

# **CHAPTER-II**

## **REVIEW OF LITERATURE**

### **2.1 Introduction**

Many scholars have been quite concerned by the subject of migration from various fields of social science like demography, sociology, anthropology, geography, economics and political science. Various theoretical and empirical research studies on migration have been undertaken and lots of secondary and primary data have been accumulated and used. There are three types of studies on migration- regional, national and international levels. However, among studies of internal migration, the topic of rural-urban migration has turned up the most-popular among scholars. Over and above, dynamics of rural-urban migration with its causes and consequences have been brought about by different studies. Many suggestions and policy prescriptions have been drawn up either to promote or to check migration and movement of people. The volume of literature produced is indeed ample.

### **2.2 An Overview of Literature**

A part of the existing and increasing volume of literature on the topic available from different sources has been reviewed below. Four categories of research works have been reviewed. Firstly, we have reviewed those studies which deal with theoretical issues of migration. Secondly, research works which have been exercised at empirical level. These have been classified into two parts: those which are mainly consist of secondary data and those, which have dealt with field survey data. Thirdly, we have went over those works which deal with the problem of rural-urban migration in countries other than India and the case of international migration. Then, we have reviewed the review articles on internal rural-urban migration. Finally, we have identified the research gap in this chapter.

#### **2.2.1 Theoretical Issues of Migration**

**Todaro** (1969) in his theory of rural urban migration regarded two-stage phenomenon of rural urban migration. He perceived a dichotomy in urban economy while analyzing rural to urban migration. According to Todaro model of migration, in the first stage, the unskilled rural workers migrate to an urban area and initially spend a certain period of time in the urban

traditional sector. In the second stage, they finally attain jobs in more permanent modern sector. In Todaro's model, the migration decision from rural to urban areas is basically related to two principal variables, viz.: (i) the urban-rural real income differentials, and (ii) the probability of obtaining an urban job. A basic hypothesis of probabilistic migration model of Todaro is that informal sector employment is a transitory staging post for new migrants on their way to formal sector employment. It presumes two permanent sectors in the economy; one is rural sector specializing in the production of agricultural goods and the other is modern urban sector. The urban sector is divided by Todaro into two sub-sectors: (i) modern sector (akin to formal sector), and (ii) traditional sector (similar to informal sector) which includes all the workers not regularly employed in the urban modern sector, that is, explicitly employed, underemployed or sporadically employed and those who are employed in petty retail trades and services.

**Spengler and Myers (1977)** in their paper have made an effort to set migration within a context sufficiently broad so as to cover both it and socioeconomic development, together with their interrelation over time. From their review of work on migration, they have concluded that the study needs to be systematized and subordinated both to inquiry into all relevant social and physical parameters and to inquiry into the optimization of the distribution of economic activities and population in space. This type of inquiry should include inter alia inquiry into the optimization of city sizes and city systems, the imitational impact of non-ubiquitous natural or biospheric elements, the options respecting the ratio of amenities to disamenities, and the means suited to shunting to responsible parties all costs and all benefits flowing from their location-affecting actions. Such internalization, according to them calls for a long view, not only in the preparation of location-affecting plans but also in the costing and financing of undertakings over time.

They have looked on that regional solutions also might be found for the financing of cultural amenities (e.g., theatre, orchestra) that require, for their support, sufficiently large and continuous audiences. The search for regional solutions will be accentuated if the relative costs of energy and transportation rise, thus increasing the cost of population scatter that stems from the present practice of many urban workers living in rural nonfarm areas. According to them it is desirable that countries and regions that are victimized by the "skill drain" be compensated for this loss by the countries and regions benefiting from the immigration of superior human capital. Otherwise, international and interregional income

disparity is accentuated and the capacity of economically depressed areas to progress is reduced. While freedom to migrate is an essential “right,” the advantage conferred on the immigrant-receiving country needs to be paid for, much as the influx of physical capital must be paid for.

**Berliner** (1977) equips the important point that most people who write about migration are not interested in migration at all, but only in its consequences. This is certainly true of economists, sociologists, anthropologists, and social psychologists, whose work constitutes a major part of the literature on migration. Only demographers, and to a lesser extent geographers and historians, care about migration per se. Thus, it comes as no surprise that most disciplines approach the question of the causes of migration in a very similar manner and then stress the question that really fascinates them – the consequences of migration – from the view point of their disciplinary emphasis. Berliner evaluates the contributions by various disciplines within the context of their “bullishness” or “bearishness” on the issue of the ultimate consequences of migration for human welfare. While weighing the costs and benefits of migration to society in a most judicious manner, Berliner tends to stress the negative effects somewhat more than the positive ones. For economists, this is a useful corrective to the usual notion that migration is required for labor mobility and therefore clearly has positive result.

**Neuberger** (1977) discusses the heretofore neglected topic of the interrelations between migration and various systemic variables. He utilizes the approach he developed for his book *Comparative Economic Systems: A Decision Making Approach*, which concentrates attention on three systemic structures: the decision-making, information, and motivation structures. He argues that one reason why the systemic variables are usually ignored in studies of migration is because they generally tend to influence migration only indirectly and because slow, gradual, migratory moves do not tend to have a significant impact on the nature of the economic system in the area of origin or of destination. Neuberger compares the decision-making, information, and motivation variables in extreme pure models of planned and market systems, and in a mixed system – having centralized information but decentralized decision-making structure. He also explores the welfare economic implications for migration of different economic systems, stressing the problems of interdependencies, externalities, and norms and the definition of optimal migration flows.

