Reviews always reflect the previous facts theoretically which reinforce the intellect of the scholars and broaden the thinking to achieve comprehensive and perceptive understanding of the study which help a new scholar. To a scholars who desires to organize the study systematically and to expose the existing effects of an issue, related reviews worked out by scholars, previously, helps to find a way to design his study perpetually, giving broadly comprehensive presentation.

Many an economist and many more scholars have performed and have been performing researches to estimate the repercussions and adverse impact of migration and trying to suggest/recommend preventive measures, since a long time. Since, migration has been a burning problem of the nation, the policy makers are also paying attention towards this issue.

In this regard, to have a comprehensive understanding of this irksome issue, i.e., migration a broad and wide examination and study of the works done by various scholars, is essentially needed. For effective presentation of heart moving facts with relevance to the theoretical laws and models, a sagacious study has been carried on and a humble task is made to present them in this chapter.

For a convenient, presentation all the reviews discussed in this chapter, are divided into three categories under three sections.

The first section deals with the general reviews on migration. Distinguished reviews on gender migration is presented in section II and section III depicts the reviews on theoretical approach of migration.
SECTION –I

2.1 REVIEWS RELATED TO GENERAL ASPECTS OF MIGRATION

Reviews on various aspects of migration, in general, such as, movements of workers including artisans, and tribals, the influx of their movements towards urbanized and industrialized sectors from agricultural and other traditional sectors, are presented in this section.

K.C. Zachariah, P.R. Gopinathan Nair and S. Irudaya Rajan’s study shed light on the formulation of a policy designed to reabsorb and rehabilitate return emigrants and to utilize their investment potential and skills for the development of the state by involving them in the ongoing programme of people’s planning and development. The sample comprised already identified in the study conducted in 1998 (Zachariah, Mathew and Irudaya Rajan) in nine out of the fourteen districts of Kerala. This together accounted for nearly 80 per cent of return emigrants identified in all the fourteen districts in 1998. They concluded that for nearly one-fifths of return emigrants, the emigration experience was a misadventure and as a result they lost their wealth, health, and energy. There is no economic justification for any agency to provide social welfare assistance except to small group. They gave some important suggestions that have been made for the rehabilitation of return emigrants, for those who have already come back and for those who would be returning in future. These are introducing a welfare scheme and organising co-operatives for specific tasks which could probably utilize the work discipline of return emigrants.

Farhana Ibrahim discussed the migration of Harijans from Tharparkar, Sindh into Kachchh in 1971. He found that the Harijan man crossed the border of India illegally is acted not so much out of an abstract sense of loyalty to the nation, but more because he wishes to visit his sister and live in her village. His more instrumental desire animated by kinship networks and perhaps by economics as well, is real by the state as part of its settlement policies in the border that are driven by a need to dilute Muslim presence there. By village in Sindh, his move finds resonance with the larger regional and national political stance that India has adopted at the border and Pakistan.
David Mosse, Sanjeev Gupta, and Vidya Shah\textsuperscript{2005} examined that the nature, experience and implications of such emigration in Western India primarily to major urban centers for construction work. They said that especially for informal urban sector and construction work rural development agencies-state and NGO-have yet to regard that seasonal flow of workers as anything but a problem to be stopped, those institutions mandated to protect vulnerable informal workers—such that labour departments, unions and the law—have largely failed to do so. They concluded Adivasi migrant labourers depend for work and their welfare upon agents, brokers, and contractors who are also their most intimate exploiters\textsuperscript{3}.

This article reviews the economic and social consequences of labour migration from Kerala to the Gulf Region. In India, Kerala is both the major source of migrant workers and the primary recipient of workers’ remittances. Based on a survey of 10,000 households in Kerala, the article presents the economic impacts of labour migration in terms of housing quality and amenities and ownership of consumer durables. The social consequences are assessed in terms of how labour migration has affected the care of the elderly and women’s roles. A major policy challenge is preparing for the return of migrants\textsuperscript{4}.

This article attempts to evaluate the impact of “urban-rural” migration on Bank Rakyat Indonesia (BRI) employees in three aspects. First, it analyses the impact of migration on employees’ personal lives, such as their perceptions of their new environment and living conditions, their worries, their ways of maintaining family ties and long-distance relationship, etc. Second, it examines the impact of migration on their work performance. Third, it examines how BRI tackles the demoralization problem through their human resource management policies. The study reveals the use of “carrot-and-stick” policies, such as promotion, bonus, allowances and incentives to offset the disadvantages of such a movement\textsuperscript{5}.

S.Laxman Rao\textsuperscript{2004} analyzed the Andhra Pradesh figures prominently among Indian states with high rates of rural labour migration. Other states with relatively high incidence of migration from the countryside include Bihar, Orissa, Madhya Pradesh, Jharkand, and Chattisgarh. According to the estimates of NSS 55\textsuperscript{th} round Andhra Pradesh has the highest incidence of short-term and seasonal migration in south India (This is further explicated that it is well known that the bulk of migrants belong to
scheduled Tribes, Scheduled castes and other Backward castes. More of poverty alleviation programmees are designed by the union government and implemented by the state on fund sharing basis. Migration is emerging as a regular livelihood option, for lakhs of people from rural Andhra Pradesh were out of their homes for their livelihoods. He concluded, in view of growing migrant population there is a need for new policies and new orientations to the existing policies to address the deprivations faced by migrant labourers’ poverty reduction strategies and rural development programmes are essentially aimed at sedentary rural populations and not at mobile migrant workers.

In China, the media often portray the floating migrant population as “child-bearing guerrillas”, that is, as persons who have moved to new locations, usually in urban areas, because they want to escape the supervision of their local family planning workers and be able to have more children than the policies allow. Migration theory predicts the opposite, that is, that migrants in general should have fewer children than non-migrants in the areas of origin. To our knowledge there has been no empirical examination in all of China of whether floating migrants are “child-bearing guerrillas”. Earlier studies by Goldstein et al. (1993) and Yang (2000) have looked at this relationship in one province. In this paper we use sample data from the 1990 census to assess the relationship between floating migration, his/her household registration to this new location. They conduct a series of logistic regressions and show that in many instances, after controlling for relevant demographic, social and economic factors, floating migrants are not “child-bearing guerrillas”, indeed their likelihood of having had a baby in the preceding eighteen months is actually less than that of the non-migrants in the areas of origin.

According to Uma Rani and H.S. Shylendra seasonal migration is a direct consequence of structural changes, which have taken place both in the origin and in the destination areas of migration. Seasonal migration has resulted in improving the land-man ratio temporarily in the village and as such they find that the migration is largely a result of both push and pull factors in rural and urban areas as observed in their study.

