CHAPTER III

MIGRATION AND INDUSTRIALISATION IN KERALA - AN OVERVIEW

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Migration and Industrialisation in Kerala- An Overview

Migration is an important feature of human civilization and it’s a global phenomenon in modern times. Due to globalization and expansion of transportation and communication, it has become a part of the process of industrialization and urbanization. In several countries, it has been observed that industrialization and economic development has been accompanied by large scale movements of people from rural to urban area and one district to another district, one state to another state. Migration has been defined as crossing of the boundary of a legal, political and administrative unit for a certain minimum period of time. It includes the movement of people from one place to another place in the hope of better opportunities, high standard of living, jobs etc. According to classical theories, migration is a rational decision made by an individual or group of persons to move from one undeveloped place to a developed place to gain new opportunities. There are a host of definitions of the term migration. To a large extent, the variations in the definition are due to the difference in the nature, scope or purpose of the study or discussion.

3.1 Definitions of the Concepts

Dictionaries generally refer to migration as a change of residence from one place to another. According to the Oxford Advanced Learner’s Dictionary of Current English, to migrate means to “move from one place to another (to live there)”.

According to the Webster’s New World Dictionary, it means to “move from one place to another, especially to another country” or “to move from place to place to harvest seasonal crops.”

Everett Lee (1968) defines migration “broadly as a permanent or semi-permanent change of residence. No restriction is placed upon the distance of the move or upon the voluntary and involuntary nature of the act and no distinction is made between external and internal migration.”

According to Weinberg, (1975)“human migration is the changing of the place abode permanently or, when temporarily, for an appreciable duration as e.g., in the case of
seasonal workers. It is used symbolically in the transition from one surrounding to another in the course of human life.”

According to Mangalam,(1962)“Migration is a relatively permanent moving away of a collectivity, called migrants, from one geographical location to another preceded by decision-making on the part of the migrants on the basis of a hierarchically ordered set of values or value ends and resulting in changes in the interactional system of the migrants.”

Caplow (1975) states that “Migration is, strictly speaking, a change of residence and need not necessarily involve any change of occupation, but it is closely associated with occupational shifts of one kind or another.

Some definitions regard migration as a permanent change of residence. However, as the term is commonly understood today, it includes even certain temporary changes of residence provided and this temporary period is not very short.

“Labour Migration - Movement of persons from one state to another, or within their own country of residence, for the purpose of employment. Labour migration is addressed by most States in their migration laws. In addition, some States take an active role in regulating outward labour migration and seeking opportunities for their nationals abroad.

“Migration – Migration relates to relocation or permanent movement from one place to another place. This includes people who move from one city to another city, one state to another state, one country to another country. It also includes those who move from villages to cities. Migration however usually doesn’t include those who move from one part of city to another part.”

“Labour – The aggregate of all human physical and mental effort used in creation of goods and services. Labour is a primary factor of production. The size of a nations’s labour force is determined by the size of its adult population and the extent to which the adults are either working or as prepared to offer their labours for wages.”

“Migrant – The term migrant was usually understood to cover all where the decision to migrate was taken freely by the individual concerned for reasons of “Personal
Convenience and without intervention of an external compelling factors; it therefore applied to persons, and family members, moving to another country or region to better their material or social conditions and improve the prospect for themselves or their family.

“Casual Migration” – Small movements between neighboring district which gain importance if the district is situated across the state boundary.

“Temporary Migration” – This type of migration relates to temporary work like journeys on business or in connection with pilgrimages, marriage ceremonies etc.

“Periodic Migration” – This type of migration related to particular period of time when labour demand is very high. Like seasonal migration for harvesting purpose to earn their livelihood.

“Semi-Permanent” – It is a type of migration in which the person earns their livings at another places but they maintain their original own homes and ultimately return to that place.

“Permanent Migration” – In this type of migration the people migrates from original place due to unavailability of basic needs such as electricity, water availability, improve communication facility or change political condition.

