

**A STUDY ON RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN NET MIGRATION AND
MACRO ECONOMIC VARIABLES IN INDIA**

BY

HARINLS

(20PEC004)

**A DISSERTATION SUBMITTED TO
AVINASHILINGAM INSTITUTE FOR HOME SCIENCE AND
HIGHER EDUCATION FOR WOMEN
COIMBATORE-641 043**

**IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENT FOR THE DEGREE OF
MASTER OF ARTS IN ECONOMICS**

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S. [Signature] 17.05.2022
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CHAPTER – I

INTRODUCTION

Migration (human) is the movement of people from their place of birth to another region, sometimes, across political boundaries, for taking up permanent or semi-permanent residence. When the movement is across national boundaries, it is termed as emigration and within national boundaries it remains migration. In India, we see farm labourers, who come to cities to earn extra income during non-farming time and go back to the villages during farming times. These are seasonal migrants who would have ‘semi-permanent residence’. Generally, there are two types of migration, i.e. temporary and permanent.

Temporary migration includes annual, seasonal or even daily movements of the population between two areas. It is also called ‘commutation’. When people move from one place to another to reside permanently, it is known as permanent migration. People can either opt to move (voluntary migration) or be coerced to move (involuntary migration). Migration should not just be looked at as a simple movement of people across boundaries, but it should be looked as a much more complex issue that involves development, security and other social issues.

Migration has been found throughout human history, beginning with the movements of the first human groups from their origins in East Africa to their current location in the world. Migration takes place at a variety of scales: interregional, intra-continental and intercontinental. One of the most important migration patterns has been rural to urban migration—the movement of people from the village to towns and cities in search of better job opportunities. In some cases, it occurs as stepwise migration means the population moves from the countryside to small towns and then to a bigger city.

Migration occurs due to ‘pull’ factors and ‘push’ factors. Some ‘push’ factors are unemployment, poverty, social insecurity, political instability and ethnic conflicts. On the other hand, movement of people owing to a number of attractions offered by a

city is interpreted as migration due to 'pull' factors. Consequently, people move out of villages due to 'pull' factors—such as better opportunities for employment, education, recreation, healthcare facilities, business, etc. outside villages.

Migration is a global phenomenon caused not only by economic factors but many other factors like social, political, cultural, environmental, health, education are included under the broader classification of Push and Pull factors of migration:

'Pull' and 'Push' Factors

Two principle factors- push and pull are responsible for migration. The push factors are poverty, lack of work opportunities, unemployment and underdevelopment, poor economic condition, lack of opportunities, exhaustion of natural resources and natural calamities, scarcity of cultivated land, inequitable land distribution, low agricultural productivity etc., Pull factors attract migrant to an area (area of destination), like, employment and higher education opportunities, higher wages facilities, better working condition. Millions of people migrated from their far-off villages to the big cities of Kolkata, Mumbai or Delhi. The appalling living conditions like slums, lack of safe water, absence of sanitation, overcrowding with the attendant increase in crime, insecurity for women, sexual abuse and exposure to frequent epidemics and AIDs are the immediate outcome of this population shift.

FACTORS OF MIGRATION

The important factors which motivate people to move can be classified into five categories. They are economic factors, demographic factors, socio-cultural factors, political factors and miscellaneous factors.

(i) Economic Factors

Most of the studies indicate that migration is primarily motivated by economic factors. In developing countries, low agricultural income, agricultural unemployment and underemployment are considered basic factors pushing the migrants towards developed

area with greater job opportunities. Thus, almost all studies concur that most of migrants have moved in search of better economic opportunities. The basic economic factors which motivate migration may be further classified as 'Push Factors' and 'Pull Factors'.

The push factors are factors that compel a person, due to different reasons, to leave that place and go to some other place. The common push factors are low productivity, unemployment and underdevelopment, poor economic conditions, lack of opportunities for advancement, exhaustion of natural resources and natural calamities. Introduction of capital intensive methods of production into agricultural sector, and mechanization of certain processes reduce labour requirement in rural areas. The non-availability of alternative sources of income in rural area is also important factor for migration.

The Pull Factors are factors which attract the migrants to an area. Opportunities for better employment, higher wages, facilities, better working conditions and attractive amenities are pull factors of an area.

(ii) Demographic Factor

The differences in the population growth rates of the different regions of a nation have been found to be a determinant in the internal migration. Fertility and the natural increase in population are generally higher in rural areas which drift the population towards the city. Other important demographic factor in internal migration is marriage because females are used to follow their spouses.

(iii) Socio-cultural Factors

Social and cultural factors also an important role in migration. Sometimes family conflicts, the quest for independence, also cause migration especially, of those in the younger generation. Improved communication facilities, such as, transportation, impact of television, good network communication, the cinema, the urban oriented education and resultant change in attitudes and values also promote migration.

(iv) Political Factors

Sometimes even political factors encourage or discourage migration from region to another. After 1948, most of rural people migrated to urban because of safety in Myanmar. Hence, the political background, attitudes and individual viewpoint of the people influenced on the migration of people.

(v) Miscellaneous Factors

Other factors such as the presence of relatives and friends in urban areas, desire to receive education which is available only in urban areas are factors responsible for migration. Closeness of cultural contacts, cultural diversity, great vitality, individual attitudes are also associated with migration.

THEORIES OF MIGRATION:

a) Neoclassical Theory of Migration

The neoclassical theory of migration is among the most influential theory of migration. The theory posits that wages differentials and employment conditions between countries as well as on migration costs are factors causing migration. According to this theory intending migrants estimate the benefits and costs of migrating before making such decisions; hence migration occurs if their expected return (ER) is positive (Arango, 2000). “This theory of migration is based on familiar tenets like rational choice, utility maximisation, expected net returns, factor mobility, wage differentials and the fact that migration results from the uneven geographical distribution of labour and capital.” (Arango, 2002).

According to this theory, workers usually move from countries with abundance of labour and low wages to others that are labour-scarce with higher wages. Hence the principal motivation for migration is the increased welfare that individuals receive from higher labour income or wages. However, the neoclassical theory of migration is argued to suppress the role of non-economic factors which to a large extent play a deterministic

role in an individual migrant's decision to leave his home country (Arango, 2002). The theory has failed to explain why few people move in view of existing and very large income gaps across countries. One would expect that massive movement of labour would be migrating across countries (that have scarce labour) with new information or the perception of higher returns on labour, but the reality is that existing barriers such as obtaining travel permits, visas and other documents which intending migrants must have, limit the degree of such exchange of labour across countries (labour immobility).

b) Dual Labour Market Migration Theory

The dual labour market theory is another important theory applicable to migration. The theory links immigration to the structural requirements of modern industrial societies. The theory states that international migration is largely demand based and is initiated by recruitment on the part of employers in developed societies or by government acting on their behalf; migration is driven by an increasing demand for "cheap" labour. The dual labour market theory pays more attention to the receiving end of migration in the destination countries or regions (Arango, 2000). Motivated to make it in a foreign land, an immigrant accepts relatively low pay and is willing to endure just a little more hardship than natives, to the advantage of profit-motivated employers who gain from cheaper labour. The theory presumes that more developed economies require foreign workers to take up jobs, which local workers have refused (Arango, 2004, cited in Lucas, 2006).