K.C. Zachariah, E.T. Mathew and S. Irudaya Rajan analysed measurement of the magnitudes and dimensions of migration from and return migration to Kerala, the characteristics of the migrants and non migrants and also analyzed the impact of migration on: demographic transition (on fertility, family planning, infant mortality,
child mortality, etc). Status of women, children, and elderly persons in the utilisation patterns of remittances as well as their socio-economic impact on households and the community; and impact of migration on labour market conditions. They tested 13,948 sample (household and individuals) for the study. They concluded that emigration will continue to increase for some more years, but return emigration would increase at a faster rate, resulting in a period of net negative international migration. There will be another turn around in the migration trend. The number of return emigrants would become larger than the number of emigrants and net emigration would turn negative\textsuperscript{9}.

Sushanta K Banerjee, V. Jayachandran, T K Roy\textsuperscript{2002} found that the export of manpower from Kerala became an important component of state revenue and the livelihood of millions. They explained the socio-economic consequences of emigration and how it is likely to affect the long-term demographic behavior of the native household through improvement in their standards of living. They concluded, the living condition of migrant households has changed substantially through the inflow of foreign remittances. The migrant households have achieved better economic standards, its manifestation in the process of family formation is not readily recognized, and religion and education of mother plays a crucial role to motivate the actual fertility. Their indications suggest that migration might lead to further decline in the level of fertility\textsuperscript{10}.

D.C. Sah and Amite Shah’s\textsuperscript{2000}, study on seasonal migration in the tribal belt is regarded as an essential coping mechanism especially in response to a stock, including crop failure, son’s marriage, serious sickness\textsuperscript{11}.

Amit Kundu\textsuperscript{2000} examined that rural-labourers will be ready to take the risk of migration to the urban area if the distance between the rural and the urban area is less. Again if the distance is large enough then it is seen that it will be benefited to the rural labourers not to migrate. He also found that permanent labourers will exist in such a rural area which is far away from the urban area\textsuperscript{12}.

W. N. Sahre\textsuperscript{1998} examined the provisions of various acts in respect of contract based seasonal migrant labour in the seasonal sugar factories in Maharastra State. He explained the Maharastra agriculture and the rural life sustained by it is still a gamble in the monsoon for more than 20 districts in Maharastra. The low productivity in agricultural production is largely result of inadequate irrigation facilities. As a result of
this, families below poverty line and rural labour force do not get any employment in agricultural and so labourers migrate from their villages to sugar factories for contract based seasonal work. He concluded that the contractors hire the required number of seasonal migrant workers and dispense them after the end of seasonal work. These migrant labourers are called as ‘Gabale Birahd’ in the Kolhapur district. These migrant labourers were known as “Hindu coolies’ in sugar plantation regions in different countries in the world under indentured labour system\textsuperscript{13}.

V. Gunashakar\textsuperscript{1998} presented in his study, how people move over a period of time with respect to gender, rural/urban residence, duration, streams of migration, reasons and inter-state migration. He finds out, levels of education and economic standards of people may move them slowly to far off process and seeking business as the reason for migration is the new dimension added in the 1991 census in addition to the previous reasons mentioned in 1991 census. Finally he concluded, the exception of few abnormal situations, the trend of migration is positively associated with the state per capita income, poverty and urbanization in the country. And in the long run migration may balance population pressure and socio-economic conditions\textsuperscript{14}.

Surjit Singh\textsuperscript{1998} analyses the pattern of Indian immigration into Canada since the early twenties till the present times and discusses their occupational pattern as well as social and economic status. It emphasizes the need for stepping up the inflow of immigrants in the independent category as distinct from depends of working population. Mainly the author finds out, Indian men are about as likely to get employed as other immigrants or Canadian born men. In 1991, 79 per cent of Indian men aged 15 to 64 were employed as against 78 percent of men from all the immigrants and 76 percent of the Canadian born in the same age group. However, the probability of Indian women getting employed is relatively low. In 1991, 57 percent of Indian women aged 15 to 64 were employed, compared with 62 percent of all immigrant and 63 percent of Canadian women in this age group. He concluded that Canada’s immigration policies have been important consideration in the policies. Indian in Canada had faced racism of the worst kind till about the first half of this century. The labour market performance of Indian immigrants is comparable to that of the Canadian born population and all immigrants. The problems they face are more because of fall in the number of independent class immigrants and cultural fixation, as in most families both the members of the family do not work\textsuperscript{15}.  

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Sudama Singh, Shyamsundra Prasad Sharma \(^{1998}\) examined that the differences between slow and fast moving areas have become wider through green revolution with a definite impact on wage structure and demand for labour. In kind, the per-day earning of wage-earner goes even above 15 kg of grain in Punjab whereas it stagnates around 5 kg in Bihar. Differentials in money wages are also worth noticing. Stationary minimum wage of agricultural labourers was Rs. 10 per day in Bihar in 1989-90, while it was Rs. 33.30 in Punjab during the same period, such regional disparity in wage-income creates attraction for out-migration. They concluded, the labour recruiting contractors or middlemen sell the labour-power of the poor fellows, more specially of those coming, from the ‘fourth-world’ of the tribal belt on ‘terms’ which are inhuman, less remunerative and more discriminatory. The labourer who enjoys freedom in the area of origin, ultimately and most frequently enters into some sort of bondage when he is carried like cattle to the areas of destination. Added to it are ‘back-wash’ effects of movement of the agrarian situation of the areas of origin where ‘labour-supply’ becomes scarce during the peak periods of agricultural operations because of large-scale out-migration\(^{16}\).

Sivia M. Demendonca Noronha \(^{1998}\) presents a socio-economic profile of migrant workers engaged in construction activity in Goa, and analyses the impact of those workers on the Goan economy. He said that there are mainly three ways of out migration. The first is a situation where there is no surplus labour in the region, but higher wages paid outside the region attracts out-migration. Secondly, out-migration is observed when the labour is surplus to the region, as well as, the land holding. The author also explained that migrant construction workers have had a positive as well as a negative impact on the Goan economy and concluded that migrant construction workers have come to stay in Goa as long as the locals are averse to doing construction work. This is not a phenomenon that can be wished away. The author suggested some steps need to be taken to check an indiscriminate flow of such labour into Goa\(^{17}\).