“Interstate Migration” – Interstate migration means movement of people from one state to another state for work purpose.

“Intrastate Migration” – Intra state migration means movement of people under the state boundary from one district to another district.

**Migrants and Movers**

A distinction may be made between migrants and movers. Migrants are those who move between political units, whereas movers are those who move within them. Thus, at any given time, the total population of a region can be divided into *migrants* and *non-migrants*, *movers* and *non-movers*. This classification establishes the *mobility status* of the population.”
In migration, Outmigration, Immigration and Emigration

The terms in migration and outmigration are related to internal migration whereas immigration and emigration are related to external migration or international migration.

In migration refers to migration into a place from another place within the same country and outmigration refers to migration out of a place to another place within the same country. Thus, the term outmigration is used with reference to the area of origin (departure) of the migrant and the term in migration is used with reference to the area of destination (arrival) of the migrant.

Immigration refers to migration into one country from another country and emigration refers to migration out of the country. However, sometimes the terms immigration and in migration are used as synonyms. So are terms emigration and outmigration.

Voluntary Migration, Sequential Migration and Forced Migration

On the basis of the reasons for migration, migration may be classified as voluntary migration, sequential migration and forced migration. If the migrant had the opportunity to exercise his own discretion in deciding whether to migrate or not or in the matter of selecting the place of migration, it is regarded as voluntary migration. Sequential migration, on the other hand, is the migration due to some element of customary obligation and suggestion of compelling circumstance (For example, migration following marriage, migration of children association is the migration of the guardian, etc.). Forced migration is the migration caused by compulsion or coercion like separation, political or religious persecution, eviction, etc.

Illegal Migration

Illegal migration, also known as irregular migration and undocumented migration, refers to the migration that occurs circumventing the regulations governing migration or without the knowledge of the authorities concerned. There are a variety of reasons for such migration including “the absence of explicit immigration policies or of an administrative infrastructure to implement existing ones; administrative
inefficiency, imprecise or incompatible laws or regulations; or complex regulations; or because migrants, with or without the collusion of their employers, knowingly circumvented or broke unambiguous admission, stay or employment laws or regulations.”

**Circular Mobility**

Circular mobility may be defined as “a great variety of movements, usually short term, repetitive or cyclical in nature, but all having in common factor the lack of any declared intention of permanent or long lasting residence.”

**Chain migration**

“The movement of people tends to be to those places where they have contacts and where the old migrants serve as links for the new migrants; and the chain which is thus formed is usually termed as chain migration”. This refers to the subsequent migration of families and relatives, following the initial move by the first migrants from a community. As the family or friends migrate, a network of information flows back to the point of origin, reducing the obstacles to migration for later migrants.

“Surveys and migrant life histories show that people do not blindly go to the city. They usually have kinship ‘chains’ and ‘networks’ of relatives and friends who help them.” It has been observed that “whatever the motivation of the initial migrants from a given geographical area or kin-group, chain migration usually continues to move other members of the group, by cooperative efforts which cut across economic factors.”

**Migration Streams**

A group of migrant with a common origin and destination is called a migration stream or a migration current. A stream may also have counter stream i.e, a flow migrant in the opposite direction.

**Gross Migration and Net Migration**

“The term gross migration refers to the total number of immigrants and out migrants of an area and is sometimes referred to as the turnover of an area. If analysis
is restricted to two units connected by a migration stream, the total size of both stream and counter stream is called the *gross interchange* between the two areas and the difference between the two is referred to as the net stream or *net interchange* between the areas.”

“If analysis is limited to a single unit, total moves affecting its population (immigration and outmigration) are referred to as *gross migration* or *volume of migration* whereas the difference between the two streams would be *net migration* or *balance of migration* (which may be positive or negative). Sometimes more special terms, *net immigration* or *net out migration* are used. By comparing net migration with gross migration, *efficiency* or *efficacy* of migration can be established.”

