political capital (e.g. political participation and citizenship). Furthermore, the various types of exclusion that result from lack of control over these different types of resources interact and reinforce one another, further constraining livelihood choices for the poorest.

Ownership of economic assets such as land and livestock and financial savings are often important determinants of whether in individual or household on the one hand needs (or is sufficiently risk averse) to pursue livelihood diversification through migration, and on the other can afford the financial costs of migrating (in the presence of credit market imperfections that limit opportunities for borrowing). For these reasons, the poorest (as well as the wealthiest) households may be less than proportionately represented in
migration flows. Evidence from India as well as sub-Saharan Africa indicates that although the poor have higher migration propensities, the poorest often cannot afford the material cost of migration.

In a study of two Malian villages, de Haan, Brook and Coulibaly find that the majority of seasonal migration is undertaken among households ranked in the ‘middle group’ in terms of available assets, with less well off households having fewer migrants, probably due to lack of available spare labour given their heightened vulnerability. They also note that permanent migration is rare and restricted to severally poor households.

Singh et.al. brought out that majority of the migrants’ labour (60.28 percent) came from Bihar. Nearly one-fifth of the total number of migrants belonged to Uttar Pradesh, 9.35 percent migrated from Nepal and 9.80 percent from other states of India. On the whole, the percentage of scheduled castes, general category and backward classes was 68.69., 18.69, and 12.62 per cent respectively implying that scheduled caste category constituted the major class.

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Overall, male female and child population was 53.04, 30.84 and 16.11 per cent respectively. Adult population was dominating as it was as high as 83.88 per cent. Out of the total family members of migrants, only 43.27 per cent migrated in Punjab. As many as 51.99 per cent migrants were unemployed in their native states showing that employment opportunities were less there. Amongst economic reasons, 98.77 per cent and 92.48 per cent migrants in farming and non-farming categories respectively quoted low employment and low wages at home places as the main reason of migration. Many migrants owned land. Majority of the migrants were in the age group of 16.35 years both in farming and non-farming. Percentage of uneducated migrants was higher in case of farming than in non-farming. Occupations of majority of the migrants in native states were labour followed by farming plus labour and farming. Because of higher wages and employment days in Punjab an increase in annual income of migrants took place to the tune of `8977.95 and `1458.54 in case of farming and non-farming respectively. The higher wage rate and quantum of employment opportunities were the main reasons for the migratory inflow of labour in Punjab.
Population in urban areas expands due to the following three factors: natural growth of population, rural to urban migration and reclassification of rural areas as urban in course of time. Around two-fifth of the total urban growth in the Third World is accounted by the rural-to-rural migration. The process can be identified ‘over-urbanization’ as long as (i) rural-urban migration leads to a misallocation of labour between rural and urban sectors in the sense that it raises urban unemployment, underemployment and poverty, and (ii) rural-urban migration increased the social cost for providing for a country’s growing population. With a significant fall in the mortality rate, the natural growth of urban population has grown at a high level thus raising the long run supply of labour substantially.48

A study has been made by Karan49 the emerging trends and pattern of labour migration in rural areas of Bihar. The study is based on the primary data collected randomly in six villages of North Bihar, 48 percent of the poorest households migrated from rural areas and the proportion of migration is higher in


joint family. He has found that most of the migrants come from lower caste and classes which are poor and lack of employment opportunities in villages has forced a large proportion of migrants to migrate to earn bread for their family members. He concludes that seasonal labour migration is prevalent largely among lower castes and classes in the last two decades in rural Bihar.

A study by Harishwar and Arup\textsuperscript{50} to explore causes and consequences of migration of both the tribals and non-tribals of Jharkhand Region is based on the primary data collected from the villages of the state of Jharkhand. They found that most of the migrant’s family income and consumption standards increased after migration in this region. Further, they found that more unmarried girls migrated for brick-kiln works, agricultural works in rural areas and migrated for maid-servants in the urban areas for a long term. They have concluded that the incidence of migration is higher among the poorest households in the short period in Jharkhand.

