

# Trends and Patterns of Migration in India: A Case Study of Lucknow, Uttar Pradesh

## DISSERTATION

Submitted To  
BABASAHEB BHIMRAO AMBEDKAR UNIVERSITY  
(A CENTRAL UNIVERSITY)  
LUCKNOW

BABASAHEB  
BHIMRAO  
AMBEDKAR  
UNIVERSITY



प्रज्ञा शील करुणा  
ESTABLISHED 1996

In Partial Fulfillment for the Award of  
**Master of Philosophy**  
in  
**ECONOMICS**

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VidyaVihar, Raebareli Road Lucknow-226025(U.P), India

2017



*Dedicated  
To My  
Revered Parents*

BABASAHEB  
BHIMRAO  
AMBEDKAR  
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ESTABLISHED 1996

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## Certificate

This is to certify that the M.Phil Dissertation entitled “**Trends and Patterns of Migration in India: A Case Study of Lucknow, Uttar Pradesh**” submitted in partial fulfillment for the award of Masters of Philosophy in Economics has been carried out under my supervision and no part of the dissertation has been submitted for any degree or diploma to any other University.

The dissertation is forwarded for the submission to Babasaheb Bhimrao Ambedkar University for the award of Master of Philosophy in Economics.

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## Declaration

I hereby, declare that this dissertation entitled “**Trends and Patterns of Migration in India: A Case Study of Lucknow, Uttar Pradesh**” submitted to Babasaheb Bhimrao Ambedkar (A Central) University, Lucknow in partial fulfilment for the award of Master of Philosophy in Economics is my original work. It has not been submitted in part or full for any other diploma or degree of any other University. The indebtedness of the candidate to others has been duly acknowledged at relevant places.

This study is carried out under the supervision of Dr. Surendra Meher, Assistant Professor Department of Economics, Babasaheb Bhimrao Ambedkar University, Lucknow.

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## *Acknowledgements*

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Undertaking this M.Phil has been truly a life-changing experience for me and it would not have been possible to do without the support and guidance that I received from many people.

Firstly, I would like to express my sincere gratitude to my supervisor Dr. Surendra Meher for all kind of support and encouragement he gave me. His patience, motivation and immense knowledge guide me in all the time of research and writing of this dissertation. Without his guidance and constant feedback this M.Phil would not have been achievable. I could not have imagined having a better advisor and mentor for my research work.

I express my sincere thanks to Head of the Department, Professor N.M.P Verma for providing the necessary facilities during the entire tenure of M.Phil.

The encouragement and moral support I have received from the teachers of the department and research advisory committee members such as Prof. Sanatan Nayak, Prof. L.C Mallaiah, Dr. D.K Yadav and Dr. Pranav Anand cannot put in words. I have no words to thank them for their continuous encouragement and their assistance throughout my dissertation.

I would also like to thank the non-teaching staff of the department for their kind cooperation and help.

My acknowledgement would be incomplete without thanking the biggest source of my strength, my family whose love is the protective shield of mine that gives me confidence in my activities and right. I like to say a heartfelt thanks to my Mom and Dad for always believing in me and encouraging me to follow my dreams; they formed part of my vision and taught me good things that really matter in life. Their infallible love and support has always been my strength. Their patience and sacrifice will remain my inspiration throughout my life. I am also very much grateful to all my family members for their

## *Acknowledgements*

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constant inspiration and encouragement. Special thanks to my elder brother Sandeep Singh, sister-in-law Priyanka Singh and brother-in-law Dheeraj Singh for helping in whatever way they could during this challenging period. And finally a big thanks to my elder sister Sonal Singh who has been by my side throughout this M.Phil, living every single minute of it and without whom, I would not have the courage to embark on this journey in the first place. And I also want to thanks to my darling Aadyut and Atharva for being such a cute little baby always cheering me up and making it possible for me to complete what I started.

I am gratified with the company and help provided by my friends and seniors Swapnil Gupta, Arshi Zia, Shekhar Gautam, Abhishek Singh, Manoj Kumar, Swati Rai, Suhail Bhat, Maajid Bhat, Firdous Malik and Bipendra Singh during the course of M.Phil. Finally, my thanks go to all the people who have supported me to complete the research work directly or indirectly.

It is my best friends Anju Kushwaha, Jagriti Chaturvedi, Zareen Ansari, and Gargi Singh who has provided me with solace and succour whenever I have found myself in difficulties in my academic pursuit as well as in my personal life. It is their reassuring presence and moral support that has accompanied me throughout my work. They encouraged me and helped me in several ways. I have no words to thank them.

Above all, I owe it to Almighty God for granting me the wisdom, health and strength to undertake this research task and enabling me to its completion and ultimately no words can thank Him.

Shambhavi Singh

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## CHAPTER 1

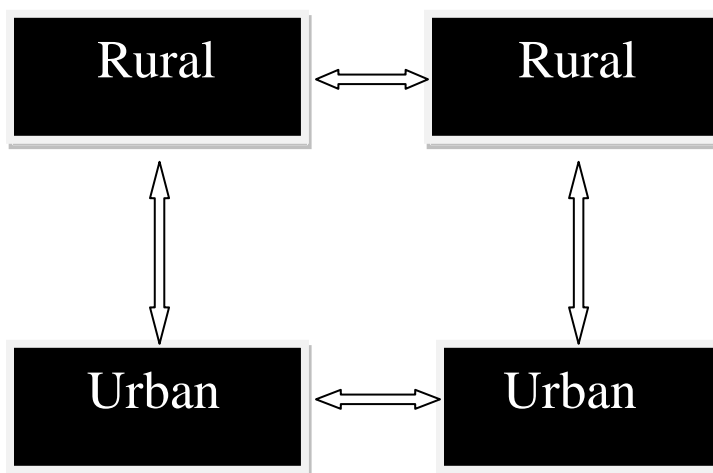
### 1: INTRODUCTION:

Migration is the movement of people across regions or countries. It is the process of changing one's place of residence and permanently living in a region and country. According to the Demographic Dictionary of United Nations, "Migration is such an event in which people move from one geographical area to another geographical area. When people leaving their place of residence go to live permanently in another area then this is called migration". Migration is defined as a move from one migration defining area to another, usually crossing administrative boundaries made during a given migration interval and involving a change of residence (UN 1993). Migration may be permanent or temporary with the intension of returning to the place of origin in future. The change in residence can take place either permanent or semi permanent or temporary basis (Premi 1990). Internal migration involves a change of residence within national borders (Dang 2005).

In the Census of India, migration is of two types – Migration by Birth place and Migration by place of last residence. In census when a person is enumerated at a place, i.e., village or town, different from her/his place of birth, she/he would be considered a migrant by place of birth. A person would be considered a migrant by place of last residence, if she/he had last resided at a place other than her/his place of enumeration. In 1971 census, an additional question on place of last residence was introduced to collect migration data. Since then, Census provides data on migrants based on place of birth (POB) and place of last residence (POLR). If the place of birth or place of last residence is different from the place of enumeration, a person is defined as a migrant. On the other hand, if the place of birth and place of enumeration is the same, the person is a non-migrant (Bhagat, 2005). Since 1961 Census, the duration of residence has been ascertained to provide data on timing of movement. The duration data are published as less than one year, 1-4 years, and 5-9 years, 10-19 years and 20 and above years. Migrants of all durations are defined as lifetime migrants because the time of their move is not known. They are those who came to the place of enumeration at any point during their lives and have been living there ever since, whether this happened just a week before the Census or a few decades ago (Premi,1990). Intercensal migrants are the migrants who have migrated within the duration of 0-9 years. Migration can be measured either as events or transitions. The former are normally associated

with population registers, which record individual moves while the latter generally derived from Census comparing place of residence at two points in time. A recent survey shows that Census is the largest source of information on internal migration at the cross-country level. A study shows that 138 countries collected information on internal migration in their Census compared to 35 through registers and 22 from surveys (Bell, 2003). The history of migration is the history of people's struggle to survive and to prosper, to escape insecurity and poverty, and to move in response to opportunity.

Migration is of two types: Internal and International migration. All migration which takes place within an area lying in the territorial jurisdiction of a country is distinguished as internal migration. On the other hand, where the migrants move across the international border is known as external or international migration. Internal migration within the territorial jurisdiction of a country is of two types: inter-state and intra-state migration, where inter-state migration occurs from one state to another and intra-state migration occurs within the boundary of a state. Intra-state migration has further of two types: inter-district and intra-district where inter-district takes place from one district to another and intra-district takes place within the district boundary. The internal migration can further be classified into four migration streams: rural-to-rural, rural-to-urban, urban-to-rural, and urban-to-urban.



**Fig: 1.1. Migration streams**

The terms 'in-migration' and 'out-migration' are related to internal migration whereas 'immigration' and 'emigration' are related to international migration. 'In-migration' refers to migration to a place from another place within the same country and 'Out-migration' refers to migration from a place to another place within the same country. The term 'Immigration' refers to migration in to one country from another country and 'Emigration' of one country is immigrants of another country.

In developing countries like India, migration mostly takes place not due to the so called pull forces of the destination place as usually happens in case of developed countries, but because of poverty, unemployment, natural calamities and underdevelopment at the origin place. Migration in developing countries is still viewed as a survival strategy. Poverty and prosperity both are responsible for inducing migration, while the former is mostly true in the context of developing countries and the latter found in developed countries. Migration happens more due to regional disparity in development. People move from backward underdevelopment regions to developed and prosperous areas in order to improve their living conditions. This is found to be true in both internal migration as well as international migration. In the developing countries in general and India in particular, the inter-state migration should be viewed in the above context of regional disparity and inequality in development (Das and Saha).

The Indian Constitution provides basic freedom to move to any part of the country, right to reside and earn livelihood of their choice. The Census captures the reasons for migration. Some of the reasons cited are: Work/Employment, Business, Education, Marriage, moved after birth and moved with household. Migration has become a universal phenomenon in modern times. In most countries, it has been observed that industrialization and economic development has been accompanied by large-scale movements of people from villages to towns, from towns to other towns and from country to another country. Migration is the third factor for changes in population, the other being birth rate and death rate. As compared to the birth rate and death rate, migration affects the size of population differently. Migration is not only a biological event like birth rate and death rate, but also influenced by social, cultural, economic and political factors. The changes occurring in the birth rate and death rate do not affect the size and structure of the population on a large scale, while migration, at any time, may cause large scale changes in the

size and structure of population. Migration shows the trends of social changes. From the historical point of view, during the process of industrialization and economic development, people migrate from farms to industries, from villages to cities, from one city to another and from one country to another.

The data on migration by last residence in India as per Census 2001 shows that the total number of migrants was 31.4 crore. In the decade 1991-2001, about 9.8 crore persons migrated to a new place from their place of last residence. Out of these migrants by last residence, 8.1 crore were intra-state migrants, 1.7 crore inter-state migrants and 7 lakh international migrants. The largest volume is confined to migration from one part of the state to another. Migration on account of change of residence by women after marriage constitutes significant proportion of these migrants. There are different streams of migration generally relating to the degree of economic and social development in the area of origin as well as area of destination. The most important component among the streams is the rural to rural migration. As per 2001 Census in 1991-2001, about 5.3 crore persons migrated from one village to another. The number of migrants from villages to towns was about 2.1 crore. Similarly, number of migrants from towns to villages was about 62 lakh and from one town to another about 1.4 crore.

Economists are interested in the study of migration because migration affects the supply of skilled and semi-skilled laborers, development of industries and commerce causing changes in the employment structure of the migrated people. Formulation of economic policies has a close relation with the process of migration because migration affects the economic and social development of a country. Out of the many side effects of the population growth in India and other developing countries, an important effect of industrialization and economic development is the internal migration of the population on a large scale, which has drawn the attention of planners and formulators of economic policies. Thus, migration is a demographic event, whose long term effects fall on the socio-economic and cultural development of any region or country.

## **1.1: Literature Review:**

**Rele (1969)** analyzed the trends of internal migration and urbanization in India in the context of the development process within the country. According to the author, the study of internal migration assumes special importance in any country in the process of development. In his paper he looked at two aspects of the study of internal migration, namely, quantitative and qualitative. The qualitative aspect deals with the numbers and characteristics of the migrants and their role in the population redistribution over a length of time. The quantitative aspect is concerned with the structural changes that these movements within the population invariably accompany and their relationships with overall process of transition of the entire community. And the paper is an attempt at viewing both these aspects within the limitations of the existing data.

**Marr and Millerd (1987)** focused on additional benefits and costs by examining changes in the employment characteristics of wives associated with their migration. The importance of wives employment is highlighted by the fact that migration is often a family phenomenon. Some indication of the relationship between migration and family status is given by the author. According to him, the highest propensities to migrate were shown by non-family persons, those who are single, separated, divorced, or widowed with no children and the lowest propensity was shown by husband-wife families. For this, the author collected data from household/family file of the Public Use Sample prepared from 1981 census and from the Statistics Current population profile.

**Mukherji (1993)** in his study found that in India, even in recent times, inter-state migration of the males for employment, as well as of females is still very much linked with the underdevelopment, poverty, spatial disorganization, regional disparities, social inequalities, rural stagnation, rural negligence and unbalanced regional development over national space. In India, people are still primarily migrating just for the survival.

**Kundu and Gupta (1996)** analyzed the pattern of internal migration which mainly focus on the male migrants by using the Census data from the period of 1961-71 to 1971-8. The study indicates a slowing down of population mobility over the decades since independence. The

author mainly focused on the dynamics of migration and urbanization in the context of the changing structure of economic development.

**Bhattacharya (1998)** related rural-urban migration in India to some of the broad economic changes in the country during the 1970s when the share of agriculture in employment declines and that of non-agriculture increasing. The aim of this paper has been to relate rural-urban migration in India to some of the broad economic changes in the country during the 1970s. The evidence would seem to suggest that the informal sector played an important role in rural-urban migration during that period.

**Lusome and Bhagat (2006)** revealed that in developing countries, internal migration is recognized as an important factor in influencing social and economic development. They made an attempt to provide the trends and patterns of internal migration during 1971-2001 on the basis of census data for that period and the findings shows that the composition of internal migration has changed over the years. It is observed that the growth of internal migrants differs by sex as well as the streams of migration and the mobility of Indian population has significantly increased during the 1990s.

**Kundu and Sarangi (2007)** analyzed the pattern of migration in urban areas and its socio-economic correlates. The analysis is based on the latest rounds of National Sample Survey's reports of employment and unemployment, which provide information on migration. According to the authors, people migrate out of both poor and rich households, although the reasons for migration are different. Rural-Urban migrants have a greater risk of being below the poverty line than the Urban-Urban migrants. The results indicate that migration has been a definite instrument of improving economic well-being and escaping from poverty. The paper further reveals that probability of being poor is much less among the migrants compared to the local population, in all size classes of urban centers.

**Bhagat (2010)** acknowledged that push and pull factors have dominated much of the discourse on migration. Factors such as low income, low literacy, high poverty and dependence on agriculture are cited as some examples of push factors associated with place of origin. On the

contrary, high income, high literacy, the dominance of industries, and services are among the pull factors associated with places of destination. The present study revealed that both in- and out-migration rates had a significant positive association with per capita income, percentage of workforce and share of state gross domestic product in the non-agricultural sector.

**Mahapatro (2010)** found that the process of globalization has a strong impact on female mobility patterns and the major impetus for female migration has changed from social to economic reasons. By using Census data, a district level analysis has been carried out to explore the determinants of female migration. The study found that economic factors significantly influence female migration. For analyzing the trends and patterns of female migration Census of India is used from the period of 1971-2001. To study the determinants of female migration, along with population census (2001), Agricultural census (2001) are also used. The major objective of the paper is to examine the importance of economic factors on female migration. The findings of the study show that economic factors are significant predictors, explaining female migration after controlling for various non-economic factors.

**Deshingkar (2010)** explored the relationship between migration, remote rural areas (RRAs) and chronic poverty in India. On the basis of analysis of three round (2001/02, 2003/04 and 2006/07) of qualitative and quantitative data from six villages in the Indian states of Andhra Pradesh and Madhya Pradesh, the paper argues that migration is higher among chronically poor groups living in RRAs and that it plays an important role in managing risk and improving standards of living and household wellbeing. Although it is impossible to say that poor have become non-poor as a result of migration but the overall impact of migration in terms is being able to repay debts faster, being able to eat more regularly, being able to spend on education, health, agriculture and housing and being able to borrow large sums when needed has been positive and has raised the social and economic status of migrant households. However, these positive impacts come at a cost, because migration increases the risk of injury and exposure to disease and noxious substances, as well as the negative impacts of long separation from ones family.

**Singh et al (2011)** made an attempt to explain the changing pattern of internal migration in India over the period of 1971 to 2001. Further, an attempt has been made to find out various determinants causing the changing pattern of migration. The variation in migration pattern has

also been studied through transition probabilities among major states of India in last two decades. Authors found that in all the four censuses, rural-rural migration was the most dominant migration stream in India. Employment for male and marriage for female were found to be the main reasons for migration. Maharashtra and Madhya Pradesh lead among all in-migrating states, while the states Uttar Pradesh and Bihar occupied top place among out-migrating states.

**Roy and Debnath (2011)** made an attempt to investigate the impact of a variety of economic and non-economic factors on net in migration and the impact of net migration on the level of economic development in fifteen major states of India. These states are Andhra Pradesh, Assam, Bihar, Gujarat, Haryana, Karnataka, Kerala, Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra, Orissa, Punjab, Rajasthan, Tamil Nadu, Uttar Pradesh, and West Bengal. In this paper, authors identified both pull (PCI and level of infrastructure) and push factors (unemployment and cost of living) of inter-state migration in India. People migrating from one state to another do not concern about risk of life, they are rather concerned about the basic needs of life. Further, in this study migration-development relationship is tested which indicates that the level of development is positively associated with net migration.

**Mahapatro (2012)** made an attempt to understand the emerging migration patterns in India and various issues underlying it. In recent times with globalization, urbanization and accompanying changes in socio-economic conditions, migrants are attracted to urban areas. The present paper depicts the current trends, patterns and characteristics of migrants. A number of key issues emerged from the study. The latest information on migration reveals a gloomy picture with a decline in male migration, increasing interstate mobility among male in urban area, steady increase of urban migrants in lower economic class and decline in labour force participation especially among females. Given the current development and growth of urbanization, increasing regional disparities, it is likely that migration to urban area will accentuate more in future due to the changing nature of the economy. Hence, an enquiry into the changing pattern of migration is critical to explore the emerging issues, identify the challenges and main precedence required at policy level for urban development. At policy level the major challenge is to formulate migration policies which must be linked with employment and social services, to enhance the well-being of the migrant living in urban area.

**Vinayakam and Sekar (2013)** analyzed the factors contributing towards rural to urban migration with particular reference to Chennai city as it is the fourth largest metropolis with a population of 46.81 lakh as by 2011 census. The study reveals that rural to urban migration is a function of push and pull factors, i.e, less employment opportunities, low wages, drought, lack of basic amenities, landlessness. Social factors act as push factors and more employment opportunities, higher income, better wages, better facilities act as pull factors. The pull factors of better job facilities, good salary, and more income, medical and educational facilities are attracting the rural people to move to cities like Chennai. Lack of job facilities, low salary, less income, drought, less medical and educational facilities are the push factors of the rural people from rural to urban migration.

**Singh (2013)** focused on the secondary objective of MGNREGA that is to reduce migration and creation of sustainable asset. For this she worked on migration data for 2007-08 NSSO data. By her analysis, she found that migration is a complex process and is not always due to poverty and desperate situation but due to complex factors such as; better facilities and education. People are migrating due to lack of adequate agricultural land, inadequate agricultural production, less irrigation facilities and acute water scarcity. Correlation between MGNREGA and Migration is very weak. MGNREGA is helping poor and weaker section of the community by providing employment at critical period of a year (seasonal migration). In principal, NREGA can help to reduce temporary migration but is ineffective in long period, when several factors would change together.

**Jayaraj (2013)** made an attempt to provide an account of family migration in India connecting growth theory and third world urbanization. In the growth theory version, migration is seen as being induced by expanding opportunities in the urban areas and in the third world urbanization version, migration is seen as being induced by the failure of the rural labour market to provide employment opportunities to the growing labour force. It has also been noted that both versions concentrate only on labour market-related migration. The analysis also indicates that in a period of impressive growth of the economy, migration of families in search of livelihood had gone up. The increase was from around 1.7 lakhs in 1993 to 3.5 lakhs in 2007-08.

**Chandrasekhar and Sharma (2014)**, shed light on the issues of internal migration for education employment among the youth, those who aged between 15-32 years. The author's first step is towards addressing the issue of whether states should be concerned about internal brain drain, since some states act as feeders and other states gain at their expense. States with better job opportunities such as Delhi, Maharashtra, Gujarat and Karnataka are gainers whereas traditionally backward states like Bihar, Uttar Pradesh, Orissa and Rajasthan are losing human capital.

**Doddamani (2014)** observed that migrant laborers from Hyderabad and Karnataka are becoming the main labor source to construction sector in the cities and the construction works of cities are pulling these laborers because of high wages. Migrated labourers are coming to Maharashtra region in good number for employment to fulfilling their financial as well as social needs Most of the labourers are landless labourers and they find it very difficult to survive, so they migrate. Since majority of these migrant labourers have come from poor background and low socio economic status, the migration has helped them to improve not only their financial status but also their educational and social status. The major findings shows that there is a significant difference between income level of the migrated labourers before and after their migration, the income has actually increased. In this way they felt that migration has helped them to get included in the development process.

**Mehra and Singh (2014)** concluded that migration that provides a pool of labour becomes the backbone of any growing economy. The authors made an attempt to check the status of migrants working in industries of Ludhiana city and found that they experienced changes in their social, economic and cultural status after migration. Despite discrimination and exploitation, they continued to work out of desperation and saved a meager amount of money which they remitted home to their families and their overall economic condition improved.

**Bhati (2015)** concluded that from the past few decades of rapid economic growth, India has been experiencing rapid urbanization flow from rural to urban migration. The author in this paper covered migration of persons within states or between the states across geographical boundaries. Firstly, he covered rural to urban migration which shows us the demographic structure of

migration within India. Secondly, he focused on the migration pattern across states, which showed migration flow. This flow tells about the development structure and migrated population of a particular city or an area. Thirdly, he discussed about labour and the employment oriented migration, which helps to know why migration takes place to that particular state or city. This explains the educational level, with which one can differentiate between skilled and non-skilled labour migration. According to the author, migration from rural to urban in intra state has been increasing slowly with the process of industrialization and modernization in India. He concluded that the main reason for migration is employment among others.

The present study attempts to examine the socio-economic characteristics of migrant workers in the capital city of Lucknow, Uttar Pradesh. It also explores various reasons of migration and examines the changes in the living standards of migrant workers as a result of migration.

## **1.2: OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY**

The proposed research study has following objective to fulfill:

- ❖ To analyze the trends and pattern of inter-state migration in India with the help of secondary data.
- ❖ To examine the socio-economic characteristics of migrants in the study region of Lucknow.
- ❖ To study the reasons and socio-economic impact of migrant workers in the study regions of Lucknow.