**Davis's** (1977) paper elicits that rural out-migration appears to contribute to the development and well-being of sending regions. If so, it is worth asking why the opposite is often assumed and why policy is sometimes aimed at slowing down the rural exodus. The answer, according to him, is twofold. First, many governments are less concerned with rural areas than with the politically more potent cities. The influx into cities disturbs them because it seems to create urban unemployment and to lower the level of living in the cities. Second, insofar as officials worry about the countryside, they tend to revert to the old habit of associating population decline with catastrophe. They see empty farm houses, empty stores, schools, and churches in rural villages, and this seems to them to indicate economic decline. Davis's suggestion in this regard is that the empty buildings be torn down, the areas they occupied plowed over. Visitors from government headquarters in the city will then see only green fields. They will then say how beautiful and productive the countryside is and will return to their offices without being reminded that the population in rural areas is going downwards.

**Stark** (1982) in his theory of migration presumes a two-pronged planning horizon that rural-to-urban migrants may consider by incorporating informal sector into standard expected income Todaro type. According to Stark's model many rural-to-urban migrants rationally, though involuntarily, join the ranks of the urban unemployed since there are fewer high paying formal sector jobs than their numbers in the urban centers. Yet, migrants may willingly remain unemployed for a long period in the towns as an optimal strategy or investment in search of high-paying formal sector jobs. During this period, they may not accept an informal sector job even if it is available at a competitively determined market-clearing wage. They may live in town during this period for job trace depending on their own savings, familial or similar support.

The Stark model assumes that migration decisions are based on a two-period planning horizon that rural-to-urban migrants may think about either of the two competing strategies: (i) join the informal sector in the first period, and while there, search for formal sector employment. If formal sector employment is not tenable in the second period, informal sector employment is sought; (ii) search intensively (full time) for a formal sector opening in the first period. If formal sector employment is not secured in the second period, an attempt is prepared to join the informal sector.

**Zachariah's** (1987) paper makes an attempt on the issue of measurement of internal migration from census data. He has provided a few illustrations of some of the emerging applications of census data for migration analysis. These clearly indicate that the greatest asset of census data is their ability to provide cross-tabulations, not only of migrants by their demographic and socio-economic characteristics, but also of migrants as defined by different questions. The full potential of this latter feature of census data will only be realized as more censuses produce such cross-tabulations and use them for migration analysis.

**Margolis** (1987) opines that the push of research on migration has been on the determinants of the flows, not the consequences of the receiving or sending communities, and therefore it has not been as useful as possible for policy formulation. Population movements were seen as equilibrating factors, rather than as exogenous to the economy or, more realistically, as contributing significantly to regional growth and decline. It is further observed that simple multiplier models are helpful to explain the amplification effects of changes in economic opportunities, but more is called for in understanding the process and in deciding what policies should be adopted. External economies of growth or diseconomies of decline are one set of phenomena that should be included in models if they are to be policy relevant; another set would be the changes in public facilities associated with populations of different compositions. Since modeling has not been concerned with policy, little can be said except that this is unfortunate.

**Osella and Gardner** (2004) in their case study on 'Migration, Modernity and Social Transformation in South Asia' points out that the study of human movement for re-location in South Asia in a firm ethnographic grounding over the last ten years has been somewhat lost in wider discussion of globalization and transformation. In these debates, migration breaks down the opposition between different geographical locations and migrants and it is regarded as embodying a wider, contemporary post-modern condition. They also point out that present day migrants increasingly live across cultural and political borders, with the experience of transnational migrants or diasporic communities destabilizing nationalist ideologies and notions of race.

**Thapan** (2005) in his study on 'transnational migration and the politics of identity' clarifies the extent to which a gender perspective makes a contribution to migration theory and the manner in which it aids to comprehensive understanding of women's experience of migration, and how in the process, migration simultaneously emphasizes certain gender

related aspects. He argues that the comparative dimension is essentially concerned with the Asian region but provides cross-cultural and regional diversity in their understanding of the issue under consideration. Finally, the scholar points out that traditional formations and notions of the working class undergo dramatic transformations.

**Bhadhuri's** (2006) study on 'employment and development' attempts to detect answer to the question: why poverty and unemployment, as two sides of the same problem appear and persist and are often bypassed by the process of development? He examines this problem from a multidimensional perspective. Firstly, some of the theoretical issues are involved and points to oversights in standard theorising on the subject. Secondly, it draws out the connection between development of a predominantly agrarian economy and unemployment. Finally, it deals with the problem in the context of transnational economies of east Europe and draws lessons. He at last points out that the errors from the use of orthodox theories relied on by the IMF and the World Bank.

**Bird and Deshingkar** (2009) twig that people certainly do migrate because there is not enough work locally, but migration should not be understood as forced or distressed migration. Many people perceive migration as an opportunity. Short-term, non-permanent, migration from poor and underdeveloped regions to more prosperous regions and countries can offer people an important opportunity to diversity and exit from poverty. Without the opportunity to migrate many poor people would have fallen into deeper poverty and experienced severe food insecurity. This indicates that the costs and risks of migration might be cut by more flexible schools, pro-poor programmes and insurance for mobile population. The researchers predict that given current development patterns and future projections on urbanisation, the growth of manufacturing and agricultural development, it is very likely that internal migration in India, both temporary and permanent, will persist and grow. This will transfer populations from rural/agriculture to urban/non-farm areas and occupations. The rate at which this occurs will depend on how willing the national and state governments are to allow more people to settle in urban areas.