Samita Das et.al.,\textsuperscript{51} in their study found that 60-76 per cent of the people who had migrated to the rural areas did so because of marriage, 13.47 per cent migrated for employment reasons and 24.68 per cent indirectly migrated for economic reasons during the study period. Further they found that intra district migration was 50 per cent in 1987-88 and declined to 45.73 per cent in 1999-2000. They observed that the percentage of people living below the poverty line is much less for the migrants (12 percent) than the non-migrants (33 percent) for NER as a whole. The study concludes that the migration is of a smaller magnitude and external migration is on the decline to this region.

Nigel Harris\textsuperscript{52} has pointed out that a large scale labour movement become inevitable, because the demand for labour force for agricultural, construction, transport and manufacturing work. Further, he has pointed out regular migration has grown significantly which is much greater. Benefit might accrue if migrant workers returned with enhanced skills and savings to invest. He shows that low skilled migrant workers who travel without families always tend to return; they


\textsuperscript{52} Nigel Harris, “Migration of Labour, Construction Transitional Arrangements”, \textit{Economic and Political Weekly}, October 18, 2003, pp.4464-4470.
work abroad primarily to strengthen their position at home. He concluded that if migrant between skills and different localities to learn additional skills, as the final qualification to strengthen the family position.

Total labour supply available within the household is also likely to be an important determinant of whether the household has excess labour capacity and can therefore afford to send migrants out without adversely affecting domestic production. Migration and other forms of non-farm activity in Africa are concentrated in the dry season when household labour is not required for farming. This is particularly true for poorer food insecure households who cannot free labour for other activities during the rainy season due to the need to ensure their own food stocks for fear of food market failure. Richer and more food secure households are less constrained by this issue and therefore more able to pursue higher paid non-farm activities during rainy season and hire farm laborers at a profit. The impact of migration on migrant and non-migrant wellbeing at destination and origin also varies widely according to context. For migrants, some may benefit from moving, but some may experience further impoverishment or move into poverty. Problems may arise where a definite regions capacity to absorb large flows of labour is limited.
‘Migration myths’ or exaggerated accounts of achievement at destination stimulate flows and further intensify problems of over-supply of labour in destination regions, leading new migrants to suffer from inadequate housing and employment and remain or become more vulnerable. Wood\textsuperscript{53} study clearly reveals that loss of social support networks in such situations results in migrants depending on exploitative patrons, such as \textit{mastaans} in urban Bangladesh, who function as intermediaries between the vulnerable and more formal institutions, charging rents on loans, which in the long-term denies migrants independence and rights.

Mehta and Shah\textsuperscript{54} study shows that out migration may provide adequate remittances to some, but this can further social exclusion among insecure, asset – depleted, non-migrant households, and insufficient, sporadic remittances increase vulnerability among other sending households. Increasing vulnerability and chronic poverty observed amongst the elderly in India is the result of


migration and the breakdown in traditional family support mechanisms. Sen\textsuperscript{55} study depicts that the remittances are also a significant factor in explaining poverty dynamics in Bangladesh households who were chronically poor or descended into poverty over the 1990s received, respectively, very low and declining shares of income from transfers, while those who escaped poverty received increased share of income from remittances. Research suggests that international migration is more likely to increase inequality than internal since the option of moving across borders may be open to relatively few due to prohibitive costs, and the benefits are potentially greater, particularly if migration occurs from ‘south’ to ‘north’.

Engberson\textsuperscript{56} study reveals that increased mobility of people does not keep up with the increased mobility of capital. This paradox of globalization finds expression in new forms of border control that are being developed in Western Europe. The basic principle here is excluding unwanted immigrants from public provision. There is a gap between restrictive legislations and its actual


enforcement. This gap is not only caused by international migration streams that are difficult to regulate, but also by the fact that illegal immigrants conduct economic activities in specific sector in the western economy.

Connelly, et.al\textsuperscript{57} found that two third married women migrant in China accompanied by their husbands and a few of them are relying upon relatives and husbands to care for their children when they migrate. They concluded that majority women labourers migrated from rural area to urban area for better employment and wages during the seasonal unemployment.