The theory, according to Arango (2002) does not principally provide general explanations of the factors affecting migration, but points that international migration occurs as a structural demand for foreign workers present in the economic structure of more developed economies. The theory explains only a part of reality, since it suggests that international migration is driven by demand and does not take into account the push factors from sending countries, so it is a one-sided theory. Migration in present times does not result primarily from recruitment practices, as migrants largely come based on their own planning and decision making, not necessarily to occupy existing jobs or openings in the labour market of the destination country.

In summary, the neoclassical theory emphasized the role of economic factors as a major cause of migration. The dual labour market theory states that the pull factors in receiving countries such as the chronic need for foreign workers that more advanced destination countries have are more significant in explaining the causes of international migration. It accords less significance to the push factors in source countries. However, all the above mentioned theories do not denied the fact that migrants play an important role to economic growth and development of many countries in the World. International migration transmits to growth through the provision of labour services, which is essential factor in the production process, that may resulted into increase income, and consequently rise in the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) of not only the host country, but even the migrant's own country, through remittances and job opportunities they can create.

IMPACT OF MIGRATION

1. Positive Impact

- **Labour Demand and Supply:** Migration fills gaps in demand for and supply of labor, efficiently allocates skilled labor, unskilled labor, and cheap labor.
- **Economic Remittances:** Economic wellbeing of migrants provides insurance against risks to households in the areas of origin, increases consumer expenditure and investment in health, education and assets formation.
- **Skill Development:** Migration enhances the knowledge and skills of migrants through exposure and interaction with the outside world.
- **Quality of Life:** Migration enhances chances of employment and economic prosperity which in turn improves quality of life. The migrants also send extra income and remittance back home, thereby positively impacting their native place.
- **Social Remittances:** Migration helps to improve the social life of migrants, as they learn about new cultures, customs, and languages

which helps to improve brotherhood among people and ensures greater equality and tolerance.

- **Food and Nutrition Security:** According to the 2018 State of Food and Agriculture report by Food and Agriculture Organisation (FAO), outmigration often leads to improved food and nutrition security for migrants.
- **Demographic Advantage:** As a result of outmigration, the population density of the place of origin is reduced and the birth rate decreases.
- **Climate Change Adaptive Mechanism:** Migration has also emerged as a possible adaptive mechanism in the context of climate change and the occurrence of extreme weather events like floods, droughts, and cyclones.

2. Negative Impact

- **Demographic Profile:** Emigration in large numbers can alter demographic profiles of communities, as most of the young men move out, leaving only the women and elderly to work on the land.
- **Political Exclusion:** Migrant workers are deprived of many opportunities to exercise their political rights like the right to vote.
- **Population Explosion and the Influx** of workers in the place of destination increases competition for the job, houses, school facilities etc and a large population puts too much pressure on natural resources, amenities, and services.
- **Illiterate and Under skilled Migrants** are not only unfit for most jobs, because of a lack of basic knowledge and life skills but are also prone to the victimization of **exploitation, trafficking, psychological abuse**, and gender-based violence in the case of female migrants.
- **Increased Slum:** Mass Migration results into an increase in slum areas, compromising quality of infrastructure and life at the

destination, which further translates into many other problems such as unhygienic conditions, crime, pollution, etc.

- **Brain Drain:** Source state suffers from the loss of human capital.

Migration of human being in search of livelihood options is a common phenomenon. Migration is the movement of the people from one place of residence to another for some length of time or permanently including different types of voluntary movements. It has great effects on social, economic, cultural and on the psychological life of people, both at the place of in-migration as well as of out-migration (Kaur, 2003) in India the labour migration is mostly influenced by social structures and pattern of development in general.

Uneven development is the main reason behind migration. Factors like: unemployment, low wages at the origin, agricultural failure, poor industrial support, and poverty, lack of employment opportunities in the origin, large family- size and natural disasters also cause migration. The higher land ratio, free-for- all caste system and exploitation at the native place to speed up the breakdown of traditional socio – economic relations in the rural areas make people decide to migrate to the relatively improved areas make people decide to migrate to the relatively improved areas in search of better employment and income. Diversification of economy and increased land productivity in certain areas, rapid improvement in the means transport and communication, improvement in education, increased population pressure and zeal for improving living added momentum to the mobility of population in India.

Migration has been as a response of individuals to better their economic and non-economic opportunities as well as an expectation of increased economics welfare in the areas (Mazumdar, 1987). According to Mazumdar, factors that “push individuals from areas into cities include the expectation that the pressure of population in rural areas has nearly exhausted all margins of cultivation, thus pushing hopeless people towards a new life in the cities with a mere expectation of subsistence living. On the hand, the pull hypothesis emphasizes the

attractiveness of the urban life and the rural-urban wage gap. In particular, Todaro (1969) and Harris - Todaro (1970) developed probabilistic models, wherein they describe migrants are attracted to the cities with the expectation of a higher wage than they receive in agriculture, and are willing to accept the probability of urban unemployment, or lower wages and “underemployment” in the urban informal (traditional) sector. According to Todaro (1969), the migrant is willing to accept urban unemployment or lower wages and the urban informal sector as long as he expects graduate to be urban modern sector in the future. That is in the rural areas, sluggish agriculture growth and limited development of the rural non-farm sector raises the incidence of rural poverty, unemployment and underemployment. Given the fact that most of the high productivity activities are located in the urban areas, the rural-urban income differentials, particularly for the poor and unemployed, are enormous. Thus, many of them migrate to the urban areas in search jobs. Even when jobs in the high productivity activities are limited in number relative to the supply, and often they are not accessible, population still migrate to the urban areas in search of opportunities in the informal sector’.

Migration can be considered as a significant feature of livelihoods in developing countries to pursuit better living standards. Central to the understanding of rural-urban migration flow is the traditional push-pull factors. Push factors refers to circumstances at home that repel; example include famine, drought, low agricultural productivity, unemployment etc. while “pull factor refers to those conditions found elsewhere (abroad) that attract migrants. There are many factors that causes voluntary rural-urban migration, such as urban job opportunities, housing conditions, better income opportunities etc. there is no doubt that, apart from these factors, urban areas also offer a chance to enjoy a better lifestyle.