**3.2 Types of Migration**

Migration can be classified into two broad categories according to movement of people:

**External (International migration)**

**Internal (National migration)**

Internal migration or national migration refers to migration from one place to another place within a country whereas external migration or international migration refers to migration from one country to another country. Internal migration is very high in comparison to External migration.

**3.2.1 International Migration**

International Labour Migration has received increasing international attention in the past two decades as more other countries are affected by international migration and want to enhance the benefits that can be derived from it as well as the way labour migration flows are managed. Migration constitutes a challenge for destination countries as they have to balance the needs of domestic business and labour markets with the views and needs of their own citizens, as well as the rights and protection of labour migrants. International migration has two types of effect that is beneficial and detrimental effects. If the migration constitutes a large number of skilled manpower,
then it is consider as detrimental effect and if the country receives foreign currency in the form of remittance, then the migration is beneficial. On the other hand, in receiving countries people believe that the migration is beneficial when it fills up the shortage and unskilled manpower. But such type of migration may adversely affect the wage level and employment opportunity of natives. When the migrants become permanent residents in some cases, they induce changes in social & cultural characteristics of receiving countries. For example after world war two many migrates became permanent resident of Germany under German guest worker programme of 1960-70s which helped to rebuild the country.

3.2.2 National Migration

In India basically two types of migration is available first Interstate and Intrastate migration. Interstate migration is very high in comparison to intrastate migration. Labour migration is very complex phenomena in modern times. In some part of India, three out of five households include a migrant. Mainly two types of labour migration are in practice in India; Skilled or planned migration and Unskilled or unplanned migration. **Skilled or planned migration** – it relates with mental work of labour. They have some skills & knowledge for any proper work.  **Unskilled or unplanned migration** – it relates with physical work. They have not any skill for any proper work. In the context of India unskilled migration is more in comparison to skilled migration.

3.3 Interstate Migrant Labours in Kerala

The recent trend in the employment sector in the State shows a large inflow of migrant workers from other states such as West Bengal, Bihar, Odisha, Uttar Pradesh, Chhattisgarh, and Jharkhand besides the neighboring states. Working conditions of the inter-state migrant workmen are dealt under the Inter State Migrant Workmen Regulation of Employment and Condition of service Act, 1979. As per the provisions of the Act, the contractor has to obtain a recruitment license from the state from where the workers are recruited (Original State) and an employment license from the state where they are employed (recipient state). Accordingly the contractor and the principal employer become liable for ensuring the provisions envisaged in the
enactment as an immediate employer and the principal employer respectively. But usually these workers cannot be brought under the purview of the enactment due to lack of statutory ingredients required to attract the ambit of the enactment such as intermediary third party/contractor between the principal employer and the workmen. These workers are compelled to live in groups in unhygienic conditions near their working place without proper health facilities. The distribution of migrant workers from different states is given below. As may be seen, out of the total ISM workers 46 percent are from West Bengal followed by Orissa (15%) and Assam (11%). The origin-wise inter-state migrant workers are given in the Figure 3.1. The distribution of district wise migrated workers in the state shows that Ernakulam has the highest proportion of 17 per cent followed by Wayanad 13 percent and Kannur 11 percent. Figure 3.2 presents district wise ISM workers in Kerala

![Figure 3.1 Origin wise Inter State Migrant workers in Kerala](image)

Source: Economic Review 2016, State Planning Board, Thiruvananthapuram, Kerala, India March 2017
These Inter State Migrant workers are engaged in different areas such as agriculture, construction, hotel and restaurant, manufacturing and trade. It is seen that 60 percent of the migrant workers are engaged in the construction sectors, 8 percent in manufacturing, 7 percent under hotels and restaurant, 2 percent each under trade and agriculture and the remaining 21 percent engaged under other activities.