Chaganti\textsuperscript{58} discussed the increased concentration of income and wealth in the hands of a social minority which has led to the dynamic growth of the luxury goods economy, travel and leisure, automobile, the electronics and telecommunications revolutions etc. It is this dynamic growth of luxury consumption that has provided temporary “breathing space” this increase in the consumer goods industry accompanied by a contraction in the levels of


consumption of the lays majority of the world population. Basic consumption is reduced to a small number of food staples and essential commodities and producing necessary goods and services is stagnant. The depreciation of costs of production and wage rates result in a worried condition.

Neetha\textsuperscript{59} highlighted the primary role of women in migration and the survival of family. Women domestic are found among vital functions and roles in migrations, the setting down process and in the search for job women are seen as central in accessing and mobilizing social networks, which not only direct the course of migration, but also the survival of the migrant family in the urban milieu. Women are thus part of the migration systems and subsystems and take up numerous functions. This calls for a re-examination of the validity of some of the widely accepted male–centric analysis in the literature on migration.

Dorrit Posal\textsuperscript{60} study has revealed that labour migration within South Africa increased significantly in absolute items between 1993 and 2002. He found that


33 per cent of all rural African households were migrant households by 2002; this had increased to more than 38 per cent. He concluded that majority of African labour migrant were poor. He suggested that income gap between migrant and non-migrant households may be widening over time. Further, he suggested that the importance of institutional interventions that would increase opportunities in rural areas both as a means of expanding resident employment opportunities and of increasing incentives for migrants to invest part of their earnings in rural development.

Justin Paul and Subash\textsuperscript{61} study focused on positive dimensions and possibilities in the migration development relationship. It highlights the links between migration, development and conflict from the premises that analyses policies on migrations and developments, migrant and refugees deported. The present study is an attempt to review the literature on the impact of migration on the development of the economy. Also an attempt has been made to analyze the trends in the monetary resistances of the migrants from foreign countries.

A study made by Mose et al. seasonal labour migration for casual work in urban construction and related industries is an irreversible if painful an socially disruptive element of the livelihoods of the adivasi in Western India. The study has estimated that 65 percent of households and 48 percent of the adult population are involved in seasonal migration, overwhelmingly for casual urban construction work. A highly segmented casual labour market in these cities means that despite a shortage in skilled labour adivasi migrants are excluded from skilled work as masons.

The study covered 2,588 sample households in 42 villages in the year 1995-96, 65 per cent of the 4,170 migrants surveyed were involved in urban construction works, often in the regional cities of Borada, Ahmedabad, Surat or Kolkata. Indeed almost all work was provided by the building industry in its widest sense-including ground preparation, earthwork for pipelines, electricity and telephone cables, quarrying and brickwork- and only 11 per cent of migrants were agricultural labourers.

Sundari\textsuperscript{63} explains that migration is today a worldwide phenomenon. It is a subject of keen interest not only to the demographers but also sociologists, anthologist, economics and politics scientists. Mobility, a psychic desire of mains apparent when one trees the path of the evolutions of movement of man from the hunting stage to the pastoral, then to agriculture and in turn to industry and now from industry to post industrial society, man’s movement persists. The urban labour market has created a special kind of demand for female labour force in certain jobs and occupations, particularly in the informal sector, which had resulted in the out-migration of women. To a large extent, cultural norms which promote the migration of male at the same time impede female migration. The places of origin and destinations are also likely to involve gender related differences in the push or pull variables involved in migration. An attempt is made in this research paper to study the pattern of female migration in Tamilnadu State and its districts; identify the factors that account for inter-district variability in female migration; to find the causes of female migration and analyse the educational states and employment pattern of female migrations.

A study attempted by Naresh Kumar and Sidhu\textsuperscript{64} on the push and pull factors which influence workers inter-state migration, on the basis of perceptions of workers. The authors interviewed 200 sample workers drawn from 25 bricks-kilns located in three districts of Punjab. The study found that industrial development, better job opportunities and comparatively higher wages in Punjab have emerged as the most important pull factors which motivate labour to migrate. In this area, lack of development, adequate agricultural land and poor economic conditions of family forced labour to migrate out of its native place. The study further has found that economic factors have emerged more significant as compared to non-economic factors in the process of migration. Their study recommends that in view of the slow absorption rate in the urban industrial sector, the labour migration should be regulated. Concrete plans and their effective implementation are necessary in order to minimize the difference between the economic opportunities in urban and rural sectors.