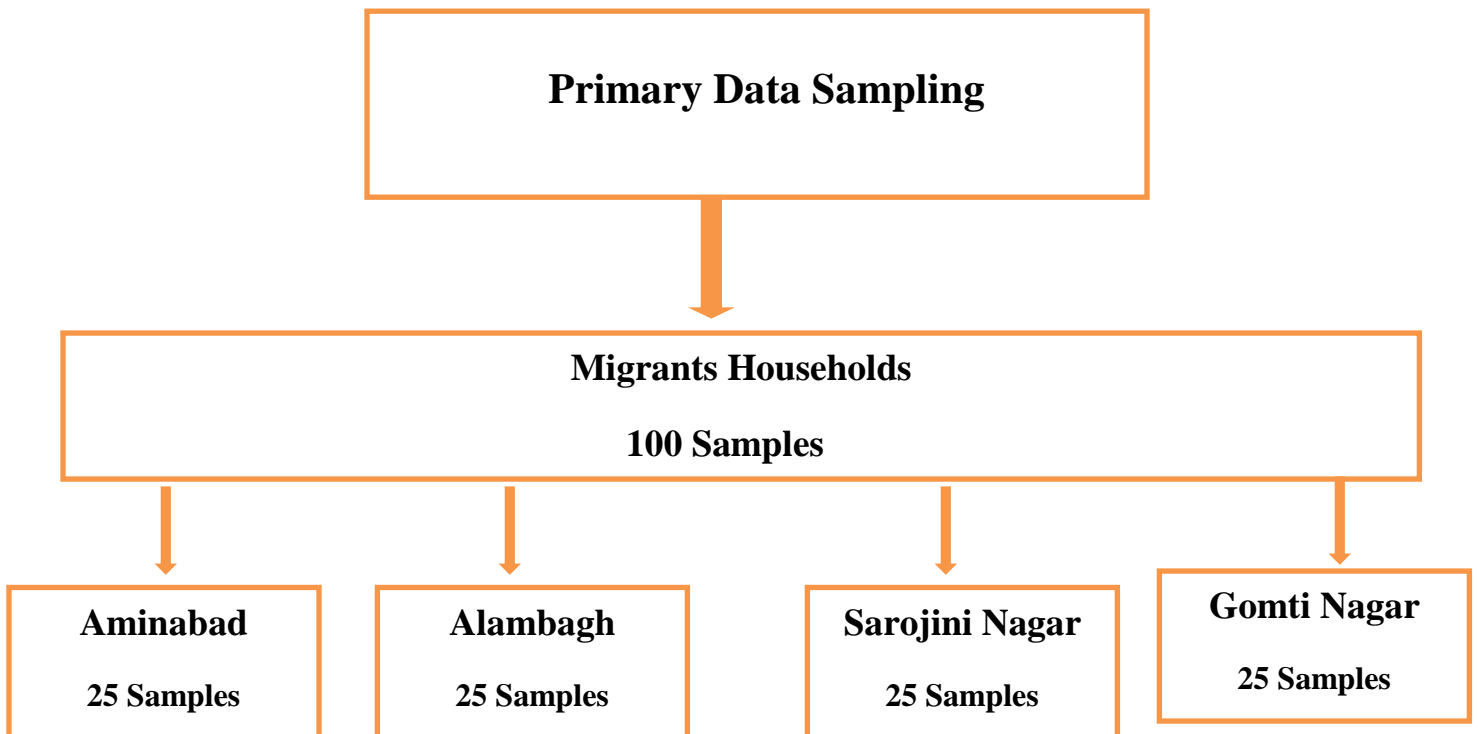
## **1.3: HYPOTHESIS OF THE STUDY**

The study may test the following hypothesis:

- ❖ After 1991 the migration from rural to urban area has increased.
- ❖ Unemployment happens to be one of the important reasons of migration.
- ❖ Migration has positive socio-economic impacts on migrant workers in the capital city.

#### 1.4: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DATA SOURCE

For accomplishing the objectives of study, both primary and secondary data have been used. In India, there are two major sources of data on migration: Census of India and National Sample Survey Organization (NSSO). The secondary data are collected from various rounds of National Sample Survey Organisation and various other sources which would mainly comprise of articles, journals, books and other published documents. Primary data has been collected through structured questionnaire. Purposive stratified random sampling method has been used for the collection of data in which 100 samples are taken from four areas of Lucknow district namely; Aminabad, Alambagh, Sarojini Nagar and Gomti Nagar. Data will be collected from different household in these localities with the help of structured questionnaire.



## **1.5: SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY**

The study will focus on the trends and patterns of interstate migration in India. The study will also focus on the socio-economic characteristics of migration in the study region. By identifying the reasons and analyzing the socio economic impact of migration in study region of Lucknow, it could identify policies for improving the socio-economic conditions of migrated people.

## **1.6: CHAPTER PLAN**

### **CHAPTER 1**

Introduction

### **CHAPTER 2**

Trends and Patterns of Interstate Migration in India

### **CHAPTER 3**

Socio-Economic Status of Migrant Households

### **CHAPTER 4**

Socio-Economic Impact of Migration

### **CHAPTER 5**

Major Findings and Conclusion

## CHAPTER 2

### Trends and Patterns of Interstate Migration in India

#### 2: Introduction

India is one of the oldest civilizations and land of opportunities which has been remained a magnet for visitors, traders and students from all over the world since very long. But, thereafter, in the light of remarkable changes and developments brought in the social, economic and political setup and advancement in the technological sector during the last decades of 20<sup>th</sup> century, the trends of migration in India turned to be more dynamic than ever before. The expansion of transports and means of communication also provide impetus to the movement of people in India not only within the country but also to the international streams. Interstate migration in our country was in terms of the number of people who moved from one state to other or from rural areas to the urban areas for better future. Migration from one area to another in search of improved livelihoods is a key feature of human history. Industrialisation widens the gap between rural and urban areas which induce workforce to shift towards industrial areas. Migration primarily occurs due to disparities in regional development. The lack of employment opportunities in the rural areas and better employment prospects and infrastructure facilities in the urban areas motivate people to migrate to urban areas. Some urban centres especially administrative capitals and some other urban pockets are facilitated with adequate and good infrastructure, whereas other parts have not been paid sufficient attention. So, underdevelopment, unavailability of resources, poverty and low wages in rural areas push people to migrate to developed areas.

Myrdal (1957, 1963), builds his theory of economic underdevelopment and development around the idea of regional inequalities on the national and international levels. To explain it, he uses the notions of “backwash” and “spread” effects. He describes the backwash effects of migration, capital movement and trade in the backward regions and argued that the main cause of regional inequalities has been the strong backwash effects and the weak spread effects in underdeveloped countries. He maintains that economic development results in a circular causation process leading to rapid development of developed countries while the weaker countries tend to remain behind and poor. Myrdal believes that international and inter-regional economic relations in

practice involve unequal exchange in the sense that the weak is always exploited by the strong. Developed region is developing at a faster rate at the cost of backward region; income earned by developed region is not reinvested in backward regions but is repatriated to the developed sectors/regions leading to more development in these areas.

Internal migration is the unrestricted movement of people from one region to another within the geographic boundary of a country. These movements are inter-state and intra-state. The directions of these movements in a rural-urban frame include rural to rural, rural to urban, urban to rural, and urban to urban in search of economic opportunities. Majorities of the migrants move within the state, i.e. move within same districts or move to other districts of the same state. Internal migration of people from one part to other within India was very limited before the arrival of Britishers. It was because of two major reasons. Firstly, people were used to engage in agro-based rural socio-economic operations by which they were satisfied in fulfilling the needs within their own villages. Secondly, lack of improved transportation and communication facilities discourage them to migrate from their native places. But the developmental changes brought up by the Britishers in production and economic systems, starting of railways and improved communication and other transportation facilities push the internal as well as international migration in India (Eaton,1984)

The growing evidence in India show that the country is moving fast in overall development. Structural transformation in 1991 has propelled the growth of the economy further. The percentage of people below poverty line has reduced and per capita consumption has improved simultaneously. Although Indian economy is predominantly agricultural, but the proportion of workforce engaged in agricultural activities has fallen significantly. This reduction is perhaps a sign of enhanced job opportunities in other sectors. Due to the increasing population in India and inability of land to bear the burden, more focus is being laid on the non-agricultural sector, as a result more and more people are shifting from rural to urban areas. (Sudan 1991). The total number of rural out-migrants in India is about 74 million of which about 53 million migrated to other rural areas and 21 million migrated to urban areas (GoI, 2011). The rural out-migration has lead to regional economic development, urbanization and industrialization both in developed and underdeveloped countries (Sharma, 1991). Migration leads to improvement in socio-economic conditions, cultural and environmental status, availability of physical and social infrastructure,

and improvement in the status of a country as a whole through the interaction of labour supply and demand conditions. (Mehta,1991). Though individuals migrate for different reasons but the goals are not equally attainable by all. People who are more competitive, more educated and possess better skills tend to achieve their goals and improve their economic conditions. It is found that people who migrate from rural areas are economically better off than their non-migrants counterparts. (Long and Heltman,1975).

Internal migration is now recognized as an important factor in influencing social and economic development, especially in developing countries like India. According to Census 2001, the total population of India is 1028 million consisting of 532 million males and 496 million females. India is geographically divided into 28 States and 7 Union Territories but there is a tremendous variation in the aggregate population size across the state. Indian census recorded that in 2001, 309 million persons were migrants based on place of last residence which constitute about 30 percent of the total population of the country. This figure indicates an increase of around 37 percent from 1991 Census which recorded 226 million migrants and it is nearly double the number of internal migrants as recorded in the Census of 1971 (159 million). This suggests that socio-economic changes in the last three decades have greatly affected the mobility of population. In all Censuses, among male, interstate migrants rural-to-urban stream emerged as the most prominent with 47 percent and on the other hand, rural-to-rural has remained the major pattern of female movement with 36 percent mainly on account of marriage. So, it is observed that employment among males and marriage among females are the main reasons for interstate migration.

With this background the present chapter analyses the trends and patterns of interstate migration in India by using the secondary data of NSSO 55<sup>th</sup> round and NSSO 64<sup>th</sup> round.

## 2.1: Migration Rates:

For any category of persons whether it is rural or urban, male or female, migration rate has been estimated as the number of migrants belonging to that category per 1000 of persons in that category. The table below depicted about the migration rates at all-India level in both rural and urban areas which have been presented by different NSS rounds from the 38<sup>th</sup> round (1983) to 64<sup>th</sup> round (2007-08).

**Table 2.1: Migration Rates obtained by different NSS Rounds.**

Category of persons	Round (Year)				
	38 <sup>th</sup> Round (Jan-Dec, 1983)	43 <sup>rd</sup> Round (July 1987- June 88)	49 <sup>th</sup> Round (Jan-June, 1993)	55 <sup>th</sup> Round (July 1999- June 2000)	64 <sup>th</sup> Round (July 07- Jun 08)
Rural Male	7.2	7.4	6.5	6.9	5.4
Rural Female	35.1	39.8	40.1	42.6	47.7
Rural Persons	20.9	23.2	22.8	24.4	26.1
Urban Male	27	26.8	23.9	25.7	25.9
Urban Female	36.6	39.6	38.2	41.8	45.6
Urban Persons	31.6	32.9	30.7	33.4	35.4

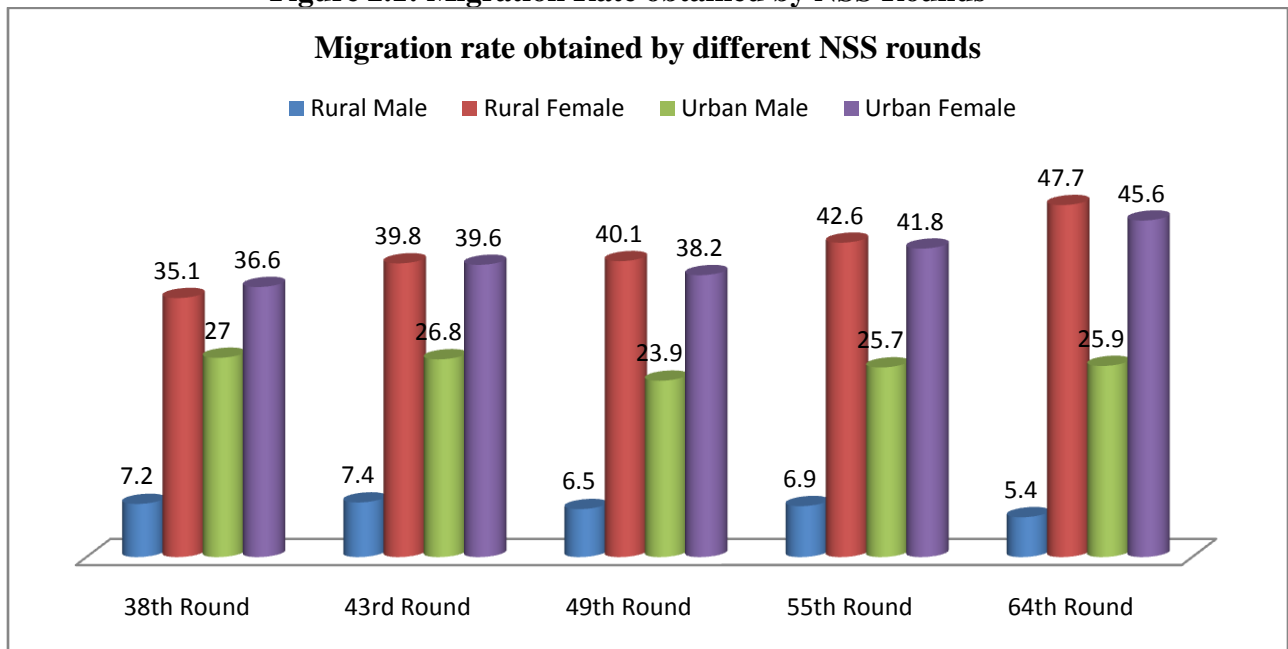
Source: NSS Report No. 533: Migration in India: July, 2007-June, 2008

It is seen from the above table, that in both rural and urban areas, migration rates have been gradually increasing during the period from 1983 to 2007-08 (from the 38<sup>th</sup> NSS round to 64<sup>th</sup> NSS round), except for a marginal fall in migration rate in NSS 49<sup>th</sup> round. The migration rates increased from approximately 21 per cent in 38<sup>th</sup> round (1983) to 26 per cent in 64<sup>th</sup> round (2007-08) in rural areas and from approximately 32 per cent in 38<sup>th</sup> round to approximately 36 per cent in 64<sup>th</sup> round in urban areas. Except the NSS round 49<sup>th</sup> (1993), all NSS rounds show the increasing trend in migration rates and the increase in migration rate is observed mainly due to the increase in migration rates for females.

It is observed that the male migration rates have shown a downward trend. In the rural areas, the male migration rate has decreased by approximately 2 percentage points from 7 per cent in NSS 38<sup>th</sup> round (1983) to 5 per cent in NSS 64<sup>th</sup> round (2007-08). The similar trend has been observed in the urban areas, in urban areas also the migration rate has decreased by 1 percentage point

from approximately 27 per cent in NSS 38<sup>th</sup> round (1983) to 26 per cent in NSS 64<sup>th</sup> round (2007-08). While female migration shows the increasing trend in migration rate, the migration rate for females has increased by 13 percentage points from 35 per cent in NSS 38<sup>th</sup> round (1983) to approximately 48 per cent in NSS 64<sup>th</sup> round (2007-08) in rural areas. The similar trend has been observed in urban areas also, where migration rate has increased by 9 percentage points from 36.6 per cent in NSS 38<sup>th</sup> round (1983) to 45.6 per cent in NSS 64<sup>th</sup> round (2007-08). It thus makes clear that after the period of globalisation, migration rates has increased and positive growth in migration rate is observed across females than the males.

**Figure 2.1: Migration Rate obtained by NSS Rounds**



**Source:** NSS Report No. 533: Migration in India: July, 2007-June, 2008

## 2.2: Net Migration Rates for major states:

For any state, estimate of net-migrants was obtained by the difference of in-migrants and out-migrants where in-migrants in the state were either from the other states in India or from other countries and out-migrants were those who reported themselves as migrants to other states or abroad. The number of net migrants per 1000 of population gives the net migration rate.

**Table 2.2: Net Migration Rates for the Major States (55<sup>th</sup> Round)**

Major States	In-migrants (in '00)	Out-migrants (in '00)	Net-migrants (in '00)	Net-migration rate (per 1000)
Andhra Pradesh	11658	11059	599	1
Assam	1469	2578	-1109	-5
Bihar	5923	34483	-28560	-31
Chhattisgarh	NA	NA	NA	NA
Gujarat	18569	9995	8574	19
Haryana	23674	8667	15007	79
Himachal Pradesh	NA	NA	NA	NA
Jammu & Kashmir	NA	NA	NA	NA
Jharkhand	NA	NA	NA	NA
Karnataka	14329	18482	-4053	-8
Kerala	10050	8498	1552	6
Madhya Pradesh	22817	15249	7568	10
Maharashtra	60462	21561	38901	44
Orissa	7352	5418	1934	6
Punjab	18138	12848	5290	25
Rajasthan	15288	18622	3334	7
Tamil Nadu	14487	15595	-1108	-2
Uttar Pradesh	38680	51320	-12640	-8
Uttarakhand	NA	NA	NA	NA
West Bengal	29002	9318	19684	27

NSS Report No. 470: Migration in India, 1999-2000

(NA- Not Available)

The table (2.2), considers the Net Migration rates for 20 major states in India. Some of these major states are: Andhra Pradesh, Assam, Bihar, Gujarat, Haryana, Karnataka, Kerala, Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra, Orissa, Punjab, Rajasthan, Tamil Nadu, Uttar Pradesh and West Bengal. The table reveals that among the major states, in-migration was the highest in the state of Maharashtra (about 6.05 million) followed by Uttar Pradesh (about 3.87 million), West Bengal (about 2.9 million), Haryana (2.37 million) and Madhya Pradesh (about 2.28). It was lowest in the state of Assam (about 0.15 million), Bihar (0.59 million) and Orissa (about 0.73 million). It

thus seems that the less developed states attract less in-migrant compared to developed states. According to the table, the out-migration was the highest for the state of Uttar Pradesh (about 5.13 million) followed by Bihar (about 3.45 million), Maharashtra (about 2.16 million) Rajasthan (about 1.86 million) and Karnataka (about 1.85 million) and the out-migration was lowest among the state of Assam (about 0.26 million), Orissa (about 0.54 million), Kerala (about 0.85 million) and Haryana (about 0.87 million). Among the major states a gain in in-migrants over out-migrants is noticed for most of the states excepting Assam, Bihar, Karnataka, Uttar Pradesh and Tamil Nadu. The table also shows that the net-migration rate was the highest for the Haryana (79) followed by Maharashtra (44) West Bengal (27) and Punjab (25) and was lowest among the state of Bihar (-31). For the state of Chhattisgarh, Himachal Pradesh, Jammu & Kashmir, Jharkhand and Uttarakhand, the data of migrants is not available in NSSO 55<sup>th</sup> round.

**Table 2.3: Net Migration Rates for the Major States (64<sup>th</sup> Round)**

Major States	In-migrant (00)	Out-migrant (00) to another state	Out-migration to abroad (00)	Net migration (00)	Net-migration rate
Andhra Pradesh	10153	12324	4374	-6545	-9
Assam	1070	2282	27	-1239	-5
Bihar	5505	47077	1046	-42618	-56
Chhattisgarh	9651	3193	67	6391	28
Gujarat	20778	10879	1858	8041	16
Haryana	22349	14175	502	7672	35
Himachal Pradesh	3040	3442	151	-553	-9
Jammu & Kashmir	824	1791	57	-1024	-12
Jharkhand	3913	8129	174	-4390	-18
Karnataka	20130	14173	1228	4729	10
Kerala	10691	8096	15382	-13237	-44
Madhya Pradesh	13168	17035	235	-4102	-7
Maharashtra	56584	15414	2286	38884	41
Orissa	5303	9648	248	-4593	-13
Punjab	18586	11697	3864	3025	13

Rajasthan	17582	20841	2145	-5404	-9
Tamil Nadu	9906	13675	4983	-8752	-14
Uttarakhand	10005	6619	100	3286	38
Uttar Pradesh	32326	81405	3836	-52915	-31
West Bengal	23670	12303	820	10547	13

Source: NSS Report No. 533: Migration in India: July, 2007-June, 2008

The table (2.3), consider the net migration rates for the 20 major states of India in 64<sup>th</sup> round of NSS. This table reveals that among the major states in India, in-migration was the highest in the state of Maharashtra (about 5.65 million) followed by Uttar Pradesh (about 3.23 million), West Bengal (about 2.37 million) and Haryana (about 2.23 million). The out-migration to another state was the highest for the state of Uttar Pradesh (about 8.14 million) followed by Bihar (about 4.7 million) and Rajasthan (about 2.1 million).

The out-migration to abroad was the highest among the state of Kerala (about 1.58 million) followed by Tamil Nadu (about 0.49 million), Andhra Pradesh (about 0.43 million), and Uttar Pradesh (about 0.38 million).

Among these major states a gain in in-migrants over out-migrants is noticed among the states of Andhra Pradesh, Assam, Gujarat, Haryana, Karnataka, Kerala, Maharashtra, Punjab and West Bengal and it is observed that it was highest among the state of Maharashtra, Assam, West Bengal, Gujarat, Haryana and Punjab. And Madhya Pradesh, Orissa, Rajasthan, Tamil Nadu and Uttar Pradesh are those states in which out-migrants are higher than in-migrants.

The table shows that the net-migration rate was highest for the state of Maharashtra (41) followed by Uttarakhand (38), Haryana (35), Chhattisgarh (28), Gujarat (16), Punjab and West Bengal (13) and lowest among the Bihar (-56), Kerala (-44) and Uttar Pradesh (-31). It thus seems that in-migration rate is highest among the developed states, possibly because of better employment prospects; it attracts migration from other less developed regions. The developed states also report higher out-migrants abroad because people are more educated and active which makes them capable to move.

### 2.3: Reasons for Migration:

The table below captures the different reasons for migration as employment related reasons, studies, marriages, movements with parents or earning members and many other reasons during these three NSS Rounds, i.e. 49<sup>th</sup> round (1993), 55<sup>th</sup> round (1999-2000) and 64<sup>th</sup> round (2007-08). The data on reasons for migration are useful to understand the motives behind movement of people. From the table 2.4a and 2.4b, it is observed that employment among males and marriages among females is the major reason for migration.

