CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE
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The review of literature is based on studies relating to migration covering a period of seventy five years commencing from the latest studies to the most ancient studies.

Shamna and Baiju (2016) focused on the economic and non-economic issues and the challenges confronted by the immigrant workers in the construction sector of Kerala. The qualitative method, Likert scale was used for measuring the level of satisfaction of the immigrant workers in term of their working and living conditions. The problems faced by the immigrant workers in the domain of income, employment, wage and living conditions, the working conditions, health related issues and the prevailing social security benefits to the immigrant workers.

Jayakumar (2016) captures the situation of the IMLs in Kerala and the scope for intervention of the LGs for their welfare. In-migrant Labour (IML) is inevitable in the economic growth of Kerala. However, no sincere efforts have been made towards the welfare of the migrants. Though there are several agencies that are competent to intervene in their cause, it is the Local Governments (LGs) that would be the most ideal one to take a lead, given its pivotal positions in the public administration today and the need for coordination among various players.

Zachariah and Rajan (2015) explores the linkages between migration and development, utilizing the large scale sample surveys of migration which chants the emerging themes within the field such as emigration, return emigration and worker remittances, to understand the methodology and practice of researching migration. It goes beyond data and mathematical functions.

Sumeetha (2015) focused on the labour process in the gold jewellery making industry in Kerala and the role of migrants in the labour process. With the help of Atkinson Theory under the main characteristics of the labour force in the sector and the theory (flexible firm model) mostly concentrated on wage flexibility, functionality
and numerical flexibility. Thus closely contests established ideas on the labour process and traces the evolution of migrant workers as crucial entities in an already volatile work place. The subjective notions embedded in the worker result in a constant shift of power, identity and bargaining within the labour place.

Rajan, Prakesh and Suresh, (2015) compared the opportunities, salaries offered in India and in the gulf in the same occupations and reveals the resulting differences in the savings of Indian migrant workers in the gulf relative to non-migrant workers in India. The study stated that based on the economic and statistical evidences; migration is something more than wage differentials. For an unskilled or uneducated Indian, overseas halls have been always more attractive than the home paradise.

Rajan & Suneetha (2015) stated that efforts to map the living and working conditions of migrant workers who came in search of better opportunities in Kerala from other parts of India. The sweat and toil they endure is because of a promise for a better future. Thus, every day struggles in the form of wage struggle; struggle for better working, living conditions becomes a part of migrant life.

Valsa and liji (2014) discussed about the Pattern of migration to Kerala to ascertain the demographic profile of migrant workers in selected sectors and also to examine the nature and working conditions of migrant workers and the study concluded that vocational training requirements could be arranged in the migrated areas to get trained in various types of activities.

Anderson (2013) suggests that while migrant laborers are given some rights, the provision of negative rights, ” focusing on the protection from harm is dominant. Social, political, and economic rights remain more complicated, while rights related to direct economic support are generally the most contested. New spaces of inclusion and participation can help individuals enact certain aspects of citizenship; however these protections remain less robust than formal citizenship. Finally, decisions about how to draw the boundaries of citizenship as form of “social closure” remain unclear as states struggle to define who is included and who is not.
Liji (2013) discussed on the impact of replacement migration on wages and employment in the construction sector of Kerala and examines the changes in employment, wages and other living conditions of the workers and also studies the after migration expenditure pattern and remittance behavior they concluded that the issue of migrants has become a serious concern even in an improving diplomatic environment.

Narayana, Venkiteswaran and Joseph (2013) conducted in a study for understanding the numbers and the socioeconomic context of the Domestic Migrant Labour (DML) in Kerala. They conducted a train- based survey of migrant labour, which were coming in and going out of the state and to the steps that the State needs to take to ensure that the Domestic Migrant Labour has recourse to protection under the labour laws and to an appropriate minimum social security floor.

Maheen and Jubily (2013) evaluates the reasons for the in-migration of workers to Kerala with special reference to Alappuzha district. They found small section of them are professionals and skilled workers, majority of them are unskilled or semi skilled workers engaged in the fields of construction, road work, pipe laying etc. The major reasons were shortage of local labourers, high wages for unskilled labours and opportunities for employment in their home places led to the massive influx of migrant labours to the state.

Bodvarsson & Hendrick (2013) discusses the variety cases of immigration and list out various push, pull, and stay and stay away influences of migration and outlines a brief history of immigration. The study covers the economic theories of Cross Border Migration which includes modern models of immigration includes important school and political determinants of immigration.

Myhre (2012) says that Russia received of migrant laborers from Central Asia on a large scale. Unemployment and low wages in Tajikistan, Uzbekistan and Kyrgyzstan have made people travel north to what used to be the Centre of the former Soviet Union Now, Russia is facing a demographical crisis with dramatic population
decline especially among the working-age group of the population. As such, access to work force from abroad can rightly be seen as a resource for the Russian state. On the contrary, anti-migration sentiments are quite widespread, and there are people claiming that the presence of migrant laborers is worsening the situation for the local population; when it comes to work access as well as wage levels. The presence of large number of migrants, however, confirms that there is a demand for the cheap labour that they provide. As such, the field of migration is for the state a mine field of contradictory interests.

Prakash (2012) presents the findings of a sample survey conducted among the migrant workers in the construction sector in Allephy district in Kerala. Analysis of the primary data reveals that it is the migrant labourers from the states of Bihar, Orissa, West Bengal and Tamil Nadu who drive the construction engine in Kerala. It is observed that a poor living conditions and a complete isolation from local population and expenditure of the migrants are bare minimum and therefore their savings are very high on the negative side, it seems that the migrant workers are increasingly concerned with the discrimination in wages.

Schulzek (2012) examines the impact of welfare on humanitarian and voluntary migration. The primary research question addressed is whether generous welfare states are magnets for migrant laborers and asylum seekers. More precisely, it will be answered whether welfare provisions and the specific types of welfare regimes – the social democratic, the corporatist and the liberal model – help to explain immigration patterns to 16 OECD countries between 1985 and 2002. A cross-sectional, time-series analysis using a fixed-effects-vector decomposition model confirms that high levels of welfare provisions pull asylum seekers, whereas labour migrants are deterred by a high deco modification factor. Social- democratic welfare states pull refugees and deter economic migrants. Corporatist regimes pull both categories of immigrants. Liberal welfare states deter refugees, but, surprisingly, do not pull labour migrants. These results challenge the widely held assumption that labour migrants are strongly attracted to liberal welfare states and their business-
friendly economies. Furthermore, the results suggest adding additional pull-factor welfare to the classical push-and pull- model by Lee. Hence, heterogeneous preferences of humanitarian and labour migrants regarding welfare provisions in different regimes should be taken into consideration from policymakers while establishing efficient immigration control policies.