S.Ramasamy \(^{1998}\) explained the rural to urban migration has been caused by several sectors. The urban areas are well ahead of rural areas in regard to industrial and commercial activities which attract job seeking rural people, also the pushed out of villages due to poor economic conditions such as stagnating agriculture, non-availability of land for extensive cultivation and increasing pressure of unemployment.
He finds out that the process of labour migration cannot be completely stopped in a country like ours, it can be smoothened out and harmonized. Therefore, investment in the social infrastructure is highly required and villages must be the focal point of development, only then the intractable problems associated with rural urban migration can be effectively tackled.\(^{18}\)

S.P. Singh and R.K. Aggarwal\(^ {1998}\) examined the major push and pull factors behind the migration based on the data collected from 1991 Census of 25 districts of North-Western Uttar Pradesh migration as well as characteristics of hills and plains, and identified female cultivators of hills have a higher percentage of migration from rural to urban area. They have observed that return migration is very low in the area. In fact people who migrate from rural area in search of better job do not return even after their retirement because in the rural area they do not get the same facilities as that of in urban areas. So there is increase in the migration rate of people from urban to rural areas.\(^ {19}\)

S.P. Gupta and B.L. Prajapati\(^ {1998}\) observed that farmers of Chhattisgarh have no crops at their own fields after harvesting paddy and on the other they are unable to get work as hired labour at other farms due to several schemes of employment specially for the marginal farmers/landless labourers, people are increasingly migrating from this region in search of a job to raise their level of income. The migrant farmers come back to their homes as and when the Kharif season starts. They generally leased in land either from large farmers or from permanent migrants. Backward and Scheduled Tribes constituted high percent of the total number of migrants. The literacy percentage was observed to be slightly higher in migrant families as compared to non-migrants. Among the migrants, the education level of permanent migrants was considerably higher than that of seasonal migration.\(^ {20}\)

S.N. Tripathy\(^ {1998}\) explained the majority of migrant labour in Orissa belong to the category of landless agricultural labourers, and very often to the Scheduled, Backward, or Tribal castes. In a few cases, those who have limited land did not possess the needed resource to develop the same and as a result, the barren land is left uncultivated for years. Therefore, they are compelled to work as agricultural labourers in the land of the big landlords or Zamindars of the same village or adjoining villages. The social customs and obligations like births, marriages, death in the families and drinking habits play an important role in forcing the poor to resort to the borrowings. The money lenders
advance small loans from time to time and bind them to work as agricultural labourers till the final payment is made. Thus, indebtedness has been generally believed to have emerged as a factor challenging the economic self sufficiency of such labourers who find it difficult to repay. He suggested, urgent need of the hour is heavy investment in the traditional sector as well as in industrially backward regions for adequate employment creation. Since modern manufacturing industries are expected to absorb only a limited number of labourers, adequate employment can be created in small-scale industries, construction works, labour-intensive road works, afforestation, animal husbandry, fishery and the like.

Rekha R\textsuperscript{1998} explained that migration of labour contributes to economic and social development by enabling labour to overcome the “Tyranny of space”. She found out some positive and negative effects from migration, the positive effects of migration that are notable ones are increase in production and productivity of labour, reduction in unemployment, improvement in the quality of life, reduction in poverty and promotion of national integration. The negative aspects are growth of slums with bad and unhygienic living conditions and a number social crimes including prostitution murder etc. Secondly, migration affects women badly, domestic servants, etc.

Mehar Singh Manick\textsuperscript{1998} analyzed the pattern of migration and employment, wages and working conditions, and socio-economic background of migrant labour in Punjab agriculture. The contractual wage rates per acre of migrant labourers are generally higher in the tube well setting as compared to canal setting for wheat harvesting. In paddy setting as compared to their counterparts in the canal setting because of the more dependence of farming community on them. He concluded that labour from Bihar has emerged as a major migrant force in the agrarian sector. The majority of migrants belong to backward castes and their level of education is very low across the setting. The age-wise distribution of migrant labour also does not vary in the two settings. The age group of 25-35 years constitutes a major force. Majority of migrants own land upto 5 acres or less in their native villages and the rest are landless.

Mansoor Ali\textsuperscript{1998} finds out that most of the migrants have moved in search of better economic opportunities. The availability of good agricultural land continues to be a most powerful economic factor determining magnitude and direction of population migration. The increasing pressure of population has led to division and fragmentation.
of land resulting in small and uneconomic holdings giving low yields. In the absence of other non-agricultural activities available in the area, a high majority of population tends to migrate to the urban areas. He concluded that technological improvements are particularly relevant to analysis of mobility of rural manpower. Most technological innovations alter the rates of substitution of labour and land, making it possible to reduce to amount of labour in relation to the land needed to produce specified levels of output. The substitution effects therefore, are predominately in the direction of increased use of capital and decreased use of manpower and to a larger extent decreased use of land. Thus the substitution effects of changes in agricultural production technology decrease the demand for farm labour.

Mahesh V. Joshi explained that migration is not a labour problem but it is closely associated with the problems of urbanization, slums, pollution, poverty, unemployment, and many other institutional, social, cultural, and educational problems. He concluded that we should give top most priority to agriculture and allied sectors, town and rural development, cottage, small-scale and agro based industries and self-employment sectors so that the rate of migration would decrease.

M.S.Sidhu and P.S.Rangia showed that the major factor which motivated the labourers to migrate for employment in the agricultural sector in Punjab was the economic distress being faced by them in their native places and due to factors such as unemployment, relatively low wages and low earnings from their meager assets of land due to low agricultural productivity. They concluded visible impact of migration is that it has resulted enhanced incomes for the migrants. Besides, the migrants have acquired new skills with the farm machinery and equipment and have also become more efficient in carrying out various farm operations.

M.Bhavani Sunder Rao examined that the rural labour commutation, a majority of commuted labour (77 per cent) are absorbed in the tertiary sector which does not require any skills and literacy as well. The rest of the commuted labour absorbed in secondary sector. In two sectors nearly 85 per cent of commuted workers are able to get employment for four days. He concluded that the type of employment pursued in tertiary sector is mostly unskilled. The earnings are conditioned by market in tertiary may be due to excess supply of the diversification of rural labour from rural primary sector to urban secondary sector appears not of distress type.
Krishan Chand, K.C. Singal, and Sanjay Modi\textsuperscript{1998} studied the push factors like unemployment and poverty that play a dominant role in increasing migration. The migrants had left their native places during the most productive period of their life. Due to the nature of the sugar industry, majority of migrant workers skilled or semi-skilled seasonal permanent workers with an average annual stay of 3 to 5 months in Punjab have been regularly remitting money to their families. Their education level is low as compared to the local workers and most of the migrants expected a rise in their status and improvement in economic conditions as a result of employment in Punjab\textsuperscript{28}.