**Table 2.4 a: Percentage point change of male migrants by reason for migration during 49<sup>th</sup> round (1993), 55<sup>th</sup> round (1999-2000) and 64<sup>th</sup> round (2007-08)**

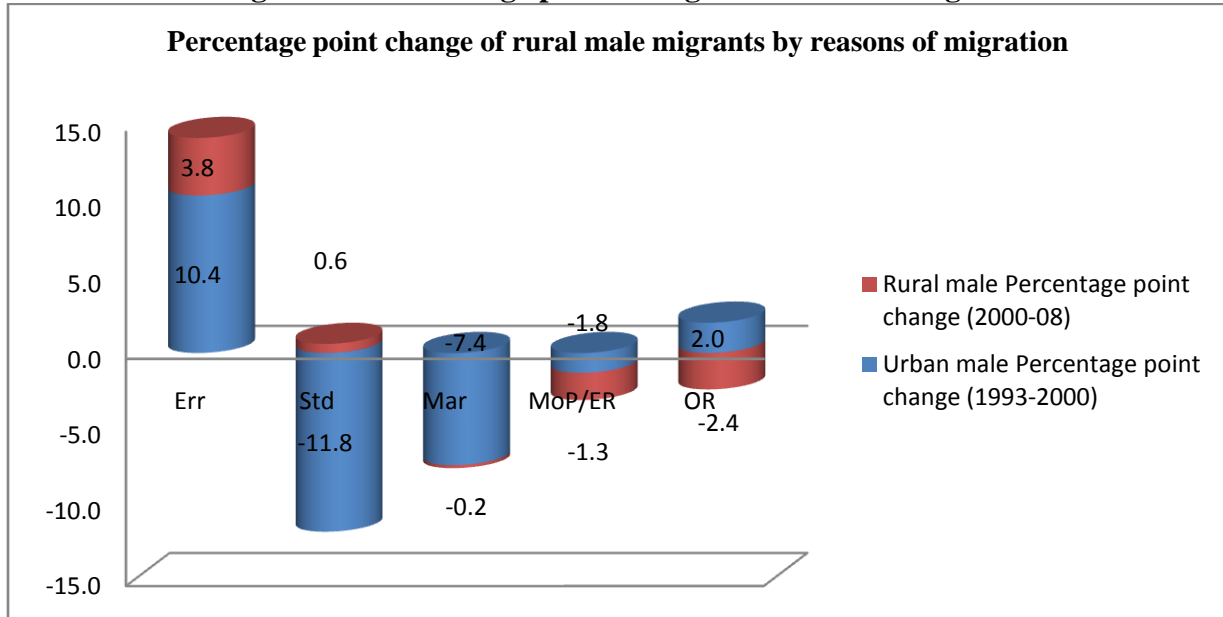
Reason for Migration	49th round (1993)	55th round (1999-2000)	64th round (2007-08)	Percent point change (1993-2000)	Percent point change (2000-08)
Rural Male					
Employment related reasons	47.7	30.3	28.6	-17.4	-1.7
Studies	4.1	5.3	10.7	1.2	5.4
Marriage	2.3	9.4	9.4	7.1	0
Movement of parents/earning member	20.8	26	22.1	5.2	-3.9
Other reasons (incl.n.r.)	25.1	29	29.2	3.9	0.2
All	100	100	100	100	100
Urban Male					
Employment related reasons	41.5	51.9	55.7	10.4	3.8
Studies	18	6.2	6.8	-11.8	0.6
Marriage	9	1.6	1.4	-7.4	-0.2
Movement of parents/earning member	28.3	27	25.2	-1.3	-1.8
Other reasons (incl.n.r.)	11.3	13.3	10.9	2	-2.4
All	100	100	100	100	100

**Source:** NSS Report No. 533: Migration in India: July, 2007-June, 2008

The table highlights the percentage distribution of migrants by reason for migration in India and analyzes the percentage point change in these three NSSO rounds, i.e. 49<sup>th</sup> round (1993), 55<sup>th</sup> round (1999-2000) and 64<sup>th</sup> round (2007-08). In the case of male migrants of both rural and urban areas has shown distinct characteristics during NSS 49<sup>th</sup> round (1993); 55<sup>th</sup> round (1999-2000) and 64<sup>th</sup> round (2007-08). It revealed the reduction in the importance of employment related reasons for rural male migration and increasing in the importance of employment related reasons for urban male migrants. In employment related reason, the share of rural male migration had reduced by -17.4 percentage point change from 49<sup>th</sup> round (1993) to 55<sup>th</sup> round (1999-2000) and further it was reduced by -1.7 percentage point change from 55<sup>th</sup> round (1999-2000) to 64<sup>th</sup> round (2007-08). While in the case of urban male migrants, the trend reversed, the share of urban male migrants in the employment related reasons is increased by 10.4 percentage point change from 49<sup>th</sup> round (1993) to 55<sup>th</sup> round (1999-2000) and it further increased 3.8 percentage point change from 55<sup>th</sup> round (1999-2000) to 64<sup>th</sup> round (2007-08).

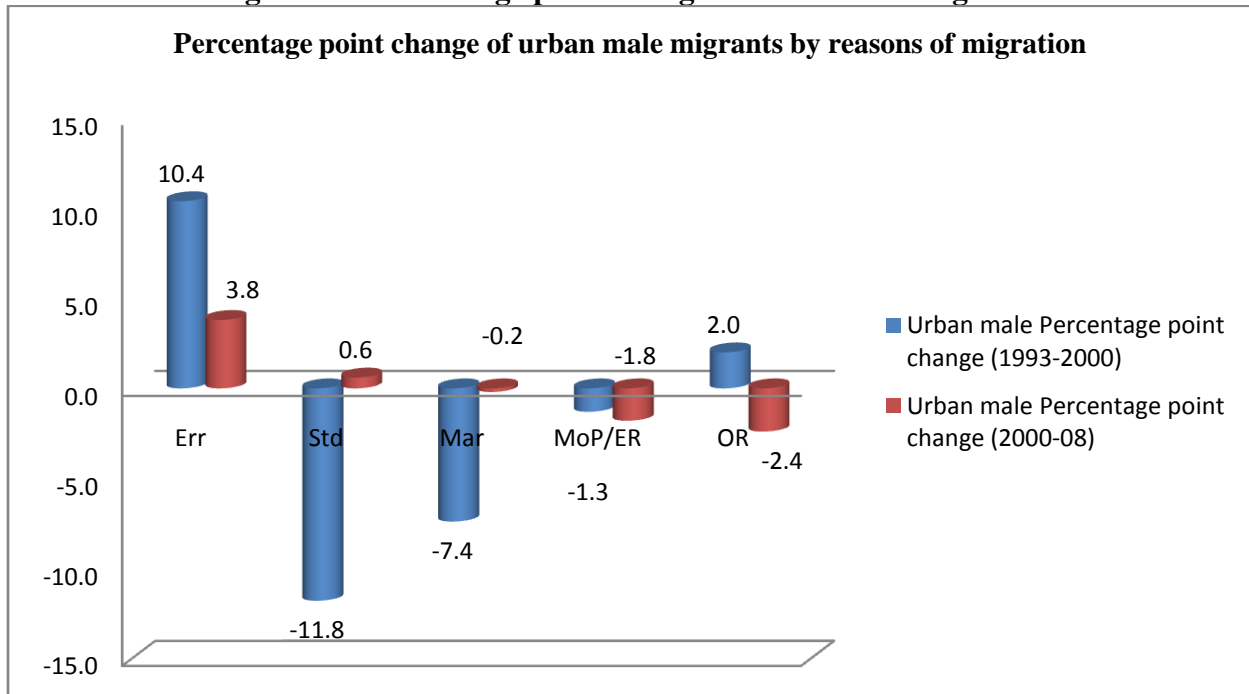
Male migration shows the increasing trend in rural areas, it increased by 1.2 percentage point change from 49<sup>th</sup> round (1993) to 55<sup>th</sup> round (1999-2000) and it further increased by 5.4 percentage point change from 55<sup>th</sup> round (1999-2000) to 64<sup>th</sup> round (2007-08). In urban areas, male migration for studies shows a reduction, it reduced by -11.8 percentage point change from 49<sup>th</sup> round (1993) to 55<sup>th</sup> round (1999-2000) and further it increased by 0.6 percentage point change from 55<sup>th</sup> round (1999-2000) to 64<sup>th</sup> round (2007-08).

**Figure 2.2: Percentage point change of rural male migrants**



**Source:** NSS Report No. 533: Migration in India: July, 2007-June, 2008

**Figure 2.3: Percentage point change of urban male migrants**



**Source:** NSS Report No. 533: Migration in India: July, 2007-June, 2008

**Table 2.4 b: Percentage point change of female migrants by reason for migration during 49<sup>th</sup> round (1993), 55<sup>th</sup> round (1999-2000) and 64<sup>th</sup> round (2007-08)**

Reasons for Migration	49 <sup>th</sup> Round (1993)	55 <sup>th</sup> Round (1999-2000)	64 <sup>th</sup> Round (2007-08)	Percentage point change (1993-2000)	Percentage point change (2007-08)
Rural Female					
Employment related reasons	8.3	1	7	-7.3	6
Studies	1.1	4	5	2.9	1
Marriage	61.6	88.8	91.2	27.2	2.4
Movements of parents/earning members	23.7	6.3	4.4	-17.4	-1.9
Other reasons (incl.n.r.)	5.3	3.5	3.2	-1.8	-0.3
All	100	100	100	100	100
Urban Female					
Employment related reasons	4.9	3	2.7	-1.9	-0.3
Studies	7	1.3	2.2	-5.7	0.9
Marriage	31.7	58.5	60.8	26.8	2.3
Movements of parents/earning members	49.5	31	29.4	-18.5	-1.6
Other reasons (incl.n.r.)	6.9	6.2	4.9	-0.7	-1.3
All	100	100	100	100	100

**Source:** NSS Report No. 533: Migration in India: July, 2007-June, 2008

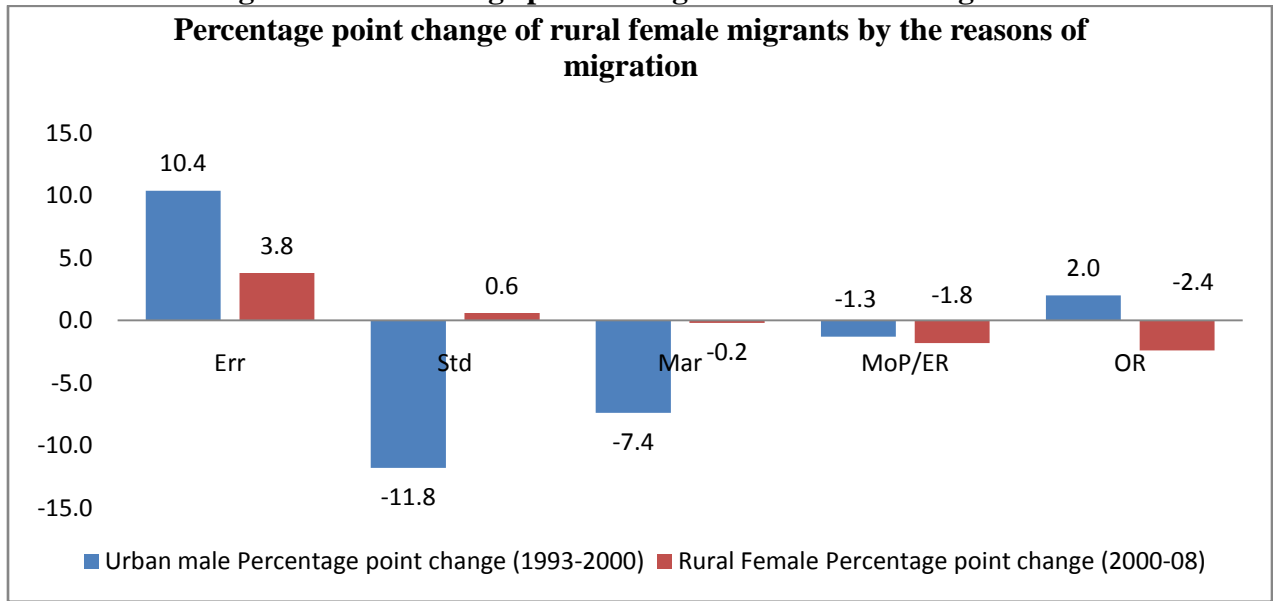
Table (2.4 b) highlights the percentage distribution of female migrants by reason for migration in India and analyzes the percentage point change in these three NSSO rounds, i.e. 49<sup>th</sup> round (1993), 55<sup>th</sup> round (1999-2000) and 64<sup>th</sup> round (2007-08). It is seen from these three rounds that for females, the prominent reason for migration was marriage in total female migrants. The above table illustrated that from 49<sup>th</sup> round (1993) to 55<sup>th</sup> round (1999-2000), the female migration for marriage was increased by 27.2 percentage point change and from 55<sup>th</sup> round (1999-2000) to 64<sup>th</sup> round (2007-08), it was increased by 2.4 percentage point change in rural areas. And in urban areas, the female migration for marriage was increased by 26.8 percentage

point change from NSS 49<sup>th</sup> round (1993) to 55<sup>th</sup> round (1999-2000) and further it was increased by the 2.3 percentage point change from the 55<sup>th</sup> round (1999-2000) to 64<sup>th</sup> round (2007-08).

The share of female migration in movements of parents/earning members was declined by -17.4 percentage point change from the 49<sup>th</sup> round (1993) to 55<sup>th</sup> round (1999-2000) and further it was declined by -1.9 percentage point change from the 55<sup>th</sup> round (1999-2000) to 64<sup>th</sup> round (2007-08) in rural areas. The similar trends follow in urban areas also, in movements of parents/earning members. The share of female migration was declined by -18.5 percentage point change from 49<sup>th</sup> round (1993) to 55<sup>th</sup> round (1999-2000) and further it was declined by -1.6 percentage point change from 55<sup>th</sup> round (1999-2000) to 64<sup>th</sup> round (2007-08).

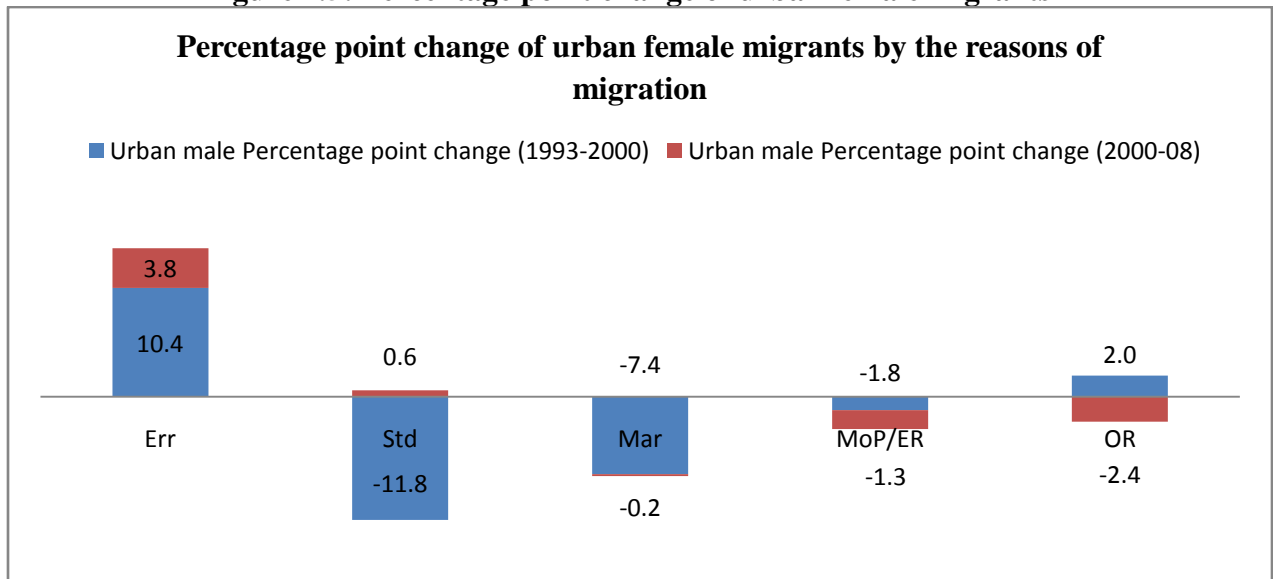
The reduction is also seen in total female migration in the share of employment related reasons during these three NSS Rounds. For rural female, the share in Employment related reasons was declined by -7.3 percentage point change from 49<sup>th</sup> round (1993) to 55<sup>th</sup> round (1999-2000) and further the share was increased by 6 percentage point change from 55<sup>th</sup> round (1999-2000) to 64<sup>th</sup> round (2007-08) in rural areas. In urban areas the share of Employment related reasons in female migration was declined by -1.9 percentage point change from 49<sup>th</sup> round (1993) to 55<sup>th</sup> round (1999-2000) and the further the share was declined by -0.3 percentage point change from 55<sup>th</sup> round (1999-2000) to 64<sup>th</sup> round (2007-08).

**Figure 2.4: Percentage point change of rural female migrants**



**Source:** NSS Report No. 533: Migration in India: July, 2007-June, 2008

**Figure 2.5: Percentage point change of urban female migrants**



**Source:** NSS Report No. 533: Migration in India: July, 2007-June, 2008

**2.4: Distribution of Migrants by General Education Level:**

The table below depicted about the distribution of migrants by general educational level at all India level and it indicates that as the level of education rise the mobility of people also rises. It

shows that migration rate has increased due to rise in education level of a person in both the rural and urban areas.

**Table 2.5: Percentage distribution of Migrants by General Education Level during 2007-08**

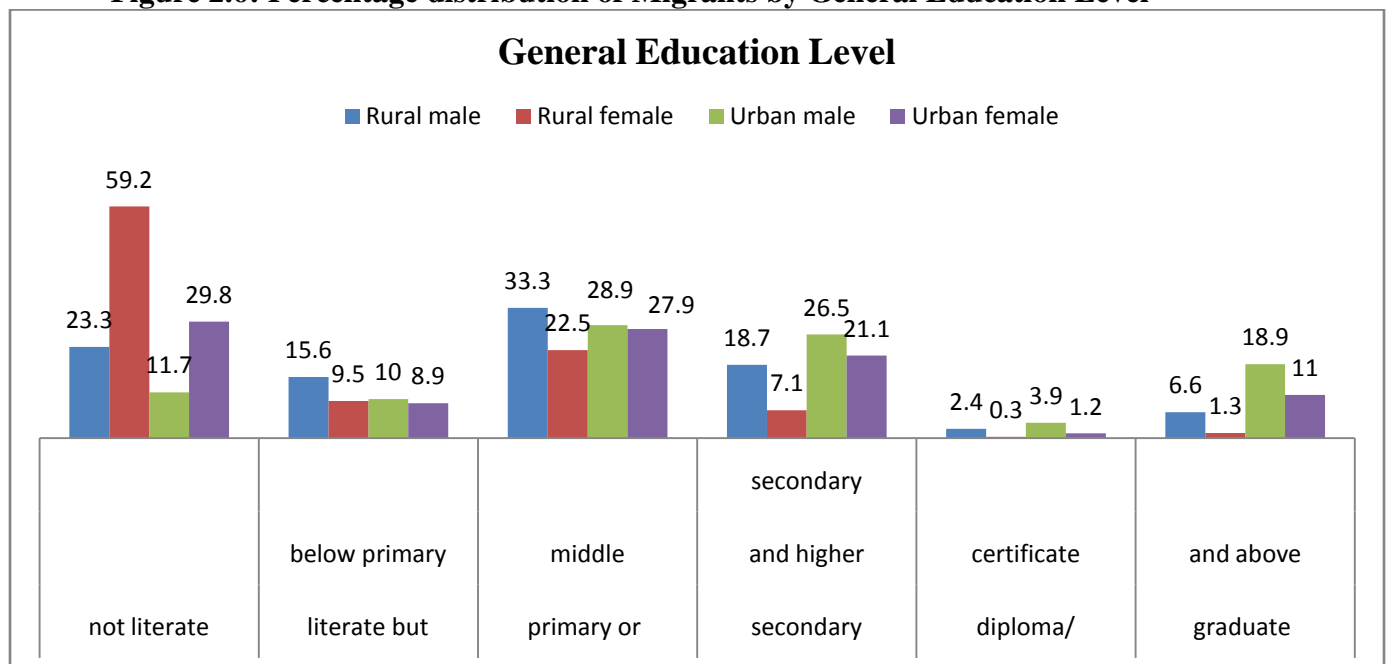
Category of persons	General Education Level						
	not literate	literate but below primary	primary or middle	secondary and higher secondary	diploma/certificate	graduate and above	all
Rural Male	23.3	15.6	33.3	18.7	2.4	6.6	100
Rural Female	59.2	9.5	22.5	7.1	0.3	1.3	100
Rural Male+Female	55.4	10.2	23.6	8.4	0.5	1.9	100
Urban Male	11.7	10	28.9	26.5	3.9	18.9	100
Urban Female	29.8	8.9	27.9	21.1	1.2	11	100
Urban Male+Female	23	9.3	28.3	23.1	2.2	14	100
Rural+urban male	16	12.1	30.5	23.6	3.3	14.4	100
Rural+Urban female	51.8	9.4	23.8	10.7	0.6	3.7	100
Rural+Urban male+female	44.8	9.9	25.1	13.2	1.1	5.8	100

**Source:** NSS Report No. 533: Migration in India: July, 2007-June, 2008

In the above table distribution of migrants is presented for persons with different levels of general education. This table shows that among the migrants in the rural areas, a large proportion of population were 'not literate' (nearly 55 percent) whereas in the urban areas, a large proportion of people i.e. 28.3 percent was educated upto the level of primary or middle. Urban

area shows that only 23 percent of migrants were ‘not literate’ whereas approximately 10 percent of migrants were literate but below primary level. Among the migrants in the rural areas in the case of female population was not literate (approximately 56 percent) whereas in urban areas only 29.8 percent females was not literate. In the rural areas, the proportion of migrants with the education level upto ‘secondary or higher secondary’ was nearly 19 percent among male and 7 percent among female. While in the case of urban males and females it shows that nearly 26 percent among urban males and nearly 21 percent among urban females have education level upto secondary or higher secondary. It may be also seen that nearly 19 percent of the urban male migrants and 11 percent of the urban female migrants had the education level upto ‘graduate and above’. So above the analysis depicted that higher percentage of male migrants in both the rural and urban areas had attained higher educational level than female migrants.

**Figure 2.6: Percentage distribution of Migrants by General Education Level**



**Source:** NSS Report No. 533: Migration in India: July, 2007-June, 2008

### 2.5: Nature and Pattern of Migration:

Below the table discussed about the nature and pattern of migration by the location of last usual place of residence for each category of persons during 2007-08. Usual place of residence of a

person was defined as a place (village/town) where the person had stayed continuously for a period of six months or more. So the table discussed about whether the person migrated to same district; other district; other state or migrated to other countries. The table makes it clear that most of the migrants are from rural areas.

**Table 2.6: Percentage distribution of migrants by location of last usual place of residence for each category of persons during 2007-08**

Category of Migrants	Last usual place of residence in (in percent)							
	Rural areas of			Urban areas of			Other Countries	all (incl.n.r)
	Same State		Other states	Same State		Other States		
Same district	Other district		Same district	Other district				
Rural Male	46.2	18.0	8.6	7.7	9.1	7.2	3.2	100
Rural Female	68.3	21.4	3.5	3.6	2.1	0.8	0.2	100
Rural Person	65.9	21.1	4.0	4.1	2.8	1.5	0.6	100
Urban Male	19.7	18.8	21.8	7.9	19.7	10.9	1.2	100
Urban Female	27.2	20.6	10.7	13.2	19.6	8.1	0.5	100
Urban Person	24.4	19.9	14.9	11.2	19.6	9.1	0.8	100

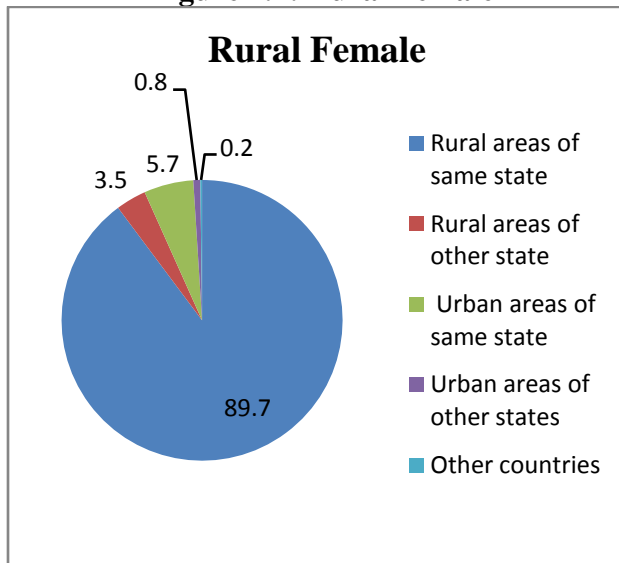
**Source:** NSS Report No. 533: Migration in India: July, 2007-June, 2008

The table depicted that, in rural areas, 46.2 per cent rural male migrates in same district, 18 per cent male migrates to other district and 8.6 per cent male migrates to other states Among the migrants in the urban areas, nearly 60 percent migrated from rural areas and 40 percent migrated from urban areas. The table also reveals that majority of migrants are within state in both rural and urban areas. While among the females in last usual place of residence in rural areas, 68.3 per cent rural female migrates in same district and 21.4 per cent and 3.5 per cent rural females migrates in other district and other states respectively. And 27.2 per cent urban female migrates

in same district while 20.6 per cent and 10.7 per cent migrates to other districts and other states respectively.