The latest data on migration released by the Government of India\textsuperscript{65} based on the Census of 2001, show that migration has increased: 30 per cent of the


population or 307 million people were classified as migrants compared with 27.4 per cent of the population or 232 million people out of the total population of 838 million people in India in 1991. Of those, nearly one-third had migrated in the previous decade. However of the total, nearly 44 per cent had moved for marriage (mainly women) and only 14.7 per cent had moved for employment. Rural-rural migration continued to account for the bulk of movements (54.7 per cent) but had reduced during the previous decade. Movements from one urban area to another accounted for 14.7 per cent and the rest were urban-rural migrants. Rural-rural movements mainly cover short distances, while rural-urban migrants cover greater distances, often traveling to different states. While there are no official estimates of temporary migration, there is an informal estimate of 30 million, which is 10 million up from the informal estimate of Deshingkar. Labour-sending areas are typical agriculturally backward and poor and emerging destinations are towns and cities, industrial zones, coastal areas for fish processing and salt panning. High productivity agricultural areas (‘green revolution areas’) continue to be important but more migrants are opting for non-farm employment because of greater returns. Migration rates are high among the

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most and least educated. Unlike East and South East Asia, illiterates appear to dominate seasonal labour migration.

Donghoon and Kenneth\textsuperscript{67} study reveals that the proportion of labour migrant increased over the period between 1968 and 2000. As seen, proportion of new entrants, those aged 18-24, working in the service sector increased from an average of 0.63 over the 1968-1974 period to 0.76 over the period 1996-2006. They conclude that the direct mobility cost increased between 50 and 75 per cent of average annual earnings when the intersectoral labour mobility.

Richard J.et.al\textsuperscript{68} reveals that the three purely economic variables such as increasing functions of median family income, increasing function of the cost of living and employment growth variables. The study found that the coefficient of the median family income variable is positive and one percent level of signification. The coefficient on the often-neglected cost of living variable is


negative and statistically significant at one per cent level as well, implying that migrants are not subject to money illusion.

Next, the estimated coefficient on the employment growth variable is positive and statistically significant at two per cent level. Implies that migrants tend to seek destinations with better employment prospect, ceteris paribus. Their study concludes that the net in-migration rate is positively impacted by median family income and the net in-migration rate is also negatively influenced by cost of living and quality of life of the migrants increased over the period.

Tondon and Singh⁶⁹ have observed that there is a variation in urbanisation at state level. Few states are more urbanized as compared to others. The level of urbanization and absolute number of urban population shows two different pictures for example, Uttar Pradesh level of urbanization is low i.e. only 20.7 per cent population is urban level in absolute number it has 34,513000 which makes it as one of five most urban states. India ranks quite low among the countries of the world in the degree of urbanizations, few reasons can be attributed to it. Net

migrations from rural areas of agricultural economy naturally increases urban population. Since the process of urbanization started in India about a decade, it has not gathered enough momentum so as to enable it to absorb a significant chunk of the rural population with a slowing down of the population rate in the coming decades and with an acceleration in the tempo of industrialization, it is expected that the extent of urbanization in India may show a significant change.

Kundu and Sarangi\textsuperscript{70} analysed the pattern of migration in urban areas and its socio-economic correlates. The study is based on the NSSs reports of employment and unemployment pertaining to the latest rounds, which provide information in migration. Economic deprivation is not the most critical factor for migration decisions, even for seasonal migrants. People migrate out of both poor and rich household, but the reasons for migration and the nature of jobs sought by them are different. Rural-urban migrants have a greater risk of being below the poverty line of them the urban-urban migrants, but both report a lower risk than non-migrants. The probability of a person being poor is low in a large city compared to any other urban centre, irrespective of the migration status, age, number of subsidiary activities undertaken, etc. The results indicate that

migration has been a definite instrument of improving economic well-being and escaping from poverty.