For some decades, various disciplinary and multi-disciplinary approaches have been trying to analyze and provide fundamental understanding for the phenomenon of migration. There are multitudes of theoretical as well as empirical

studies, which are concerned with characteristics, determinants and impact of migration both of international and of internal levels.

In general, the model underlined that the migrants would reach on the decision to migrate by taking the probability of unemployment in the destination areas. The migrants could migrate, though their current income in place of origin is higher than in place of destination. This is because the migrant's expectation for a better wage that would be able to compensate past losses in the long run (Todaro and Smith, 2003). In 1977, Brown and Neuberger as cited in Kasha (2000:11) hypothesized that some migrants are primarily "pushed" out of a place of residence by combination of unfavorable forces that made continued residence there undesirable. Others are induced to leave their residence ("pulled" out) by attractive situations in other locations. Similarly, Bekure (1984:608) stated that "migration took place when conditions in the areas of origin became intolerable or when the destination appeared attractive".

Assuming potential migrants indeed responds to the urban employment probability and treating rural-urban migration primarily as an economic phenomenon, the Harris-Todaro model then demonstrates that, in certain parametric ranges, an increase in urban employment may actually result in higher levels of urban unemployment and even reduced national product (the Todaro paradox). In the Harris-Todaro model migration was regarded as an adjustment mechanism by which workers allocate themselves between different labor markets, some of which are located in urban areas and some in rural areas, while attempting to maximize their expected incomes.

Understanding the role of migration in economic development has long been a focus of the development literature (Lewis, 1954; Fei and Ranis, 1964) whereas initial theories effectively suggested that migration took place primarily so that migrants could obtain higher returns to their human capital, more recent theory suggests that migration may also arise as part of a household strategy to overcome other constraints (Lucas and Stark, 1985). Such constraints can include

credit constraints, liquidity constraints, or a lack of insurance against risk. In such an environment, household participation in migration arises so that it can make investment in its farm or non-farm income generating activities. In either case, consistent with persistent, higher returns to human capital outside of agriculture (e.g. Gollin, 2014), migration should be poverty reducing both through increased returns to labor for the migrant and through investment in production by the source household.

Human migration is one of the most challenging issues facing the world today. Several human sciences study migration, but the nature of their interest differs considerably. Migration plays an important role in determining the economic status of most developing countries in the World.

In recent years, migration has taken centre stage in the political discourse in many countries, especially advanced economies. Opinion surveys indicate that in main destination countries (for example, Germany, United Kingdom, United States), a majority of the public has a positive view of immigration (Pew Research Center 2019). However, there are also misconceptions and concerns about migration among local populations. A common misconception is that the number of immigrants is twice as high as it is in reality (Alesina, Stantcheva, and Miano 2019). Concerns include higher competition for jobs in segments of the local labor market, higher demand for public services, potential strains on public finances, and a perceived threat to the native cultural identity and social cohesion. Migration raises a vast and multifaceted array of macroeconomic issues. In this study an attempt was made to assess the “Relationship between net migration and macro-economic variables” with the following objectives.

Objectives:

- To examine trends in net migration and macro economic variables in India
- To assess the relationship between net migration and macro – economic variables

CHAPTER – II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The review of literature relating to the “Relationship between migration and macro-economic variables” is discussed under the following headings:

- I. Trends and Patterns in Migration
- II. Relationship among Unemployment, Economic Growth and Migration
- III. Other Related Studies

I. TRENDS AND PATTERNS IN MIGRATION

Jonathan Coppel (2001) in his study on “Trends in Immigration and Economic Consequences” reviewed immigration trends and their economic impacts in a number of OECD countries. The study also considers the economic, fiscal and social implications of immigration. The study suggested that immigration can confer small net gains to the host country. However, the benefits are not necessarily evenly distributed and some groups, in particular those whose labour is substitutable with immigrants may lose, calling for a smooth working of labour and product markets in OECD countries. The paper also claims that, while migration can partly offset slower growing or declining OECD populations, it cannot provide by itself a solution to the budgetary implications of ageing populations.

Edward Feser (2003) examined the spatial extent and temporal persistence of U.S. economic distress as viewed by three different indicators: unemployment, low income, and out-migration-induced population decline. The authors addressed the practical and theoretical issues associated with out-migration-induced population decline as a type of economic distress and comment on the development priorities implied by each of the three indicators.

Sarah Goodall (2004) studied the rural-to-urban migration of nomadic pastoralists in the western Himalayan region of Ladakh. In the study, It was argued that policy to address urban growth in Ladakh must be informed by the empirical evidence of micro-

level studies. The paper draws on secondary and aggregate sources of population data, in addition to quantitative and qualitative primary data collected among migrant and non-migrant households from 3 nomadic pastoral communities in Ladakh.

Adama Konseiga (2005) in his paper presented a historical and descriptive overview of the migration phenomenon in West Africa, while paying particular attention to Burkina Faso and Côte d'Ivoire. The study concludes that inter-regional mobility remains the most efficient mechanism to reduce inequalities and foster growth. Therefore the study recommended maintaining a sustainable level of free movement of people.

Thurston Domina (2006) analysed recent trends in metropolitan / non metro-politan migration. It demonstrates that highly educated nonmetropolitan youth are leading contemporary nonmetropolitan outmigration. Contrary to the clean break theory, this paper argues that economic incentives continue to be relevant to current nonmetropolitan/metropolitan migration patterns.

Clark (2008) in this paper "Modeling Out-Migration from Depressed Regions the Significance of Origin and Destination Characteristics" it is hypothesized that the actual out-migration decision process has two separate but interrelated stages—the decision to leave and the decision as to the destination. A two-stage estimation procedure was used to analyse the significance of origin characteristics as determinants of out-migration, and the factors that allocate migrants to particular destinations. The model was applied to understanding the patterns and determinants of out-migration from a depressed region, the Central Appalachians of the United States of America. Time-series and cross-sectional models were utilized to evaluate the hypothesized two-stage process over the period 1958–1975.

Jalal Ad-din (2009) examined the main trends of various models of international migration for the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, and places emphasis on the volume and direction of various models of migration at present. Permanent migration, illegal migration in search of work and compulsory migration (refugees) were discussed in some detail with reference to the occasional difficulty of distinguishing between the

various types of migration. When discussing the volume and sources of migration, the study indicates some of its motives and implications at origin and at destination and presents some of the future prospects and major factors that contribute to the continuation of the flow of the different types of migration.