Errol D Souza’s,\textsuperscript{1998} study explained that the creation of more jobs in the formal sector can result in expanding the low productivity informal sector, as well migration is a response to the possibility of obtaining a high wage formal sector job, dominating the income earned from agriculture productivity enhancing land-augmenting investments in agriculture are necessary requirements for migration to be associated with favorable outcomes\textsuperscript{29}.

Bipin Kumar, B.P.Singh and Rita Singh\textsuperscript{1998} examined that majority of people including labourers are dependent on agriculture for work and income. Rapidly rising population has caused deterioration in the land-man ratio. Finding no job in the place of residence people are pushed to other areas. Pull factor is there in that people are attracted to urban and industrial centers with the hope of employment and better earnings. They suggested surer way to stop the tendency of out-migration in their view is creation of regular employment in and around the villages itself as it helps also in easing the problem of population pressure and creation of slums in urban areas and also the problem of under or acute unemployment already exit in economy\textsuperscript{30}.

Anisur Rahman\textsuperscript{1998} analyzed that the labour migration has brought many more positive changes than negative ones. The majority of migrant workers and their households have definitely made economic and non-economic gains which outweigh the costs of any losses. The remittances they sent home improved the household economy substantially and through the overseas work experience they accumulated skills and became more productive than before. In addition, many of them improved their family ties and relationships with relatives, friends and neighbours and improved their social position in the community. The new elements like the role of women, intergenerational
relations, expectations relating to children and wider international awareness were introduced into villages. Thus, it would appear that migration has brought economic well-being and human development to a large proportion of migrants and their households.

Ajit S. Bhatia and Gurbachan Kaur examined that the socio-economic characteristics of out-migrants sending remittances, find out the relationship between the period of out-migration and the last remittances sent to the place of origin, work out migrants, and studied the use-pattern of remittances on major items. Their study mainly analyzed and depicts that the propensity to send remittances was higher among those who migrated outside the state than among those who migrated within the state. This implies distance as a variable that had a favorable effect on remittances which might be another reason for a positive relationship between distance and migration. They concluded that the distribution of gains and income in the rural areas may have important implications for migration. The poorest rural families are apt to spend most of their additional income on bases food-stuffs which have little of no linkage to the urban sector.

A.S.Santhapparaj explained that the general nature characteristics and consequences of migration in-terms of urban-rural remittance from the place of destination. This study confirmed that the migrants from the rural subsistence sector to the urban areas are mostly employed in the urban subsistence sector. Among the various push and pull factors of migration, the economic factors are the important ones in determining the migration process. Most of the urban migrants maintain links with their native place in rural place in the rural areas through regular visits. He also found that the need for effective land distribution policy and an increase in the real income of the rural subsistence sector to avoid rural exodus and its related problems in the urban areas.

‘Ravi Srivastava’ said that labour migration is a complex phenomenon and encompasses different streams which differ in duration nature of origin, areas and destination and characteristics of migrants. In the recent, long-duration rural-urban migration has been the focus of attention. However, in the context of transition in developing countries, circulatory rural-rural and rural-urban migration is no less important. Moreover, migration across the borders of countries is a significant phenomenon. With important consequences for the factor markets and development processes in sending and receiving countries.
Madharkar and Co-authors\textsuperscript{1997} found the prominent role of migrants in disease transmission. They also raise social and ethical issues in the health care of migrants. They said that society makes use of migrant labour because they are unorganized, economically dependent without well defined rights of other labour groups. Malaria is one of their health problems. Preventive and curative health services are not planned with their needs in mind\textsuperscript{35}.

Amit Kundu and Shalini Gupta\textsuperscript{1996} focused on the dynamics of migration and urbanization in the context of the changing structure of economic development. They concluded, the decreasing mobility of the population poses a major challenge for the development strategy being followed in countries like India and their development perspective. The policy of unbalanced development is continued despite this ominous trend can have serious negative implications are examined with empirical rigor. Also, measures should be worked out, if possible, to stall this declining migration trend. However, if the dynamics of population distribution happens to be largely beyond the scope of Governmental policies, there seems to be no choice but to adopt a policy of balanced regional development and disperse economic and employment opportunities to backward regions through a planned effort\textsuperscript{36}.

World Bank\textsuperscript{1995} assumed that rural – urban migration would always be voluntary and lead to generation of a new labour that would be more skilled and receive higher wages\textsuperscript{37}.

The study of Indian council of medical research (ICMR)\textsuperscript{1995} highlighted the prime part of migrants in disease transmission. It also raises social and ethical issues in the health care of migrants and highlights the need to consider migrants as vulnerable, high risk people with unique needs. The study suggested that there is an essential need for a clear policy of migrants and their health care\textsuperscript{38}.

Nayyar\textsuperscript{1994} studied on the migration of Kerala who had migrated to oil rich countries of middle East and other industrialized countries of Europe. Due to wage differences prevailing between India and other countries, the Kerala migration could able to earn huge amount of income from abroad. The remittances helped not only a decent standard of living but also acquiring material wealth\textsuperscript{39}.
Chhonda Dey and Debesh Chakravorthy, 1994 presented an overall picture of migration in the entire group of the Andaman and Nicobar Islands from 1901-1981. They had examined useful revelation regarding the social, economic and other forces responsible for such movements and their result of the study directly, appropriately manipulated by the extent of population redistribution in space and time through inter-regional migration. The study estimated of patio-temporal continuity of migration may be useful for projecting the regional population changes and its implications in relation to inter-regional migration.

T.V. Sekhar, 1993 examined migration from rural areas, the migrants’ with regard to individual characteristics like sex, age, marital status, and education as well as the economic position of their families in terms of land ownership, income, and assets are also considered important in effecting out-migration. He had classified occupational status broadly into four types like unskilled, semi skilled, land owners/business and professionals for the purpose of analysis, methodological issues.

Goal, Nadia and Munirathna, 1985, Paul, 1989 and Singh, 1993 have studied rural migration and attributed it to such factors as social compulsions, economic pressures, demographic causes, political situations, environmental demands, etc. However all have reported the movement of people including artisans from rural areas to urban and semi-urban areas.