## **2.2.2 Empirical Issues on Internal Rural-Urban Migration**

### **2.2.2 (a) Empirical Issues Based on Secondary Data**

**Dasgupta** (1988) has explored the process of migration in West Bengal, and its implications for rural-urban relationship. He found that in the case of West Bengal migration has not been

accompanied or followed by 'depopulation' of the countryside, or a shift in the terms of trade in favour of agriculture, or a high level of mechanization, or it shows any sign of working itself out, or of acting as an equilibrating mechanism. He observes that the villages of Uttar Pradesh, which began sending migrants to the jute factories of Calcutta about hundred years ago, are continuing to do so; and the outward movement of workers from the districts of Bankura and Purulia towards relatively prosperous rural areas of the state shows no sign of abating. The migratory process, once started, does not easily stop, although destinations might change or become diversified. Migration continues even when the conditions which originally favoured such migration cease to operate; poor villages turned rich do not turn off the flow, though organized migration is replaced by voluntary migration, and the direction of migration might change, as also the work they do in the destination. In these cases, migration becomes a part of the tradition, the way of life of the people concerned.

According to Dasgupta migration cannot be restrained by force, or through regulations and rules. If people want to come to the towns and squat on the pavements, there is little that a state government can do to prevent it. Moreover, it should be noted, that despite the various problems created by large scale migration, e.g., in terms of deteriorating civic facilities, the positive aspects of the migratory movements should not be overlooked. Such movements, apart from widening the horizon of the participants and helping to iron out local deficits and surplus in labour power, have been historically responsible for the advance of human civilization by spreading new ideas, technologies and innovations. In the Indian context, migration plays the important role of integrating the segmented labour markets, and developing new identities of working people irrespective of their caste, religions or linguistic loyalties. Migration, thus, can be seen as an important instrument promoting national integration; while at same time it is true that very often the identifiable migrant groups become the scapegoats for all the ills of a society and are subjected to attack from the chauvinist forces.

**Sarkar's** (1988) study is based on migration data of the Census of India 1971. He has probed into the causes and characteristics of the problem of migration with special reference to the state of West Bengal. His study shows that the Harris-Todaro model based on rural-urban income differential does not significantly explain rural-urban migratory movements in West Bengal. According to him this model fails also when only the informal sector urban income is taken into account. His regression Model-I suggests that both explanatory variables – the

man-land ratio and the percentage of landless agricultural workers are individually significant indicating their importance in the rural sectors. However, in the final (4<sup>th</sup> regression) model this explanatory variable, man-land ratio becomes statistically insignificant, but the other variable, 'percentage of landless agricultural workers' continues to be statistically significant. Literacy rate is confirmed as one of the major explanatory variables for migration. Literacy has been treated by him as a 'push', factor (the rural areas having limited opportunities for jobs suitable for educated persons) and a 'pull' factor indicating both a better access to information on urban opportunities and also the fact of the urban areas having better job prospects for the educated.

**Mitra** (1992) in his study points out that rural to urban migration rate is both influenced by the workforce participation rate and the level of service employment in the cities. Workforce participation rate lowers the service sector employment but raises in-migration. Again service sector employment lowers the work force participation rate but attracts the rural unemployed and the casual workers from the agricultural sector. Finally, he sets forth the indirect impact of workforce participation rate on percentage of tertiary sector employment in total workforce and vice-versa through the variable and for this impact rural to urban migration rate is positive demonstrating the situation of expanding urban workforce with a growing concentration of service sector jobs.

**Bhattacharya's** (1998) paper tries to narrate rural-urban migration in India to some of the broad economic changes in the country during the 1970s, when there occurred an occupational shift out of agriculture with the share of agriculture in employment declining and that of non-agriculture increasing. The evidence indicates that the informal sector played an important role in rural-urban migration during the period and that, far from being a passive absorber of labour, it was a dynamic and productive sector, attracting and sustaining labour in its own rights.

**Subramaniam** and **Balasubramaniam's** (2000) paper concentrates on the trend, pattern, characteristics, reasons and effects of migration in the cities of Tamil Nadu: Chennai, Coimbatore and Madurai. For the state as a whole intra-district and inter-district migration is found to dominate. Inter-state migration is found to be correlated with economic potential. The single largest reason for male migration is employment. Interestingly, female mobility for employment increased more than three times between 1981 and 1991. The authors elicit that migrant population has a positive impact on the local population: it adds to the

economically active, educationally qualified and occupationally skilled population and is therefore a blessing and not a burden provided the human resource is harnessed properly.

**Srivastava and Sasikumar's** (2003) study expounds the internal and international migration, both of which are long-scale with impacts on economic growth and poverty reduction in many regions of the country. The study reviews key issues relating to internal and external labour migration in India. It has analysed the patterns, trends and nature of labour migration, reviewed existing government and non-governmental policies and programmes, and briefly examined key policy issues and options.

**Das et al** (2003) in their paper has made an attempt to calculate the magnitude and direction of migration among the states in the north-eastern region of India on the basis of NSSO data for the years 1987-88 and 1999-2000. The study finds that the general direction of migration is from the rural sector to the urban sector. Migration in the rural areas, besides being very little, is mostly internal migration. Migration to the urban areas, on the other hand, is on the increase even though migration across states and from other countries has slowed down.

**Deshingkar's** (2004) study seeks to explain the nature of changes and trends in rural urban migration, the relevance of local labour markets and remittances and their place within the livelihood strategies of the rural poor and to indicate the ways in which donor policies should be adopted to address these changes and trends. The study has also noted remaining contested policy areas and discussed contrasting viewpoints using the available evidence. Finally, it has spelt out areas for further investigation and action.