### 3.3.1 Sectors of Employment of Migrant Labour in Kerala

The striking aspect of the Domestic Migrant labour in Kerala is that they have come to fill almost all occupations and sectors of the economy. Of the total Domestic Migrant labour 60 per cent are in Construction sector, While 8.3 per cent in Manufacturing sector, 6.94 per cent in Hotel and Restaurant Sector, 2.31 per cent in Agriculture sector and 1.77 per cent in Trade whereas 17.55 per cent comes under other category and 3.13 per cent not reported. In the **construction sector** 43.40 per
cent are in the unskilled sector, where 10.61 per cent are in the skilled work, 3.54 per cent as mason/flooring, 0.54 per cent as carpenter, 0.27 per cent as sales person and 4.91 per cent comes under other category and 0.27 per cent not reported. In **manufacturing sector** 4.22 per cent are in the unskilled sector, where 3.13 per cent are in the skilled work, 0.14 per cent as carpenter and in tailoring, 0.67 per cent comes under other category and 0.14 per cent not reported. **Hotel and Restaurant sector** 5.44 per cent are in the unskilled sector, where 0.54 per cent is in the skilled work and other category, 0.14 per cent comes under as Electrician and sales person. In **Agriculture sector** 2.04 per cent are in the unskilled sector, where 0.14 per cent is in the skilled work and sales person. In **trading sector** 1.36 per cent is in the unskilled sector, where 0.14 per cent is in the skilled work, Carpenter and sales person. And In the **other categories** 11.56 per cent are in the unskilled sector, where 3.67 per cent are in the skilled work, 0.81 per cent as carpenter, 0.41 per cent as electrician, 0.27 per cent as Tailoring and 0.15 per cent comes under other category and 0.68 per cent not reported.

Their largest concentration is in the booming construction sector. Manufacturing, Hotel and Restaurants and Trade too report substantive number, Agriculture has also become dependent on migrant labour. The others group contains a multitude of sectors. Thus, Kerala economy is driven by the large Domestic Migrant Labour (DML). While the largest concentration of DML is among the unskilled work 69.52 per cent and the next largest category is that of skilled work 18.50 per cent, whereas Masonry 3.68 per cent, carpentry 1.90 per cent and electrical work and sales person 0.69 per cent too have seen their entry. On the whole, the DML have begun entering all skills and all sectors in Kerala. The Details are given in Table: 3.1
### Table: 3.1 Distribution of Domestic Migrant Labour (DML) by Occupation and Sector of Employment (In percentage)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Occupation</th>
<th>Agriculture</th>
<th>Construction</th>
<th>Hotel and Restaurant</th>
<th>Manufacturing</th>
<th>Trade</th>
<th>Others</th>
<th>Not Reported</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Carpenter</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.54</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>1.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electrician</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.41</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>0.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mason/Flooring</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>3.54</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>3.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sales Person</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tailoring</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skilled work</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>10.61</td>
<td>0.54</td>
<td>3.13</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>3.67</td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td>18.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unskilled Work</td>
<td>2.04</td>
<td>43.40</td>
<td>5.44</td>
<td>4.22</td>
<td>1.36</td>
<td>11.56</td>
<td>1.50</td>
<td>69.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>4.91</td>
<td>0.54</td>
<td>0.67</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not Reported</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.68</td>
<td>0.95</td>
<td>2.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>2.31</td>
<td>60.00</td>
<td>6.94</td>
<td>8.30</td>
<td>1.77</td>
<td>17.55</td>
<td>3.13</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Report submitted to Labour and Rehabilitation Department, Government of Kerala - Feb, 2013

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**Figure 3.3 Sector of Employment of Migrant Workers In Kerala**
Return migration or repeat migration was very substantial among internal migrants to and from Kerala during 1981-1991. Nearly 38 per cent of the in-migrants (to Kerala) moved out from Kerala within 10 years. Similarly, 40 per cent of the out-migrants (from Kerala) moved out from the state where they were in 1981 to another state (other than Kerala) within a decade. The extent of such return migration or repeat migration is more or less of the same magnitude (about two out of five) for all categories—males and females, who were migrants in the 1970s and the migrants in the 1980s, representing the total number of persons who moved in to Kerala and persons who moved out of Kerala. The Net migration results were given in Table 3.2