Pyong Gap Min (2011) reviewed changes in patterns of Koreans' immigration to the United States between 1965 and 2009 based on annual statistical reports by the immigration office. This review captured changes in the annual number of Korean immigrants, their immigration mechanisms and occupational characteristics, and the proportion of status adjusters. The annual number of Korean immigrants gradually increased for the first ten years, reached the peak between 1976 and 1990, gradually decreased in the 1990s, and slightly increased in the 2000s again. At the end of the 1960s and early 1970s, professionals, especially medical professionals, composed a significant proportion of Korean immigrants. The proportion of Korean immigrants in specialty occupations declined in the late 1970s and early 1980, with a concomitant increase in the proportion of family-based immigrants. But the trend reversed beginning in the early 1990s, with the gradual increase in the proportion of Korean specialty immigrants and the radical decrease in the proportion of family-based immigrants. The predominant majority of Korean immigrants during recent years are status adjusters. The presence of an increasing number of non-immigrant temporary residents in the Korean community, along with great technological advances, has helped Korean residents maintain strong transnational ties to their homeland.

Cris Beauchemin (2011) assessed rural – urban migration in West Africa. Although Africa is still the continent with the highest urban growth in the world, this paper shows that, in some African countries, rural outmigration is tending now to decrease, or at least to stagnate, while urban outmigration was on the rise. Results were based on a proposed method to build a history of migration using retrospective data from national migration surveys.

Nandan Kumar (2012) examined the causes and consequences of outmigration from Bihar. The study revealed that heavy flow of out-migrants from Bihar has always

been a part of scholar's interest, as it became a metaphor of out-migration led by underdevelopment and poverty. The violent reaction of the political class and host community to Bihari migrants has further accelerated the debate on different issues related to outmigration from the state. Bihari migrants are facing increasing hostility from political class but the ongoing policy of urban planning, which is flipped towards the richer section of urban residents and is also increasing difficulty to survival of poor migrants. In this scenario, it is important to understand the actual pattern of out-migration and its importance for the community of origin. Migration is an intrinsic part of process of development. It illustrates a dynamic link between both area of origin and destination. Migration operates within the framework of social, cultural, economic, and institutional conditions at both the sending and receiving ends and it plays an important role to alter the conditions of the entire space within which this processes operate (de Haas, 2008). Migration is often rationalized as an outcome of asymmetry of development between area of origin and destination. However, there is complete disagreement regarding the outcome of migration at area of origin (de Haan, 2000). The developmentalist views argue that with flow of migration, counterflows of capital (remittances and investment) and knowledge are also generated to area of origin, which can be invested and are believed to subsequently stimulate development and modernization. Pessimist view believes that in the capitalist system, the process out-migrants from area of origin is a part of the larger process of draining away of resources from an underdeveloped region to developing region. The heaping of resources from periphery (underdeveloped region) to core (developing region), further accentuate in development of under-development at periphery (Hagen-Zanker 2008). The recent literatures on out-migration however don't rule out the relationship between core and periphery on entire development space, but it emphasize on the critical role of remittance in the process of development at periphery (McCdowell and de Haan 1997).

Charles Hirschman (2014) in his study on "Immigration to the United States: Recent Trends and Future Prospects" found that almost 13 per cent of the American population is foreign born, and if the children of the foreign born are included, about 1 in 4 Americans can be counted as part of the recent immigrant community. Although there

is lingering prejudice and popular fears of immigrants, there is growing evidence that, on balance, immigrants make a positive contribution to the American economy and society. There is little evidence that immigrants have an adverse impact on the wages and employment of native born Americans. Moreover, immigrants and their children are disproportionately represented in a broad variety of scientific and cultural fields.

Mecklenburg County (2014) examined population trends among the foreign- and native-born at the county level. The study observed that over the past 25 years, the total immigrant population had increased and spread across the country. In 1990, the foreign-born population was 19.7 million or 7.9 percent of the U.S. total, with nearly 3 out of 4 immigrants (73 percent) living in either California, Florida, Illinois, New Jersey, New York, or Texas.² By 2010, approximately 40 million immigrants made up 13 percent of the overall population, and the proportion of immigrants residing in the six leading states dropped to 65 percent. Over that same time, other states including Nevada, North Carolina, and Washington experienced large growth in their foreign-born populations. An examination of county-level demographic data revealed how immigrants affected population change in specific regions of the country between 1990 and 2012. While the native- and foreign-born populations both grew across most of the United States during that period, there are some areas where the native-born population decreased.

Amitabh Kundu (2015) in his paper overviewed urbanisation and migration process in Asian countries at macro level since 1950s, including the projections made till 2030. It questions the thesis of southward movement of urbanisation and that of urban explosion in Asia. Increased unaffordability of urban space and basic amenities, negative policy perspective towards migration and various rural development programmes designed to discourage migration are responsible for this exclusionary urban growth and a distinct decline in urban rural growth differential, with the major exception of China. The changing structure of urban population across different size categories reveals a shift of growth dynamics from large to second order cities and stagnation of small towns. The pace of urbanization has been modest to high in select countries in Asia, not because of their level of economic growth but its composition and labour intensity of rapidly growing informal sectors. Several countries have launched programmes for improving

governance and infrastructural facilities in a few large cities, attracting private investors from within as well as outside the country. These have pushed out squatter settlements, informal sector businesses along with a large number of pollutant industries to a few pockets and peripheries of the cities. The income level and quality of basic amenities in these cities, as a result, have gone up but that has been associated with increased intra-city disparity and creation of degenerated periphery. Nonetheless, there is no strong evidence that urbanization is associated with destabilization of agrarian economy, poverty and immiserisation, despite the measures of globalization resulting in regional imbalances. The study suggested that the pace of urbanization would be reasonably high but much below the level projected by UNPD in the coming decades.

Biao Xiang (2015) examined patterns of out-migration in China. The study observed that the number of international migrants from China (excluding Hong Kong, Taiwan and Macau) increased from 4.1 million in 1990, to 5.5 million in 2000 and 9.3 million in 2013. China is now the fourth largest source country representing 4 per cent of the world's migrants, moving up from 2.6 per cent in 1990 where it was seventh. But the increase is not evenly distributed across all types of migration. The percentage of Chinese who migrate to the developed world (Europe, North America, Australia and New Zealand, Japan) increased from 53.4 per cent in 1990 to 58.6 per cent in 2013, while the share going to the developing world decreased from 46.6 to 41.4 per cent during the same period.