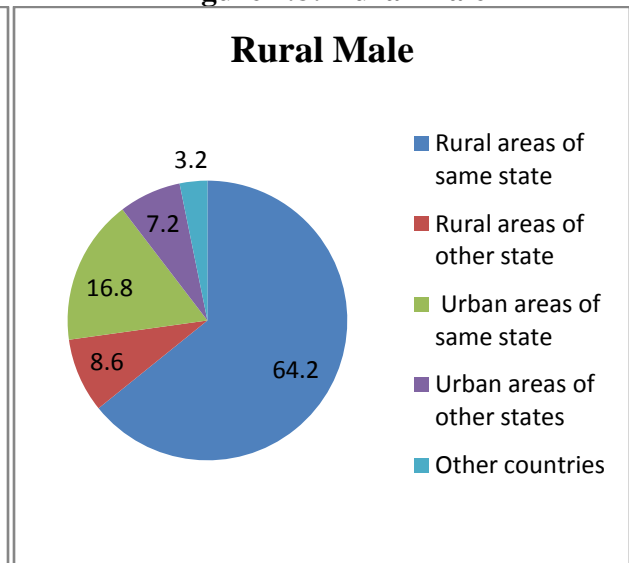
In last usual place of residence in urban areas, 4.1 per cent rural persons migrates in same district; 2.8 per cent migrates in other district; 1.5 per cent migrates in other states and 0.6 per cent rural persons migrates to other countries. While among the urban persons, 11.2 per cent migrates in same district; 19.6 per cent migrates to other district, and 9.1 per cent and 0.8 percent migrates to other states and other countries respectively.

**Figure 2.7: Rural Female**



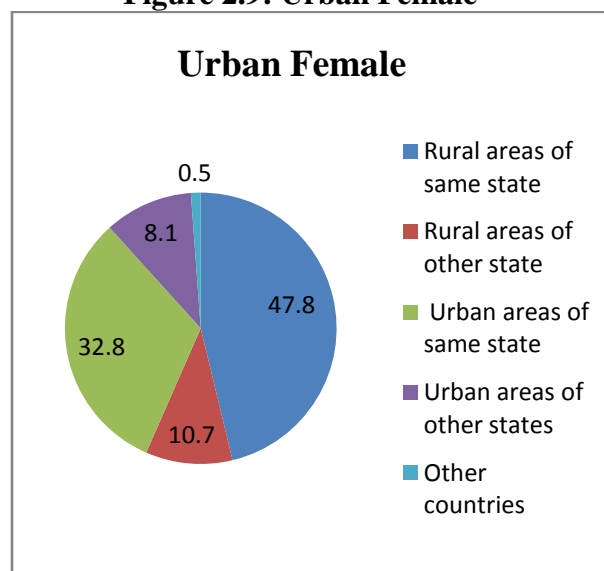
**Source:** NSS Report No. 533: Migration in India: July, 2007-June, 2008

**Figure 2.8: Rural Male**



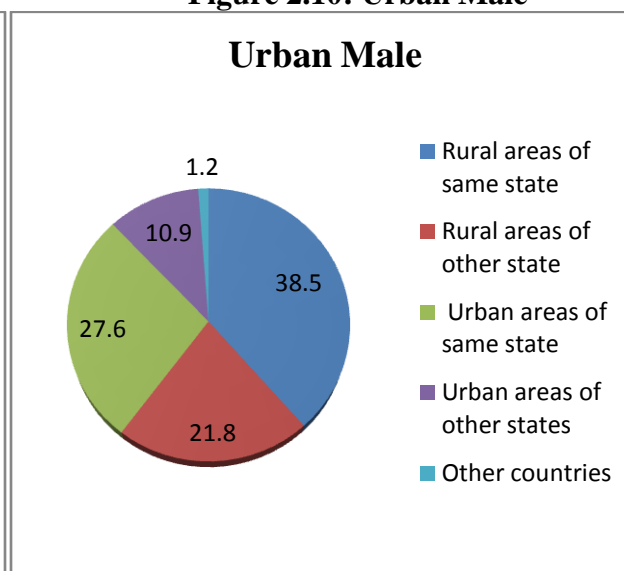
**Source:** NSS Report No. 533: Migration in India: July, 2007-June, 2008

**Figure 2.9: Urban Female**



**Source:** NSS Report No. 533: Migration in India: July, 2007-June, 2008

**Figure 2.10: Urban Male**



**Source:** NSS Report No. 533: Migration in India: July, 2007-June, 2008

## 2.6: Household Migration:

If the entire household was being enumerated or had moved to the place of enumeration during the last 365 days preceding the date of survey, it was considered as a migrant household. The present section highlights the percentage distribution of household migrants during the last 365 days for the major states i.e. Andhra Pradesh, Assam, Bihar, Chhattisgarh, Gujarat, Haryana, Himachal Pradesh, Jammu & Kashmir, Jharkhand, Karnataka, Kerala, Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra, Orissa, Punjab, Rajasthan, Tamil Nadu, Uttarakhand, Uttar Pradesh, West Bengal.

**Table 2.7: Percentage of household migrants during the last 365 days preceding the date survey for major states**

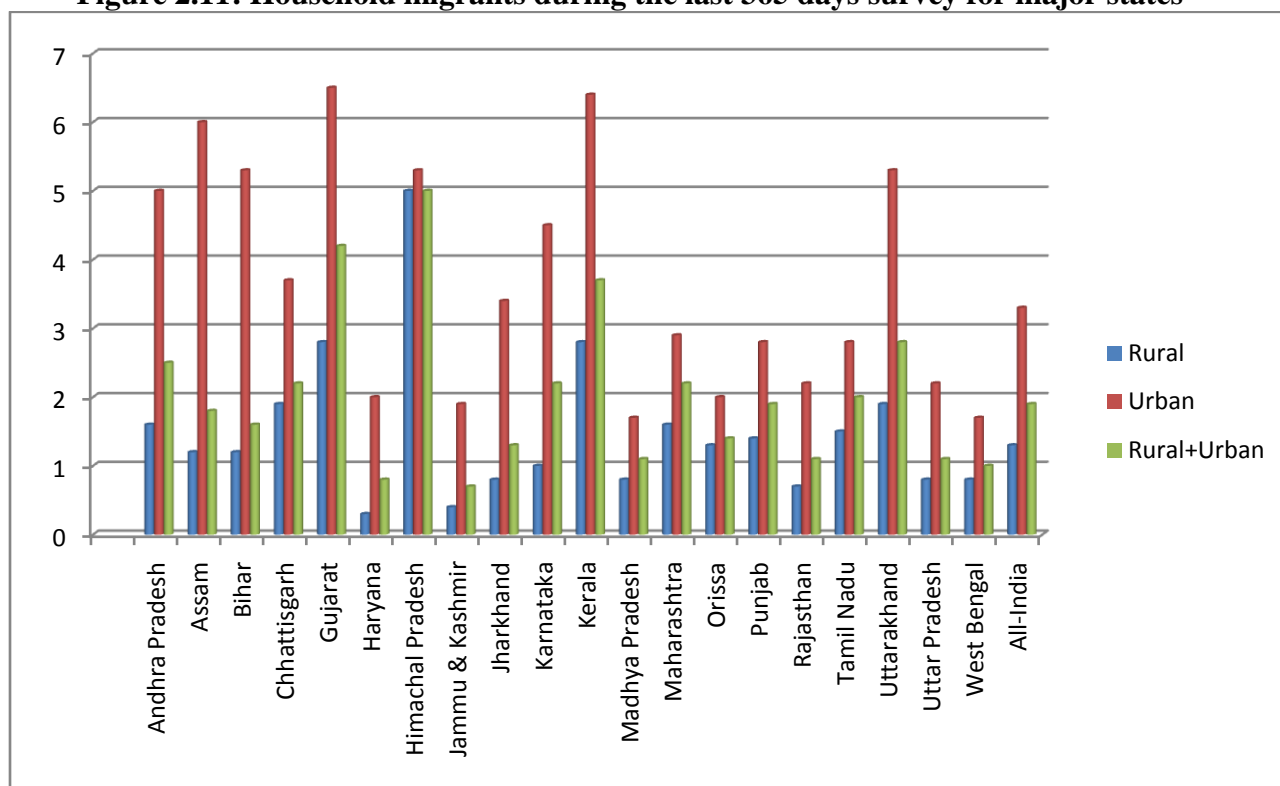
Major States	Rural (in percent)	Urban (in percent)	Rural+Urban (in percent)
Andhra Pradesh	1.6	5.0	2.5
Assam	1.2	6.0	1.8
Bihar	1.2	5.3	1.6
Chhattisgarh	1.9	3.7	2.2

Gujarat	2.8	6.5	4.2
Haryana	0.3	2.0	0.8
Himachal Pradesh	5.0	5.3	5.0
Jammu & Kashmir	0.4	1.9	0.7
Jharkhand	0.8	3.4	1.3
Karnataka	1.0	4.5	2.2
Kerala	2.8	6.4	3.7
Madhya Pradesh	0.8	1.7	1.1
Maharashtra	1.6	2.9	2.2
Orissa	1.3	2.0	1.4
Punjab	1.4	2.8	1.9
Rajasthan	0.7	2.2	1.1
Tamil Nadu	1.5	2.8	2.0
Uttarakhand	1.9	5.3	2.8
Uttar Pradesh	0.8	2.2	1.1
West Bengal	0.8	1.7	1.0
All-India	1.3	3.3	1.9

**Source:** NSS Report No. 533: Migration in India: July, 2007-June, 2008

In the above table (2.7), percentage of household migrants during the last 365 days for 20 major states has been presented. The table depicted that in these 20 major states, the highest percentage of migration in rural areas is found in Himachal Pradesh with 5 percent and after that it was from Gujarat and Kerala with 2.8 percent each. And in urban areas, the highest percentage of migration is found in Gujarat, Kerala and Assam with 6.5 percent, 6.4 percent and 6 percent respectively. The lowest percentage of migration in rural areas is found in Haryana with 0.3 percent, Jammu & Kashmir with 0.4 percent, Rajasthan with 0.7 percent and Madhya Pradesh, Uttar Pradesh, and West Bengal with 0.8. The lowest percentage of migration in urban areas was found in Madhya Pradesh and West Bengal with 1.7 percent and after that from Jammu & Kashmir with 1.9 percent.

**Figure 2.11: Household migrants during the last 365 days survey for major states**



**Source:** NSS Report No. 533: Migration in India: July, 2007-June, 2008

## 2.7: Conclusion:

The present chapter examines the trends and patterns of interstate migration in India. From the above analysis, it is found that, in the phase of globalisation, the rate of migration has increased. In India, internal migration is largely influenced by regional disparity in the levels of development. People migrate to cities not only for work, but also for business, education, marriages, etc. Among males the most important reason for migration is work/employment. However a majority of female migrants had not migrated for work but the main reason for changing their residence is marriage. Marriage is still the most important factor of female migration in India but it is quite encouraging to find that the proportion of female migrating for work/employment and education is increasing over a period of time. The above analysis reveals that as the educational level rise, mobility of population also rises. It is also true that those states which are highly industrialized, urbanized and agriculturally developed display a higher proportion of in-migrants and on the other hand, poorer state display a higher proportion of

interstate out-migrants. The reason behind is the farm income continue to be low in less developed regions and family members often look for off-farm employment opportunities at other developed regions. Rural education is, in many cases, failing to address the needs of rural youth who need to learn about becoming self-reliant in their small communities. Increasing numbers of young people are feeling the effects of rural poverty and they are migrating to urban centres or to work in neighboring cities in the hope that their lives and those of their children will be improved. So, the largest flow of migrants is from less developed state to more developed states. Lack of employment opportunities, health facilities, education facilities and insufficient income from farming in rural areas push people to migrate to urban areas.

## Chapter 3

### Socio Economic Status of Migrant Households

#### 3: Introduction

The term socio-economic is a combined word of economic and social condition of workers together which reflects the income, education, health and other important indicators of individuals. Social development of a society or a community is the best reflection of the quality of life of the people who are living in that particular society. A better socio-economic development of the society helps to reduce disparities, assuring social justice and helps in improving the quality of life. Social status of society always plays an important role in determining the economic growth of a country. A good social status of an individual always helps in improving the quality of life and standard of living of an individual. Socio economic status can be determined by the individual's education, income, housing condition, occupation and other important indicator of the individual.

#### 3.1: Study area and its population dynamics:

The Capital City of Uttar Pradesh (Lucknow) has been taken as the study area according to the objectives. Uttar Pradesh, abbreviated as UP, is the most populous state in the republic of India as well as the most populous country subdivision in the world. It was created on 1<sup>st</sup> April 1937 as United Provinces during British rule, and was renamed Uttar Pradesh in 1950. Lucknow is the capital city of Uttar Pradesh. Ghaziabad, Bulandshahr, Kanpur, Gorakhpur, Allahabad, Raebareli, Moradabad, Bareilly, Aligarh, Sonbhadra and Varanasi are known for their industrial importance in the state. On 9<sup>th</sup> November 2000, a new state, Uttarakhand, was carved out from the Himalayan hill region of Uttar Pradesh. The state in the northern region of the Indian subcontinent has over 200 million inhabitants. The state is bordered by Rajasthan to the west, Haryana, Himachal Pradesh and Delhi to the northwest, Uttarakhand to the north, Bihar to the east, Madhya Pradesh to the south and touches the states of Jharkhand and Chhattisgarh to the south east. It covers 243,290 square kilometers, equal to 6.88 percent of the total area of India, and is fourth largest Indian state by area. Hindi is the official and most widely spoken language in its 71 district. Uttar Pradesh is the third largest Indian state by economy, with a GDP of Rs.

9,763 billion (US \$ 150 billion). Agriculture and service industries are the largest parts of the state's economy. The service sector comprises travel and tourism, hotel industry, real estate, insurance and financial consultancies. Uttar Pradesh was home to powerful empires of ancient and medieval India. The two major rivers of the state, the Ganges and Yamuna, join at Allahabad and then flow as the Ganges further east. The state has several historical, natural, and religious tourist destinations, such as Agra, Varanasi, Lucknow, Allahabad, Jhansi, Mathura and Jaunpur (Wikipedia). Census 2011 enumerated the population of Uttar Pradesh is 199,581,477 persons having 104,592,415 males and 94,985,062 females with the sex ratio 908 per 1000 males and literacy rate is 69.72 percent.

Lucknow is the capital city of India's most populous state, Uttar Pradesh and is situated about 500 km southeast of New Delhi in the heart of the state. Census 2001 estimated the population of the Lucknow Urban Agglomeration at 22.46 lakhs, which includes an estimate of about 60,000 as the population of Lucknow Cantonment and 21.85 lakhs population of Lucknow City. Official records show that Lucknow's population grew more than that of other cities in the last two decades. Migration into Lucknow accounts for 36 percent increase in population over the last decade. Out of the 5.76 lakhs people added to LUA during 1991-2001, about 2 lakh were migrants. It is very true that every migrant had a different story behind his migration from his native place to Lucknow, but there were some broad factors which directly or indirectly motivated to migrate. Migration was influenced both by the patterns of socio-economic backwardness at the places of their birth at the one side and economic growth with more job avenues and tolerant social structure in Lucknow on the other side acted as push and pull factors. Census 2001 estimated that in the last decade, Lucknow received 2,07,307 migrants from rural areas which cites many more reasons:

- Lucknow, a capital city of Uttar Pradesh offers better social and physical infrastructure and amenities compared to other cities in the state.
- With a population density of 67 persons per hectare, Lucknow is recognized as a low density, low-rise city with open spaces and greenery. The city is also comparatively cleaner than most other cities in the state.
- The city offers better employment opportunities and education facilities.

- Lucknow's position as a city bordered by smaller towns like Hardoi and Sitapur in the northwest, Barabanki in the northeast, Raebareli in the southeast and Unnao in the southwest attracts migrants in search of employment, better employment opportunities and higher order services like education and health.

The present chapter analyses the social and economic status of the surveyed households of migrant population, who migrated from their origin place to the capital city, i.e. Lucknow. It is very necessary to study the social status of these migrants and to analyze the impact of migration on their quality of life by taking into consideration educational qualification, health status, family size, educational status of household's children, housing status, agricultural landholding size and monthly income of households.

### 3.2: Origin of Migration:

The present section highlights the origin of migration, i.e. from where the migrants originally belong or from where migration to the capital city of Uttar Pradesh has taken place.

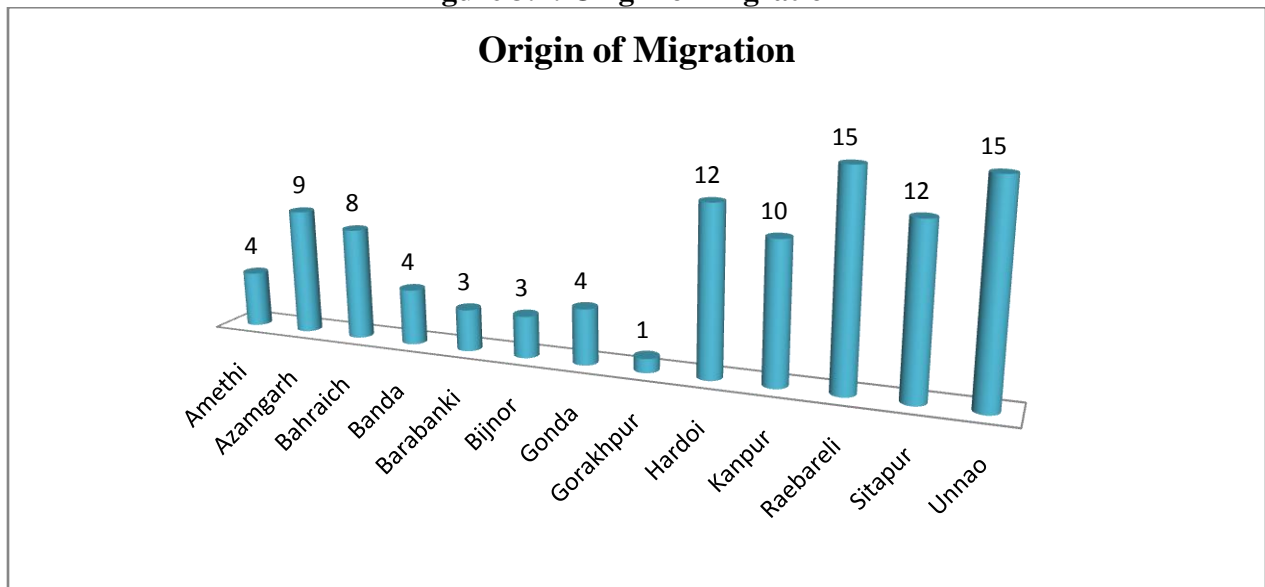
**Table: 3.1: Origin of Migration:**

Regions of Origin		Frequency	Percent
1.	Amethi	4	4.0
2.	Azamgarh	9	9.0
3.	Bahraich	8	8.0
4.	Banda	4	4.0
5.	Barabanki	3	3.0
6.	Bijnor	3	3.0
7.	Gonda	4	4.0
8.	Gorakhpur	1	1.0
9.	Hardoi	12	12.0
10.	Kanpur	10	10.0
11.	Raebareli	15	15.0
12.	Sitapur	12	12.0
13.	Unnao	15	15.0
	Total	100	100.0

**Source:** Field Survey

The above table reveals that most of the migrants belong to the nearby city, i.e. 15 percent migrants belong to Unnao district which is situated in the south-west and the same 15 percent migrants belongs to Raebareli district which is situated in the south-east to the capital city. This is followed by 12 percent of migrants, which belongs to Hardoi and Sitapur district which is situated in the north-west to the capital city. Further the table reveals that 10 percent of migrants are from the Kanpur district which is almost 60 km far away from the capital city. 9 percent and 8 percent migrants belong to Azamgarh and Bahraich district respectively which is also not so far away from the Lucknow district. 4 percent migrants is from the district of Amethi, Banda and Gonda whereas 3 percent migrants are from Barabanki and Bijnor which is the most nearby city to Lucknow and lastly 1 percent migrants belong to Gorakhpur city. The above table shows the inter-district migration pattern, i.e. from one district to another of same state.

**Figure 3.1: Origin of Migration**



**Source:** Field Survey

### 3.3: Demographic Profile of the Households

The study has been conducted in the four areas of Lucknow city namely Aminabad, Alambagh, Sarojini Nagar and Gomti Nagar by taking 25 households samples from each location of Lucknow.

### 3.5: Gender Distribution:

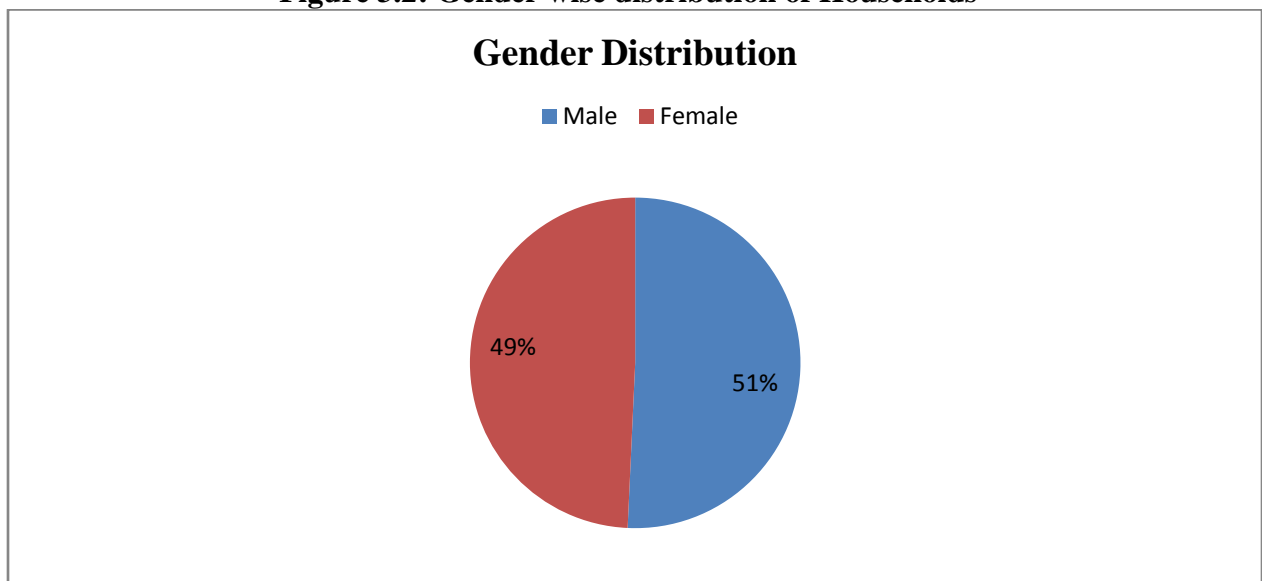
**Table 3.2: Gender wise distribution of Households:**

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Male	277	50.73
Female	269	49.27
Total	546	100.0

**Source:** Field Survey

This table shows the gender wise distribution of migrated population of sampled households. Out of total 546 individuals, male population is 277 which cover 50.73 percent of sample population while 269 consist of female population which covers 49.27 percent of sample population.