Table 3.2 Net Migration 1971-1981 and 1981 -1991 (Migrants with Duration of Residence less than 10 years)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Males</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Males</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Persons</th>
<th>Persons</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>In-migration</td>
<td>117,865</td>
<td>120,403</td>
<td>102,968</td>
<td>104,933</td>
<td>220,833</td>
<td>225,336</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Out-migration</td>
<td>279,048</td>
<td>228,684</td>
<td>219,014</td>
<td>210,601</td>
<td>498,062</td>
<td>439,285</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Net internal migration in Kerala was negative during 1981-1991, the state continues to lose population through migration to other states in the country. An important conclusion which emerges from these figures is that, between the two decades 1971-1981 and 1981-1991, out migration increases considerably, by about 59,000 persons. Out-migration of males during the recent decade was considerably lower than that during the previous decade, 1971-1981 (by about 50,000 persons). Out-migration of females also decreased but only by about 8,000 persons. In migration remained more or less at the same magnitude for both the sexes. During this decade Kerala gained more people from other states in the country than it lost to them.
3.3.2 Inter-State Migration in India

During the first half of the twentieth century, the principal destination of the out-migrants from Kerala had been the neighbouring states: Tamil Nadu and Karnataka. Next in order of importance was Maharashtra. Thus in 1901, over 80 per cent of the out-migrants from the erstwhile Travancore and Cochin states were enumerated in the erstwhile Madras Province. Maharashtra accounted for another 7 per cent and Karnataka 6 per cent giving a total of 93 per cent. By 1971, out migrants from Kerala were spread out. Tamil Nadu’s Share was reduced to 40 per cent, karnataka’s share increased to 19 per cent, and maharashtra’s share increased to 18 per cent. In 1991, Tamil Nadu’s share decreases further to 32 per cent. The percentage Distribution of migrants by states of origin and destination were given in Table 3.3 and Table 3.4

Table 3.3 Percentage Distribution of Migrants by States of Origin and Destination (Out Migration)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Out migration</th>
<th>Out-Migration (PLR) with duration less than 10 years</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Birth place (BP)</td>
<td>Place of residence (PLR) all duration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tamil Nadu</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>323</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Karnataka</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maharashtra</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Andhra Pradesh</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gujarat</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Madhya Pradesh</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 3.4 Percentage Distribution of Migrants by States of Origin and Destination (In Migration)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>In migration</th>
<th></th>
<th>In-Migration (PLR) with duration less than 10 years</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Birth place (BP)</td>
<td>Place of residence (PLR) all duration</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tamil Nadu</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Karnataka</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maharashtra</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Andhra Pradesh</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


### 3.4 Trend & Pattern of Migration in India - Overview

Internal migration is very big issue in India where many Social and economic factors are influencing life. India is geographically divided into 28 states and 7 union territories. According to the “International Organization for Migration” the total number of migrants has increased from 150 million in 2000 to 214 million in 2010. This means that 3.1 percent of the world's populations are migrants; this percent has remained relatively stable over the past decade. The percent of migrants change vastly depending on the country of origin. On the other hand India had a low percent of international migrants 0.4 percent.
The Human Development report (2009) notes that 37% of the world's migrants move from developing countries to developed countries. Most migrants, (60%) move within countries of the same category of development. Only 3% of migrants moved from developed countries to developing countries. Half of all migrants moved within their own region, while 40% moved to a neighbouring country.

“According to 2011 Census about 30% of the total population of the country where migrated from the last residence. This figure indicates an increase of around 37% from the census 2001. Among the total migrants 18% are of male migration and 45% are of female migration. 80% of the total migrants where within the state and 13% where inter-state migration. Among the male migrants 79% moved within the state of enumeration while 21% moved between states. Among the female migrant 90% where intra-state migration and 10% where inter-state migrant. Male migrants from rural to urban areas emerged as the most prominent accounting for 47%. In census 2011, the reason behind the migration has been classified into seven broad groups like work/employment, business, education, marriage, moved at birth, moved with family and others.”