**Chand's** (2005) study examines the dynamics of trends and patterns of internal migration in India and analyses the extent and direction of the migration. It is based mainly on the data of the National Sample Survey 55<sup>th</sup> round, 1999-2000. The lack of employment opportunities in the rural areas and better employment prospects and infrastructural amenities in the urban areas motivate rural labourers to migrate to urban areas. A comparison of activity Status of the migrant before and after migration indicates that the proportion of males as well as females has risen after migration both in rural and urban areas. He opines that people move across regions in response to inequitable distribution of resources, services and opportunities, people increasingly invest in urban areas due to economies of scale. Concentration of institutional and other activities in urban areas attracts people to the urban areas. Thus poverty push and prosperity-pull types of migration movements are found in various parts of

the region in India. He points out an analysis of the recent trends in internal migration which indicates that nearly 27 per cent of the Indian population is migrant.

He has searched out that among the four types of rural-urban streams (rural to urban, urban to rural, urban to urban and rural to rural) the rural to urban migration stream is dominant. Mobility is rewarding in terms of better income and employment and helps in reducing unemployment. He argues that continuing streams of migrants from the rural to urban areas have led to serious problems such as promoting growth of slums in the urban areas which have been instrumental in spreading disease, crime, pollution, congestion etc. According to a recent household census of slum colonies in Chandigarh, about 30% of the population lives in authorised and unauthorised colonies. Most of the migrant labour force works as casual labour in and around the city in the informal sector (Chand, 1999). Finally, he suggests for appropriate policy intervention to promote development in rural areas and backward regions of the country that can be helpful in halting the rural to urban migration and creation of slums. Various aspects related to migration such as theories of migration, causes, types and effects of migration as well as obstacles to migration. Secondly the study also deals with migration in various countries like India with special reference to Kerala. The author's analytical invention of out-migration flows in par with the level of education attained establishes that migration is not a random process, but a selective one, dependent on the nature of employment opportunities available in various regions or countries which in turn determines the internal and international streams of migration.

**Kundu and Sarangi** (2007) explores in their study of migration that the pattern of migration in urban areas and its socio-economic conditions correlates. The analysis is based on the National Sample Survey's reports of employment and unemployment pertaining to the latest rounds, which provide information on migration. According to the authors, economic deprivation is not the most critical factor for migration decisions, even for seasonal migrants. People migrate out of both poor and rich households, although the reasons for migration and the nature of jobs sought by them are different. Rural-urban migrants have a greater risk of being below the poverty line than the urban-urban migrants, but both report a lower risk than non-migrants. The probability of a person being poor is low in a large city compared to any other urban centre, irrespective of the migration status, age, number of subsidiary activities undertaken, etc. The results indicate that migration has been a definite instrument of improving economic well-being and escaping from poverty. The probability of being poor is

much less among the migrants compared to the local population, in all size classes of urban centres.

**Mitra** and **Murayama**'s (2007) paper consists of the Census data of 2001. The paper has analysed the district level rural to urban migration rates (both intra-state and the inter-state) among males and females separately. Both the rates are closely associated irrespective of whether the migrants originate from the rural areas within the state or outside the state. This would suggest that women usually migrate as accompanists of the males. Though many of the relatively poor and backward states actually show large population mobility, which is primarily in search of a livelihood, the mobility of male population is also seen to be prominent in the relatively advanced states like Maharashtra and Gujarat. Rapid migration of rural females within the boundaries of the states is however, evident across most of the regions. The social networks, which play an important role in the context of migration are prevalent among the short distance migrants and tend to lose their significance with a rise in the distance between the place of origin and destination though there are some exceptions to this phenomenon. Besides the north-south divide in the Indian context is indeed a significant phenomenon with a few exceptions of metropolitan cities. As regards the effect of factors at the place of destination, prospects for better job opportunities are a major determinant of male migration. Low castes and minority groups tend to pull migration through network effects. Among females also these effects are evident though with the inclusion of the male migration rate they become less significant. Finally the paper brings out the policy implications.

### **2.2.2 (b) Empirical Issues Based on Primary Data**

**Barik**'s (1984) paper has searched out that Ganjam has witnessed the emigration of a part of its free labour to Surat, mainly influenced by "economic factors", such as small land holdings, low income, severe unemployment and better prospects for future. Further, the reason for selecting Surat as the destination was 'better prospects' of availability of employment here than elsewhere. This was reinforced by having friends, family members and relatives in Surat. They guaranteed jobs and extended all possible hospitalities. This reveals the kinship network in rural-urban migration. The decision to migrate has been influenced greatly by their education, family composition, marital status and experience of earlier migration to other places.

Most of the migrants work in small textile industries, which contravene all labour laws. According to him, temporary and adhoc nature of employment, low wage, weak trade union organisation and poor housing conditions lead to serious health hazards. There is a frequent change of employment without an adequate change in the way of life. The only reason for the acceptance of this sorry state of affairs is the availability of employment opportunities and better wages compared to what was available in the village agriculture. There is a wide gap between wage needs because of the cost of living in the urban context and the overall saving of the migrants.