**Figure 3.2: Gender wise distribution of Households**



**Source:** Field Survey

### 3.5: Distribution of Households by Social Category:

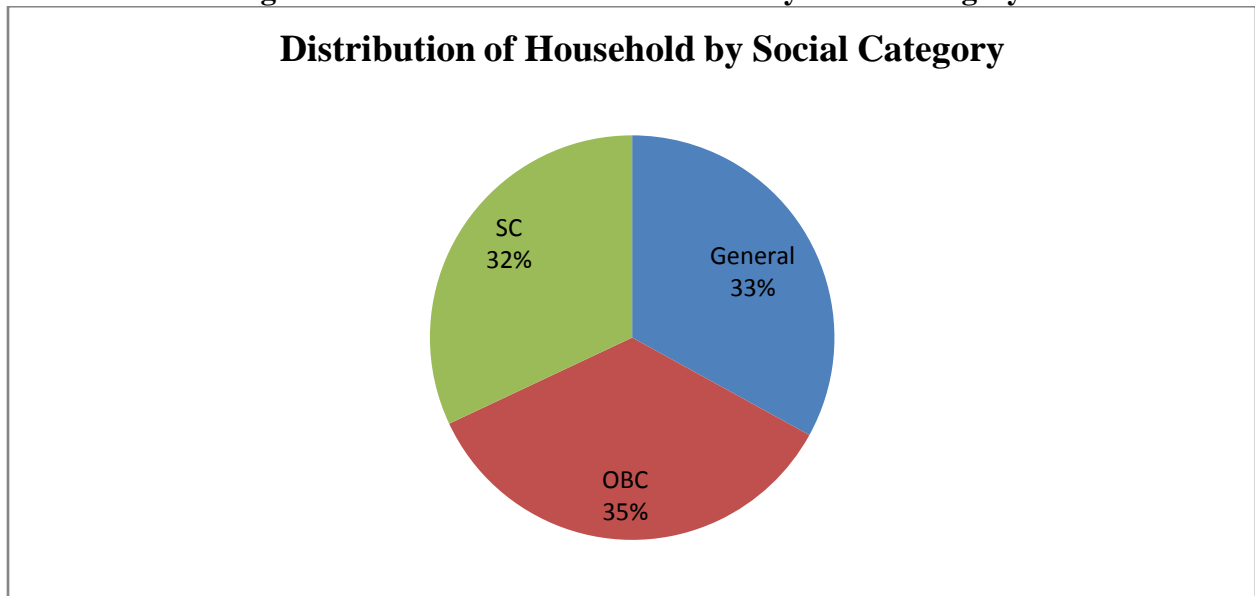
**Table 3.3: Distribution of Households by Social Category:**

Category	Frequency	Percent
General	33	33.0
OBC	35	35.0
SC	32	32.0
Total	100	100.0

**Source:** Field Survey

The above table shows the category wise distribution of the sample households. On the basis of the above analysis, the majority of the household belongs to the OBC category which is 35 per cent, followed by general category which is 33 per cent and SC category which is 32 per cent.

**Figure 3.3: Distribution of Households by Social Category**



**Source:** Field Survey

### 3.6: Distribution of Households by Religion:

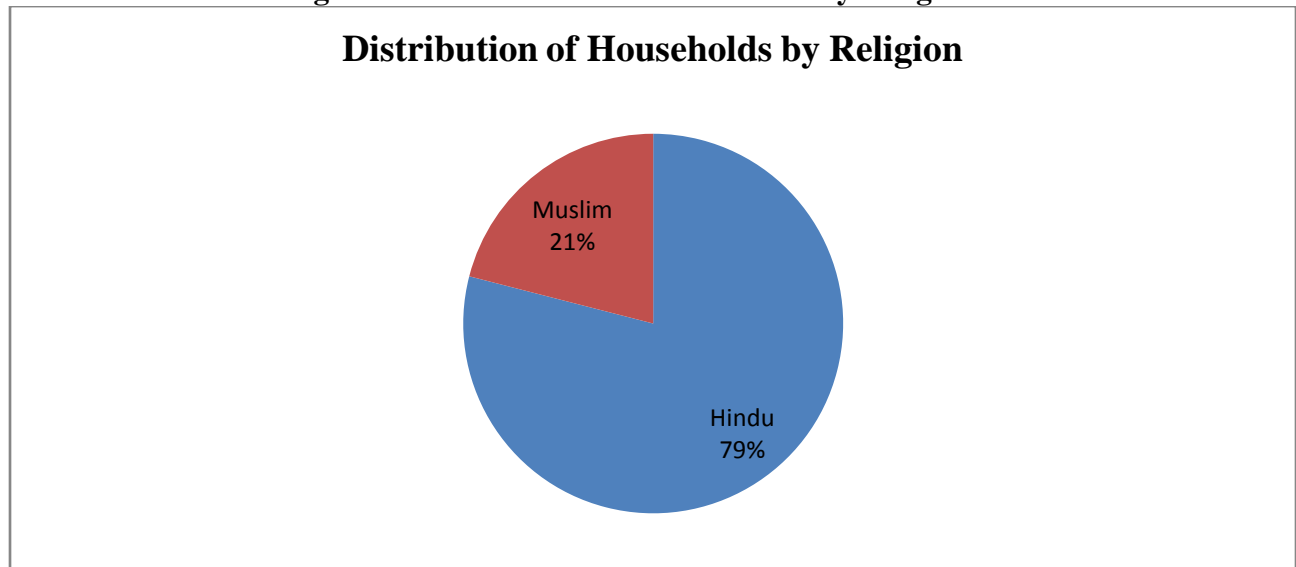
**Table 3.4: Distribution of Households by Religion:**

Religion	Frequency	Percent
Hindu	79	79.0
Muslim	21	21.0
Others	0	0.0
<b>Total</b>	100	100.0

**Source:** Field Survey

The above table shows the religion wise distribution of total sample population of migrants household which shows that out of total 100 surveyed households, 79 per cent of the total sample households belong to Hindu religion while remaining 21 per cent were belongs to Muslim religion and no migrants belongings to other community was found in the sample area.

**Figure 3.4: Distribution of Households by Religion**



**Source:** Field Survey

**Table 3.5: Distribution of Households by Religion and Social Category:**

Category	Religion		Total
	Hindu	Muslim	
General	15 (45.45)	18 (54.55)	33 (33.0)
OBC	32 (91.43)	3 (8.57)	35 (35.0)
SC	32 (100.0)	0 (0.0)	32 (32.0)
<b>Total</b>	79 (79.0)	21 (21.0)	100 (100.0)

**Source:** Field Survey

The above table shows the religion wise category distribution of migrant households. It is clear from the above analysis that out of the total 33 percent migrant households which belongs to the general category, 15 (45.45%) households belongs to Hindu religion while remaining 18 (54.55%) households belongs to Muslim religion. Out of the total 35 percent migrant household which belongs to OBC category, 91.43 percent belongs to Hindu religion while remaining 8.57 percent belongs to Muslim religion and in the case of SC category all the 32 percent belongs to Hindu religion and no Muslim households belongs to SC category was found in the sample area.

### 3.7: Distribution of Households by Age:

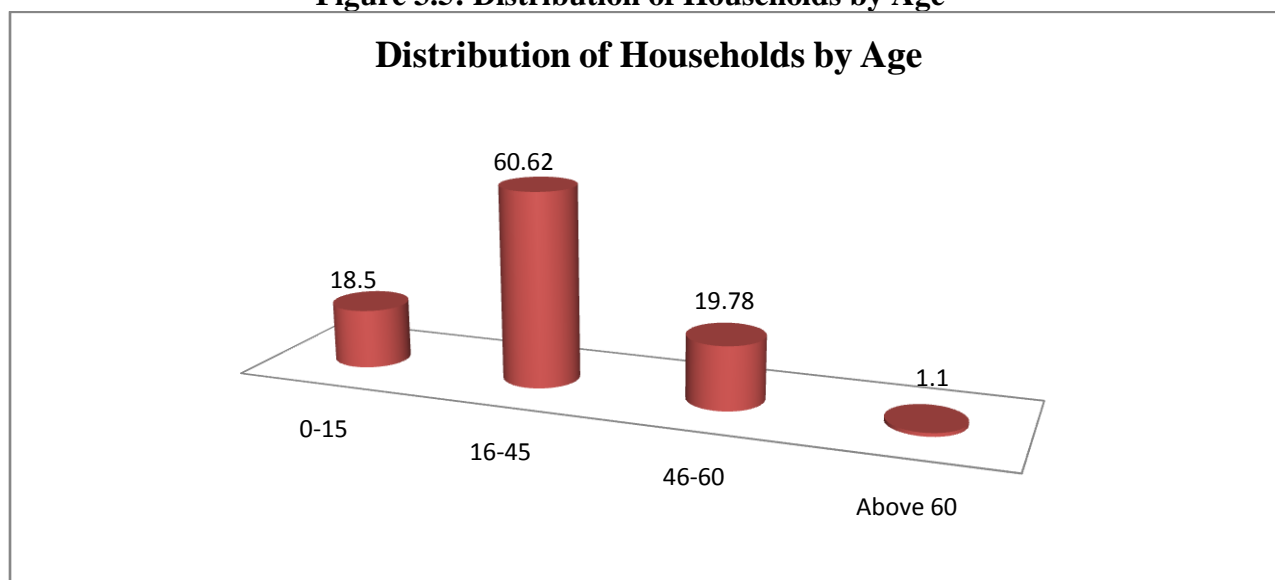
**Table 3.6: Distribution of Households by Age:**

Age	Frequency	Percent
0-15	101	18.50
16-45	331	60.62
46-60	108	19.78
Above 60	6	1.10
<b>Total</b>	546	100.0

**Source:** Field Survey

The above table depicted the age structure of migrant of the surveyed households. The table reveals that the highest proportion of households is from the age group of (16-45) years which forms working population. The frequency distribution of this age group is 331 which are 60.62 percent of total population followed by the age group of (46-60) years, the frequency of this age group is 108 members which is 19.78 percent of total population. The frequency of population belongs to the age group of (0-15) years is 101 which is 18.50 percent. And population belongs to age group of above 60 years shows the population of old people whose frequency distribution is 6 which covers 1.10 percent of total sample. So the distribution of age points out that maximum age group is of working population, i.e. from the age of (16-45) years to (46-60) years.

**Figure 3.5: Distribution of Households by Age**



**Source:** Field Survey

**Table 3.7: Gender wise Age Distribution:**

Gender	Age				Total
	0-15	16-45	46-60	Above 60	
Male	57 (20.58)	177 (63.90)	41 (14.80)	2 (0.72)	277 (50.73)
Female	44 (16.35)	154 (57.25)	67 (24.91)	4 (1.49)	269 (49.27)
Total	101 (18.50)	331 (60.62)	108 (19.78)	6 (1.10)	546 (100.0)

**Source:** Field Survey

Age and Gender are basic demographic characteristics which show the socio-economic characteristics of the family and of a region. Above table which shows gender wise age distribution of total household population reflects that both male and female was highest in the age group of (16-45) years, which is working population by constituting 63.90 percent (177) out of total male, i.e. 277(50.73%) and that of 57.25 percent (154) out of total female, i.e. 269(49.27%). Population belongs to the age group of (46-60) years, shows that 14.80 percent are male out of the total 277 male and 24.91 percent are female out of the total 269 female. Household population belongs to the age group of (0-15) years and above 60 years age, shows that 20.58 percent male and 16.35 percent female belongs to the age group of (0-15) years. On the other hand, 0.72 percent male and 1.49 percent female belongs to the age group of above 60 years.

### **3.8: Educational Status of Households:**

Education is one of the important indicators of the socio economic well being of the family which shows the standard of living of the family. Education plays an important role in providing skills to the unskilled and improves employability of a person.

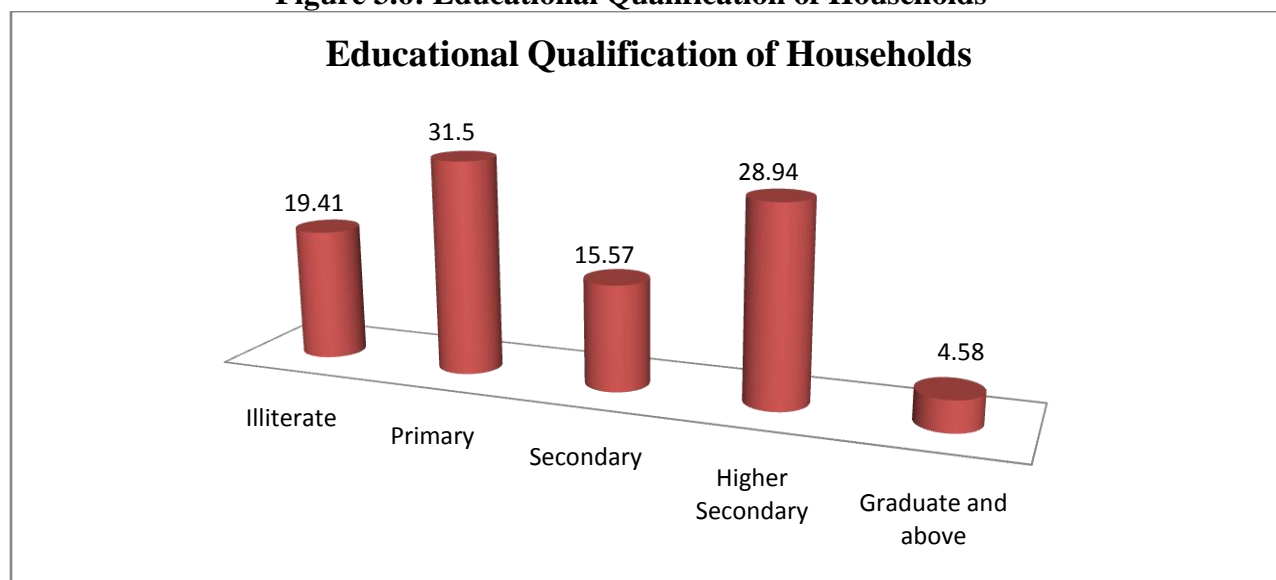
**Table 3.8: Distribution of Household members by Educational Qualification:**

<b>Educational Qualification</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percent</b>
<b>Illiterate</b>	106	19.41
<b>Primary</b>	172	31.50
<b>Secondary</b>	85	15.57
<b>Higher Secondary</b>	158	28.94
<b>Graduate and above</b>	25	4.58
<b>Total</b>	546	100.0

**Source:** Field Survey

Above table depicted the educational qualification of 100 surveyed households. From the above table, it is clear that out of 546 household members, 106 (19.41 percent) members are illiterate while 172 (31.50 percent) members of the household attain the education upto primary level and 85 (15.57 percent) members of the household were having secondary level of education. People attaining the education upto higher secondary level is 158 which cover the 28.94 percent of overall population and least population (25) covers the education upto graduate level which is 4.58 percent of total population.

**Figure 3.6: Educational Qualification of Households**



**Source:** Field Survey

**Table 3.9: Gender wise Education distribution:**

Education	Gender		Total
	Male	Female	
Illiterate	30 (10.83)	76 (28.25)	106 (19.41)
Primary	95 (34.30)	77 (28.63)	172 (31.50)
Secondary	41 (14.80)	44 (16.36)	85 (15.57)
Higher Secondary	98 (35.38)	60 (22.30)	158 (28.94)
Graduate and above	13 (4.69)	12 (4.46)	25 (4.58)
<b>Total</b>	<b>277</b> <b>(50.73)</b>	<b>269</b> <b>(49.27)</b>	<b>546</b> <b>(100.0)</b>

**Source:** Field Survey

Above table explains the educational qualifications among male and female which shows that, out of total 277 (50.73%) male, 10.83 percent are illiterate while out of the remaining 269 (49.27 %) female, 28.25 percent female are illiterate. On the other hand, 34.30 percent male and 28.63 percent female are educated upto primary level. And in the case of education upto the level of secondary and higher secondary, the analysis shows that 14.80 percent and 35.38 percent male while 16.36 percent and 22.30 percent female attain the education upto the level of secondary and higher secondary respectively. While 4.69 percent male and 4.46 percent female are able to attain the higher education upto graduate level.

### **3.9: Educational Status of Children:**

It is education which lay the foundation of social status among the masses in a society. Hence it is important to study the educational status of the children's of these surveyed households. So the below section analyse the educational attainment of the children of migrant household in the study region.

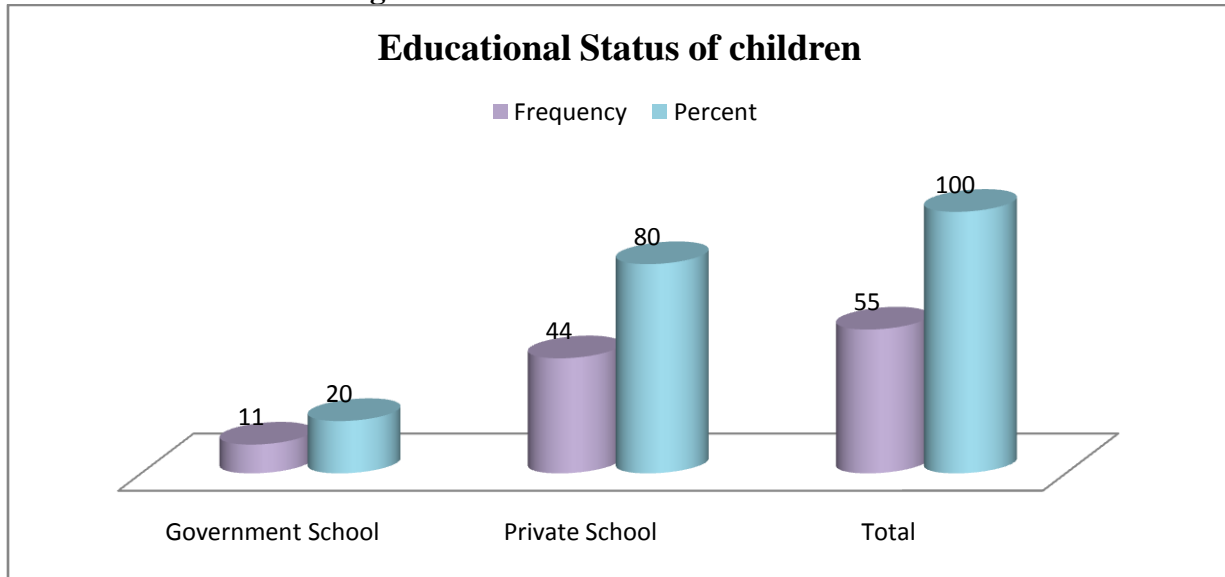
**Table 3.10: Educational Status of children:**

Educational Status (in percent)		Educational Status (YES)	Frequency	Percent
Yes	55	Government School	11	20.0
No	45	Private School	44	80.0
<b>Total</b>	100	<b>Total</b>	55	100.0

**Source:** Field Survey

The above table depicted that out of the 100 surveyed household, 55 percent of household were sending their children to school while 45 percent did not. And out of 55 percent, 11 percent of household send their children to government school which constitute 20 percent of the total while remaining 44 percent of household sends their children to private school which constitute 80 percent of the total. The scenerio of remaining households show that some children found drop outs to school while some others completed their schooling education.

**Figure 3.7: Educational Status of children**



**Source:** Field Survey

### 3.10: Health Status:

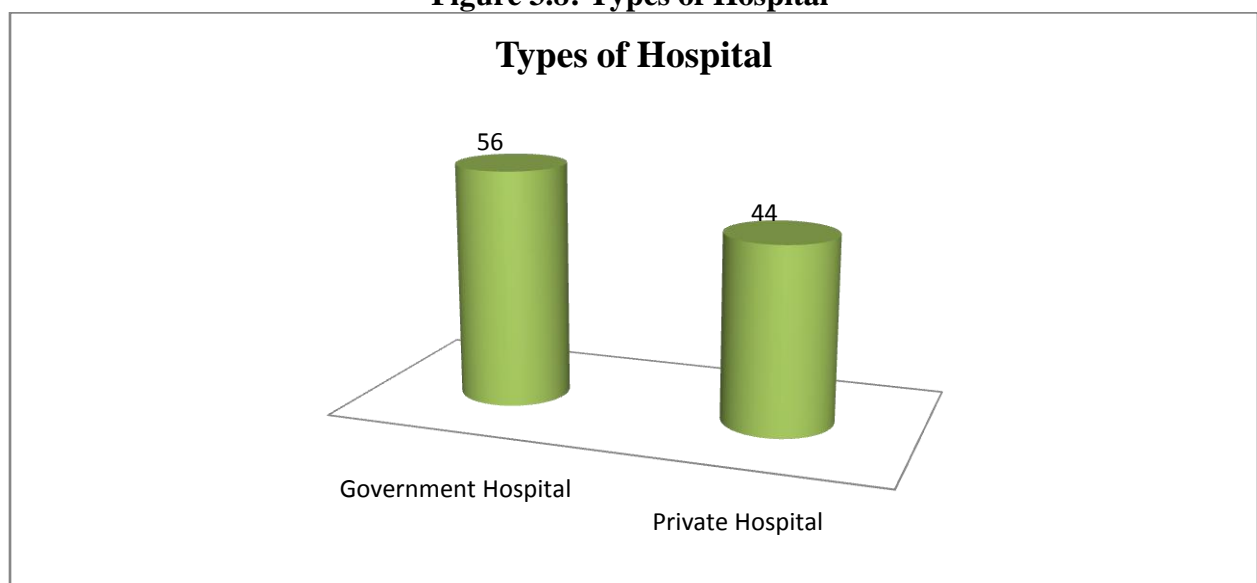
**Table 3.11: Health status of Migrant Households:**

People having health problem			Types of hospital they prefer		
	Frequency	Percent		Frequency	Percent
<b>YES</b>	17	17.0	<b>Government Hospital</b>	56	56.0
<b>NO</b>	83	83.0	<b>Private Hospital</b>	44	44.0
<b>Total</b>	100	100.0	<b>Total</b>	100	100.0

**Source:** Field Survey

The above table depicts the health status of respondent and types of hospital they prefer for the treatment of their own and their family members. The table reveals that out of 100 respondent, 17 percent are having some kind of health issues of chronic nature like back pain, eye problem, diabetes, arthritis, high/low blood pressure, depression, asthma, cholesterol and some kind of heart diseases while remaining 83 percent do not have any kind of health issues. Another section of table shows that the majority of households prefer government hospital i.e. 56 percent while remaining 44 percent prefer private hospital for any kind of treatment. It thus indicates that access to government hospital is better in the Capital City of Lucknow.

**Figure 3.8: Types of Hospital**



**Source:** Field Survey

### 3.11: Marital Status and Family Size:

**Table 3.12: Marital Status of Migrant Households:**

Marital Status	Frequency	Percent
Unmarried	298	54.58
Married	248	45.42
Total	546	100.0

**Source:** Field Survey

The above table reveals the marital status of surveyed households. Among 546 individual, 298 are unmarried which constitute 54.58 percent of total sample population while 248 persons are married which constitute 45.42 percent of total samples.

**Table 3.13: Distribution of total migrants according to family size:**

Household family size	Frequency	Percent
Upto 3 members	2	2.0
4-5 members	44	44.0
6-8 members	54	54.0
Total	100	100.0

**Source:** Field Survey

Family Size is the best indicator of the socio economic development of the household. So, it is necessary to understand the family size of the migrant worker which is shown in table (3.13). The above table reveals that the maximum respondents reported 6-8 number of family member in their household which is 54.0 percent, followed by 44.0 percent which consist of 4-5 number of family members in their household and only 2.0 percent reported upto 3 members in their family.