Ramesh Chandra Choudhary’s, 1991 study on migration of rural labour was based on his rural survey of six villages of the district of Samastipur in 1991. This study revealed that the landless agricultural laborers and socially, economically backward classes people had more migratory tendency than others. Further the village wise analysis showed that the villages with higher incidence of tenancy reported lower migration. And surprisingly the extent of migration was the highest in the villages where the wage rates were also high. The main reason for migration was found to be unemployment in the villages. The majority of the migrants were employed in the informal sector in their place of destination.
Francis Cherunilam’s\textsuperscript{1987} study gave an analytical account of the factors behind migration and their consequences and surveyed the trends in national and international migrations. The author highlights the favourable and adverse effects of migration. He suggested that in many causes the may not be a single weapon that can successfully deal with the complex and manifold problems that the large migration flows gives rise to. Hence a judicious combination of these instruments will have to be made use of to tackle the multidimensional problems. The composition of the mix will depend on the nature of the problems and peculiarities of the situation\textsuperscript{44}.

Nijam Khan\textsuperscript{1986} examined the characteristics of rural out migrants, migrants, and non-migrants and the pattern of movement with the help of her survey data of twenty villages in Uttar Pradesh. The analysis of villages showed that, predominately scheduled caste villagers and villagers with very poor economic conditions were found to be chronically out-migrating. The demographic characteristics of the out-migrants revealed that majority of them were young and below 25 years and were married. Moreover, this study showed that the majority of the migrants were the eldest sons of the migrant households. Among the migrants, almost equal members were illiterate or educated. The direction of movement from rural area shows that rural-urban migration stream was stronger\textsuperscript{45}.

Breman\textsuperscript{1985} observed that of the tribal population of South Gujarat, Seasonal migration is more of a holding operation which enables them by and large to maintain their relative position in the village and to avoid alienation of land as far as possible. He also observed that over the past few decades there had been little or no improvement in the quality of tribal life, certainly not for the large and growing underclass. The cash income derived from labour outside the home area is not in itself enough for keeping one step ahead of the danger of social and economic deterioration. Seasonal migration is a matter of survival or at best of consolidation and hardly ever results in accumulation or reinvestment in the home area\textsuperscript{46}.

Yousufs\textsuperscript{1983} study on villages in Ramanathapuram district reveals that persons with larger-sized families were more inclined to migrate than those of small-sized families, especially among males between 15 and 45 years. This study did not find any significant association between rural poverty, unemployment and rural out-migration\textsuperscript{47}.
Oberai and Singh\textsuperscript{1983} in their detailed report of the earlier analysis of the household survey of Ludiana district have estimated the net flow of resources to rural areas of the district through remittances during 1976-1977 as Rs.36 million; out of this 87.6 per cent came from urban areas. They are, therefore, in favour of rural to urban migration\textsuperscript{48}.

Premi\textsuperscript{1980} studied the process of urban out-migration from certain towns of Haryana and Punjab. She observed certain differences in the characteristics of in-migration and out-migration towns. Out-migration towns had higher proportion of older people and higher participation rates. These towns lacked in skilled labourers. Female out-migration was mainly because of marriage. Male out-migrants were comparatively young, better educated and had higher earnings than their local counterparts. Negotiating the step migration, this data suggested that the migrants normally went from the place of origin to their destinations directly. The weak economic base was found to be the main cause of out migration\textsuperscript{49}.

Oberai and Singh’s\textsuperscript{1980} study on internal migration in the Indian Punjab showed that both the poorest and the richest both had maximum mobility. In-migration to rural areas was not because of technological changes, it was mainly due to out-migration from the villages\textsuperscript{50}.

Bhatia. K.B\textsuperscript{1979} mentioned that a rural-laborer will be ready to take the risk of migration to the urban area if the distance between the rural and the urban area is less. Again if the distance is large enough then it will be beneficial to the rural laborer not to migrate\textsuperscript{51}.

Saxena\textsuperscript{1977} examined the causes and consequences of rural to urban migration on the basis of his survey data from four villages in Eastern District of the rural out-migrants who were migrated within the state. Among the push factor, poverty seemed to be more important, followed by cultivable land and decline of rural handicrafts. Low income was felt by 70 per cent of the rural out-migrants as the main cause for migration\textsuperscript{52}.

Mahmood\textsuperscript{1975} using the 1961 census data viewed that in-migration into Indian cities can be classified into six different types: namely, long distance industrial pull, youthfulness of migrants rural push with weak industrial pull short distance industrial pull old age return migration and Service pull. He also showed that the intensity with which these types operated on the cities varied with their functional types\textsuperscript{53}. 

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Singh and Yadava\textsuperscript{1974} made a rural based survey and examined the nature of migration from rural to urban areas. Their study found that the previous migration from a particular rural area was very important variable which took place due to their socio-economic conditions in explaining the current migration stream\textsuperscript{54}.

Mehrotra,\textsuperscript{1974} basing his study on the 1971 census of birthplace data, estimated lifetime migration in India. He discussed the characteristics of migrants with reference to types of movements, growth rates of migrants, sex ratio of population etc. He found different patterns of relationship for different types of movements. For example, intra-district migration was positively related with sex ratio in favour of females both in rural areas. The inter-district migration showed a negative correlation with population density and growth rate in urban areas but did not show any significant correlation in rural areas, Inter-state male migration showed a positive correlation with proportion of workers in urban areas but had negative correlation in rural areas, Inter-state in-migration had overall negative correlation with the sex ratio (measured in terms of females per 1000 males). However, urban population density of both male and female in migration showed a positive correlation\textsuperscript{55}.

Sinha\textsuperscript{1973} has contradicted the hypothesis that improved methods of cultivation induce village out-migration. His study shows that in Punjab and Haryana improved methods of cultivation have generated the demand for agricultural labour. In examining as to which social, economic, and demographic factors in the village life are associated with migration and who are the migrants, using the data relating to Indian villages\textsuperscript{56}.

Godfrey’s\textsuperscript{1973} study of Ghana shows that during 1960-65, though rural-urban income differentials reduced and the probability of getting an urban job also became less. There was increase in rural income gain and thus decrease in the rural migration\textsuperscript{57}.

Rempel’s study of Kenya\textsuperscript{1970} found that income differentials did not seem to be the cause of internal migration. He found distance as a significant barrier to migration\textsuperscript{58}.

Mitra’s\textsuperscript{1967} study based on the data on rural urban origin and duration of residence of place at enumeration were collected for the first time in 1961 census data, carried out a detailed analysis of the patterns of internal migration. His findings show that states like
Assam, Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra, Mysore, Punjab, West Bengal gained population through net-migration while states like Andhra Pradesh, Bihar, Gujarat, Jammu and Kashmir, Kerala, Madras, Orissa, Rajasthan and Uttar Pradesh lost population through net migration\textsuperscript{59}.

Memdoza\textsuperscript{1966} found that more families of high income group moved than that of low income group. Mendoza-Pascual similarly found that the so-called illiterate poor of rural labour in Philippines did not have worth marginal productivity. Those who moved were educated and had negative impact on the rural areas from where they moved out\textsuperscript{60}.