**Rao (1986)** in his study has attempted to explore the problems relating to migration, both internal and international. He examines the significance of migration which expands well beyond regional geography, urban planning and housing policies etc. into problems of law and order, conduct of national integration and management of human relations. He brings twelve essays in his study focussing on the historical, demographic and sociological dimensions of migration. A wide range of migration situations from the rural-rural to international are explored and many conceptual, theoretical and empirical aspects of the phenomenon are also explored. He discusses the human aspects of migration, poverty, deprivation and subsistence. Finally, he concludes that work needs to be done on understanding the effects of emigration and the international relationship between host, home and migrant societies.

**Gupta et al (1988)** have made a sociological study of migration of agricultural labourers from eastern to north-western region of India. The main objectives of their study are to explicate the causes of migration, to analyse the impact of migration on the pattern of employment, wages, acculturation and interpersonal relations and to examine the socio-cultural and economic impact of migration on migrant families. The study finds that migration was stimulated by both push and pull factors. Higher wages and regular employment at the farms of Punjab were the major economic factors which initially attracted the immigrants to Punjab. At a later stage, the networks of the co-villagers and caste played dominant role in sustaining immigrants stay in Punjab. The important push factors were floods, droughts, unemployment/under-employment, poverty and indebtedness. The positive effect of the influx of immigrants was seen in the minimization of the chronic shortage of farm labour on Punjab farms, particularly during peak periods. However, it was found that

social tensions existed between the local and immigrant workers in a latent form. It was feared that a large scale immigration of farm workers from Uttar Pradesh and Bihar may endanger the legitimate socio-economic interests of the local farm workers.

**Gupta's** (1991) study explores that the majority of the immigrants to Punjab hailed from Bihar and Uttar Pradesh. They are mainly Hindus, young in age, illiterate and belonged to intermediate and low castes. Most had medium sized or large families with a maximum of three earners. They are mostly agricultural labourers and own cultivable land. Still, they are under debt and dwell in Kutchha houses. Almost all the immigrants came to Punjab on their first out-migration through friends, relatives and co-villagers already working in Punjab, reflecting the importance of the social network. Both pull and push factors stimulated migration. The economic factors were more effective in the beginning, while the social factors were dominant in sustaining the immigrants' stay at the later stages. A bulk of the employer-farmers recruited the immigrants directly. The majority of the immigrants had no housing problem but they faced problems of social participation and frustration and were not well adjusted in the new socio-cultural milieu. Almost, all the immigrants had changed their food habits from rice to wheat and maize. The adoption level of the local language was low while the change in the dress was apparent. A dominant section had acquired knowledge of modern farm technology. Most immigrants had cordial relations with the locals. The former, however, felt deprived vis-a-vis the latter in respect of wages, working hours and levels of living. The employer-farmers preferred to employ the immigrants as they were cheaper, worked for longer hours and were more submissive than the locals. The latter, however, did not like the influx of migrant agricultural labourers for obvious reasons. The host culture had a favourable influence on the immigrants' values in respect of family planning. The remittances sent home by them had contributed towards improvement in the educational level of their children, marriages of kin, purchase of durable goods and agricultural lands and clearing of their debts.

**Joshi's** (1997) study on 'Tribal Migration' indicates that seasonal labour migration is an important dynamic constituent of the contemporary tribal scenario of India. He analyses the basic issue that the large scale migration is one of the survival strategies adopted by the tribals to save them from starvation, under a condition of the failure of the local support system caused due to increasing population and dwindling command over resources. Specially, he reflects the ground reality of the overexploited western tribal belt of India.

Based on the primary data of 2280 households from 66 villages of the tribal district of Jhabua from Madhya Pradesh, which produces a factual analysis of the nature, volume, direction and causes of tribal migration, along with manpower skill component.

**Mamgain's** (2003) paper makes an attempt a detailed analysis of the magnitude and characteristics of out-migration among rural households in the State of Uttaranchal. It notes that out-migration among the rural household in the mountain region of Uttaranchal is increasingly becoming an important part of their survival strategy as the mountain agriculture, which possesses a weak facility for structural transformation, could hardly meet the subsistence requirements of many rural households. However, the tightening labour-market situations outside the hill region in the present phase of economic reforms has, in fact, adversely affected the employment opportunities for out-migrants as most of them are unskilled and possesses low levels of education. The real challenge therefore is to enhance the education and skills of the population. This will enable them to compete within their State in the event of upcoming job opportunities on the one hand, and also help those who out-migrate. This would require a serious re-look of the strengths and weaknesses of the existing infrastructure for the human resource development and accordingly to undertake corrective measures.

**Dayal and Karan's** (2003) study have analysed the causes and consequences of migration of both the tribal and non-tribal labourers of Jharkhand Region. The study is based on primary data collected from 12 villages of the state of Jharkhand. It notes that the incidence of migration is very high in this region. A large number of migrants engage in short period migration. Migration has had the wide-ranging consequences on both the migrants and those who stay behind. While migration has resulted in improved income and consumption standards, it also has had adverse impacts especially on those who have been left behind.

**Mohanan and Valentina** (2004) took on a survey of hundred households in four settlements of migrant labourers in Hyderabad city of Andhra Pradesh. The study found that rural poverty and under-employment are the underlying factors for the growing phenomenon of rural to urban migration in the state. Rural-Urban migration has become the escape route and the urban informal sector continues to absorb migrant rural labour force, resulting in growth of urban slums in the periphery of Hyderabad city. They have found that casual employment is the dominant feature of migrant labour households in urban slums. By its very nature, daily wage employment is neither continuous nor sustainable in the long run.