3.5 Population and Decadal Growth Rate

As per 2011 Provisional Population Figures, Rural Population in Kerala is 17,455,506. Out of this 8,403,706 are males and 9,051,800 are females whereas urban population in this state is 15,932,171. Out of this, 7,617,584 are males and 8,314,587 are females. The decadal decline of rural population was –25.96%, whereas the urban population has grown by 92.72%. The details are given in Appendix IV. The State has now 52.30 per cent rural population in 2011 Census as against 74.04 per cent in 2001 Census. The huge growth in urban population during the past decade 2001-2011 (92.72 %) could be attributed squarely to the manifold increase in number of Towns in the State between 2001 & 2011 from 159 to 520. 47.72% of the total population of Kerala are from Urban. Ernakulam is the most urbanised district (68.07%) and Wayanad (3.87%) is the least urbanised district of the State.
Sex Ratio (Females per 1000 Males)
The Overall sex ratio of Kerala is 1084 females per 1000 males. Whereas, Sex ratio of rural area is 1077 and that of urban area is 1091.

Literacy
Total number of literates in Kerala is 28,234,227 and total literacy rate is 93.91%. Among these, literates in Rural area is 14,595,727 and that in Urban area is 13,638,500. The numbers of male literates in Rural area is 7,158,427 and the number of male literates in Urban area is 6,597,461. Female literates in rural areas are 7,437,300 and that in urban area is 7,041,039. Literacy rate in the rural area is 92.92% and that of urban area is 94.99 %. The gender gap in literacy in rural area of the State is found to be 4.55%; whereas that in urban area is 3.5% Figures at a glance and Data Sheet showing district level break up of Rural & Urban of the state is given in Appendix IV

3.6 Labour and Labour Welfare

Labour and labour welfare is the cornerstone of human development policies undertaken by the Government to attain greater efficiency and productivity and ensure safety and security of its human resources. Labour market has witnessed significant transformation in the last two decades both in terms of employment conditions and industrial relations. Labour is a subject in the concurrent list where both Centre and state government are empowered to enact legislations. Kerala has always recognized the value addition of the working class in the economic transition of the state which is reflected in the welfare measures enacted by the government. It is accepted fact that labour laws and labour welfare schemes implemented by the State have been commendable compared to other parts of the country. Existing unique labour structure in the state have been achieved through the active intervention of the Government on right to work of one’s choice, right against discrimination, prohibition of child labour, social security, protection of wages, redressal of grievances, right to organize and form trade unions, collective bargaining and participation in management. The
Government is of the view that every employee/worker should be a member in a Labour Welfare Board and they must be protected by the state throughout their lives. Currently around 29 Labour Welfare Fund Board exist in the State, of which 16 are under the Labour Commissioner ate.

Kerala however, has been facing challenges in terms of high rate of unemployment and under employment, low rate of productive employment, inadequate levels of skills creation and training, low level of labour force participation and low worker population ratio and disparity in wages of male and female. Essentially, the state has to create employment opportunities and employment intensive growth and for which the labour force has to be allowed to move from low value added to high value added activities.

3.7 Characteristics of Migration and Migrants

There are some commonly observed characteristics of migrants and migration. One such important characteristic is the age selectivity. It has been generally observed that there is high concentration of migrants among young adult ages. Three important reasons for this:

(i) People tend to be more mobile in this age group;

(ii) Migration for employment takes place mostly at young adult age. It may be pointed out here that the proportion of migrants in the labour force is usually higher than the proportion of migrants to the total population of the area

(iii) A major part of the female migration is consequential to marriage which mostly occurs at the young adult age. Thus, “people have a much greater propensity to move when they are between their late teens and their mid-thirties than at other ages. This is clearly associated with life cycle before and after this period, family ties restrict mobility.”
3.8 Laws and Theoretical Models of Migration

The important laws and theoretical models of migration which attempt to explain the nature of and reasons for migration.