Hein De Has (2016) explored the evolution and drivers of migration within, towards and from Africa in the post-colonial period. Contradicting common ideas of Africa as a 'continent on the move', the analysis shows that intra-African migration intensities have gone down. This may be related to state formation and the related imposition of barriers towards free movement in the wake of decolonization as well as the concomitant rise of nationalism and inter-state tensions. While African migration remains overwhelmingly intra-continental, since the late 1980s there has been an acceleration and spatial diversification (beyond colonial patterns) of emigration out of Africa to Europe, North America, the Gulf and Asia. This diversification of African emigration seems partly driven by the introduction of visa and other immigration

restrictions by European states. Contradicting conventional interpretations of African migration being essentially driven by poverty, violence and underdevelopment, increasing migration out of Africa seems rather to be driven by processes of development and social transformation which have increased Africans' capabilities and aspirations to migrate, a trend which is likely to continue in the future.

Barry Edmonston (2016) in study "Canadian Immigration Trends and Patterns" observed that Canada was settled by immigrants, including Aboriginal peoples who arrived thousands of years ago, French and British settlers who first began arriving in the 1600s, and people from many other nations who have migrated in the past four centuries. Now, almost 150 years since the Confederation of Canada in 1867, immigrants numbered 6.8 million and comprised 20 per cent of the total population in 2011. Canada's population has completed the demographic transition from high mortality and fertility to relatively low vital rates, accompanied by continued, fluctuating international migration. Canada's population reflects this fertility and mortality history, as well as the effects of international migration. Immigration has increased in significance in recent decades as one of the key factors influencing population change.

Giuseppe and Jonathan Portes (2017) examined the determinants of long-term international migration to the UK; and also the study explored the extent to which migration is driven by macroeconomic variables (GDP per capita, unemployment rate) as well as law and policy (the existence of "free movement" rights for EEA nationals). The study found that a very large impact from free movement within the EEA and macroeconomic variables –UK GDP growth and GDP at origin – were significant drivers of migration flows; evidence for the impact of the unemployment rate in countries of origin, or of the exchange rate, however, was weak.

Jamal Bouoiyour (2016) in his study examined the economic impact of migrant's remittances. The results revealed that prior to the Arab Spring; the impacts of remittances on growth and consumption seem negative and positive respectively, while they varyingly influence local investment. These three relationships held in the short-run. By considering the period surrounding the 2011 uprisings, the investment effect of

remittances becomes negative and weak in the short- and medium-run, whereas positive and strong remittances' impacts on growth and consumption are found in the long term.

Abhay Kumar (2018) identified the trends and patterns of migration over the period 2001–2011 from BIHAR. The study was based on secondary data sources of Migration Table (D Series), Census of India, Government of India. The study indicates that during the period 2001–2011, the socio-economic conditions of people had improved due to remittances earned by the migrants. Further, migration is becoming more and more crucial towards improving socio-economic development of poor areas of Bihar. Bihar had a high rate of out-migration particularly the male out migration rate had increased over the decade and it can be observed in both rural areas and urban areas.

Bhagwati Joshi (2018) assessed the Recent Trends of Rural Out-Migration and Its Socio-Economic and Environmental Impacts in Uttarakhand, Himalaya. The study observed that the increasing trends of male out-migration not only provided stability to rural economy in terms of income through remittance, but also marginally improved women's access to education, local institutions, resources, development opportunities, grass-root leadership, natural resource management and growing market from local to global level. These changes are not only contributing towards social, economic and political empowerment and main-streaming of rural women, but also providing them with the opportunities to involve in decision making process from family to village levels.

Yi Yu (2020) investigated how regional land use patterns have been changed in the context of rural outmigration and assessed the resulting dynamics on local ecological environment in Southwest China. The study found that the local land conversion process was mainly characterised by the conversion of farmland (–18.3%) to residential area (+268.3%) and woodland (+55.6%) during 2000–2018; (2) about 83.7% of area showed a statistically significant increase in the normalised difference vegetation index (NDVI), which was not due to human interference factors (e.g., afforestation). Correlation analyses showed that depopulation ($R = -0.514$, $p < 0.01$) and local mild temperature ($R = 0.505$, $p < 0.01$) could be the main contributors. Only 2.5% of the area had decreased NDVI and this was directly caused by human activities (e.g., urban area expansion).

These results implied that vegetation improvement can occur in the context of depopulation and farmland reduction, which did not significantly threaten the local agricultural sector.

Juan Parreño-Castellano (2021) in his study on “Mapping foreign immigration in Spain” aimed to contribute a clear spatial representation of migrants in Spain by combining statistical and mapping methods. Maps showing the rate of variation of immigrant populations point to the existence of an uneven distribution around Spain, during both the period of economic growth and the years when migratory flows waned. On the other hand, the immigrant clusters show that certain geographic areas in Spain attract specific groups; the extent of their presence can be seen on density maps based on location coefficients.

II. RELATIONSHIP AMONG UNEMPLOYMENT, ECONOMIC GROWTH AND MIGRATION:

Oberai, Manmohan Singh (2004) investigated the interaction between migration and the urban labor market in an India. They found no evidence that migrants were confined to marginal employment or contribute disproportionately to urban underemployment.

Kulkolkarn and Potipiti (2007) analysed the relationship between migration, wages and unemployment with the help of the least squares method in Thailand for the period 2001-2005. In their study, the authors found that there was no statistically significant relationship between migration & wages and there was a statistically significant relationship between migration and unemployment. They concluded that migration affected unemployment negatively.

Leblang et al., (2007) analysed the major determinants of migration flows for the period 1985-2004. The study reveals that there was positive relationship between immigrant stock in the migratory countries and migration flows to those countries, a negative relationship between migratory flows and countries with no geographical and / or colonial backgrounds, a negative relationship between average wage in the migratory

country was higher than that of the immigrant country and immigration flows and high unemployment in countries receiving migration.

Islam (2007) analyzed the relationship between immigration and unemployment in Canada with the help of causality and co - integration tests using data from quarterly unemployment rate and immigration rate in Canada over the period of (1961: 1-2002: 1). In his study, the author concluded that causality between migration and unemployment and long-term migration had no effect on unemployment. However, in the long term, per capita GDP was positively related to migration and real wages. The results of the study indicates that, in the short-run, more immigration is possibly associated with attractive Canadian immigration policies, and in the long-run, as the labour market adjusts, Canadian born workers are likely to benefit from increased migration.

Ahmad et al., (2008) tested the determinants of international migration in Pakistan using time series analysis in 1973 - 2005 periods. They concluded that the migration from Pakistan had a positive relationship with inflation and unemployment rates in the country and that the real wage level and migration had a negative relationship. They also stated that international migration was positively influenced by the introduction of remittances.