Zacharia,\textsuperscript{1964} in his study of internal migration had opined that during 1901-1931, states of West Bengal, Assam, Maharastra, parts of Gujarat and Mysore gained population through net migration, while states like Jammu and Kashmir, Uttar Pradesh, Madras, Orissa and Rajasthan lost population\textsuperscript{61}.

Kunj Patel’s study\textsuperscript{1963} on rural labour in Bombay city was based on a survey in villages in Ratanjire District and on migrants in Bombay. This study shows that acute poverty in villages and a slightly better-off condition of migrants rural condition encouraged migration to Bombay for employment. Moreover, the rural households benefited economically due to migration and the remittances helped the rural households in improving their agricultural operations to some extent\textsuperscript{62}.

The study by Yeswant\textsuperscript{1962} based on a rural survey revealed that small cultivators and agricultural labourers were more likely to migrate. Low caste people migrated to improve their economies and social position. However, most socially backward communities showed less migratory tendencies than others. Most of the migrants were found to be in the age group of 15 to 24 years. Distance of migration was predominant over long distance migration. Majority of the migrants migrated to urban area, leading to an occupational shift\textsuperscript{63}.
Gosal¹⁹⁶¹ using 1951 birth place data by districts, has given a geographical perspective to internal migration. Extending his work to 1961 census data Gosa and Krishna have discussed the patterns of internal migration in four streams of rural-to-urban, rural-to-rural, urban-to-rural, and urban-to-urban migration. Their main findings are:- the proportion of long-distance migration is strongly related to the size and age of the industrial concentration; the data have shown significant flow of people towards newly developed agricultural lands; growth of mining activity and the emergence of associated industries led to considerable migration; and The areas of high density of rural population and low productivity have been the out-migrating areas; proximity to the major urban industrial centers and to big construction sites were also responsible for the pull factors⁶⁴.
SECTION – II

2.2 REVIEWS RELATED TO GENDER ASPECTS OF MIGRATION

Reviews on influential aspects that made women to leave their native land and migrate to some other alien lands, where they face many problems such as, exploitation and harassment of the employers, struggle for existence and social insecurity have been discussed in this section.

S. Sundari’s 2005 study highlighted her study on trends, pattern and nature of female migration in Tamil Nadu. She explained in her study with push and pull factors. The major push factor was lack of employment opportunities in the place of origin caused by drought and the pull factor was a favorable employment situation in the destination areas. The study concludes the migration has helped migrant households avoid hunger, starvation and death, through it has failed to improve the economic well-being of high per cent of the families, particularly the female headed households.

S. Sundari has explained female migration of agriculture labour from one place to another in search of employment is a common feature of the Indian agricultural scenarios. She has found that 55 per cent of female migrants and 25 per cent of male migrants are illiterate in the state of Tamil Nadu, 60 per cent of female migration are on grounds of marriage have migrated. She mentioned no significant correlation between rural male migration and poverty. Poverty clubbed with chronic unemployment accounts for the exodus of rural female labour to urban areas.

D.P. Singh, made an attempt to provide information on migration in India, using national sample survey data collected between 1983 and 1999-2000. According to the latest round of N.S.S, the migration rate stands at about 266 per thousand total persons in the country. The migration rate was more pronounced among female migration compared to male in both rural and urban areas are 2.5 to 3 times higher than that of in the rural areas. The main causes for migration such as economic reasons, among males and social reasons such as marriage and accompanying parents among female.
This study compares four aspects—demography, arrival conditions, employment and adaptation—of Chinese women migrants in New Zealand over three periods, before 1987, from 1987 to 1996 and after 1996. The two principal findings were, firstly, that the gender ratio of Chinese female migrants rose from well below 50 percent before 1987 to more than 52 percent in 2001. This may be attributed to the “astronaut’s wife” phenomenon and the arrival of older females and younger females who have gained residency as parents or spouse. Secondly, female migrants who entered New Zealand after 1987 tend to have a higher education than previous migrants. However, the employment situation of recent arrivals seems unfavorable when compared with those who arrived in New Zealand before 1987. As a result, many recent arrivals undergo re-training to gain recognized qualifications to enhance their employment opportunities.

This article analyses the patterns and trends of intermarriages between Filipino women and Japanese men from 1980s to the present. It presents the factors explaining the increase in such marriages and examines the characteristics of Japanese men married to Filipino women. The narratives of Filipina-Japanese couples are situated in the larger contexts of the family, community and society. In attempting to create a dynamic family model, these intermarriages reveal possibilities for new gender and cross-cultural relations.

There has been a marked increase in the migration of students worldwide, particularly from developing countries to developed countries. This article examines the migration of students from India to Australia. The number of Indians arriving in Australia on student visas has shown an increasing trend though numbers have fluctuated from year to year. The article examines the role of Australia’s education export market, analyses the main reasons for Australia’s attractiveness for Indian students, discusses the characteristics of Indians arriving on student visas and points out some recent controversies surrounding Indian student migration to Australia.

Riverine islands (chars in Bengali or diaras in middle Gangetic plain) are common in deltaic lower Bengal and have often provided ideal places for the settlement of unauthorized migrants. Many of these chars are shifting, temporary and flood-prone, but some get stabilized with time although their legal status as “land” still remains contested. This article is about the life experiences of some Bangladesh women who have migrated from Bangladesh to India without proper authorization papers. It is based
on field surveys among very poor migrants in the Char Gaitanpur, an attached char of the Damodar River in southern West Bengal. Participatory research methods, group discussions and informal conversations were conducted with participants in the study. With little or no resources, the choura women undergo a long and hard struggle for survival in this land of high vulnerability. Overburdened with domestic chores as well as earning a living for their families, women form closely-knit social networks among them to facilitate their sustenance in this land of uncertainty⁷¹.

Neetha N. 2004 examined that the primary role of women in migration and the survival of family. Women domestics are found assuming vital functions and roles in migration, the setting-down process and in the search for job. She clearly showed that Tribal girls come to Delhi in large numbers by train during migration under the influence of old workers who have visited their native place during Christmas and other Tribal festivals, who are the main source of workers for private agencies⁷².

Jayanthi Ghosh 2003 defined that women have moved-voluntarily or forcibly in search of work across countries and regions, more than ever before. Women’s livelihoods in rural areas, dominantly in agriculture, have been affected by the grain crisis. This is widespread in most developing countries. He found that in the United States, women were actively encouraged to participate in paid work to fill in labour shortages created during the Second World War⁷³.