3.8.1 Todaro Model

The hypothesis presented by Harris and Todaro (1970) related to rural-to-urban migration is an important model for migration analysis when people move from rural towns to urban sites. They hypothesize that individuals migrate to urban sectors with the objective of obtaining employment in the formal sector and that informal sector employment is a transitional phase during which migrants are looking for a more formal job. Their seminal work based on a model of interregional migration is characterized by a certain degree of selectivity (Harris and Todaro 1970). The Todaro model suggests that younger migrants increase the time period for expected income. Also, migrants with a higher level of education have a higher probability of obtaining formal employment. Married migrants are expected to have lower level of migration rates, because of the higher costs related to relocation of the whole family. (Mincer 1978)

Migration is essentially selective. So it is also stated migrant selectivity. Despite some exceptions, for example forced migration or movements to colonization projects, the vast majority of migration contain an element of migrant selectivity (also known as differentiation). In general, selectivity occurs because there are distinct differences between the interests of the individuals who belong to various social groups. The most commonly examined personal differences are related to age, gender, level of education, socio-professional status, marital status, and housing situation (owner or renter of property). Consequently, such attitudinal differences are manifested in behavioral differences with respect to staying in or leaving the community. Younger people, for example, are more likely to migrate than older persons.
An important aspect of migrant selectivity, known as "chain migration" (Cox 1972). This refers to the subsequent migration of families and relatives, following the initial move by the first migrants from a community. As the family or friends migrate, a network of information flows back to the point of origin, reducing the obstacles to migration for later migrants.

The merit of Todaro’s model postulates that migration proceeds in response to urban-rural differences in expected rather than actual earnings. The basic behavioural assumption of the model is that migrants consider the various labour market opportunities available to them, as between the rural and urban sectors, and choose the one which maximizes their expected gains from migration. The expected gains are a function of (1) the existing real wage differential that prevails for different skill and educational categories of workers, and (2) the degree of probability of a new migrant obtaining an urban job. It is the combination and interaction of these two variables – the urban–rural income differential and probability of securing an urban job which determine the rate and magnitude of rural-urban migration, according to the Todaro model.

3.8.2 Lee’s Theory

According to Everett S. Lee (1966) the decision to migrate and the process of migration are influenced by four important sets of factors. They are:

(i) Factors associated with the area of origin.
(ii) Factors associated with the area of destination.
(iii) Intervening factors.
(iv) Personal factors.

In every area, there are usually two or three sets of factors that influence the decision to migrate. One set of factors attract people to it, the other set of factors, on the other hand, tend to repel people from the area. There may also be another set of factors to which people are usually indifferent. Migration is influenced by these sets of factors in combination with the intervening obstacles and personal factors.
Geographers summarize the motivations for migration by considering how the relationship between two points (origin and destination) are affected by push factors and pull factors. Push factors exist at the point of origin and act to trigger emigration; these include the lack of economic opportunities, religious or political persecution, hazardous environmental conditions, and so on. Pull factors exist at the destination and include the availability of jobs, religious or political freedom, and the perception of a relatively benign environment. Pushes and pulls are complementary — that is, migration can only occur if the reason to emigrate (the push) is remedied by the corresponding pull at an attainable destination. In the context of labor migration, push factors are often characterized by the lack of job opportunities in sending areas or countries, and pull factors are the economic opportunities presented in receiving areas or countries.