The probability of being poor is much less among the migrants compared to the population, in all size classes of urban centre. They observed that the bottom 40 per cent of the country’s urban population account for only 29 per cent of the total seasonal migration. Further they found that poverty reduced among the migrants after migration from rural to urban and urban to rural during the seasonal period at higher level significance.

Chakrasaty and Kuri\textsuperscript{71} have found that the extent of rural-urban migration has increased significantly in India during the period of economic liberalization. One economic point is that, better employment opportunities in the urban centres attracted a sizeable preparation of workers from the rural to the urban area and this induced rural–urban migrations to take place. In terms of the socio economic determinants of internal migration in India, some of them are found to act as push factor, while others act as the pull factors. The most important factor

that explains rural-urban migration pattern significantly is the urban amenities index. The growing extent of migration, in many cases found to be inconsistent with the infrastructure availability in the urban centres to accommodate and thus results in a degradation of urban environment. To reduce this mistake, the process of economic development needs to be integrate strictly with urban planning for attaining a sustainable urban future.

Ahmed and Walmily\textsuperscript{72} examined the potential gains for India from increased temporary migration of skilled workers from India to major recipient countries of Indian migrant workers, in light of potential productivity gains from returns migration. The article was the global bilateral labour migrations model and its supporting database to explore the impact on the Indian economy of liberalizing the temporary movement of skilled workers, and compares the welfare effects of this liberalization to the domestic services sector liberals in India. The results show that the welfare of Indian workers remaining behind in India improves as a result of temporary skilled labour migration. There is also a

clear improvement in total real income from the increased productivity brought back to India by the returning workers.

Joe et.al.,\textsuperscript{73} study dealt with migration decision to urban areas that are backed by economic rational and attempt to understand gains accessory to individuals from migrations, in terms of poverty outcomes. The analysis is based on the 55\textsuperscript{th} round survey data on employment–unemployment survey 1999–2000 provided by the National sample survey organizations. We undertake a broad descriptive socio-economic profiling of the migrant households is urban India and explore the dynamics of poverty among interstate as well as intrastate migrants to urban destinations. Considering migration as a transition, this exercise makes a broad comparison of change in economic states of migrants at the destination as against the origins. The analysis reveals the migrants disadvantaged in terms of caste, education, and residences earn prior return to migration.

Korra\textsuperscript{74} study evaluated the \textit{types} of migration and analyses the migrant’s wages rates, working conditions and the expenditure pattern. It reveals that migration from the study village is essentially seasonal and cyclical in nature and differs for the rural and the urban emigrants. It also found that migration takes places mainly for survival and repayment of debts, and that a large proportion of their earnings for migration are utilized for day to day expenses. The study village has continued a man seasonal migration to both rural and urban areas mainly for survival, setting their debts and to earn money to get their daughter married off. Owing to lack of employment and inadequate food grains from cultivations, they migrate to other regions every year in search of work during the post- agricultural season. It seems that until and unless there is an improvement in their economic status and cultivation becomes profitable and viable, migration to other region will not end.

Appleyard\textsuperscript{75} has viewed that social scientists have hardly explored, let alone adequately researched, the dynamics of international migration. The reasons are not hard to find. Though decision making, the basic of these dynamics is centrally


\textsuperscript{75} Appleyard, R.T. “Economic and Non-Economic Factors in the Dynamics of International Migration”, \textit{Demography India}, 2011, pp. 44.
a problem for social psychologists. When applied to immigration, it requires perceptions and careful synthesis of economic, demographic, sociological and political forces in both the country of immigration and the country of proposed immigration. Researchers are therefore required to “emigrate” themselves from their base disciplines to other “territories” where, with foreign colleague they may construct interdisciplinary models to explain the dynamics of international migrations.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY AND PROFILE OF THE STUDY AREA

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter attempts to describe the methodology adopted in the present study and the reason for choosing Madurai city as the study area which includes period of study, sampling technique, procedure for collection of data, tools of analysis and the concepts used in the present study. Further, it discusses the profile of the study area.