Ashise Bose 2003 examined that women who are driven by abject poverty migrate not only to the nearest city, but also to far away countries in search of employment and become victims of unscrupulous recruiting agents, corrupt police and sex hungry employers, economists, planners⁷⁴.

M.V.Shobhana Warrier 2001 discussed the nature of the fish processing industry in India, focused the issues concerned the migrant women workforce specifically. She mainly found that the woman worker in fish process industry has to contend with her sexuality, deemed vulnerable by society. A large number of the women are susceptible to sexual overtures at the workplace, at times with the complicity of the women herself, who is willing to trade sexual favors in return for a secure, advantageous status at the workplace. As most of the girls who are at work come when they are at an impressionable age and have their own notions of what they want in life, there are a
large number of incidents of men and women interacting intimately outside the norm of marriage. The main problem begins when the woman concerned becomes pregnant and then is forced to seek abortion\textsuperscript{75}.

L.D. Vaikunthe\textsuperscript{1998} examined that female migration rates are higher than the male migration rates both for rural and urban areas, but the difference is more in the case of rural areas. The low in migration rates suggest that most of the increase in urban population is due to high birth rates and low death rates and not due to migration. He concluded that the phenomenon of return migration is not significant in Indian people who migrate to urban areas from villages hopefully stay back even if they fail to get any job in the initial years\textsuperscript{76}.

Rao\textsuperscript{1996} examined that the male migrants migrate to longer distance, in shorter distances female migrants mostly migrate which has been referred as marriage association. Both internal and out-migration have been studied by the author. Migration according to Rao contributed for economic development of the migrant households as well as the locality that is place of origin of the migrants\textsuperscript{77}.

Bates, C and M carter\textsuperscript{1992} examined the tribal people (especially women) marry relatively late; they have a greater gender equity and more balanced gender relations; tribal women directly participate in productive activities to a much greater extent and thus enjoy a greater autonomy; and so they migrate to urban areas where they would get higher wages and better living\textsuperscript{78}.

Paul’s\textsuperscript{1989} study on Rural Out-migration was based on the survey data collected from 292 (both migrant and non-migrant) rural households in 12 villages in Punjab. His study revealed that young, unmarried males in the age group of 15 to 29 tended to migrate than others. Educated individuals and persons with relatively low income tended to migrate. This study also supported the significance of the role of urban-based contracts in supplying information about the urban labour market. Further this study showed that operational land holders (5 to 15 acres) with relatively less capital equipment tended to migrate more than the poorest and the wealthy\textsuperscript{79}. 
Thandani and Todaro\textsuperscript{1984} point out “implicit in the analysis of migration is the assumption that the patterns of female migration are likely to mirror those of male migration. Consequently gender related variations in the causes, consequences, and patterns of migration have not been considered significant enough to warrant specific analysis”\textsuperscript{80}.

Morokvasic, Mirjana\textsuperscript{1983} has found that the migration trend particularly that of women occurs in search of survival, fulfillment and a better life for themselves and their families\textsuperscript{81}.

John Connell ET.al.\textsuperscript{1976} analysed the social, economic and demographic factors in villages, associated with rural out-migration. The study was based on derived village level data from Agro-Economic Research Centres of India, in the 1950’s and the early 1960’s. Their study showed that the majority of the out-migrants were young adult-males, married and educationally more advanced than the fellow villages. Majority of the out-migrants were cultivators and non-agriculturist householders\textsuperscript{82}.
2.3 REVIEWS RELATED TO THEORETICAL MODELS OF MIGRATION

The application of theoretical laws and models may vary from nation to nation or from place to place basing on the socio-economic conditions of the respective places. Hence in this chapter different reviews on theories, laws and models, which are statistically structured and solved by various scholars, with relevance and application to the present migration scenario is presented in this section.

Arup Maharatna\textsuperscript{2003} attempted to investigate fertility behavior and its transition among Tribal population in the Eastern state of West Bengal. He highlighted the brighter side of one specific type of migration, namely seasonal rural-rural migration. This study has helped them understand better what is at fault behind the commonly alleged adverse consequences of seasonal migration across India migration, exact mechanisms through which rural mobility in general and seasonal migration in particular help bring about idealised and motivated changes towards smaller family and more conscious fertility regulation should come first in the agenda\textsuperscript{83}.

Sarbajit Chaudhuri\textsuperscript{2001} examined theoretically the impact of emigration of skilled labour from developing countries on the level of welfare of the non-migrants and the level of urban unemployment of unskilled labour in a three sector Harns-Todaro model. This study suggested that in a reasonable production structure for a developing economy a brain drain of skilled labour raises urban unemployment of unskilled labour may raise the welfare of the non-migrants in a tariff distorted product or the labour-intensive good. However, if the economy imports the traditional manufacturing product, the welfare of the non-emigrating workers is likely to deteriorate\textsuperscript{84}.

Sucha Singh Gill\textsuperscript{1998} examined the different theories of migration and discusses migration flows into India in the post colonial period while, highlighting the problems of migration labour in the country. The author recommended various measures for improving the social and economic conditions of the migrants and points to the urgency of reexamining the emerging empirical reality of India\textsuperscript{85}.
Biswajit Chattejee’s 1998 study was based on the traditional Harris-Todaro version of rural-urban migration of rural labour where the migrant labour risk is neutral. The intended migrant labour will enjoy higher utility if he finances his cost of migration from his own savings rather than taking loan from the professional money lender. In this model, the labourers of the urban formal sector are unionized and charge entry fees on the outsiders. Here outsiders are the labourers who have come to the urban area from the nearby rural areas to have job in the urban formal sector. They all are seasonal migrants who migrate only in the agricultural slack season where they cannot get jobs in the agricultural sector 86.

Premi M.K and Tom A.L 1995 in an analysis of migration to 147 Indian cities, generated six migration rates by considering lifetime and current migration of total males and females. By using multiple classification analysis wherein the above six variables are treated as dependent variables and city size, growth rate, functional specialization of the city, its life as class I city, and regional location as predictor variables, they obtained the adjudicated R2 from 35 per cent to 45 per cent. Among the above explanatory systems, however, contrary to his hypothesis city size and functional specialisation appeared to be of no importance. Extending their analysis further, they took 54 predictor variables relating to the migration distance, along with rural urban origin, literacy rates of the lifetime migrants and migrant workers, levels of education among migrants, work participation rates by age, occupation of migrants, marital status, and broad age structure of the migrants and ratio of migrant workers to non-migrants workers. Their main findings are: Migration to cities is strongly related with migrants from urban areas, long distance migrants affect all six dependent variables very well. For lifetime migration educational background is not very important. Work participation rate of males in the age group 15-29 had good correlation with in-migrants. Percentage of migrant workers in secondary sector has strong correlation with lifetime migrants but no relation with current migrants. The hypothesis that marriage as an important cause of internal migration of females is not proved by his study 87.