Viswanathan and Kumar (2012) explores the three way linkage between weather variability, agricultural performance and internal migration in India at state and district level using Indian Census data. The elasticity of interstate out-migration rate with respect to the per capita net state domestic product is approximately (-) 0.75. The study has significant policy relevance, especially in the context of global climate change and the prospect of migrants serving as a potential adaptation strategy for people adversely affected by the impact of weather variability on crop yield.

Zachariah and Rajan (2012) states that Kerala’s Gulf connection is edging towards a turning point. Emigration from Kerala in 2011 is more or less at the same level as it was in 2008, indicating that 2011 is not far from the inflexion point in the history of emigration from Kerala. All these trends point towards the emergence of an era of decreasing trend in emigration from Kerala. Kerala’s Gulf connection could reach its inflexion point in a matter of 4-5 years support. Their conclusion is that emigration from Kerala seems to be approaching an inflexion point in history.

Vijay Korra (2011) analyzed the contrasting characteristics of short duration and permanent migration. It applied the widely recognized demographic technique of Parity Progression Ratioto measure the magnitude of short duration migrants. It revealed that short duration migrants are largely concentrated in rural areas and basically migrated in search of work/employment towards urban and other prosperous rural areas. Short duration migration is more common in the case of male migrants who were impelled to migrate for work/employment while permanent migration is more common among female migrants seeking better opportunities.
Praveena Kodoth and Varghese (2011) explored the nature of women’s agency involved when domestic workers resist State policy and social norms to emigrate through informal / illegal means. Restrictions imposed by the Government of India on the emigration of women in „unskilled” categories such as domestic work are termed as measures intended to protect women from exploitation. Whereas, intermediaries, including recruiting agents and government officials, profit from the use of informal / illegal processes by prospective emigrants and hence they have an interest in rendering these more effective than formal processes established by the state, they argue that the gender politics around movement provides an enabling condition for both state restrictions and the burgeoning of informal / illegal processes.

Ajith Kumar (2011) examines the dimensions of vulnerability of migrant labourers in a sub-national context of Kerala state in India and how the State and other agencies in the host state (Kerala) responded to reduce the vulnerability of inter-state migrant workers and makes an assessment of a pioneering welfare scheme for inter-state migrant workers. They pointed out that due to limitations in portability of entitlements, the inter-state migrants are not able to enjoy some of the entitlements/benefits from central and state governments and also observed that a strategy to reach out to migrant workers coming from diverse backgrounds and speaking different languages has to be introduced as the present strategy, whether it is by the law enforcement agencies or the public service providers.

Zachariah and Rajan (2010) states that there are roughly over 1.3 million return emigrants in the state. Kerala Migration Survey (KMS) 2008 estimated that there were about 1.157 million return emigrants and the KMS 1998 enumerated 7.4 lakhs return emigrants. The number of return emigrants is expected to increase to about 1.6 million by 2015. Malappuram district has the largest number of emigrants (15.3 per cent); it has the largest number of return emigrants also (19.0 per cent). Trivandrum district is the second largest with respect to emigration and is also the second largest with respect to return emigration. The propensity to return is greater in Trivandrum than in Malappuram when we measure the return emigrants as a percentage of emigrants. On
that basis, it appears that the preferred districts for resettlement of Kerala’s return emigrants are (in order of importance) Trivandrum, Malappuram, Thrissur, Kollam and Ernakulam. Surprisingly, Ernakulam is only the fifth in the order.

Zachariah and Rajan (2010) has brought to light some of the broad dimensions of the problems created by the global recession on Kerala emigrants – the number of emigrants who became unemployed, the number who lost jobs abroad, the number who were forced to return to Kerala, the countries in which the returnees had been working. It also gives a rough estimate of the number of households that received smaller amounts as household cash remittances in 2009 compared to what they received in 2008. The number of Kerala emigrants who returned due to the recession is not as large as is often reported to be. The number is unlikely to be more than 63,000 among these returnees, only about 28,000 are unemployed at the time of the survey.

Zachariah and Rajan (2010) in their study distinguished between total remittances received in the State and remittances received by the household in the State for subsistence etc. It revealed that there was a dramatic decline in unemployment rate in Kerala since 2003 and concluded that according to Migration Monitoring Study 1998, emigration and consequent remittances had provided the single most dynamic factor in the otherwise dismal economic scenario of Kerala in the last quarter of the twentieth century. Emigration and remittances continued to remain the single most dynamic factor even in the greatly improved economic scenario of Kerala in the first decade of the 21st century the proportion of households with an emigrant or the proportion of households that has received remittances from abroad is absolutely stagnant at about 16-18 percent. The vast majority of Kerala households, over 80 percent, are still not direct participants of this great phenomenon that is transforming Kerala's economy and society.

Vijay Korra (2010) stated that seasonal or circular migration could be largely distress driven and stimulated by the partial or complete collapse of rural employment generation, economic difficulties of cultivation and absence of alternative employment
opportunities in underdeveloped regions of the country. It has become an integral part of livelihood strategies pursued by a large number of poor people living in agriculturally underdeveloped areas. The study analysis is based on a primary level survey conducted in mid-2006 in Mahabubnagar district of Andhra Pradesh, India. It reveals that migration from the village is essentially seasonal and cyclical in nature, and differs for both rural and urban migrants. It is taking place mainly for survival and repayment of debts.

Mahapatro (2010) suggest that female migration rates are closely inter connected with male migration rates, indicating that females accompany males as associational migrants. However, the significance of economic factors, as evident from the study, indicated that there is also an economic motivation behind migration. Hence, it can be stated that even though females accompany their spouses, their economic role is not undermined. The work participation rate of female migrants as compared to female non-migrants increased in rural-urban migration over a period of time as is evident from the data, and suggests that females migrate for employment purposes as well as family ones. In a nutshell, the significance of economic factors in determining female migration should be given greater importance in migration studies.