### 3.12: Ration Card:

**Table 3.14: Ration card status of the Households:**

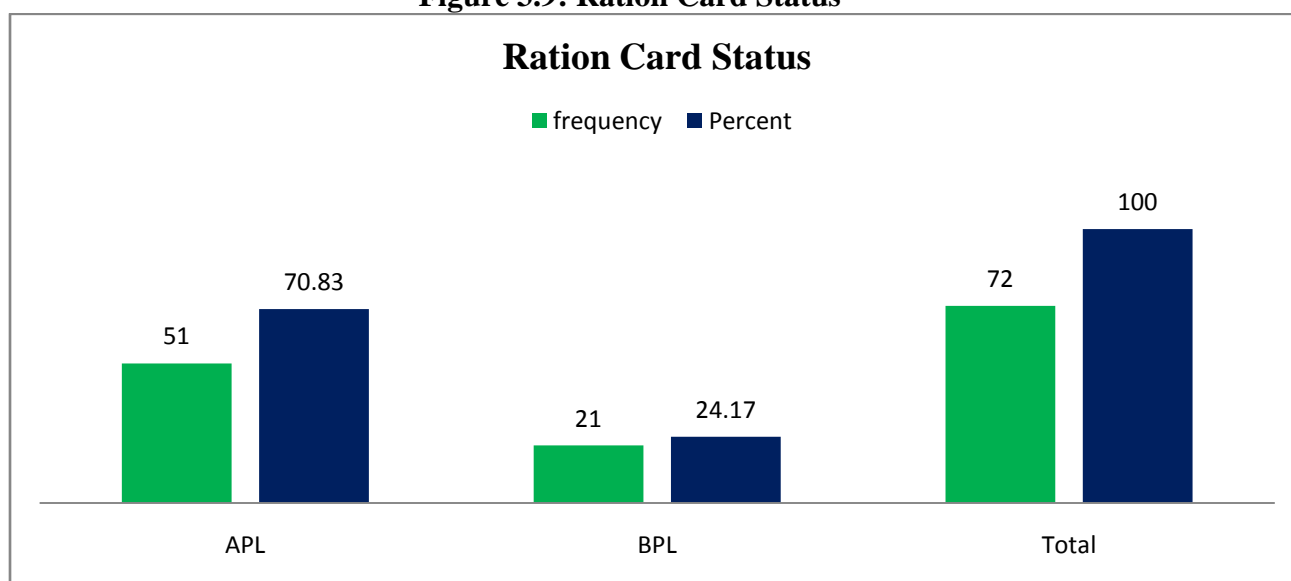
Ration Card Status	Frequency	Percent	Ration Card Status ( YES)	Frequency	Percent
Yes	72	72.0	APL	51	70.83
No	28	28.0	BPL	21	29.17

<b>Total</b>	100	100.0	<b>Total</b>	72	100.0
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**Source:** Field Survey

The above table depicted the ration card facilities of the migrant households. The table reveals that out of 100 surveyed households, 72 percent of surveyed households having ration card facilities while 28 percent do not have ration card. And among 72 percent of households who have ration card facilities, 51 households reported to have APL ration card facilities which constitute 70.83 percent of total households. While remaining 21 household have BPL ration card facilities which constitute 29.17 percent of the total households.

**Figure 3.9: Ration Card Status**



**Source:** Field Survey

### 3.13: Housing Status:

**Table 3.15: Housing Status of the surveyed Households:**

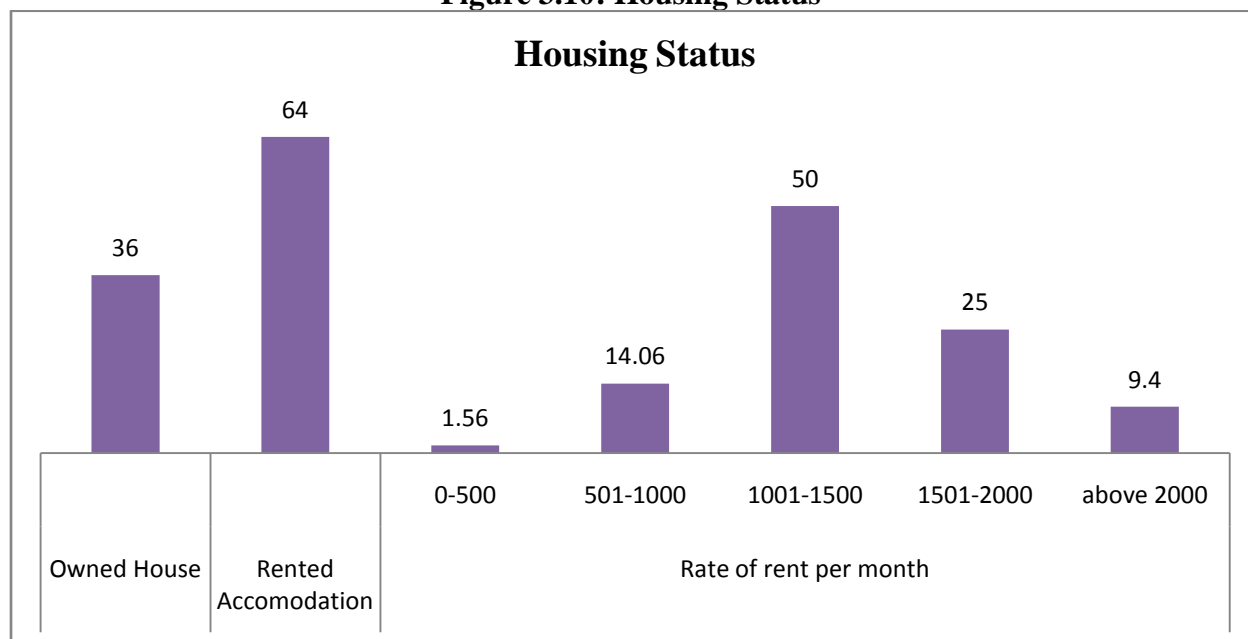
Housing Status			Frequency	Percent
1.	Own House		36	36.0
Rented Accommodation			64	64.0
2.	Rate of rent in Rs. per month	Below 500	1	1.56
		501-1000	9	14.06

		<b>1001-1500</b>	32	50.0
		<b>1501-2000</b>	16	25.0
		<b>Above 2000</b>	6	9.4

**Source:** Field Survey

Above table estimated that out of 100 surveyed households, 36 percent of total households have their own house while remaining 64 percent were living in rented house. According to the survey among 64 percent households who lived on rented houses, 1.56 percent of total rented household paid the rent below Rs. 500 and 14.06 percent of the total rented household paid the rent between Rs. 501 to Rs. 1000. Majority of the rented households paid the rent in between Rs. 1001 to Rs. 1500 which is 50 percent of the total rented household and 25 percent of the rented household paid rent in between Rs. 1501 to Rs. 2000 and only 9.4 percent of the total household paid the rent above Rs. 2000.

**Figure 3.10: Housing Status**



**Source:** Field Survey

### 3.14: Agricultural Land:

**Table 3.16: Agricultural Landholding size of Households:**

Agricultural landholding size	Frequency	Percent
Households do not have land holding	56	56.0

<b>1-10 Biswa</b>	19	19.0
<b>10-20 Biswa</b>	21	21.0
<b>20-30 Biswa</b>	1	1.0
<b>Above 30 Biswa</b>	3	3.0
<b>Total</b>	100	100.0

**Source:** Field Survey

The above table shows the size of landholding owned by the total surveyed households, which reveals that about 56 percent of total migrant households do not have agricultural land and remaining 44 percent have agricultural land that too of very small landholding size. This is shown in the above table that only 19 percent of total household having landholding size of (1-10) biswa. 21 percent of total household having landholding size of (10-20) biswa and remaining 1 percent and 3 percent of households having landholding size of (20-30) biswa and (Above 30) biswa respectively. This agricultural land however is located at the place of their origin.

### **3.15: Monthly Income of Households:**

Income plays an important role in determination of socio economic status of a household as well as of a particular society. Hence, it is important to study the income and earning of the migrant households to analyse their socio economic condition.

**Table 3.17: Total family monthly income of Migrant Households:**

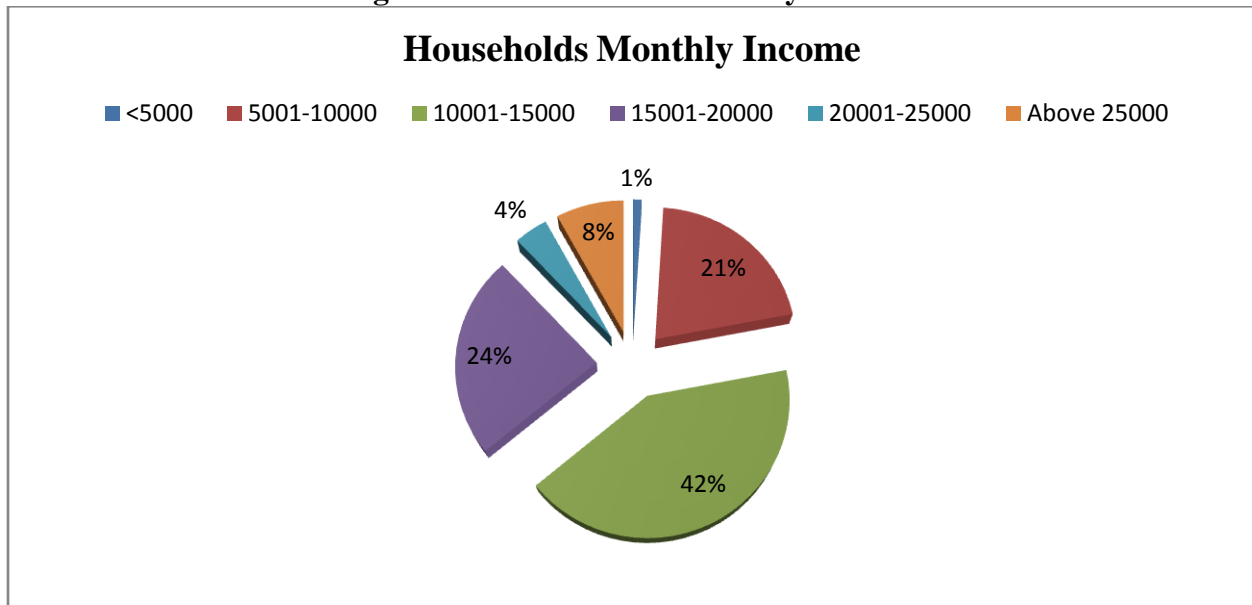
<b>Household monthly income</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percent</b>
<b>&lt;5000</b>	1	1.0
<b>5001-10000</b>	21	21.0
<b>10001-15000</b>	42	42.0
<b>15001-20000</b>	24	24.0
<b>20001-25000</b>	4	4.0
<b>Above 25000</b>	8	8.0
<b>Total</b>	100	100.0

**Source:** Field Survey

The above table reveals that out of total 100 sampled surveyed households, the income level has been arranged in to six sub groups in the present analysis. The first group includes income levels

which is less than 5000 rupees, showing the least percentage of household, i.e. only 1 percent. In second group we have income range from Rs. 5001 to 10000 which show the 21 percent of total household. The third group is of Rs. 10001 to 15000 which show the maximum number of households i.e. 42 percent. In fourth group, Rs. 15001 to Rs. 20000 there are 24 percent of total households and in fifth group, i.e. the income in between Rs. 20001 to Rs 25000 there are 4 percent of total households. 8 percent of households earn more than 25,000 rupees per month.

**Figure 3.11: Households Monthly Income**



**Source:** Field Survey

### 3.16: Conclusions:

The present chapter points out the socio-economic status of migrant households. This chapter considered the origin of migration, i.e. from where migration has taken place to the capital city of Uttar Pradesh (Lucknow) and the results shows that most of the migrants belong to the nearby city of Lucknow i.e. from Unnao, Raebareli, Hardoi, Sitapur, Kanpur, Barabanki, etc. It also analyzes the demographic profile of migrant households where educational status shows that majority of the migrants population are educated upto primary level or higher secondary level and very few of them are graduated. Almost all households send their children to school and majority of them sent their children to private school for better education. It indicates that they

want to provide quality education to their children. While in the case of hospital, majority of migrants population would like to prefer government hospital for their treatment as for them it is difficult to bear the expenses of private hospital. The housing status shows that only 36 percent of migrants are capable to purchase their own house after migration while remaining 64 percent households live on rent. The analysis also reveals that only 44 percent of households having agricultural land and most of them hold a very small size of land which are less productive or barren and this became the major reason for their migration. Most of the migrants having 6-8 members in their family and for them sometimes it became difficult to manage the expenses of the family.

## Chapter 4

### Socio Economic Impact of Migration

#### 4: Introduction

The movement of people from one place to another is termed as migration and it is a complex problem having many dimensions. Although migration is a multidimensional problem and its causes are varied, it has been a subject to administrators, scholars and researchers all over the world. Recent trend emerging from 2001 census shows that migration has picked up during 1991-2001 after India's economic liberalization that was initiated in 1991. As per 2001 census 30.07 percent of population is classified as migrants in India. The country embarked upon new economic policy in 1991 with the underlying principles of liberalization and privatization. As a result of the new approach, the interregional inequality in income levels has sharply widened and it seems have affected the migration process in the country (Bhagat, 2009 and Hassan, 2007). The pioneering work on migration began with the theorization on migration by Ravenstein (1885), according to his "Laws of Migration", migrants move from areas of low opportunity to areas of high opportunity. The choice of destination is regulated by distance with migrants tending to move to nearby places. He further observed that incidence of migration increases with growth in the means of transport and communication and is positively related to the expansion of trade and industry.

Lewis (1954) developed the first model on rural to urban migration and this model is further extended by Fei and Ranis (1961), this model is based on the idea of dual economy consisting of a rural agricultural sector characterized by under employment and an urban industrial sector having better employment opportunities. The model suggests that migration is an equilibrium mechanism which brings wage equality by transferring people from the labour surplus and low income rural areas to the labour deficit and high income urban centres. Sjaastad (1962), in his theory treats the decision to migrate as an investment decision involving an individual's expected costs and returns over time. The probability of migration is directly related to the present value of the expected income gain and is inversely related to the cost of relation. Lee (1966), was the first to formulate migration in a push-pull framework on an individual level, looking at both the

supply and demand side of migration. Where the push factors are negative factors tending to force migrants to leave origin areas while the pull factors are positive factors attracting migrants to destination areas with the expectation of improving a lot. These conditions at the area of origin and destination are governed by personal characteristics which affect individual approach to facilitate or retard migration.

In the recent years, most of the empirical research on rural to urban migration has been influenced by the model developed by Todaro (1969) and its later extension by Harris and Todaro model, "Migration, Unemployment and Development: A Two-Sector Analysis" which is developed in 1970. This model is basically an extension of Human Capital model of Sjaastad. The model's argument is that labour migration in underdeveloped countries is due to rural-urban differences in average expected wages rather than actual wages. Migration is a function of the interplay of a number of push and pull factors, it means that there should be a cause for leaving the original place as well as an attraction towards a possible destination. Without any of these two conditions no movements of population are possible at any level whether it is national or international. The population has to be uprooted from the area of origin and at the same time an area to which these people can move should be available. Otherwise, the lack of destination will not allow the movement however strong the push may be. Likewise without a push factor again no movement is possible even though the attraction of a new place may be quite strong. All the factors encouraging migration of people from the area of origin, such as extreme poverty, political or religious suppression, unhealthy climate, military action or danger to life or due to any other causes etc. are part of the overall push factor. On the other hand better employment opportunities, comfortable living, social and religious freedoms are the pull factors. It is a whole set of factors where both push and pull which are responsible for any movements of people from one place or region to the other.

Migration is a multi dimensional phenomenon which has both positive and negative consequences for migrants and their families. Migration has many positive effects as it expands the opportunities for productive work and leads to a wider perspective on many social issues among migrants. Migration not only leads to economic transformation but also overwhelmingly brings socio-cultural changes. Migrants coming from different cultural regions having diverse ways of life learn much from the place of migration and bring home new ideas, new knowledge, skills, social norms and different ways of doing things (Allen 2003:5; Zachariah 2001:10). And it

is also true that the impact of migration is not restricted to the change in migrant's place of origin but also causes serious implications for the population in the place of destination. Many problem associated with rapid urbanization are the result of rural-urban migration. Overcrowding, slums, difficulty of waste disposals, traffic congestions, housing shortage, poor water supply are closely associated with heavy movements of population in urban areas.

The present chapter analyze the impact of migration on migrants worker who migrated to the Capital City of Uttar Pradesh i.e., Lucknow by comparing the previous and present status of migrants worker. It is true that migration was usually not an individual decision but a collective one. People migrated to Lucknow with the objective of improving their economic status by getting better type of job. They got ready to do any job and to work day and night away from their families and homes with the sole aim of earning and saving as much as they can. Unemployment, low wages, low land base and poverty prevailing in the place of their origin were other simulating factors for migration to Lucknow.

#### **4.1: Reasons for Migration:**

Migration primarily occurs due to the lack of employment opportunities and other facilities at the place of origin. Less development and regional disparities are also the main cause of migration in India. The factors which attract the migration are the employment opportunity, better living standard and higher level of educational facilities at the destination place and some are migrated to support their family member financially. Underdevelopment, unavailability of resources, poverty and low wages in rural areas push people to migrate to developed areas.

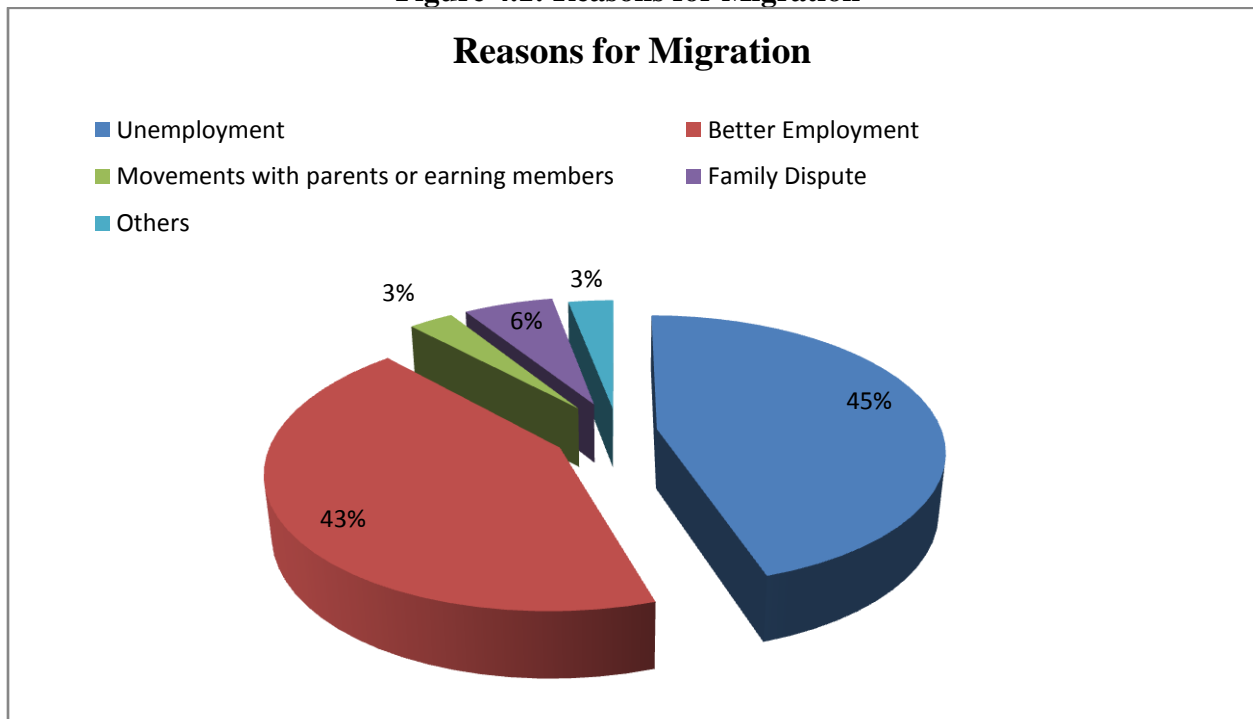
**Table: 4.1: Reasons for Migration:**

<b>Reasons for Migration</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percent</b>
<b>Unemployment</b>	45	45.0
<b>Better Employment</b>	43	46.0
<b>Movement with parents or earning members</b>	3	3.0
<b>Family Dispute</b>	6	6.0
<b>Others</b>	3	3.0
<b>Total</b>	100	100.0

**Source:** Field Survey

According to Table 4.1, the main reason for migration to Lucknow city are unemployment at the origin place and some others are attraction towards better employment opportunities at destination place. Some kind of family dispute and many other reasons like poverty, insecurity at the origin place, to give better education to children and some migrated to accompany their parents. Due to unemployment 45 percent of people migrate whereas 43 percent of people attract towards the better employment opportunities at Lucknow city. 3 percent of total migrant move to Lucknow with their parents from their origin place. Whereas 6 percent migrants gave family dispute as the major reason for their migration because it became necessary for them to leave their origin place as it may destroy their family’s mental peace. While remaining 3 percent gave some other reasons, they said they migrated due to insecurity at origin place, and to provide better education to their children and to lead a better life. Thus, poverty and unemployment happen to be major reasons of migration from their place of origin to the capital city of Lucknow.

**Figure 4.1: Reasons for Migration**



**Source:** Field Survey

#### 4.2: Duration of Migration:

**Table 4.2: Duration of migration with number of members accompanies:**

Duration of migration (in percent)		Number of members (in percent)	
0-5 years	27	0 Member accompany	28
5-10 years	53	1-2 Members	39
Above 10 years	20	2-4 Members	31
Total	100	Above 4 Members	2
		Total	100

**Source:** Field Survey

Above table depicted that out of total 100 migrants, 20 percent had migrated at least 10 years back. About 53 percent migrants had migrated over the last decade (i.e., duration 5-10 years) and about 27 percent of the total migrants migrated with the duration of less than 5 years. Another section of table reveals that out of the total migrants, 28 percent migrated individually whereas 72 percent of people moved with their household in which 39 percent of people migrated with (1-2 members) while 31 percent people migrated with (2-4 members) of the family and 2 percent of people migrated with almost their whole family, i.e., above 4 members.

#### 4.3: Housing Status:

Housing is one of the important components of socio economic conditions of households. Housing condition describes about the economic condition of the households and it is the good indicator of prosperity.

**Table 4.3: Housing status of Migrant Households:**

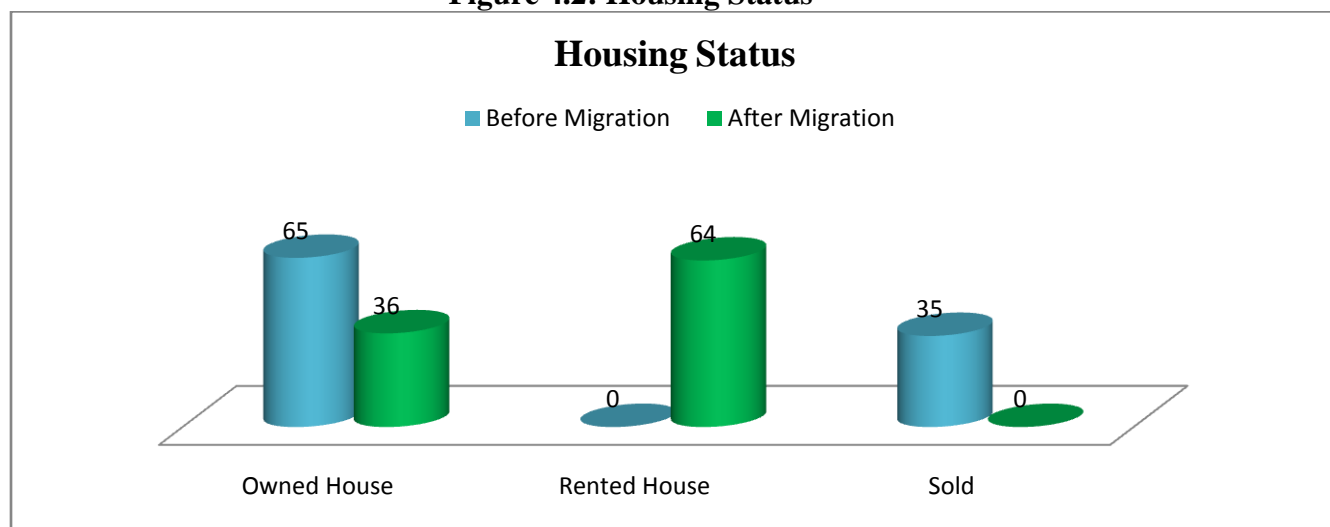
Housing Status	Before Migration (in percent)	After Migration (in percent)
Owned	65	36
Rented	-	64
Sold	35	-
Total	100	100

**Source:** Field Survey

Above table tell us about the housing status of migrants which shows that after migration 36 percent of household have their own house and remaining 64 percent of households have not and

they use to live on rented house. It is to be noted that before they migrated to Lucknow almost all households were having houses. But after migration 65 percent households still have their previous house, while 35 percent have sold their houses. It seems that all those who have sold their houses have bought new houses at the new migrated place i.e. Lucknow. This migration could be termed as permanent migration.