Tariq Hussain (2009) examined the relationship between economic growth and unemployment in Pakistan. The study was aimed to test causal relationship between growth and unemployment, using time series data for Pakistan from 1972 to 2006. The study results show that there was long run relationship between growth and unemployment. For short run dynamics and causality, the study utilized Vector Error Correction Model (VECM). The result of VECM indicates that there was short and long run causal relation between growth and unemployment including capital, labor and human capital as explanatory variables.

Fleischmann and Dronkers (2010) investigated unemployment among immigrants in the labor market in Europe in the period of 2004-2005. The authors concluded that the rate of unemployment of migrants was higher in the places where the indigenous population was intense and where immigrants were in a minority.

Troshchenkov (2011) analysed the effect of migration on unemployment rates in Denmark using data from 2007 to 2009. The author stated that migration did not cause significant changes in unemployment rates.

Heid and Larch (2011) assessed the relationship between migration, trade and unemployment in 24 selected OECD countries with the help of fixed effects and predictors of dynamic effects using data from 1997 to 2007. They concluded that migration had a statistically significant negative impact on unemployment.

Boubtane et al., (2011) examined the relationship between migration, economic growth and unemployment with the help of panel causality test in 22 selected OECD countries. In their analysis, they concluded that migration in Portugal was the cause of negative migration that migration did not lead to unemployment in all other countries and that growth affected international migration positively.

Niranjan Roy (2011) assessed the impact of migration on economic development. In this paper the author made an attempt to investigate the impact of a variety of economic and noneconomic factors on net in migration and the impact of net migration on the level of economic development in fifteen major states of India. Using pooled cross section data for fifteen major states the study found that net migration was positively influenced by level of Per Capita Income and level of road infrastructure, and negatively influenced by unemployment rate and cost of living. The other variable, crime rate, had been found insignificant as a determinant of migration, indicating that people migrating from one state to other do not concern about risk of life, they were rather concerned about basic needs of life. Further, migration development relationship tested indicates that level of development was positively associated with net migration.

Mahmoud Alhabees (2012) evaluated the relationship between unemployment and economic growth in Jordan and some Arab countries. Unemployment is a negative phenomenon in any human society as it adversely affect in different dimensions and directions. In addition, it refers to an economic defect affecting the community structure. Thus, the economic and social dimensions of unemployment increase complexity,

consequently lead us to adopt several analyses to understand its nature and impact on the growth. The effects are verified by the presence of causal relation between rates of economic growth and the changing rates of unemployment prevailing in the economy. However, the theoretical analysis does not always confirm this relationship as it focuses on unemployment as economical phenomenon resulting from imbalance in the economic policies of a certain country. The theoretical analysis of unemployment reveals the size of labor employment as a human force associated with the extent of success factors related to economic growth. In this study, the author focused on the relationships between economic growth and change of unemployment rates in some Arab countries with detailed analysis for the case in Jordan. The effectiveness of economic policies aimed at reducing unemployment rates in those countries with average rates of economic growth.

Paolo Lucchino et al., (2012) examined the relationship between immigration and unemployment. The study contributes to the evidence on this issue by presenting initial results on the impact of migration inflows on the claimant count rate using previously unused data on National Insurance Number registrations of foreign nationals. The study reveals that there was no association between migrant inflows and claimant unemployment. In addition, the impact of migration on claimant unemployment varies according to the state of the economic cycle. They found no evidence of a more adverse during periods of low growth or the recent recession.

Fromentin (2013) investigated the relationship between migration and unemployment with the help of co - integration analysis by using the data of 1970 - 2008 periods in France. In his research, he concluded that migration affected unemployment negatively in the short term and positively on the long term but weaker.

Ruist (2013) analysed the effects of refugee migration in the labor market in Sweden during the period of 1999-2007. In his study, he concluded that refugee migration in general did not have a significant impact on unemployment. He also stated that migrants from low- and middle-income countries had a significant impact on unemployment.

Darkwah and Verter (2014) used the data of 1991-2011 in Nigeria to investigate the determinants of international migration with the help of time series analysis method. In their analysis, they concluded that unemployment, migrants' remittances and population growth were determinants of migration from Nigeria to other countries. These results show that there was a positive relationship between the number of Nigerians abroad (immigrants) and unemployment.

Chamunorwa and Mlambo (2014) analyzed the effect of the immigrant labor force on unemployment in South Africa using the least squares method using the data from 1980-2010 periods. In their analysis, they concluded that there was a positive relationship between migration and unemployment.

Latif (2015) examined the relationship between migration and unemployment at provincial level in Canada with the help of panel data analysis. In his study, he concluded that there was a weak negative relationship between migration and unemployment.

Beyer (2016) analysed the labor market performance of immigrants in Germany with the help of a survey method. In the analysis, it was concluded that migrant workers gained 20% less than domestic workers, and the rate of participation in the labor market was lower, while unemployment rate was higher, but this situation had changed in time (average 20 years later).

Rios - Avila and Canavire - Bacarreza (2016) analysed the impact of immigration on unemployment by using monthly population survey data for the period of 2001-2013 in the United States. They concluded that migration did not have a strong impact on unemployment, but that the impact of migration on young people and less educated people were stronger.

Altunç et al., (2017) tested the relationship between external migration and unemployment, inflation and economic growth using time series analysis method gathering data from 1985 to 2015 in Turkey's economy. They concluded that there is bi-directional causality between external migration and economic growth, a one-way causality relationship from economic growth to inflation, from inflation to unemployment

and from unemployment to economic growth. They also stated that there is no causal relationship between external migration and unemployment.

Çelik and Arslan (2018) tested the relationship between immigration and unemployment in Turkey using data for the period 2014 - 2016 with the help of Spearman correlation analysis. They found a strong and positive relationship between migration and emigration and general unemployment and youth unemployment.

Cuneyt Kilic and Mesut Yucesan (2019) examined the relationship between migration and unemployment for selected OECD countries. In this study, impacts of migration on labor market were studied. The authors investigated the direction and size of the relationship between migration and unemployment in 23 selected OECD countries. In panel data model they found that migration and economic growth had a negative and statistically significant effect on unemployment whereas; the consumer price index and average wages had a positive but statistically meaningless effect. It was observed that results obtained in this study were in parallel with the results of studies in the literature conducted by Kulkolkarn and Potipiti (2007), Heid and Larch (2011), Fromentin (2013) and Latif (2015).