Rajan, Vargherse and Jayakumar (2010) aimed at assessing the efficiency of the existing institution for governing labour emigration in India with special reference to the overseas recruitment system. It tracks the difference between emigration through social network and recruiting agents and looks at the difference of cost and risk involved. It assesses the transaction costs of the present institution, identifies its major inadequacies and make recommendations for an alternative institutional framework that can effectively counter the many and varied illegitimate and dishonest activities which have sprung up in the field of emigration and ensure ethical practices in India’s overseas recruitment sector.

Rajan and Narayana (2010) stated that the financial crisis originated in the United States of America and impacted the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) countries after a time lag. The falling oil prices, contracting trade and declining
private investment flows have adversely affected the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) growth of the Gulf countries. The study takes a two pronged approach to the subject. The impact of the global crisis on the Gulf Cooperation Council economies is first analyzed in terms of the sectors of the economy affected, the changes in Gross Domestic Product growth and employment of expatriate labourers. A Survey of migrants in the destination countries was carried out to assess the loss of employment and earnings and their coping strategies. It was followed by surveys of emigrants and return migrants in the countries of origin in South Asia. The global crises was affected the Gulf Cooperation Council economies. The Government of Kerala state has announced a rehabilitation package for the Gulf returnees. Some Gulf Cooperation Council countries have relaxed slightly the visa conditions, allowing those who were thrown out of jobs to stay for longer periods in their country making it possible for them to search for alternative employment. The sponsorship condition has also been relaxed in some cases. Some of these reforms in the Gulf Cooperation Council countries might not be directly related to the crisis, because they were in the making for some time now in the face of severe criticisms of the work and life conditions of the expatriate workers in those countries even before the crisis struck them.

Foulkes and Schafft (2010) studied the effect of redistribution of poverty across places on spatial concentration of economic disadvantages by examining domestic migration of poor and non-poor between 1995 and 2000 in United States. It was found that the poor migrated more than the non-poor, that too, to the counties which were poorer than the counties they left which lead to increase in the poverty rates in high poverty counties with decreasing poverty in the other counties. The trends of migration of poor and non-poor were found to be fairly stable between periods of relative economic growth and decline. It was also observed that regional and national economic condition effect poverty and that migration maintains spatial pattern of poverty distribution. The micro Politian countries with high poverty attracted migrants from both non-core and metropolitan counties due to the affordable
housing which increase poverty rates in these areas. These areas offered the best of both rural and urban amenities which also attracted working, middle class family and retirees.

Bhagat (2010) revealed that both in- and out-migration rates had a significant positive association with per capita income, percentage of the workforce and share of state gross domestic product in the non-agricultural sector. This means that higher income and the sectoral transformation of the economy from the agricultural to the non-agricultural sector tended to be associated with both higher in-migration and higher out-migration rates. By contrast, poverty was not found to be strongly related to increased out-migration at the state level.

Ortega & Peri (2009) this paper contains three important contributions to the literature on international migrations. First, it compiles a new dataset on migration flows and stocks and on immigration laws for 14 OECD destination countries and 74 sending countries for each year over the period 1980-2005. Second, it extends the empirical model of migration choice across multiple destinations, by allowing for unobserved individual heterogeneity between migrants and non-migrants. They use the model to derive a pseudo-gravity empirical specification of the economic and legal determinants of international migration. Their estimates show that bilateral migration flows are increasing in the income per capita gap between origin and destination. They also find that bilateral flows decrease significantly when the destination countries adopt stricter immigration laws. Third, they estimate the impact of immigration flows on employment, investment and productivity in the receiving OECD countries using as instruments the "push" factors only in the gravity equation. They find that immigration increases employment one for one, implying no crowding-out of natives. These results imply that immigration increases the total GDP of the receiving country in the short-run one-for-one, without affecting average wages or labor productivity.

William, Priyajit and Mishra (2009) deal with migration decisions in urban areas that are backed by economic rationale and attempts to understand gains accruing to individuals from migration, in terms of poverty outcomes. The analysis revealed
that migrants disadvantaged in terms of caste, education and residence earn poorer returns than other migration. While returns to migration have proved to be positive with increased duration at the destination, the characteristic endowment like education and social group identity seem to make a further difference.

Varghese (2009) mapped out the historical trajectory leading to a series of exodus in and from the erstwhile princely State of Travancore during 1900-70 in order to acquire and bring land under cultivation. It argued that these migrations undertaken with a moral and a paternal mission of reclaiming „empty” spaces into productive locations were a result of a specific form of economic modernity in Kerala as beckoned by colonialism and appropriated by a resolute local agency through a process of transition. It leads to the transition that the Syrian Christians were successful in wielding a new subjectivity of development with a specific authority over the modernity of Kerala as purogamanakarshakar (forward-looking peasants).

Sunil Mani (2009) quantified the extent of high skilled migration from India and then went on to distill out two of its economic implications to home economy. First the high skilled migration has resulted in larger amount of remittances: India is now the largest remittance receiving country in the world. Although during the period up to the mid-1990s, the source of this remittances was largely the result of low skilled migration to the middle east, since that period nearly half of the remittances were emanating from the US alone and it is not difficult to argue that this trend in the shift in source is very much tied to high skilled migration. The availability of these remittances has helped the country to reduce its deficits in the current account of its Balance of Payments even if these remittances have not always found expression in productive investments in the home economy.

Neethi (2009) analyses how the economic geography of capitalism is shaped by the spatial practices of labour. The study raises the need for going against the grain by questioning global stereotypes with regard to expected economic responses to globalisation. It deal specifically with one region – Kerala – and particularly the
processes in its labour markets, taking the case of apparel workers in two units in an export promoting industrial park in Kerala.

Deshingkar et al.,(2009) stated that for many of the poor living in the underdeveloped areas of Andhra Pradesh, wage work is very often the key means of livelihood and migration and commuting are the only ways of accessing the benefits of growth in other locations. The study argued that a majority of the seasonal migrants, many of whom are Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribe are poor, and for them migration is a household strategy for managing risk where one or more members of family go away from the village to find work, and that this is a central part of their livelihoods. Whether or not seasonal migration is a coping strategy or becomes more accumulative, depends on a number of factors including improved work availability, rising wages, cutting out intermediaries, and improving skills.

Chowdhury (2009) considered remittances as an important component of Gross Domestic Product (GDP) in many developing countries. In order to increase remittance inflows many countries are now actively involved in labour export and thereby competing with other labour exporting countries in the international market. In his Paper he has conceptualized the competition by proposing a model where two countries export labour to a third country. The third country imposes differential tax rates on the income of foreign workers. We have explored the process of imposition of tax rates by importing country and found that tax burden is higher for the country with higher labour endowment.