The study exposes that the migrant labourers are better placed compared to their counterpart in rural areas both economically and socially in the urban setting. It shows that though urbanisation has its problems for the development planners, migration seems to be a blessing in disguise for the migrant population. Higher income and better employment prospect and surplus net income over expenditure are the motivating factors for continued settlement of labour households in urban slums. The study indicates that the process of urbanisation cannot be easily reversed so long as urban living conditions are much more comfortable due to substantial employment-cum-income gain in the urban milieu. Urbanisation being a dynamic process, the rural-urban migration will get accentuated due to several pull factors in the urban agglomeration. The authors suggest that to counter balance this rural-urban migration, there is an urgent need to transform the living conditions in rural areas. By the provision of the basic amenities in the village on par with the cities, the potential for rural-urban migration can be reduced.

**Mahesh** (2004) in his study noticed the structure of labour force in Kerala that has changed over time as a result of reduced new entry into the agricultural sector and the continuing shift to non-agricultural occupations. Faced with the limited employment opportunities in the village and uncertainty in getting local employment, a large number of rural labourers change their occupation or place of work or both. Casualisation of labour is one of the strategies adopted by workers to shift risk, while some others partially shift their occupations. Other things being equal, age and sex were found to be the major determinants of mobility. The older workers as also women workers are the least mobile spatially. In spite of this shift, there is sufficient number of agricultural labourers to meet the local demand. However, they are mostly elderly persons, and in terms of efficiency of labour they are a heterogeneous lot. Since there is only one set of wage rate in the village, cultivators seek to employ only those with higher efficiency. For efficient agricultural workers there is no difficulty in getting employment. The felt shortage of labour is the result of the situation created by the simultaneous existence of a large number of labourers on the one hand, and of a large number of small cultivators on the other, as well as wide variability of work efficiency of the agricultural labour stock in the village.

**Kumar** (2005) in his case study on 'Rural Male Out-Migration' of workers in Bhagalpur district of Bihar looks on that no simple generalization about the total effects of out-migration on the place of origin is possible. Moreover, he says that rural male out-migration does not

seem to be the only reliable strategy for rural development as it has also created a vicious circle of poverty and out migration in the district. He suggests that unless and until the aforesaid programmes are honestly implemented in the rural areas of Bhagalpur district, the pattern of poverty-induced out-migration would continue unabated.

**Sundari's** (2007) study evolves the significant livelihood strategy for the poor which is caused by migration. She opines that women play an important role in contemporary migrations throughout the World. She explains gender related issues involved in migration such as the causes that induce women to migrate, the trend and patterns of female migration, its impact on the economic status of migrant families and work patterns of migrant women. She also explains the costs and returns of female labour migration, the problems encountered by migrant women, livelihood strategies and coping mechanism employed, the effect of migratory process on the status of children in the family and finally the quality of life of migrant households. She analyses all India data on migration in macro perspectives with special reference to Tamil Nadu State. Her micro investigation is confined to a sample of 955 migrant women selected from three areas in Tamil Nadu- Chennai City, Coimbatore City and Tirupur Town. Appraising the gains and losses, she has inferred that migration has helped the migrant households to avoid hunger, starvation and death. Finally, she concludes that the gains are minimum, with quality of life steadily deteriorating and promoting the growth of child labour and accounting for a high drop out among them.

**Swain's** (2007) paper consists of empirical data collected from three villages in Orissa in Eastern India. This study attempts to explore the causes and determinants of rural-urban migration and to analyze its impact on land, labour and credit relations in source areas. According to her, uneven capitalist development and lack of employment opportunities in source areas cause emigration. The pauperised and proletarianised peasants out-migrate to cities and get employed in informal sectors at low wages. The out-migration of marginalised peasantry is not due to any pull factors of growth and income but under the push factors of indebtedness, pauperisation and unemployment and as a survival strategy of the last resort. Due to emigration of landowners, there has been an increase in land leasing in the source areas and in-migration of labour from drought prone tribal areas. Due to remittance money the resource base of the migrant households in the source area has been strengthened and borrowing from trader-moneylenders for cultivation of cash crops has declined.

### **2.2.3 Issues on Internal Migration in Other Countries and International Migration**

**Piampiti's** (1979) study has examined interregional migration in Thailand during the 1960-70 periods. There is evidence of a relationship between mobility and differences in socio-economic conditions among the regions. Partly as a consequence of the first two development plans, communication and mobility among rural and urban populations have been made easier. The people are in a stage of flux, tending to move away from areas of lesser opportunities. A high concentration of migrants is found in the Bangkok – Thon Buri urban region and a few other cities like Nonthaburi and Samut Prakan. This uneven distribution of population may hamper further progress and strategies are needed to advance the social and economic development of other parts of the country.

The five strategies pointed out by her are interrelated in various ways – especially at the first three – the diversification of economic activities, the reduction of income disparities and the development of growth centres. When agricultural activities are diverted to industrial pursuits, the volume of production will increase and will eventually raise per capita incomes. The rate of population growth and the volume of migration are important in this development. Growth centres can generate a variety of socio-economic activities and become centres of commerce, education and communication. She emphasises the point that only socio-economic development, coupled with family planning programmes, can lower the birth rate. Finally, according to her the diffusion of various services to rural areas can be effective in alleviating population redistribution problems as long as attractive rural employment opportunities are also available.