Eleonora Matouskova (2020) evaluated the causes of long-term unemployment in Slovakia and its impact on the economy and on the migration of the labor force in search of work abroad. The study found that one of the causes of long-term unemployment was uneven distribution of industry and a poor quality and inadequate infrastructure. This was particularly the case for unemployment in the southern and eastern Slovakia. Unemployment in Slovakia, especially in the last period, negative influences a discrepancy in the structure of the qualification and profession of unemployed people and vacancies. Another reason for the relatively high unemployment was the large number of people with low levels of education, especially in the eastern part of Slovakia. The result of high unemployment in this region were low wages, which often don not encourage these people to work, even if they would have found the job vacancy. Another reason for unemployment was sometimes unwillingness of people to migrate between regions of Slovakia for the work or travel for the work to the more distant town. This was linked with

the underdeveloped and inefficient functioning of the market for rental flats. Living outside of the region of residence (in Slovakia) in most cases is significantly more expensive and therefore is not worthwhile for the unemployed people to seek the work outside their region.

Tugba Dayioglu (2020) in his study on “Relationship between Economic Growth, Unemployment, Inflation and Current Account Balance: Theory and Case of Turkey” assessed the relations between economic growth, unemployment, inflation and current account balance. This study also examined the relation between the unemployment, inflation, economic growth, current account deficit with symmetric and asymmetric reserved causality tests were examined for the 2000Q1 – 2020Q4 period. The study observed that there was an inverse relationship between growth and unemployment, especially during crisis periods.

Hala Hjazeen and Mehdi Seraj (2021) investigated the impact of unemployment on Jordan's economy over the period 1991–2019. This study used the auto-regressive distributed lag (ARDL) model to investigate the relationship between the unemployment rate and the other variables. Also, they employed the ARDL bootstrap co integration approach to examine the correlation and long-run relationship among the variables. The empirical findings indicated a long-run relationship between the unemployment rate, economic growth, education, female population, and urban population in Jordan. Their findings indicate negative linkage between economic growth and unemployment, and a positive relationship among the education, female population, and urban population and unemployment in Jordan.

III) OTHER RELATED STUDIES

Zemen Haddis Gebeyehu (2014) examined the relationship between migration and the land and rural development policies of Ethiopia. The study tests the hypothesis that Ethiopia's land and rural development policies influence the dynamic rural urban migration in ways unanticipated by the policies. Data were collated from rural household and communities in demote goalie wormed, migrants in four urban areas, and

government officials and researchers at various levels. The majority of the interviewed migrants mentioned one or more land related reasons for leaving rural areas, including land shortage for agriculture activities and lack of other job opportunities. However, rural landholders also hesitate to migrate because they risk losing their holding by leaving rural areas. Thus, although limited rural land availability may incentives to migrate by increasing the costs of leaving rural Ares. Still, the combination of improved job and income opportunities in urban areas and deteriorating living conditions in rural areas appears to favor migration. Despite the dismissing farm size and increasing population pressure, the agriculture sector has continued to heavily dominate the rural economy. Notwithstanding attempts to diversify the rural economy, the lack Of capital and skills remain constraining factors to the promotion of non-agricultural activities. At the same times, although the country agriculture led development policy gives significant emphasis to the agriculture sector, the available arable land is not able to provide a sufficient livelihood for the growing rural population, moreover, the rural areas have been deprived of critical infrastructure, such as roads, markets, electricity, communication technologies, and skills development institutions. Absent significant reforms, this lack of investment in rural areas and competition for increasingly scarce arable land is likely to result in increased rural-urban migration.

Asma Seemi Malik (2015) movement towards and the urban centers of a country has been found to be a common element in regards to the population dynamics. These dynamics however have a significant economic, cultural, political and social impact on the lives of not only the migrants but also the place of destination. Through this research, it has been studied as to how the rural urban movement in Pakistan impacts the social and cultural dimensions of the place of destination as well as those of the migrant. Furthermore, this research focused on findings the measures taken by the government to curb the issues, however has found that the government of Pakistan is not taking any notice any notice at all the issues that exist. There is no long term vision or policy, a plan or implementation that would help in keeping the society and cultural of urban and rural centers segregated.

Cecilia Tacoil (2015) rural- urban migration continues to attract much interest, but also growing concern. Migrants are often blamed for increasing urban poverty, but not all migrants are poor. In many cities, however, migrants form a large proportion of the urban poor with whom they share income and non-income disadvantages, including difficulties in finding adequate housing and in accessing services. Like the majority of the urban poor, they work long hours in low-paid, insecure and unsafe jobs and are exposed to a wide range of environmental hazards because most low- income and informal settlements lack basic infrastructure. In many cases when urban governments try to reduce or control rural-urban migration, this also affects low-income residents and not just migrants.

Muhammad Iran (2015) examined the effects of rural-urban migration on crop productivity. Cross –sectional data were collected from the southern Punjab. Cobb Douglas production function was used to determine the impacts of migration on crop productivity. Cotton productivity was adversely affected by the rural- urban migration while the wheat productivity was positively related with rural-urban migration

Kuralbayeva (2018) this paper develops a general equilibrium model that incorporates specific features pertaining to developing countries: a large informal sector and rural-urban migration. A calibrated version of the model is used to study the effects of energy tax changes and a reduction in agricultural- sector energy subsidies on labor market outcomes. The result indicates that the incidence of energy taxes is partly shifted on to the rural sector through rural-urban migration. The results thus highlight the importance of modeling the features particular to developing countries and the economics general equilibrium effects when assessing the impact of environmental taxation in those in those countries.

Gurudeo Ann Tularam (2018) examined water resources availability and management in sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) in climate change perspective using vector auto-regression (VAR) time series analysis and also assessed the possible causes of migration from rural to urban area using VAR and granger causality tests; the study found that some countries were experiencing water security challenges upon which large

numbers migrate to urban areas. The study reveals that variations in rainfall and temperature have compounded people movements from rural areas. It was noted that the agriculture production in SSA have not improved over time and in fact, it had further decreased due to the move away from rural areas by many farmer.

Fatai Abiola Sowunmi (2020) examined the impact of rural-urban migration on the food consumption pattern of farming households. The study revealed that 73.8% of household had migrants, while 80.2% of the migrants were male. The highest level of education of most of the migrants was secondary school (71.4%). The study showed that the major reason (63.3%) for migration was for job. The average remittance sent per year was n108, 119.14. The study revaluated that household expenditure on carbohydrate food group accounted for 54.4% of the total household expenditure on food. The average dietary diversity indices for the migrants (0.345) and non-migrant (0.346) household were low. The study revealed that migration expenditure of respondent. Despite the remittance from some of the migrants, the need to develop the rural areas in terms of provision of basic infrastructures by government is imperative in order to reduce rural-urban migration.