Bhagat (2009) revealed that India had seen an upsurge in economic growth since 1991. The 2001 census shows that internal migration has picked up rapidly during the 1990s. Compared to intra-state (short) movement, inter-state (long distance) migration has grown faster. The states with higher per capita income and larger dominance of non-agricultural sector which shows not only high in-migration but also high out-migration rates. Poverty ratio is not found related with outmigration rates at the state level. On the contrary, migration rates are higher in households with higher monthly per capita expenditure. Also, the socially disadvantaged groups like
Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes do not show higher mobility compared to other population categories. Thus the increased mobility of India's population in recent times is more confined to better off sections.

Lucas (2008) analyzed that migration has expanded less rapidly than trade or direct investment, migration has become increasingly contentious. The immediate labour market impacts on host countries appear small and dynamic gains from induced technical progress remain undocumented. Circular migration from low-income countries offers a key safety valve where the home state fails to provide employment and security, But there are dangers from over-dependence on the migration–remittance nexus. The least-developed countries benefit only through south–south migration and are probably harmed by a rapidly expanding brain drain.

Dilip (2008) examine the economic conditions of the in-migrant workers in Kerala. This has been done by analysing their savings, income and consumption pattern and nature of work before and after migration. The analysis is based on data from a sample of 166 in-migrants workers in the Trivandrum district, which has been collected through a primary survey during September-October, 2008 and observed a positive relationship of skill level and instance of migration with income level. Notwithstanding the improved income level the living condition for most of them is deplorable, most of them live together in either poor rented houses or work sites with one room shared by many and no provision of hygienic sanitation. The amount and pattern of food expenditure is found to be more or less same for all the migrants, whereas that of nonfood expenditure varies from person to person. The savings and investment habit among the migrants is found to be very poor.

Zachariah and Rajan (2008) focused on the pattern and costs of services in four areas, which critically affect most households in Kerala. Migration was not a major factor influencing the cost of education. Survey data indicated that households without Non-Resident-Keralitesspent on the average, a little more for education than households with Non-Resident-Keralites (NRKs). The average cost of treatment was not very high and the differentials between Non-Resident-Keralites households and
Non NRK households were not large either the methodology used for this purpose was a comparison of households with and without Non-Resident-Keralites. This methodology was found to be inadequate for this purpose in several instances, especially in cases in which nearly 100 percent of the households was in one category.

Mitra & Murayama (2008) analysed the district level rural to urban migration rates (both intra-state and the inter-state) among males and females separately. Both the rates are closely associated irrespective of whether the migrants originate from the rural areas within the state or outside the state. This would suggest that women usually migrate as accompanists of the males. Though many of the relatively poor and backward states actually show large population mobility, which is primarily in search of a livelihood, the mobility of male population is also seen to be prominent in the relatively advanced states like Maharashtra and Gujarat. Rapid migration of rural females within the boundaries of the states is, however, evident across most of the regions. The social networks, which play an important role in the context of migration are prevalent among the short distance migrants and tend to lose their significance with a rise in the distance between the place of origin and destination though there are some exceptions to this phenomenon. Besides the north-south divide in the Indian context is indeed a significant phenomenon with a few exceptions of metropolitan cities. As regards the effect of factors at the place of destination, prospects for better job opportunities are a major determinant of male migration. Low castes and minority groups tend to pull migration through network effects. Among females also these effects are evident though with the inclusion of the male migration rate they become less significant. Finally the paper brings out the policy implications.

Kundu (2008) argues that the major problem currently faced by several developing countries is linked to stagnation and volatility of agriculture, India being no exception to this. Hence, the possibilities of creating livelihood opportunities outside agriculture in rural areas seems to be limited, since much of the growth in non-farm employment in many of the states has been witnessed as poverty induced.
Khairkar (2008) studied the impact of urbanization and industrialization on migration in Pune. The study showed that migration was a selective process in terms of sex, age, education, and job which further affected the demographic characteristics of the receiving or sending areas. The study showed that economic factors played a dominant role in influencing people to migrate. Inability to support and raise the respective families due to unemployment and under employment, unequal land distribution, lack of modern technology and high population growth push them to migrate to well develop urban areas.

Mallick (2008) examined the impact of remittances on macroeconomic activities (private consumption and investment) and its implications on economic growth in India for the period from 1966-67 to 2003-04. Estimating a general consumption model, the results indicated that remittances along with debt, money supply (net of bank demand deposits) and income, consistently have a positive influence on private consumption. The result also implies that government debt is perceived as net wealth by the private sector. With the increase in public debt, private sector perceives that their wealth is also getting increased and as a result they tend to spend more on consumption ignoring its implications in terms of future tax burden that they have to incur. However, on the basis of no growth effect of remittances, the study suggests that the government policy should be designed towards inducing the private sector to allocate more for productive investments for leveling up the rate of growth.

Zachariah and Rajan (2007) covered three areas: migration, remittances and employment. The short-term trends and long-term development implications are the main concern of the paper. It has stated that migration used to be a partial solution to the unemployment problem in the State. It was also a partial solution to the subsistence problems of many a household in Kerala. Migration is still serving these purposes eminently.

Zachariah and Rajan (2007) analyzed the panel data validated the trend in migration, remittances, employment and unemployment patterns, consumption habits, etc shown by the Kerala Migration Study(KMS) and South Asia Migration
Study(SMS). Thus, the panel analysis showed that sampling errors were within acceptable limits in both these studies. A special feature of the panel analysis was that it could provide quantitative measures of shifts in employment pattern of the labour force during 1999-2004. An equally important result of the panel analysis is the information it provided on process of employment of those unemployed in 1999 and the background information on the economic activity of the unemployed in 2004.

Surabhi and Ajith (2007) stated that Kerala is witnessing large inflow of migrant labour from different parts of the country in recent years. Though labourers from states as far as West Bengal, Bihar, Uttar Pradesh and Orissa now flock to Kerala, those from the neighbouring state of Tamilnadu out number others by a big margin. Higher wages for unskilled labour in the state, large opportunities for employment and shortage of local labour, paradoxically despite the high unemployment rate in the state, led to the massive influx of migrant labour to the state.