While migration may result from the comparative strengths of the plus and minus factors at the origin and destination, a simple calculus of the ‘+’ and ‘-’s does not decide the act of migration. The balance in favour of the move must be enough to overcome the intervening obstacles and the natural inertia. The flow of migrants between two places may not totally develop if intervening obstacles exist between them. The number of migrants is directly proportional to the number of opportunities at a given place and inversely proportional to the number of intervening obstacles. (One may also think of intervening obstacles as intervening opportunities; that is, the presence of other places between an origin and destination point to which one could migrate.) Therefore, the volume of migration from one place to another is associated not only with the distance between places and number of people in the two places, but also with the number of opportunities or obstacles between each place. This is especially true in labour migration. Lee’s conceptualization of migration as involving a set of factors at origin and destination, a set of intervening obstacles and a serious of personal factors is generally regarded as a simple one which may be accepted as self-evident.
3.8.3 Neo Classical Economic Theory

This theory states that the main reason for labour migration is wage difference between two geographic locations. These wage differences are usually linked to geographic labour demand and supply. Borjas et al.,(1990), viewed that the area with a shortage of labour supply, but an excess capital have high relative wages while areas with a high labour supply and a dearth of capital have a low relative wage. Labour tends to flow from low wage areas to high wage areas. He also argued that migrants who have high levels of productivity and who adapt rapidly to conditions in the host country’s labour market can make a significant contribution to economic growth. Natives need to be concerned with the possibility that these migrants will increase expenditures on social assistance programs. Conversely, if in migrants lack the skills that employers demand and find it difficult to adapt, it may significantly increase the costs associated with income maintenance programs as well as exacerbate the ethnic wage differentials already in existence in the host country. This theory is best used to describe transnational migration because it is not confined by international in migration laws and similar governmental regulations.

3.7.4 World System Theory

Developed by Wallerstein (1970), otherwise known as world system analysis is a multidisciplinary macro scale approach to world history and social change emphasizes the world system as the primary unit of social analysis. Inter-regional and transnational division of labour divides world into core countries semi periphery countries and periphery countries. Core countries focus in higher skill, capital intensive production and rest of the world focuses in low skill labour intensive production and extraction of natural resources. According to him migration is not to the bifurcation of the labour market within particular national economies but the structure of the world market that has developed and expanded. The penetration of capitalist economic relations into peripheral non capitalist societies creates a mobile population that is prone to migrate abroad. Driven by a desire for higher profit and
greater wealth, owners and managers of capitalist firms enter poor economies of the world in search of land, raw material, labor, new customers etc. Migration is a natural outgrowth of disruptions and dislocations that inevitably occur in the process of capitalist economy.

3.7.5 Banergee and Bhattacharya Models

According to Banergee (1984) and Bhattacharya (1998), the model suggested by Todaro does not describe the migration habit in India. They are of the view that the urban labour market in India is segmented into urban formal sector and urban informal sector. Low skilled rural workers does not see the informal sector as unproductive and stagnant as they are fully aware of their potential and limited opportunities in formal sector even though, they provide higher wages, regularity of income, job security etc. Therefore, it is economically rational for a low skilled worker to migrate to the informal sector. Further, they remarked that only a relatively small number of unskilled migrants are directly absorbed in the formal sector.

From the above established theories of migration it is crystal clear that the study of human migration has had and continues to have a major impact on human societies. The effects are seen not only in the sending societies but also in receiving societies which are not always countries or nations. The impact of these movements either internal or external may be serious both for the surrounding and global economies. The study has gained further importance as an academic discipline called ‘sociology of migration’ or ‘migration studies’ to different peoples. For demographers it is indispensible to chart the population consequences while sociologist’s document and analyze its social consequences. Economists chart the economic consequences and geographers study the implications of spatial redistribution of people. Historians provide the contexts of movements and medical researchers look at the health implications of migration. The globe experienced most migration as economic or labour because of the existence of dual economies of rich and down trodens. As part of a developing economy Indian situations are also not different. The present study envisages the socio economic conditions of migrant workers who cross the
geographical boundary of Kerala to support their families and to follow a lifestyle that they can’t follow in their own society. This socially acceptable reason/motive change over time and may lead migrants to stay away for longer or shorter periods than they had originally intended, the length of time of a movement being important as it influence the consequences of the movement.
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