**Figure 4.2: Housing Status**



**Source:** Field Survey

**Table 4.4: Housing Condition: Types of House**

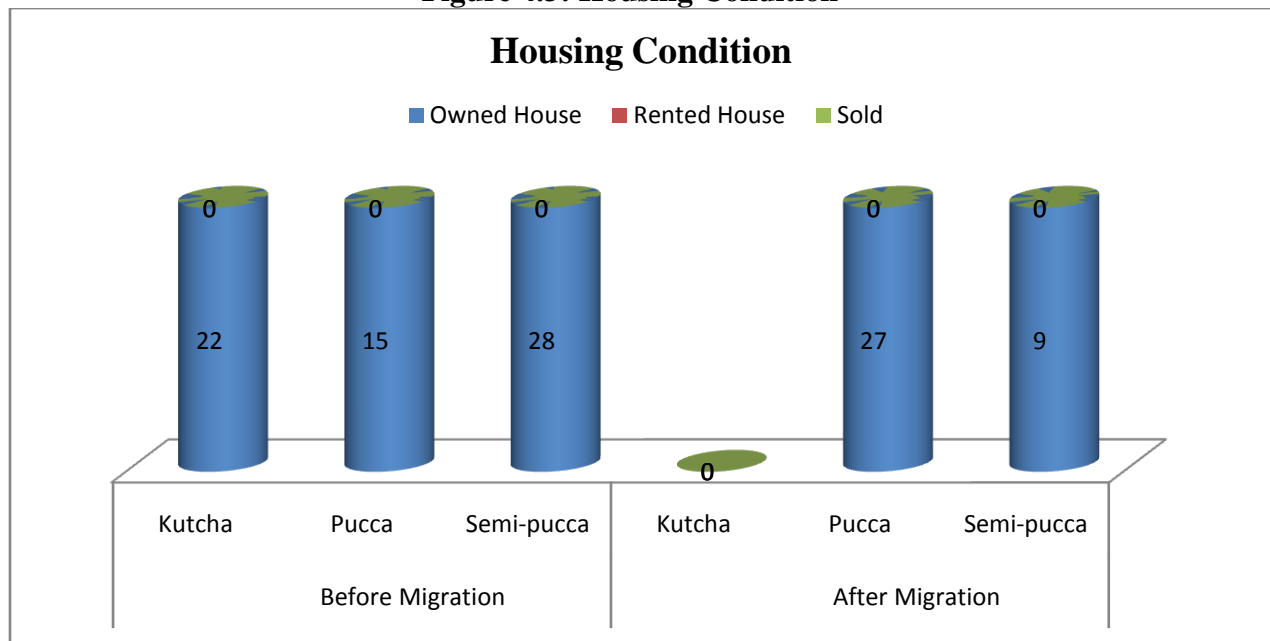
Types of House	Before Migration				After Migration			
	Kutcha	Pucca	Semi-pucca	Total	Kutcha	Pucca	Semi-pucca	Total
<b>Owned House</b>	22	15	28	65	–	27	9	36
<b>Rented House</b>	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	64
<b>Sold</b>	–	–	–	35	–	–	–	–
<b>Total</b>	–	–	–	100	–	–	–	100

**Source:** Field Survey

After the housing status of migrants, housing condition is presented in table 4.4. It shows that out of 65 percent of households who hold their previous houses with them depicted that, 22 percent

of households had kutcha type of house, 15 percent of households had pucca type of house and 28 percent had semi-pucca type of houses. However, the data are not available of those who sold their previous houses. And after migration the picture is quite different, it shows that out of 36 percent of household who have their own house are 27 percent pucca and 9 percent are semi-pucca types of house, while no household having kutcha type of house.

**Figure 4.3: Housing Condition**



**Source:** Field Survey

#### 4.4: Facilities at the place of Migration

**Table 4.5: Facility of Water before and after Migration:**

Water Facility	Before Migration (in percent)	After Migration (in percent)
Government Hand Pump	56.0	26.0
Government Water Supply	44.0	55.0
Private Source of water	–	19.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>

**Source:** Field Survey

The above table reveals about the water facility to the migrant household in both the condition before and after their migration. The table shows that before migration, 56 percent of household depend upon government hand pump and remaining 44 percent household depend on government water supply while after the migration the table reveals that 26 percent and 55 percent of migrants household depend for water upon government hand pump and government water supply respectively whereas remaining 19 percent household have their private source of water at their home. Thus, as far as water facility is concerned, there is an improvement at new place. As many as 19 percent of households could be brought under private source of water.

**Table 4.6: Facility of Electricity before and after Migration:**

Electricity facility before migration (in percent)			Electricity facility after migration (in percent)				
	Kerosene Lamp	Lantern	Total			Electricity Bill (in Rs.)	Percent
<b>YES</b>	–	–	74	<b>YES</b>	100	<b>&lt;500</b>	18
<b>NO</b>	17	9	26	<b>NO</b>	0	<b>500-1000</b>	77
			100			<b>1001-1500</b>	5
						<b>Total</b>	100

**Source:** Field Survey

The above table shows the facility of electricity to the migrant households in both the situation i.e. before and after the migration. It reveals that before the migration, 74 percent of household had electricity facility in their house while remaining 26 percent were not having electricity and they were using kerosene lamp and lantern as a source of light. The situation after migration is very much better because 100 percent of household have electric facility in their house. The table also analyze about the monthly electricity bill paid by these households. It could be seen from the table that, 18 percent household pay the bill less than Rs. 500, 77 percent households pay the electricity bill in between Rs. (500-1000) while remaining 5 percent households pay the bill in between Rs. (1001-1500). The analysis had also been done on the basis of availability of electricity at migrant's place which shows that 17 percent of households have the access of electricity upto 12 hours and 37 percent of households have the access of electricity for about 12 to 18 hours and remaining 46 percent households have a access in between 18 to 24 hours.

#### 4.5: Family Assets:

Assets owned by households are the good parameter for measuring the standard of living of the family which also reveals the socio-economic condition of the family of the surveyed households. Assets of the households show the well being of the individuals and further it is the assets which define the economic status of the households. Hence it is important to study and analyze the assets of migrant's household.

**Table 4.7: Distribution of Migrant Households by their family assets:**

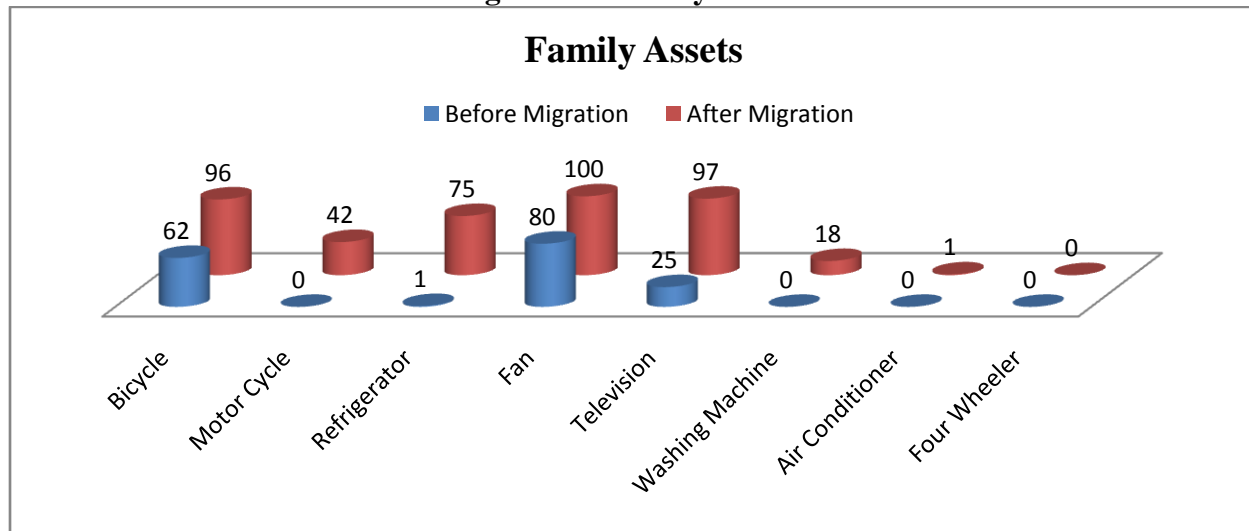
Family Assets	Before Migration		After Migration	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
<b>Bicycle</b>	62	62.0	96	96.0
<b>Motor Cycle</b>	0	0.0	42	42.0
<b>Refrigerator</b>	1	1.0	75	75.0
<b>Fan</b>	80	80.0	100	100.0
<b>Television</b>	25	25.0	97	97.0
<b>Washing Machine</b>	0	0.00	18	18.0
<b>Air Conditioner</b>	0	0.00	1	1.0
<b>Four Wheeler</b>	0	0.00	0	0.00

**Source:** Field Survey

The above table reveals about the family assets owned by migrant's households. The study takes into account both the situations i.e., before and after migration to check the difference between previous and present status of households. The study reveals that out of 100 surveyed households, 62 percent of households had bicycle before migration whereas 96 percent household having bicycle after migration. In the case of motor cycle and refrigerator, the data shows that the before migration no household had motor cycle in their family asset and only 1 percent of household had refrigerator at their home while after migration the situation is much better, i.e., 42 percent households have motor cycle and 75 percent have refrigerator at their home. Fan and television shows the ratio of 80:100 percent and 25:97 percent before and after the migration. Before migration no households had washing machine and air conditioner at their house whereas 18 percent and 1 percent households are now having washing machine and air conditioner at their house respectively. As far as four wheeler is concerned, no households having four wheeler in both the situation (i.e., before and after the migration). So after analyzing

the assets we can say that comparatively after the migration the situation of migrants is much better.

**Figure 4.4: Family Assets**



**Source:** Field Survey

#### 4.6: Agricultural land/plot status:

**Table 4.8: Agricultural landholding size before migration and plot purchasing after migration:**

Agricultural Landholding before migration		Plot purchasing after migration				
		Plot Purchased	Size of plot (in sqr. ft.)	Frequency	Percent	
NO	56.0	NO	58.0	<b>Households did not purchase plot</b>	58	58.0
YES	44.0	YES	42.0	<400	5	5.0
<b>Total</b>	100.0	<b>Total</b>	100.0	<b>400-800</b>	32	32.0
				<b>800-1200</b>	5	5.0
				<b>Total</b>	100	100.0

**Source:** Field Survey

The present table depicted the agricultural landholding size by migrant households before migration and plot purchases by them after migration. The table shows that before migration out of 100 surveyed households, 44 percent of households have agricultural land while remaining 56 percent of households were not having any agricultural land. The other part of table shows that

after migration, 42 percent of household purchased plot in Lucknow city. 5 percent households bought plot in the range of less than 400 sq.ft. while another 5 percent households bought land in the range of 800 to 1200 sq.ft. Maximum proportion of households i.e. 32 percent bought a plot in the range of 400 to 800 sq.ft. Owning a plot in the capital city is consider as the status of symbol, after analyzing this table we can say that the situation of migrants have obviously improved, so that the person has been be able to purchase plot in the city.

#### **4.7: Occupational Status of Migrant Households:**

This section highlights the economic activities of 100 migrant households. The economic activities play a crucial role in the determination of socio-economic conditions of migrant workers. The data specially related to the respondent in the households. The table below depicted occupational distribution of households which is divided in three parts i.e. Casual Worker, Self Employed and Regular Worker before and after migration. Where casual worker includes (labour, factory worker, rickshaw puller, work at others farm), self employed includes (street vendor, farmer, shop owner, vegetable vendor, auto rickshaw puller, fruit whole seller) and regular worker includes (salesmen i.e. work in shop, person in job). Salesmen are also included under regular workers category because they draw monthly salary, though they are not getting any other allowances.

**Table 4.9: Occupational status of individual migrant worker:**

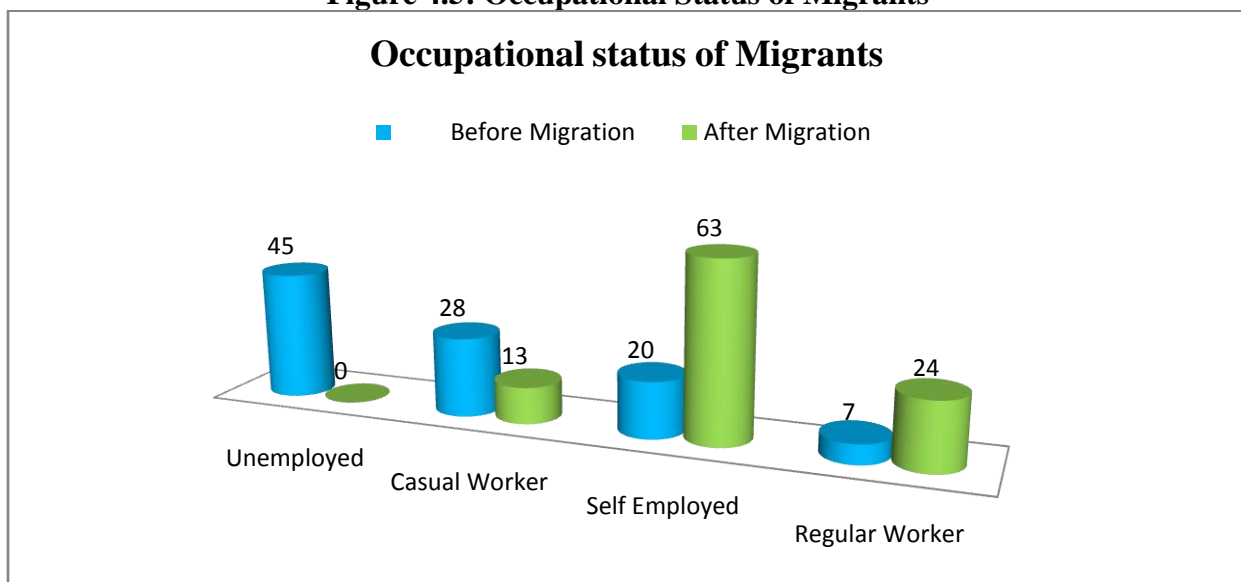
<b>Occupational Status of individual migrant</b>	<b>Before Migration (in percent)</b>	<b>After Migration (in percent)</b>
<b>Unemployed</b>	45	0
<b>Casual Worker</b>	28	13
<b>Self Employed</b>	20	63
<b>Regular Worker</b>	7	24
<b>Total</b>	100	100

**Source:** Field survey

The above table reveals the occupational status of individual migrants in both the situation i.e. before the migration and after the migration. According to the table, before the migration out of total individual migrants, 45 percent of people were unemployed whereas 28 percent, 20 percent

and 7 percent are casual worker, self employed and regular worker respectively. While the scenerio after migration is that, no one is tend to remain unemployed. Majority of migrant respondants i.e. 63 percent are self employed, 24 percent come under regular worker and remaining 13 percent work as casual worker. It is observed from the occupational pattern of migrants that the proportion of casual worker declines after migration and there is a substantial increase in regular/self-employed jobs. It indicates that migration has provided those better employment opportunities then the scenerio before migration.

**Figure 4.5: Occupational Status of Migrants**



**Source:** Field Survey

**4.8: Monthly Income of Migrants:**

Income always plays a vital role in determining the socio-economic condition of individual or community. It is the income which decides the richness and poverty among the masses. In the following table we can see the income comparison of individual migrants by analyzing the income before migration and income after migration.

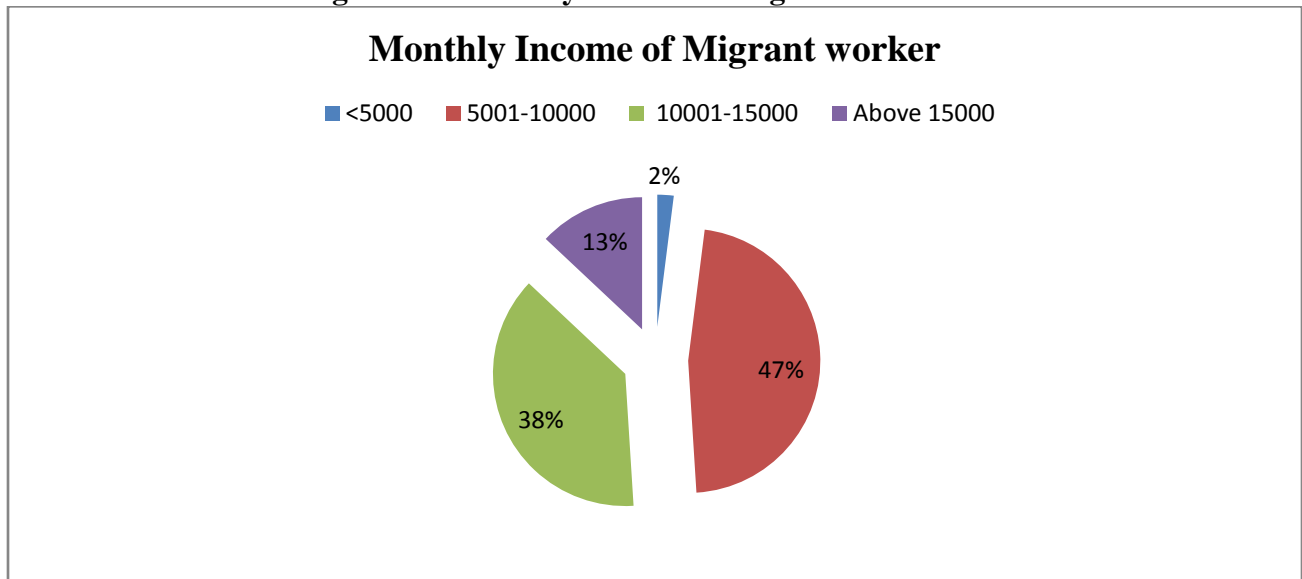
**Table 4.10: Monthly Income of individual migrant worker:**

Monthly Income of individual migrant	Frequency	Percent
<5000	2	2.0
5001-10000	47	47.0
10001-15000	38	38.0
Above 15000	13	13.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100.0</b>

**Source:** Field Survey

It is clear from the above table that out of 100 respondent migrants, only 2 percent respondent found in the study area who earned less than Rs. 5000 per month. 13 percent of individual migrants earned more than Rs. 15000 per month. Majority of individual migrants i.e. 47 percent earned in between Rs. 5001 to 10000 and 38 percent migrants earned in between Rs. 10001 to 15000. While scenerio before migration is quite different because 45 percent of respondent were unemployed before the migration whereas after migration no one is unemployed as employment is the major reason for their migration. And for the remaining 55 percent migrant respondent, it is quite difficult for them to recall their exact earning before migration but it is found that majority of them earned less than Rs. 5000 per month. Therefore it reveals that the present earning of migrants is much better than their previous one.

**Figure 4.6: Monthly Income of Migrant worker**



**Source:** Field Survey

#### 4.9: Monthly Income mean and standard deviation:

The below section highlights about the average monthly income of individual migrants and total family income of households

**Table 4.11: Income of total sampled population on average basis (in Rs.):**

Average Monthly Income	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation
Individual Migrant Income	4500	22000	10720.00	3600.870
Total Household Income	4500.00	47000.00	14580.0000	6627.81101

**Source:** Field Survey

The above section shows the income of migrant workers and total household income of migrants on the average basis which states that after migration the minimum earning of individual migrants is Rs. 4500 per month and maximum earning is Rs. 22000 per month. And average per month income of individual migrants is 10720.00 rupees with a standard deviation of 3600.870 rupees per month. Whereas, the total family income of migrant household shows that a minimum of Rs. 4500 per month and maximum Rs. 47000.00, with average earning per month is Rs. 14580.0000 and standard deviation of Rs. 6627.81101.

#### 4.10: Household Expenditure:

Expenditures always play a pivotal role in determining the life style of the individuals living in a society. Expenditures of households are always dependent on income and higher the income of household, higher will be level of expenditure.

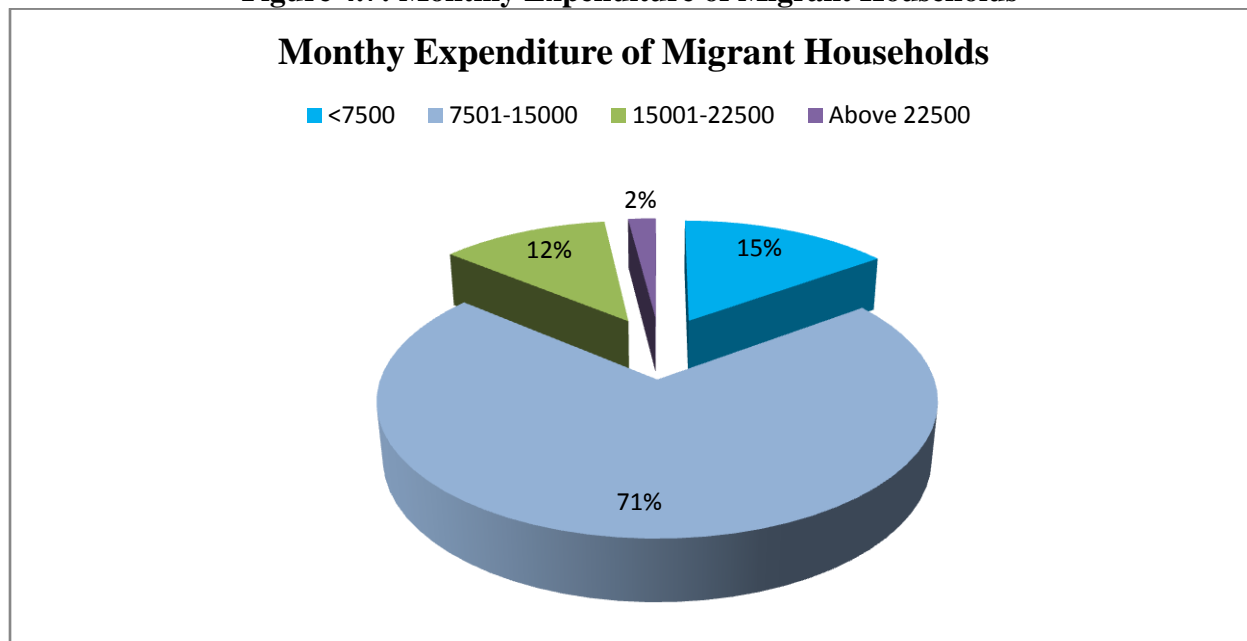
**Table 4.12: Monthly Expenditure of Migrant Households:**

Monthly expenditure of migrant households	Frequency	Percent
<7500	15	34.0
7501-15000	71	53.0
15001-22500	12	7.0
Above 22500	2	6.0
Total	100	100.0

**Source:** Field Survey

The above table reveals about the total monthly expenditure of migrant households which included money spend on all the food items, non-food items, such as; clothes, health, education, transport and on others. The expenditure of these households is divided among four groups, i.e. less than Rs. 7500, Rs. 7501-15000, Rs. 15001-22500 and above Rs. 22500. This classification has been made to identify the proportion of households below poverty line. On the basis of analysis it was found that a large percentage of migrant households i.e. 71 percent spent in between Rs. 7501-15000 per month, 12 percent migrant households use to spend in between Rs. 15001-22500 on their monthly expenditure whereas only 2 percent of households have their monthly expenditure above 22500 rupees. While remaining 15 percent migrants households spend less than Rs. 7500 per month on their monthly expenditure. The analysis also reveals that in most cases, mostly expenditure depends according to the size of the family as majority of the migrants having 6-8 members in their family. In other words, higher is the family size higher in the level of expenditure. In the present study, the level of expenditure of household before migration has not been noted, as it was quite difficult for them to recall their expenditure before migration. According to the Government of India, Planning Commission June 2014 report by Rangarajan Committee, monthly per capita consumption expenditure of Rs. 972 in rural areas and Rs. 1407 in urban areas is treated as the poverty line at the all India level. This implies a monthly consumption expenditure of Rs. 4860 in rural areas or Rs. 7035 in urban areas in urban areas for a family of five at 2011-12 prices, i.e. whose family monthly expenditure is less than Rs. 7035 in urban areas are came under BPL category, so after analyzing this the data of expenditure reveals that after migration approximately 15 percent of households come under BPL category as their monthly expenditure is less than Rs. 7500.