The study is of a pilot nature on internal migration in Kerala with a very limited sample size of 100 casual labourers from Tamilnadu seeking work at selected centers on a day to day basis. The sample was drawn from the city of Kochi, which, it is believed, accounts for the largest number of in-migrants in view of its fast expansion in economic activities. The study concludes that the migrant labourers get much higher monetary wages than in their native places. But, they work for longer hours and their real wages may be lower as they have to incur higher cost of living in Kochi on food, shelter and transport. They live in shanty houses/rooms in slum like localities often on a sharing basis. A few of them live on verandas of shops. They have limited access to sanitation facilities and safe water. Their practices of waste disposal pose problems of public health and environment. Their working and living conditions and habits make them suffer from a number of diseases.

Nicola (2007) conducted a study on migration experiences of the migrants in the areas of South-East and East-Asia. The study shows that migrants face more of socio-economic and legal insecurities as they are non-citizens, unskilled and without proper documents. Women migrants worked in certain sectors which were not covered
under labour laws and trade unionism, thus, more and more migration involves various challenges which require attention to be focused by governments and various Non-Government Organisations. The study pointed out that more and more of low or semi-skilled women were migrating within Asia in a diversified pattern. The migration is largely contracted which results into exploitation as the migrants are tied to one employer.

Meujang(2007) made a study on the differences and discrimination faced by migrants against local labourers in urban China in terms of employment opportunities and earning differentials. The study showed that discrimination against migrant labourers was due to migration policies in favor of non-migrant labour. During the 1950s, China followed the Hukou system which was the root cause of discrimination against the migrants. Under this system, people from rural areas were not allowed to migrate to urban areas and if at all they migrated due to increasing pressure on agricultural land and attractive jobs in urban sector, they could not get employed in the state owned enterprises and thus, had to join the non-state sector which paid less. However, during the eighties, China shifted to market mechanism system but still did not improve the levels of living of migrants as they found it difficult to enter the formal sector as they were paid almost twenty per cent less than urban local labourers. The migrants could improve their levels of living only by gaining better education. The study further showed that the factors which were disfavoring migrants were low standards of education of the rural areas and inability of rural people to provide education to their children due to poor economic status.

Kundu (2007) argues that seasonal migration cannot be attributed to push factors but is due to short duration transfer of regular workers, temporary posting of marketing and extension workers, etc. A large segment among the seasonal migrants could be those adopting a coping strategy or making temporary arrangements in the lean season for a livelihood.

Rajan and Mishra (2007) highlighted the significance of international migration in the Philippines economy and society. They discussed the supportive and
regulatory role that the government of the Philippines played in promoting it and draws the lessons that India might learn from the Philippines’ experience. India has several lessons to draw from the Philippines experiment in order to organise systematic flows of emigrants from India.

Chandrasekhar and Ghosh (2007) examined statistical difficulty in capturing short-duration migration. One reason for this is that the Indian statistical system is not really designed to capture short-term/seasonal/circular migration; as a result, policy makers may remain unaware of the sheer extent and likely increase in this phenomenon. Therefore, these secondary data sources are unable to capture the extent of short-duration and a recent migration that takes place primarily for employment and other livelihood purposes.

Prabhat (2007) enquires in to the nature of disparities in development are related to Inter-state migration in India. Disparity in terms of per capita income is calculated first and in terms of development Index. Composite Development Index was calculated based on fourteen socio-economic indicators. Both regional disparities and inter-state migration have increased over the period of the study. The pattern of migration in the form of sex ratio and rural-urban ratio are different for the developed states and the backward states. Net-migration rate and inter-state disparities are found to be related and the net male migration rate is more closely associated with the inter-state disparities.

Pradhan (2006) studied various States of India to analyze the role of urbanization in curbing rural poverty. The study emphasized on the consequences of urbanization on rural poverty which were statistically significant. Urbanization along with per-capita development expenditure, agricultural Gross Domestic Product (GDP), real agricultural wages, consumer price index and rural infrastructure pushes the rural poverty downwards. Thus, slowing down urbanization will overburden the crowded agricultural sector and increase the inter-state rural development disparities.

Philippe (2006) stated that immigration divides globalizing world like no other issue. Swamped by illegal immigrants and infiltrated by terrorist, our welfare system
abused, way of life destroyed. Compelling first-hand reporting from around world, incisive socio-economic analysis and a broad understanding of what’s at state politically and culturally.

Lusome and Bhagat (2006) stated in this study “Internal migration is now recognized as an important factor in influencing social and economic development, especially in developing countries. Indian censuses record that in 2001, 309 million persons were migrants based on place of last residence, which constitute about 30% of the total population of the country. This is nearly double the number of internal migrants as recorded in the census of 1971 (159 million). The study suggests that socio-economic changes in the last three decades have greatly affected the mobility of the population. This Paper attempts to provide the trends and patterns of internal migration during 1971-2001 on the basis of census data for that period. Findings show that the composition of internal migration has changed over the years. Moreover, it is observed that the growth of internal migrants differs by sex as well as the streams of migration and the mobility of Indian population has significantly increased during the 1990s.

Deshingkar et al. (2006) studied the conditions and development patterns arising in Bihar due to migration of Biharis to other states and remittances which were being sent back home to Bihar by these migrants. The study observed that rural people migrate due to lack of employment opportunities, limited access to land and livestock, poor education, healthcare, low social status and better livelihood opportunities elsewhere. The study further observed that people belonging to the scheduled and backward castes usually took up low paid jobs and migrated longer distance. The choice of the place of destinations is determined by social networks, attractions in the city like ecology, population density, infrastructure, transportation and some other factors. Remittances by migrants improve the levels of living of people back home. Migration brings about not only improvement in the skills of these labourers but also increases social and health hazards. Due to lack of proper education the migrants were able to earn only meager wages.
Cebula & Alexander (2006) investigates the impact on net state in-migration over the 2000-2004 period of a variety of economic and non-economic factors indicated that the net state in-migration rate was an increasing function of median family income and the previous-period employment growth rate on the one hand and a decreasing function of the cost of living. State in-migration was an increasing function of the warmer temperatures, while being a decreasing function of the presence of hazardous waste sites and pollution in the form of toxic chemical releases. As well as increasing function of state plus local government spending per pupil on primary and secondary education and a decreasing function of the state individual income tax burden.