Lowry, 1995 explained that the push factors operation at the origin are such factors as high rate of natural increase, depletion of natural resources, drought, floods and other climatic conditions, etc. Pull factors at work at destination include discovery and development of new resources, new industries, and emergence of new service and trade
centers. Some factors operate either way like changes in demand, government polices, entertainment facilities and personal factors\textsuperscript{88}.

Lewis-Fei-Ranis’ developed the model on the basis of two-sectors-traditional rural subsistence sector and a high productivity modern urban industrial sector and they assumed that urban industrial sector earnings should be minimum 30 per cent higher than average rural earnings. They explained that capitalists in urban industrial sector would reinvest all the profits leading to an increase in the capital stock in the modern sector. This labour demand prevailed until all surplus rural labour was absorbed in the urban industrial sector. The key weakness of their theory is the assumption of reinvestment in the industrial sector and they did not discuss the labour saving bias of most modern technological transfer. Moreover they did not take into account the urban surplus labour\textsuperscript{99}.

Yadava and Singh\textsuperscript{1988} tested the Lee theory of migration and opined that, the volume of migration varied with the diversity of population. They tested the theory on the theory based on the survey data collected in the year 1978. Their analysis proved that there was a direct relationship between volume of migration and population heterogeneity. It was found that caste, education and occupation had linear relationship to migration. Among all, occupation was the most important factor accounting for migration\textsuperscript{90}.

V.Anbumani and Shyamala Murthy\textsuperscript{1998} discuss the theoretical approach relation to the problem of rural urban transfer of resources. The Lewis-Fei-Ranis model of development is taken up for study. The model also highlights the key economic differences between rural and urban sectors, by shedding some light on labour transfer. This study attempted the employment problems over job-opportunities, with certain characteristics of the migration process\textsuperscript{91}.

Mitra and co-athours\textsuperscript{1980} in their study, have tried to correlate migration into Indian cities with investment and economic variables. Utilizing principal component analysis and canonical correlation analysis, they found two significant canonical factors. The analysis showed that in-migration to cities from rural areas and number of new workers benefiting from investment was positively correlated. There was a positive correlation between in-migrants to cities from urban areas and amount of capital investment in the cities. Further, they observed five types of dominant relationship from the canonical
model. These relationships basically showed five different combinations of the above variables being related with each other.\textsuperscript{92}

Mobogunje\textsuperscript{1970} found an inverse relationship between income differentials and migration in Nigeria. He postulated that this negative relationship could be the result of the attempts to colonize relatively poor areas.\textsuperscript{93}

Harris and Todaro\textsuperscript{1970} explained the theoretical debate on rural-urban migration has been viewed as individual utility maximization by one stand of thought where wage differentials between the urban and rural sectors is considered to be the prime determinant of migration, that is, higher, urban wage rate and a wage differential between the frameworks. This implies that migration from the rural falls short of the expected urban wage rate.\textsuperscript{94}

Bose’s\textsuperscript{1970} study reveals that keeping in view the personal relations as an important instrument of migration, stresses the need of collecting data relating to the recruitment patterns of labour force to prove or nullify the above viewpoint.\textsuperscript{95}

Todardo\textsuperscript{1969} developed an economic theory of rural-urban migration on the basis of his Doctoral (Ph.d) thesis. He postulated that migration was taking place in response to urban-rural differences in expected gains in migration which were measured by (i) the difference in between rural and urban job opportunities and (ii) the probability of new migrant obtaining an urban job. His model has been extended and modified by many social scientists.\textsuperscript{96}

Lee’s\textsuperscript{1966} theory of internal migration mainly argued about pull and push factors in migration. He concluded that migration took place on the basis of positive and negative factors in the place of origin and in the place of destination. Intervening obstacles made people move from place of origin to the place of destination, in which personal factors also counted. The main limitation of this theory is its high degree of generality.\textsuperscript{97}

Kuznet’s\textsuperscript{1964} theory was notable theory examined by Eldrige and Thomas found strong convergence between the direction of the swings in migration and GNP.\textsuperscript{98}
Germain\textsuperscript{1964} explained as many authors had also pointed out, the over-simplification of push and pull theory and have stressed the importance of other external and personal forces that are involved in it\textsuperscript{99}.

Bose\textsuperscript{1963} analysed disputing push-pull theory. Bose rejects this simple explanation of migration, and stresses that push and pull factors must be interpreted in the overall demographic context. Under conditions of high natural increase in population, not only in rural areas but also in the urban areas as well as a result of high urban birth rates and rapidly declining death rates), the push factor operates. He calls it as ‘Push back’ factor. He showed that for every 1000 persons who migrate to urban areas for better employment, 254 persons come in search of employment. Another type of urban push which has been pointed out by Bose is the absence of social security in urban areas\textsuperscript{100}.

\textquote{L.A.Sjaastad}\textsuperscript{1962} developed a human capital model of migration. He opined that the migration added to human capital formation. He assumed that people would migrate when benefit from migration out weighed the migration costs. Benefits of migration were measured in terms of potential income gains due to migration and the variation in the provision of benefits between one place and another and the benefits, opportunity cost of foregone earning between jobs, psychological cost in the form of separation involved in leaving one’s native place and setting down in an unfamiliar environment\textsuperscript{101}.

Zacharia,\textsuperscript{1960} opined that there are a fewer attempts have been made in India to analyse internal migration in relation to such theoretical frameworks of economic development. One such attempt was made by him from state-wise birth place data by estimating decadal internal migration in India during 1901-31 and 1941-51\textsuperscript{102}.
All the reviews presented in the above three sections prove that migration is an outcome of various factors, such as, socio-economic, demographic, ecological, political and etc. More predominantly urbanization and industrialization and rural to urban migration stream appears to be a major portion of migration. However, improvement of educational levels, improvement of professional skills and marriage also the factors for shift of population.

These reviews have also discussed the effects and consequences of migration. Exploitation towards migrants, social insecurity, underemployment and unemployment, increase of slums in urban areas and the prevalence of unhygienic conditions due to lack of basic civic amenities, social disorders, administrative problems, exploiting the women migrants and sexual harassment etc are the adverse effects. This type conditions and problems prevail because of the illiteracy and ignorance of migrants regarding laws, rules and restrictions of emigration.
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SECTION – III