**Figure 4.7: Monthly Expenditure of Migrant Households**



**Source:** Field Survey

**Table 4.13: Expenditure of total sampled households on average basis:**

Household Expenditure	Min	Max	Mean	Std. deviation
<b>N=100</b>	5300.00	24800.00	11740.00	3996.734

**Source:** Field Survey

The above section shows the monthly family expenditure on an average basis which states that the minimum monthly expenditure of migrant households is 5300 rupees per month and the maximum monthly expenditure of migrant households is 24800 rupees per month whereas the average per month expenditure of migrant households is 11740 rupees with a standard deviation of 3996.734 rupees.

#### **4.11: Saving behavior of Migrants:**

The present section highlights the saving behavior of migrant households by analyzing the previous and present bank account status and saving status of migrant households.

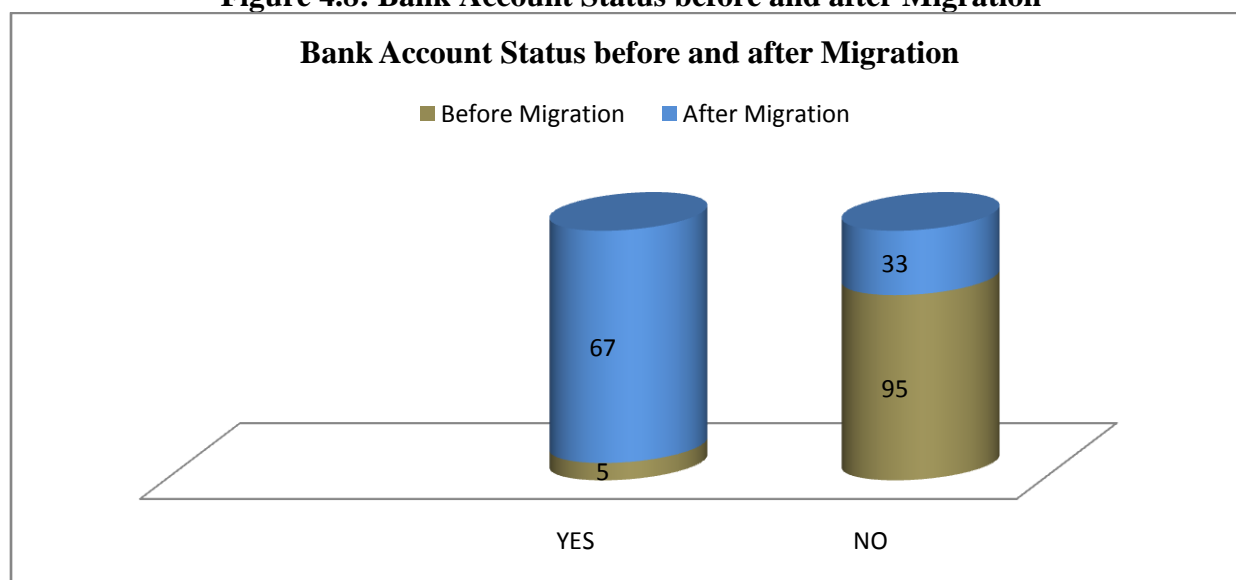
**Table 4.14: Bank Account Status before and after Migration:**

Number of person having bank account	Before Migration		After Migration	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
<b>YES</b>	5	5.0	67	67.0
<b>NO</b>	95	95.0	33	33.0
<b>Total</b>	100	100.0	100	100.0

**Source:** Field Survey

The above table depicted that the number of persons having bank account in both situations (before and after migration). The table reveals that before migration out of total 100 respondent, only 5 percent of migrants were having bank account while remaining 95 percent did not have any bank account. And after migration, situation is much better i.e. 67 percent respondent are having bank account while only 33 percent still to have a bank account.

**Figure 4.8: Bank Account Status before and after Migration**



**Source:** Field Survey

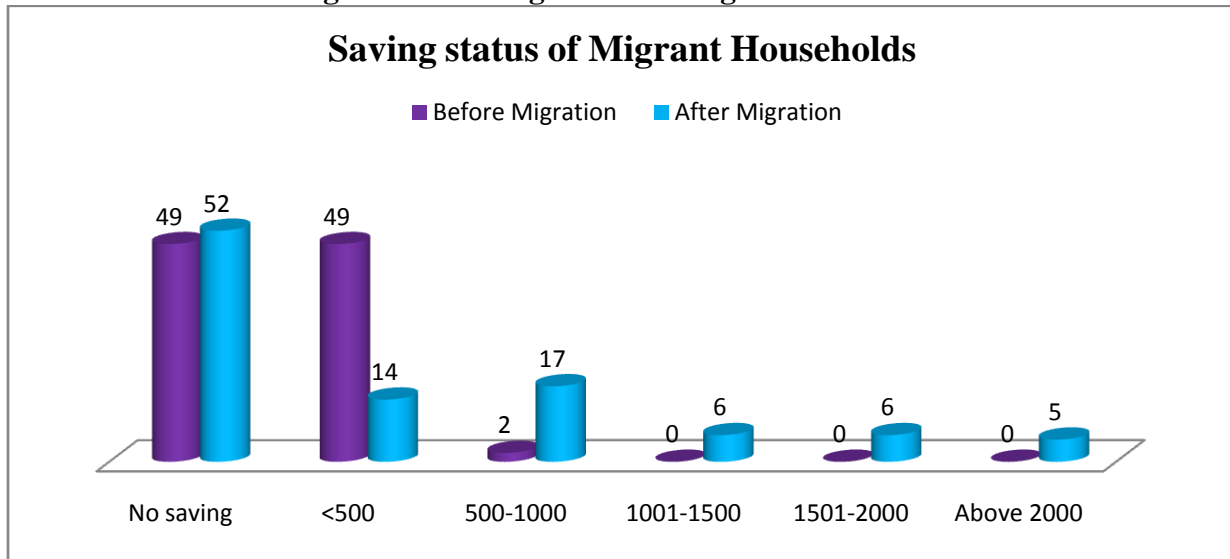
**Table 4.15: Saving status of Migrant Households:**

<b>Saving after migration (in Rs.)</b>	<b>Before Migration (in percent)</b>	<b>After Migration (in percent)</b>
<b>No saving</b>	49	52
<b>&lt;500</b>	49	14
<b>500-1000</b>	2	17
<b>1001-1500</b>	0	6
<b>1501-2000</b>	0	6
<b>Above 2000</b>	0	5
<b>Total</b>	100	100

**Source:** Field Survey

Table 4.15 reveals that before migration, 49 percent of households had no saving whereas 49 percent of households had saving less than 500 rupees per month and only 2 percent of households had saving in between Rs. 500 to 1000. While after migration, 52 percent of households had no saving possibly due to large size of family and high expenditure. 14 percent of households have saving less than 500 rupees and 17 percent of households save in between Rs. 500 to 1000. 6 percent of households have a monthly saving between Rs. 1001 to Rs. 1500 and Rs. 1501 to Rs. 2000 and remaining 5 percent households have a saving above 2000 rupees per month. The above analysis thus shows a big difference between the saving behaviors of migrant households from their previous condition to their present condition.

**Figure 4.9: Saving Status of Migrant Households**



**Source:** Field survey

#### 4.12: Social Networking after Migration:

The section below highlights about the social networking of migrant households after migration to the capital city (Lucknow). Social networking, here, we refer to the social links of migrants with their previous place of origin.

**Table 4.16: Frequency and Reasons of visit to native place:**

Frequency of visit to native place (in percent)		Reasons for visit to native place (in percent)	
Once in a year	24	To meet parents	22
Once in two year	28	To meet friends and relatives	52
Twice in a year	25	Others	3
Never	23	Never visit	23
<b>Total</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>Total</b>	<b>100</b>

**Source:** Field survey

Table 4.16 explores the migrant's frequency of visit to their native place after migration and reasons for their visit. The analysis shows that out of total 100 individual migrants, higher proportion of migrants pay visit to their native place once in two years. One fourth of migrants visit twice in a year. 24 percent of migrants visit only once in a year. However, 23 percent migrant households never visit their native place. Out of those who visit their native place, it has been reported that 47 percent of them visit alone whereas 30 percent of them visit with their

family. They also give the reason for their visit in which 22 percent said that they use to visit their native place to meet their parents who live there whereas 52 percent people said that they use to visit to meet their friends and relatives who reside there and remaining 3 percent told that they use to visit their native place to look after their house and to attend some social ceremony if needed.

**Table 4.17: Social participation or gathering of Migrants:**

Social Participation/gathering after migration (in percent)		Perception of migrants about new locality (in percent)	
Some extent	51	Cooperative	41
Large extent	25	Less cooperative	17
Nil	24	No difference	42
<b>Total</b>	100	<b>Total</b>	100

**Source:** Field survey

Social gathering and social participation are quite important for a healthy and peaceful life. Therefore, the respondent were asked about their social gathering and their perceptions about the new locality. So, the above table reveals about the social participation or social gathering of migrants after migration to Lucknow city. About 51 percent migrants told that their social gathering is to some extent whereas 25 percent said that their social gathering is at very large extent, and remaining 24 percent have no social gathering at Lucknow. The above analysis also tell us about the perception of migrants towards their new locality, i.e. Lucknow city, while 41 percent of migrants found people are cooperative, 17 percent founds that people are less cooperative. The remaining 42 percent households did not find any difference in the new locality as far as people's cooperation is concerned.

#### **4.13: Problem faced by Migrants after Migration:**

Number of studies earlier concluded that population in the urban centre due to migration causes urban congestion and other difficulties related to the access of basic amenities such as water, electricity, housing, etc. Keeping this in mind, the respondents were asked about their possible problems related to above in the urban location. Table 4.18 and 4.19 below highlights the kind of problems that are faced by the migrant households after their migration.

**Table 4.18: Facility of Drinking Water:**

<b>Availability of drinking water</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percent</b>
<b>Easy access</b>	45	45.0
<b>Difficult to access</b>	55	55.0
<b>Total</b>	100	100.0

**Source:** Field survey

Table 4.18 reveals about the availability of proper drinking water facility at migrant's place which states that 45 percent of households have easy access to drinking water whereas 55 percent of households have some difficulties to access to drinking water at their place after migration.

**Table 4.19: Problem at the place of residence:**

<b>Problem at your residence</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percent</b>
<b>No problem</b>	30	20.0
<b>Large amount of rent</b>	49	49.0
<b>Intolerance of landlord</b>	15	25.0
<b>Other problems</b>	6	6.0
<b>Total</b>	100	100.0

**Source:** Field survey

Table 4.19 highlights the kind of problem faced by migrant households at their place of residence which shows that, 30 percent of migrant households have not any kind of problem. 49 percent of households face the problem related to rent, according to them the amount of rent paid by them is very large and 15 percent of households have problem with their landlords as the interference of their landlord is intolerable. The remaining 6 percent households however reported having some kind of issues with their neighbours and locality.

#### **4.14: Conclusions:**

The above chapter points out the impact of migration on migrant workers by comparing the previous and present status of migrant households. The analysis revealed that highest percentage of respondents was unemployed before their migration. Therefore, seeking a job happened to be the major reason of migration to the capital city of Uttar Pradesh (Lucknow). The other reason of migration are low income, better employment opportunities, better educational facilities and better infrastructure facilities. The housing status of migrant households revealed that before migration, almost all had their own house whether it is kutcha, semi-pucca or pucca but after migration only 36 percent of migrant households could build their own houses while remaining used to live on rented house. The electricity facility reveals that 26 percent of migrant households did not have any access to electricity before migration, who uses kerosene lamp or lantern as the source of light. After migration, however, all the households have access to electricity. Water facility reveals that before migration, people use government hand pump or government water supply as a source of water while after migration, some of households have private access to water. Migration also had some positive impact on family asset of migrant households as the households have more assets in comparison to their previous location. It also revealed that after migration, 42 percent of migrant households purchase land in Lucknow city and almost all of them stayed in their own house. They are reported to have sold their native house because of improper maintenance and also in order to make a permanent settlement at Lucknow. So, this indicates that migrants were very much interested in investing on land in their destination place rather than investing on native place.

The analysis further shows a big difference between the monthly incomes of migrant workers before and after their migration. Before migration, 45 percent respondent households did not have any source of earnings. And, mostly migrants reported as they earned less than Rs. 5000 per month. However, after migration, all households earn above Rs. 5000 per month. 13 percent households reported to have earned more than Rs. 15000 per month. This shows a positive impact of migration on migrant workers as far as income change is concerned. Saving behavior of migrant households before and after migration shows that the savings of migrants has significantly increased after their migration because before migration they were unable to save much due to unemployment or low earning. And migrants having a saving bank account in

commercial banks had comparatively more after migration. The expenditure of the household shows that majority of the migrant households have spent in between Rs. 7501 to Rs. 22500 per month as the expenditure on house rent, electricity, education, travelling and other expenditures increased after migration. The study also analyzed the problems faced by migrants on residential related problems; some households reported problems with high rent and intolerance with landlord. Further some households also reported about the problems of drinking water and rise in family expenditures due to migration.

## CHAPTER 5

### Major Findings and Conclusion

#### 5: Conclusion

One important facet of study on population is the study of migration arising out of various social, economic and political reasons. For a large country like India, the study of movements of population in different parts of the country helps in understanding the dynamics of the society better. Migration is generally known as the movement of people from one residence to another permanently or temporarily for a substantial period of time. According to Census 2001, a person is considered a migrant, if birth place or place of last residence is different from the place of enumeration. The National Sample Survey Organisation of the Government of India defines migrant as a member of the sample household who had stayed continuously for at least six months or more in a place other than the place of enumeration. Migration can benefit poor people in developing countries whether it is individual or families as it leads to increase in income, lead to new skills, improve social status, build assets and improve quality of life. Labour migration is an important factor affecting the course of socio-economic development in India. Accelerated movement of people originating mainly from the rural and backward areas in search of employment has been one of the most important features of the labour market scenario in India. There has been a steady increase in the number of migrants in the country. The latest National Sample Survey report (2007-08) shows that internal migration in India has increased in the post reform era to 29 percent from 25 percent in 1993. And there is contrasting reasons for this current increase in the migration rate. On the one hand increasing unemployment, poverty, population pressure, environmental degradation, depletion of natural resources limits the livelihood options and may force people to migrate and at the same time urbanization, better employment and educational opportunities, changing occupational pattern, development of transport and communications are the new stimulus factor which facilitate spatial mobility.

The Introductory chapter reveals about the migration pattern in India. Since from the above literature in the introductory chapter reveals that there are differences exist between rural-urban employment patterns of migrant. In rural areas, agriculture sector become the major source of employment whereas in urban areas it is industrial and service sector. The increasing labour force participation of migrants in non-agricultural activities indicates that migrant worker preferred to join to such activities for higher remuneration. Besides, one may also state that there is flow of skilled labour to trade and commerce, manufacturing sector. The declining labour force participation of migrants in agriculture and other allied activities is an indication of economic growth and with economic growth; one would expect there is shift in employment from agriculture to other sectors.

The present study analyzes the trends and patterns of internal migration in India with special reference to the capital city of Uttar Pradesh (Lucknow) with the help of both primary and secondary data. The secondary data has been collected from the two major sources, i.e. National Sample Survey Organisation and Census of India and the primary data has been collected with the help of 100 different households of Lucknow who migrated from their origin place to Lucknow city. The main aim of the study has to focus on the changing pattern of migration in India after the post reform period and to analyze whether migrated people are benefitted or not. By identifying the reasons and analyzing the socio economic impact of migration in study region of Lucknow, it could identify policies for improving the socio-economic conditions of migrated people.

The second chapter of the present study is “Trends and Patterns of Interstate Migration in India”. The chapter analyses the interstate migration pattern in India by using the secondary data from National Sample Survey Organisation and other government reports. The major objective of this chapter is to examine the overall migration pattern in India which shows that there were four streams of migration in India as rural to urban, rural to rural, urban to rural and urban to urban but the trend of migration was in favor of rural to urban migration in India. Reasons for migration is also captured using NSSO data which reveals that the main reasons for migration are employment, studies, marriage, movements with earning members. The study shows that employment among male and marriage among female is the major reason for migration. The chapter analyzed by considering the net migration rate of 20 major states in India during both the NSS round i.e., 55<sup>th</sup> round (July 1999-June 2000) and 64<sup>th</sup> round (July 07-June 08), the share of

in-migrants was highest in the state of Maharashtra, Uttar Pradesh, West Bengal, Haryana, Madhya Pradesh and was lowest in the state of Assam, Bihar and Orissa. On the other hand, out-migrants was highest in the state of Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, Maharashtra, Rajasthan, Karnataka and out-migrants was lowest among the state of Assam, Orissa, Kerala and Haryana. The out-migration to abroad was highest among the state of Kerala, Tamil Nadu, Andhra Pradesh and Uttar Pradesh. The study further reveals that net migration rate was highest among the state of Haryana, Maharashtra, West Bengal, Punjab, Uttarakhand, Chhattisgarh and in Gujarat and lowest among the state of Bihar, Kerala and Uttar Pradesh. Further the result of analysis show that a gain in in-migrants over out-migrants was highest among the state of Maharashtra, Assam, West Bengal, Gujarat, Haryana, Punjab whereas Madhya Pradesh, Orissa, Rajasthan, Tamil Nadu and Uttar Pradesh are those states in which out-migrants are higher than in-migrants. The data thus, reveals that developed states have attracted larger migrants compared to less developed states.

The chapter also covers the migration rate by general education level which indicates that as the level of education rises the mobility of people also rises because the migration rate is increasing as increasing in the level of education of a person in both the rural and urban areas. It also covers the household migrants for 20 major states which depicted that the highest percentage of migration from rural areas is found in Himachal Pradesh, Gujarat and Kerala and in urban areas the highest percentage of migration is found in Gujarat, Kerala and Assam whereas the lowest percentage of migration from rural areas is found in Haryana, Jammu & Kashmir, Rajasthan, Madhya Pradesh, Uttar Pradesh and West Bengal; and lowest percentage of migration from urban areas was found in Madhya Pradesh, West Bengal and Jammu & Kashmir. The result also shows that the rate of migration has increased in the era of globalisation.

The chapter third of the study is “Socio-Economic Status of Migrant Households”. The present chapter is based on primary data. 100 samples are collected from the migrant households who migrated from their place of origin to Lucknow. In this chapter, socio-economic status of surveyed households of migrant people has been analyzed by taking into consideration the educational qualification, health status, family size, educational status of household’s children, housing status, agricultural landholding size and monthly income of migrant households. The chapter also considered the origin of migration, i.e. from where the migrants originally belongs

or from where the persons migrated to the capital city of Uttar Pradesh (Lucknow) and the results shows that most of the migrants belongs to the nearby city of Lucknow i.e. from Unnao, Raebareli, Hardoi, Sitapur, Kanpur, Barabanki, etc. After that the chapter analyzes the demographic profile of migrant households where educational status shows that majority of the migrants population belong to primary level and higher secondary level and very few of them are graduated. The educational status of household's children after migration or at present shows that majority of the households sent their children to private school for better educational facilities whereas in the case of hospital, majority of people would like to prefer government hospital for their family treatment as for them it is difficult to bear private hospital's expenses. It indicates that after migration, these household wants their children to study better. As far as housing status is concerned the study shows that after migration very few of migrant households are capable to purchase their own houses at the capital city while remaining use to live on rented house. The study finds that most of migrants sold out their lands after their migration because of improper maintenance, while, on the other side, some of them are still maintaining their agricultural lands in their native places with the help of their family members.

The last or fourth chapter of this research study is entitled as "Socio-Economic Impact of Migration", the chapter aim is to points out the impact of migration on migrants and their families by comparing the previous and present status of migrant households. The result of the analysis reveals that before migration majority of respondents were unemployed and among employed, a major proportion of them were agricultural labourers in their natives and they were pushed out of their natives due to lack of continuous unemployment and unviable land size which indicates that employment or better employment opportunities are the main factor of migration to the study area i.e. Lucknow. Family conflicts and big family size were also significantly influenced the migration decision of the respondents. Further the result of the analysis reveals that 42 percent of migrants purchase land in Lucknow city after their migration and after purchasing of land, they wanted to build their own house in which 36 percent are able to build their own. This indicates that migrants were very much interested in investing on land/plot in their destination place rather than investing on their origin place.

The analysis further shows the big differences between the monthly income of individual migrant workers before their migration and after their migration as majority of the migrants are

unemployed before their migration and those who employed earned less than 5000 rupees per month while after migration, majority of people earned in between 5000-15000 rupees per month, which shows a positive impact of migration on migrants worker and on their families. In other words, condition of migrants became much better than that of before migration, as far as their income earning is concerned. And when we talk about the savings, the saving behavior of migrant households before and after migration shows that the savings of migrants is significantly increased after their migration because before migration they were unable to save much due to unemployment or low earning. And migrants having saving bank account in commercial banks had comparatively more after migration.

Social Networking after migration reveals that most of the migrants maintained their contact with their native place; they use to visit their native place twice in a year; once in a year or once in a two year. The major reason for their visit is to meet their parents, friends and relatives and some other reasons are to look after their native house or to attend some kind of social ceremonies at their native place. The analysis also reveals that migrants also faces some kind of problems after their migration as problem related to locality; related to safe drinking water; problem related to expenses in new locality. Migrants, who are in rented accommodation spent more on rent, this is due to the fact that the destination place is lacking in providing adequate housing, so they have to pay more rents for even a small house. The migrant's expenditure on electricity, on education and other expenditure also increased after their migration. Some of the migrants frequently visited to their native places and some of them had to travel for their working places, so the expenditure towards travelling also increased after migration. Overall, the migrants are better off in their new localities in terms of income, employment, education and health. Therefore, there is a need of more job recreation in the urban areas so that rural unemployed could find some gainful employment.

## **5.1: Recommendations:**

- ❖ Balance development is required in both rural and urban areas in the state.
- ❖ Appropriate policy measures are to be undertaken to augment productivity in the agricultural sector. The agricultural labourers have to be provided with financial assistance at subsidized rate of interest to make them efficient and self-employed.
- ❖ There is a need to generate employment opportunity in the villages. Development of small and cottage industries in the rural areas, promotion and protection of traditional artisan works and handicraft will also create employment opportunities in the villages. Rural youth need to be trained so they do not face problems in getting a gainful employment in both rural and urban areas of the study.
- ❖ Government should finance rural people to start cottage industries in their areas. Further, the government should also take appropriate steps to see that the products of the cottage industry shall be marketed through its agencies from the rural area.
- ❖ There must be provision for alternative non-agricultural employment opportunities in the rural sector. Employment generating activities should be introduced in the off season periods.
- ❖ Effective and extensive implementation of government measures for creating employment for rural people like Jawahar Gram Samridhi Yojana, Swarnajayanthi Gram Swarozgar Yojana, Mahatama Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Programme; this will also prove helpful in the reduction of migration by creating additional employment opportunity for the perspective migrants. The NGO's through promoting SHG's can also work in this direction.
- ❖ In urban areas also, there is a need of creation of additional job opportunities in both industrial and service sector through adequate government investment.

## **5.2: Limitations:**

Analysis of the study is mostly based on sample observation and descriptive statistics. The sample size of the study is too small to generalise the overall results.

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