Prakash and Mohanty (2005) made an attempt to analyze the contribution of migrants to the growth of a state. The study observed that migration is universal and is sector/occupation specific. Lesser developed regions experienced more out-migration unlike developed regions which experience more in-migration. Distance was identified as one of the deciding factors for migration. Some of the other reasons were education, employment, marriage, family and other causes. Migrating labourers preferred industrially developed than developing regions, the same was true for the case of agricultural regions. The study pointed out rural-rural migrants to be larger in number which signifies migration of agricultural labourers. Migration improved efficiency of human capital, maximum exploitation of available and potential opportunities. It also helped in reducing wage differentials, labourers’ shortages and surpluses.

Suter (2005) revealed two fundamental issues. On the one hand, it shows why a sample of migrant workers came to the United Arab Emirates. Contemporary theories on international migration will be presented to analyze the results of the field study undertaken during four weeks in Dubai. On the other hand, living and working conditions for those migrant workers in the UAE are presented. Formal regulations and international conventions are compared to the actual practices in the UAE. Special focus will be given to formal regulations and widespread informal practices that easily generate irregularity.
Zachariah and Rajan (2004) provided the size, trend, geographical distribution, socio-economic composition of migrants, and remittances sent back by the migrants. The main focus of the study is, however, the analysis of the social and economic consequences of emigration on Kerala society. A point of view, which this study puts forth, is that emigration is a causative factor in the high unemployment rate prevailing in the State. An equally important "adverse" consequence is the emergence of "replacement migration". Emigrants from Kerala have converted Kerala itself into a "Gulf" for many a migrant worker from other States in India. By accepting low wages and poor living conditions, these outside workers are taking away a lot of work, which otherwise could have gone to Kerala workers.

Mridul (2004) attempted to raise an issue which had always concerned feminist scholars- the sex segregation of jobs and its perpetuation over time to the disadvantage of women workers, in the context of globalisation in India during the nineties. Data shows that horizontal segregation indicated by the index of dissimilarity has declined during the period 1987-88 and 1993-94 in urban areas but has increased slightly in rural areas. Women are more mobile between establishments while hardly achieving any upward mobility in terms of status/occupation. Recent studies have showed that Kerala scores poorly in terms of what are termed as non-conventional indicators attempting to capture power and subordination.

Drinkwater et. al (2003) reviews both theoretical and empirical papers that examine the economic effects of labour mobility with a particular reference to intra-European migration. They address three broad sets of issues: firstly, the effect that immigration has on the host country's labour market. Although the possible adverse effects that immigration can have on the wage and employment levels of natives are typically examined, immigration may also have a role to play in raising skill levels. This leads to the second broad issue: the effect of migration of a particular skill composition on the long-term (endogenous) growth of the host country. Finally, immigration can have a major economic impact on the source country. These effects
can either be positive or negative depending on the interplay between the effects of growth, remittances and the brain drain.

Rafique et al. (2003) stated that migrants from Murshidabad District of West Bengal are very vulnerable when they travel to other areas of the state. Seasonal migration has been a response to increasing vulnerability associated with lack of access to land, irrigation water, finance, supportive networks, contacts, and qualifications. There are slightly better-off households that are also migrating, but they are less vulnerable, and may undertake migration in order to save for or invest in a particular purpose.

Pushpangadan (2003) combined the effects of forward and backward linkages to the growth in tourism; trade and transport have resulted in the growth of hotels and restaurants. The durable goods accumulated by the households in the 80s have generated the growth of services in the informal sector for the repair, maintenance and servicing of these goods. In addition, the mushrooming of private institutions in health and education has also contributed much to the growth of other services during the period. Another strategy for the sustainable growth was to increase the share of the fast growing domestic tourism by innovating institutions for cost effectiveness to attract such tourists.

Zachariah, Prakash and Rajan (2002) examined employment and working conditions, wage levels and related problems of the Kerala emigrants. It gives the most authentic estimate of the annual remittances to Kerala from the Gulf countries and from other parts of the world. It concluded that changes in the emigration policy of the UAE government, completion of major infrastructure projects and economic recession in the region have reduced substantially the demand for unskilled and semi-skilled labourers in the UAE.

Kannan and Hari (2002) attempted to construct a time series estimation of remittances from abroad to the Kerala economy for the period 1972 to 2000. It is now widely acknowledged that remittances made by the people from Kerala working abroad, especially in the Middle East Countries to play a crucial role in to economy of
Kerala savings rates in the Kerala economy seemed to have reached such high levels comparable to the East and South East Asian countries. By the end of the nineties, remittances reached such levels that they were well above the total government expenditure, value added in manufacturing and even the value added in industrial sector as a whole.

Bhattacharya (2002) examined the impact of the SC and ST status as a proxy of social network, on rural-urban migration with regression analysis of intra-state rural-urban migration models on the basis of 1981 census data. His unit of data is state level data and he has analyzed only those who mentioned „employment“ as the reason of migration. In his findings, the presence of SC population in urban areas is found to give positive effect on the migration of SCs from rural areas while SC Incidence in rural regions is seen to reduce out-migration rates. The ST status, however, was seen not have any effects on rural-to-urban migration.

Zachariah, Gopinathan and Rajan (2001) aimed at three aspects of returned emigrants in Kerala – their occupational mobility, utilisation of their human and material resources in Kerala’s development and their rehabilitation. It describes their demographic, social and economic characteristics before emigration, after emigration and, after return to Kerala. Two suggestions for the rehabilitation of returned emigrants, for those who have already come back and for those who would be returning in future: establishment of a welfare scheme and organisation of co-operatives for specific tasks (example, public works, tourism projects etc) in which the work discipline the return emigrants have acquired abroad could be of immense use. The seed money for both should come from the commercial banks of Kerala, the institutions which have received and continue to receive, massive inflows of funds by way of emigrants” remittances.

Zachariah (2001) aimed at drawing the community’s attention to these emerging demographic trends, their likely impact on the community, and suggesting the need for some introspection on the part of the community on means to cope with the adverse fall out of the emerging trends. Two major areas for concern are identified.
The **first** is the concern about the diminishing absolute and relative size of the community. A second option is to work towards reducing the influence of religion and caste in the political economy of the state. With political independence, adult franchise and representative Government, Keralites, including the Syrian Christians, have become habituated to depend too much on Government help for all their needs, and blame the Government when they did not get what they wanted. A third option would be to improve the co-operation within the various Christian denominations and between the Christians and the non-Christians, especially those placed in the same demographic situation.