**Pryor** (1979) has done a demographic analysis of internal migrants in Malaysia. He opines that internal migration can be seen as a disintegrating force in that it depletes – often literally emasculates – communities in areas of major out-migration such as the state of Perak in Malaysia, while it can bring economically, culturally and politically threatening forces to bear on the major in-migration areas. In the Kuala Lumpur region one can speculate as to the inter-ethnic competition and potential conflict in the demand for scarce resources, be they jobs, housing, health, education or personal security. Nevertheless, and more positively, significant population redistributions through internal migration can also be seen as an integrating force, bringing together Malaysians of different races, cultures and socioeconomic

aspirations, sharing the occupations and services as well as the problems and pressures of the new environments. He observes that while it is too early to fully determine the efficacy of the New Economic Policy adopted in Malaysia in 1971, and since the data here are too coarse and abstract, the statistics on migration do document the extent to which some of the Policy's goals have already crystallized in reality, especially those concerned with rural development and Malay urbanization.

**Sekher** (1997) in his case study on 'Migration and Social Change' clarifies that under the changing international labour scenario, return migration and its socio-economic impact assumes great importance. He has made an attempt to examine the impact of migration and return migration in the context of large scale return of migrant workers from Middle East Countries to India, particularly to the state of Kerala. He has discussed the research issues relating to migration and a review of relevant literature with emphasis on return migration. He has provided detailed information about emigration from India to Gulf Countries and return migration with special reference to Kerala. The process of emigration from Kerala to Gulf Countries is explained in the fourth chapter by drawing inferences from the two study villages. He has also discussed the process of migration selectivity from rural areas. The occupational change of Gulf returnees has also been discussed by him. He has brought into focus the changes in the village community brought on by Gulf emigration and the subsequent return migration. The changes were broadly examined from two perspectives: economic and social. The conclusion of his study is that apart from the economic aspects, the social dimensions are equally important in understanding and explaining the process and implications of emigration and return migration.

**Afsar's** (2000) study has made an attempt to create greater understanding about the rapid growth of Dhaka City, the deeply entrenched class hierarchy and offers a socio-economic analysis of the slum and non-slum households. She discusses the above issues from the existing literature in a number of ways. Firstly, it used the latest and recognized sources of secondary materials and population estimates and projections. Secondly, it makes a thorough and broad-spectrum review of theories on determinants and consequences of migration. Thirdly, it attempts to supplement the destination based data with the case study of migrant's families and stayers at origin. Fourthly, it has also combined different forms of population mobility and examines critically the causes and consequences of migration for different streams of migrants. She also considers the gender dimension and assesses the

impact of migration in determining women's roles and status and goes on to make an institutional analysis to derive policy implications for urban management.

**Ghaffari and Singh (2000)** examine that migration is a complex, multivariate phenomenon and enquiry about the motives behind it is the most difficult part of the analysis of the process of the migration. Not only that, studies which have been conducted in this field are mostly of specific nature and it is difficult to generalize their findings so as to make the same applicable in different situations. Not only the factors controlling migration vary from area to area but also the significance of the same factor varies from person to person. There is no doubt that migration plays an important role in the life of rural as well as urban residents. But the causes of migration are even more important and significant, because only a proper understanding of the reasons of rural migration can help one to adopt a proper decision or policy in relation with it. In their study they have made an attempt to identify the economic determinants of rural-urban migration with special reference to Iran. They have found that land scarcity and population pressure on land; wage and income differentials, unemployment and employment opportunity differentials; unequal distribution of resources, technological improvements and mechanization; land reform and general economic conditions are the most important economic factors that have motivated rural-urban migration in Iran.

**Hossain's (2001)** study concentrates on the differentials and determinants of internal migration, and hence identifies the factors influencing out-migration in Bangladesh. The study is based on the data collected from 10 villages of Comilla district of Bangladesh. The scholar's migration differentials at individual level indicated that persons involved in the process of rural out-migration were adult and more educated. The study finds that most of them were engaged in studies or unemployed before migration. Nearly half of the migrants were found to have undertaken migration for temporary service and about one quarter have migrated for permanent job. Permanent type of migration was found related with educated migrants whereas temporary type of migration mainly associated with illiterate migrants. The migration rate was found significantly higher for educated as well as unemployed people as well as for the people belonging to the ages 20-29. It was also found that poverty, job searching and family influence were the main push factors for out-migration, while better opportunity, prior migrants and availability of job were the main pull factors behind migration.

**Andersen's** (2002) paper examines the advantages and disadvantages of rural-urban migration and shows that the costs of increased urbanization (crime, pollution, congestion etc.) in Bolivia are rather small compared to the costs experienced in other Latin American countries. The benefits, on the other hand, may be large. Encouraging rural-urban migration may be one of the cheapest ways of reducing poverty in Bolivia because it is so much cheaper to provide basic services like electricity, piped water, schools, and health services to people when they are gathered in towns or cities. In addition, economics of scale in the cities bring economic opportunities and increase people's income. The paper has shown that rural-urban migration is not much of a problem in Bolivia, neither for the migrants nor for the cost cities. By encouraging rural-urban migration with sensible policies, it may be possible to reduce several of the problems facing Bolivia.

**Ahsan Ullah** (2004) analyses the factors contributing to the migration process in Bangladesh. 197 randomly selected migrants and their families were interviewed at both destination and source locations using closed and open-ended questionnaires. The resulting data provided descriptive and analytical statistics. Data analysis reveals that the flow of migration to the major cities in Bangladesh is the result of rural-urban dichotomies in income, employment opportunity and absorptive capacity. A significantly higher percentage of migrants live in slums as compared to other places ( $P < 0.003$ ). Regression analysis shows that migration is influenced by both "push" and "pull" factors, such as the search for work, landlessness, extreme poverty, loss of income, easy access to informal sectors in cities, and joining families or relatives. A factor analysis showed similar determinants. According to him, reducing disparities between rural and urban areas should receive urgent attention to stabilize the migration process in Bangladesh.