Rani and Shylendra,(2001) describes A short-term or seasonal migrant is one who migrates in the lean season into urban areas to get employment, wherein the rural migrants do not settle permanently in the destinations but continue to maintain close links with their areas of origin, where they return regularly and remit a substantial part of income from their earnings. And revealed that seasonal migration is mainly due to weak resources, as the cultivable land is small, less fertile and dependent largely on rain-fed cultivation. Moreover, due to inadequate farm and non-farm employment opportunities within the village, most of the households are compelled to migrate during the lean agricultural season to supplement their farm income.

Census Report (2001) contains two broader definitions of migrants. According to the Place of Birth (POB) criteria a person is defined as a migrant if the place of birth of the person who is enumerated at a village/town at the time of the Census is different from his/her place of birth. In accordance with Place of Last Residence (PLR) criterion, it defined a person as a migrant, if the place in which he/she is enumerated during the Census is other than his/her place of immediate last residence is considered as migrant.

Zachariah, Mathew and Rajan (2000) contributed more to poverty alleviation and reduction in unemployment in Kerala than any other factor. The core of the problem is the Kerala worker's inability to compete with expatriates from other South and South Asian countries. The solution naturally lies in equipping our workers with
better general education and job training. It suggests a two-fold approach - one with a long-term perspective and the other with a short-term perspective. In the short-run, the need is to improve the job skills of the prospective emigrant workers. In the long-run, the need is to restructure the whole educational system in the state taking into consideration the future demand for workers not only in Kerala but also in the potential destination countries all over the world, including the USA and other developed countries.

Zachariah, Mathew and Rajan (1999) showed that nearly 1.5 million Keralites now live outside India. They send home more than Rs.4,000 million a year by way of remittances. Three-quarters of a million emigrants have come back. They live mostly on savings, work experience, and skills brought with them from abroad. It also analyses the determinants and consequences of internal and external migration. Migration in Kerala began with demographic expansion, but it won't end with demographic contraction. Kerala has still time to develop itself into an internally self-sustaining economy. The prevailing cultural milieu of Kerala in which its people believe that anything can be achieved through agitation and any rule can be circumvented with proper political connections, must change and be replaced by a liberalized open economy with strict and definite rules of the game.

Borjas (1999) investigates if the location choices made by immigrants when they arrive in the United States are influenced by the interstate dispersion in welfare benefits. Income-maximizing behavior implies that foreign-born welfare recipients, unlike their native-born counterparts, may be clustered in the states that offer the highest benefits. The empirical analysis indicates that immigrant welfare recipients are indeed more heavily clustered in high-benefit states than the immigrants who do not receive welfare, or than natives. As a result, the welfare participation rate of immigrants is much more sensitive to changes in welfare benefits than that of natives. He concluded that welfare programs attract immigrants. The choice of migrant’s destination correlates positively with the different levels of welfar provisions in different States in the US.
De Haan (1999) observed that migration is not a choice for poor people, but is the only option for survival after alienation from the land and exploitation in origin places. Hence, in developing countries, the largest proportion of migrants moves between rural and urban areas.

Haan (1999) concludes that development studies have paid insufficient attention to labour migration, and makes a plea to integrate analyses of migration within those of agricultural and rural development. It emphasizes that population mobility is much more common than is often assumed, and that this has been so throughout human history. In fact, available material suggests that it is as likely that population mobility has decreased as that it has increased. A review of empirical studies shows that it may not be possible to generalize about the characteristics of migrants, or about the effects of migration on broader development, inequality or poverty. The review concludes that, given the importance of migration for the rural livelihoods of many people, policies should be supportive of population mobility, and possibilities explored to enhance the positive effects of migration.

Srivastava (1998) On the other hand, micro studies on migration in India suggest that push factors like inequality in land ownership, poverty and agricultural backwardness as being mainly responsible for out migration. In India, the population Census and National Sample Survey Organisation (NSSO) are the major secondary data sources on migration. However, these data sources severely underestimate seasonal/temporary migration as they only capture permanent and semi-permanent migration in the country.

Singh (1998) updates knowledge about emerging patterns of migration during 1961-91 in India. Data were obtained from the 1991 census. Findings are presented for migration volume, distance, and place of last residence, stream and duration of residence, reasons, and international flows. The number of migrants in 1991 amounted to 230 million of a total population of 838.6 million (27.4%). The volume of migrants increased from 144.8 million to 203.5 million during 1961-81. The percentage of migrants of total population declined over time. The percentage of migrants moving to
a place different from birth declined for both sexes from 20.8% to 14.6% for males and from 46% to 41.2% for females. In 1991, 16.2% were intra-district moves; 7.1% were inter-district moves; 3.3% were inter-state moves; and 0.8% was international moves (6.9 million people).

Reddy & Narasimha (2003), studied on Mahabubnagar, otherwise better known as Palamur District, reveal that there are several systems of seasonal migration from the District where people migrate to engage in activities like private/public project work, construction, migration for agricultural work in irrigated areas and traditional stone crushing work, and this has been transformed over the years.

Kim (1996) stated that international labour migration has been an essential feature of capitalist development throughout the world. In the past 10 to 15 years, the newly industrializing economies in Asia underwent a historical change from labour exporter to labour importer status. While structural changes have provided the context for such unprecedented reversal in labour migration, the flow of international labour migration is directly connected by contradictory and flexible state policies. Unlike the past labour migration from underdeveloped to developed regions of the world, the recent labour migration to developing countries in Asia reveals that the legalization of foreign labourers is an integral part of their temporary labour importation schemes. Based on a survey research in Korea, this paper points out the inadequacies of existing labour migration theories in explaining labour migration to developing countries in Asia, it identifies unique features of labour migration to developing countries, and brings to light specific state strategies for maintaining control over both legal and illegal labours.

Kundu and Gupta (1996) Census data is destination based and does not explain the deeper process of out-migration at the source areas. Though NSS provides data on out-migration, its coverage is seriously restricted as it treats out-migrants as only those persons who have to stay outside the state during the last five years.

Yadav (1996) analyzed the flow of remittances by migrants from urban to rural areas along with its contribution to the distribution of household income. The authors
studied different parts of the northern province of Uttar Pradesh by collecting data from primary and secondary sources. The study suggested that migrants were in a better position both socioeconomically and educationally as compared with the non-migrants. The remittances made by migrants not only improved the situation of their families but also lead to the deterioration of the status of the migrants due to partition of family or dissolution of household. The study focused on the consequences of migration in urban areas which were overcrowding, problem of dwelling, unemployment, pollution and creation of slums.

Meher(1994) studied the socio-economic profile of women and how employment had improved the socio-economic conditions in the city of Rourkela during the nineties. The study found that most of the women were migrants who came from other districts of the state, Bihar, West Bengal and the rest of India. The study also revealed that migrants got the inspiration to migrate not only from their neighbours, husband, relatives who had already migrated but also due to low economic status of family and to fulfill personal aspirations. Factors which influenced these women to migrate were low employment opportunities in rural areas, increasing population pressure on land, backward agriculture and poor economic conditions of the household.

National Commission on Rural Labour (NCRL, 1991) in their findings indicated increasing trends of short-duration or seasonal or temporary migrants over the years. The Commission concluded that such exodus from rural India is mainly because of the lack of opportunities, absence of employment, inadequate resources and prolonging backwardness of the regions. Most of these migrants temporarily (short stay) make a trip into prosperous regions. The study further notes that the duration of migration primarily depends on the household characteristics, economic necessity, employment availability and individual preferences to stay at the working place. In this regard, there are quite a number of empirical studies based on field surveys that tried to define and explain the process of migration in various dimensions and its socio-economic implications on the rural economy. In this perspective, NSS defined short-
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term migrants as those who had stayed away from the village/town for a period of one month or more, but less than six months during the last 365 days for employment, or in search of employment, thus such persons can be/have been called (referred) as short-term migrants. It may be noted that these short-term migrants do not change their Usual Place of Residence but undertake short-term movements (NSS Report No. 533: Migration in India: July, 2007-June, 2008).

Mehta (1991) concluded in his study in Hill Region of Uttar Pradesh and highlighted the characteristics and effects of migration on the pattern of income distribution. The study pointed out that migration leads to overall improvement in socio-economic status of an individual and economic development of the country as a whole through continuous interaction of labourers’ supply and demand. The benefits of migration are comparatively low during the initial period, but increase with the passage of time. The study found that the pattern of income contribution of migrants had improved after migration as they started utilizing their skills, knowledge and working capacity which remained underutilized in their native places due to non-availability of opportunities.

Joseph and Zachariah (1988) states that Kerala has been experiencing massive migration of the population to the advanced countries of the west and to the newly rich, oil-surplus countries of Middle East. It is an attempt to identity the factors which prompted the peasants of Travancore to migrate to Malabar and to assess the impact of the migration phenomenon on the development of the state economy.

Sommers & Suits (1973) examine the effects of both economic and regional factors influencing net migration patterns of black families as compared with white families. This will be done by means of regressions fitted to the cross section of 50 states. The results in general show that economic factors affect the net migration of white families and black families in different ways and that their influence was different in the decade 1960-70 than in the earlier period. Although the effect of allowing for regional characteristics is not significantly different from zero in the
1950-60 periods, a definite regional pattern for both races emerges the following decade.

Harris-Todaro (1970) important rural-urban migration theory put forward that migration is stimulated primarily by economic implications. The theory explains that the decision to migrate would depend upon expected higher wages (real wage differentials) and the probability of successfully obtaining an urban job.

Lee (1966) theory argues that migration is due to pull and push factors. Pull factors refer to better employment, higher wages, better life conditions, and good health and education opportunities at destinations. On the other hand, migration is impelled by push (distress) factors at home such as lack of employment, low wage rates, agricultural failure, debt, drought and other natural calamities.

Tarver (1963) confines itself to one minute aspect of the overall subject, that of interstate migration differentials. Its objective is to explain the variations in the annual interstate migration rates in the United States during the 13 year period 1947-1948 through 1959-1960. The underlying hypothesis is that age, sex, and year exert a selective influence upon annual interstate migration rates. It lays out the 13 annual CPS interstate migration rates for 1947-1948 through 1959-1960 in a randomized block design and analyzes them by the following linear mathematical model. The findings provide two alternate hypotheses: Males have slightly higher interstate migration rates than females, even though the differences are insignificant. Nonetheless, females tend to move at younger ages than males and their peak movement comes at an earlier age. Whereas females 18 and 19 years of age tend to be more mobile than males, men 20-34 years of age generally have much higher interstate migration rates than females of the same ages.

Raimon (1962) stated that wage differences are regarded as of little importance in the allocation process in the sense that the adjustment of labour supplies to the changing needs of industry is more or less independent of wage differences. And the focus is on long distance mobility and pertained exclusively to interstate movement. It
is entirely possible that conventional theory works well in the universes explored in this study and works poorly in the local labor market for manual workers. This does not mean that the high-wage employer in the local labor market would fail to enjoy more success in recruitment and retention.

Lewis, Feiand Ranis (1961) theory of migration talks about the dual economy, comprising the subsistence agricultural sector characterized by surplus labour and unemployment/underemployment and the modern industrial sector characterized by full employment. In the modern sector, wages are maintained at levels much higher than the average wage in agriculture sector.

Lewis (1954) theory says in the case of individual utility maximisation, the decision to migrate to cities would be determined by wage differentials, plus the expected probability of obtaining employment at the destination.

Bright & Thomas (1941) stated in the study Inter-state migration and intervening opportunities as follows, taking as a starting point the often-repeated observation that most people migrate short distances, few migrate long distances, but that there are many exceptions to this generalization, Stouffer's theory. on the basis of this demonstration and after giving due weight to the crudity of the available data and of our application of Stouffer's technique to them, is that interstate migration has in general followed the pattern of opportunities and intervening opportunities very closely. This generalization holds, however, only if we allow for the major disturbances in the pattern attributable to qualitative differences in the opportunities sought in California and elsewhere and if allowance is made for the directional factor in the movement from the Middle West
Research Gap

Most of the study done in the field of migration is with regard to the External Migration (Gulf/Foreign Migration) in Kerala.

Kerala, which for long time experienced outward migration, has started experiencing inward migration since 2005. This has numerous implications for the state in terms of cost of labour, labour productivity, socio-economic factors and overall industrial environment in terms of Quality of Work Life and Social Implication. The present study examines this paradigm in the state. It identifies support for industries from migrant labour in terms of three sectors namely- Construction, Hotel and restaurant and Domestic workers from agriculture sector. Similarly quality of work life of migrant labour vis-à-vis local labour is studied based on sector they belonged to. The Quality of work life and problems faced is examined as possibilities for industrial growth based on the sectors identified.
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