**Kumar** (2006) in his book on 'Illegal Migration from Bangladesh' concentrate on a wide range of issues concerning the complex problem of illegal migration from Bangladesh. He traces the factors responsible for illegal migration, both historical and politico-economic. Further, he finds that illegal migration is due to both the pull and push factors. The author opines that this has to be accepted as a ground reality. He has analysed its implications for India in general and the North Eastern States in particular through pushing high population growth, disturbing the demographic texture of population, threatening economy and influencing electoral politics.

**Gounder** (2006) in his study on causes and consequences of rural-urban migration in Fiji explores that the movement of people geographically, out of rural areas and occupationally out of farm jobs, is one of the most invasive features of agricultural transformations and economic growth. Increasing urban population has also brought increasing problems in urban areas. Rural urban migration is regarded as an evitable consequence of rapid economic growth. The economy of Fiji has been no exception. In the paper he has analyzed the determinants and impact of rural urban migration. Traditionally pull factors have been found to be dominant but push factors appeared to be increasingly becoming powerful. The paper also offers some suggestions to government policy makers, including market reforms, to consider when designing development policies that may directly or indirectly affect internal migration.

#### **2.2.4 Review of Studies on Internal Migration**

**Sundaram's** (1986) paper has taken into account the applicability and relevance in the Indian context of Todaro's model of rural-urban migration in less developed countries (LDCs). In considering the relevance and applicability in the Indian context of the Todaro model he has not attempted an econometric test of the migration function because of data limitations. He has tried to show that the extent of rural-urban migration in search of employment is so small as to border on the negligible even though there exists a sizeable differential between income-foregone in the rural areas and the expected income (adjusted for the probability of unemployment) in urban areas. According to him, this evidence for one time point in the early 1970s has been supplemented by evidence of a decline in the rate of rural-urban migration over the period 1963-64 to 1973-74 with no concurrent decline in the expected-income differentials.

The overall driving force of the Indian evidence, according to him, casts serious doubts on the significance of 'expected income differentials' as a major determinants of rural-urban migration (or rather, in this case, the absence of such migration). The paper finds that the hypothesis that rural-urban migration takes place primarily in response to expected income differentials is not supported by the available Indian evidence relating to the early 1960s and early 1970s. In his view, an understanding of the presence, or absence, of rural-urban migration in India would require a closer analysis of other factors, such as imperfections in the capital market, access to information and the 'distance' separating the two populations. According to him, a whole range of non-economic factors introducing, what may be called a

‘social’ or ‘cultural’ distance which possibly weighs more significantly in migration decisions of the rural population in India. He concludes that, in understanding rural-urban migration in India not only do factors other than expected-income-differentials appear significant, but the purely ‘economic’ elements of these ‘other factors’ are, perhaps, less significant than the sociological and psychological ones incorporated in them.

**Lucas** (1987) in his overview on internal migration and economic development has stressed on the role of population migration in promoting economic development through increased efficiency of resource allocation, with marginal comments on at least some aspects of distributional implications. The study is limited to observations on internal, rather than international migration and focuses primarily upon economies in which factors of production are predominantly owned by the private sector. In conclusion he observes that tastes of individuals, and the institutional extensions of those tastes in the form of communal arrangements, as data – or at least as exogenous to the migration process. This omission is not a consequence of complete unawareness of the likelihood that urbanization changes both tastes and institutions but, rather, results from the great difficulties of evaluating these induced phenomena in any meaningful fashion.

**Sasikumar** (1999) in his paper has made an attempt to expound details pertaining to 'neo-classical' and 'new economics of migration' theories of internal migration to clarify their underlying assumptions and key propositions so that the groundwork for necessary empirical work may be laid (Sasikumar, 1999).

**Samal** and **Mishra** (1999) in their study elicit that each migration pattern will have consequences that are unique to itself and to the economic context which it brings about. The most popular migration model is that of Todaro which regards the migration as a two-stage phenomenon by recognising a dichotomy in an urban economy. By incorporating informal sector into standard Todaro type migration model Stark postulates a two-pronged planning horizon that rural-to-urban migrants may consider. Various empirical studies show that migration does occur from low to high income regions but some debate continues regarding the relative importance of the characteristics of origin and destination in explaining migration. Various independent variables are used to explain as determinants of rural-to-urban migration such as level of education, personal contacts, geographical distance, bright lights, government policies, risk avoidance, urban-rural income difference, agricultural unemployment/ underemployment and others. They opine that the relationship between

migration and labour force participation in the town and cities is indeterminate, as found in both theoretical and empirical literature. The scattered empirical studies do not support the contention that rural-to-urban migrants may be limited to marginal employment even though they improve their income by moving. The studies on rural to urban migration in Orissa showed that push factors as more important determinant than pull factors in the process of rural-to-urban migration and in the case of inter-state out migrants, the migrants (popularly known as *dadan*) move in groups with friends and relatives, sometimes controlled by labour contractors and agents.

### **2.3 Identification of Research Gap**

It is evident from the above review of literature that very few studies on rural-urban migration have been undertaken in West Bengal till date involving primary data. Whatever studies are available on the topic have been done using secondary data from NSSO of various rounds or different Census Reports. Moreover, no work has been done on rural-urban migration in Cooch Behar district of West Bengal till date using primary data. The present study would therefore fill up the research gap and make important contribution to the literature on the problem under study.