Balwinder-Singh (2020) assessed the potential for COVID - 19 related reductions in the agriculture workforce to disrupt production of the dominant rice-wheat cropping pattern. The author used spatial ex ante modeling framework to evaluate four scenarios representing a range of plausible labor constraints on the timing of rice transplanting. Averaged over both states, results suggest that rice productivity losses under all delay scenarios would be low as compare to those for wheat, with total system productivity loss estimates ranging from 9%, to 21%, equivalent to economist losses of USD 674m to 1.48 billion. Late rice transplanting and harvesting can also aggregate winter air pollution with concomitant health risks. Technological options such as direct seeded rice, staggered nursery transplanting, and crop diversification away from rice can help address these challenges but require new approaches to policy and incentives for change.

Jayarama Bhat (2020) assessed the impact of migration on agriculture. This study used primary data gathered through a household survey, also the paper attempts to contribute towards a better understanding of the impact of migration on agriculture families in molakamuru taluka. The paper had been depended both on primary and secondary sources of data in the analysis. The study observed that higher land man ratio, free-for- all caste system, and exploitation at the native place to speed up the breakdown of traditional socio-economic relations in the rural areas make people decide to migrate to the relatively improved areas in search of economy and increased land productivity in certain areas, rapid improvement in the means transport and communication, improvement in education, increased population pressure and zeal for improving living added momentum to the mobility of population in India.

Nguyen Thi Thuy (2020) examined the impact of COVID-19 pandemic on agriculture. The study indicates that declining incomes and reverses waves retiring-to-the countryside of unemployed migrant workers have raised concerns on food and nutrition security for the dependents, and social security network in rural areas. Under the unexpected COVID-19 outbreak, surveyed small farmers and rural household mostly adhere to self-reliant measures to cope with negative effects of the pandemic such as reducing dry social insurance. Nevertheless, the surveyed household is quite optimistic about the future. There are more household planning to increase their production scale, and many rural household planning to increase their production scale, and many rural household plans to have more off-farm jobs in post COVID-19 time. The agriculture input suppliers due to input prices increases and interrupted input supplies, diversifying agriculture product consumption channels, and digitalizing agriculture production to crop with pandemic quarantine and hygiene measures. For more pandemic resilient livelihoods, most of respondents expected to receive government support in forms of financial provisions, preferential loans, tax breaks and exemptions, job creation, agriculture input materials, export market opening, vocational training, and providing favorable conditions for their production and business.

Yositha Margaret (2020) offered insights on the plight of migrant laborers and impact of COVID-19 on rural economy in India. The major finding of the study

suggested that 400 million workers in India in the informal economy are at the risk of falling deeper into poverty during the crisis. The low reporting of covid-19 cases due to low testing will result in community spread. The reverse migration will create excess pressure on the agriculture and rural economy which result in a significant number of people to fall into abject poverty. COVID-19 will have both short and long-run effects on the rural economy in India. The government economic package contains majorly long-term measures whereas short-term measures such as cash incentive and wage subsidy should be given to save migrant laborer and marginal farmers. Above all mass, corruption in the system is the biggest challenge in the effective implementation of plans.

Minaketan Behera (2021) investigated labor supply and employment opportunity in rural areas due to COVID-19-led reverse migration and also the study examined the impact of COVID- 19 on employment status, income profile and livelihood of returned migrants in Odisha. The study found a sudden rise in labor supply with a huge scale was catch sight of the rural economy of Odisha. Job loss was the biggest problem faced by migrants followed by income loss. The study found that income of migrants, household income excluding migrants and nature of work has significant impact on the vulnerability of migrant.

Mohammad Abdul Malek (2021) assessed the status of the rural economy in Bangladesh during the first three months of the lockdown period in comparison with the pre-COVID-19 situation. Using a nationally representative sample (of 2,312 rural household from 62 villages in 56 districts) known as the Maybug hessian survey sample, we conducted a telephone survey period, the rural economy experienced several adverse impacts from the containment measures, such as a delayed harvest, difficulty in selling farm produce, labor and material input disruptions and cost increases, and reductions in remittance receipts and non-farm business sales. Rural household had to reduce their food consumption and receive food support from the government and cash support from the private sector. Vulnerability was especially apparent in household with a head who was female, less educated, young, or casual labor. Livelihoods varied significantly according to the stringency of the lockdown measures, we also found that rural households

preferred cash or product support, rural work or employment support, and cash assistance or soft loans for farm inputs and business inputs at the time of the survey.

Puja Sunil Pawar (2021) examined the relationship between food security, migration and other reduced factors during COVID-19 in India. The results show that gender, household size, agriculture, production, savings, migration, and regions are statistically significant. An additional unit in agricultural production makes 17% more likely household food secure. All the same, one additional member leaving the household for work is associated with 2% less likely to be food securely, enhancing agricultural production and controlling rural migration are crucial to ensuring long-term food security.

Lindsay M.Jaacks (2021) evaluated the impact of the COVID-19 lockdown on agriculture production, livelihoods, food security and dietary in India. The study revealed that A total of 1437 farmers completed the survey (survey 94% male; 28% 30-39 years old;38% with secondary schooling) about one in ten farmers (11%) did not harvest in the past month with primary reasons cited being unfavorable weather(37%) and lockdown-related reasons(24%). A total of 63% of farmers harvested in the past month(primarily wheat and vegetables,) but only 44% had sold their crop;12% were still trying to sell their cropland 39% had stored their crop, with more than half(55%) reporting lockdown-related issues as the reason for storing. Seventy-nine percent of households with wage-workers witnessed a decline in wages in the past month and 49% of household with incomes from livestock witnessed a decline. Landless farmers were about 10 times more likely to skip a meal as compared to large farmers (18% versus 2%) but a majority reported consuming staple grains daily in the past week(97%), 63% consumed dairy daily, 40% vegetable daily, 26% pulses daily, and 7% fruit daily. These values are much farmers in India around this time of year before covid-19; 94-95% dairy daily,%57-58% pulses daily, 64-65% vegetables daily, 64-65% vegetables daily and 42-43% fruit daily.

Nyamuziwa Terrance Kudzai (2021) assessed the impact of covid-19 pandemic on agricultural extension and food supply as well as the effectiveness of the suggested coping strategies in Zimbabwe. The study revealed that agricultural extension and food

supply was grossly affected by COVID 19. Use of social groups for communication during lockdown helps to reduce spread COVID 19. Researchers recommend the development of online marketing strategies where people can make orders of various produce and become booked for purchases or deliveries during a specified time range. This will go a long way in minimizing people coming together in large numbers and risk contracting COVID -19.

CHAPTER- III

METHODOLOGY

The methodology adopted in the present study is discussed under the following heads:

1. Profile of the study
2. Period of the study
3. Sources of data
4. Tools of analysis

1. Profile of the study:

India is the seventh-largest country by area, the second-most populous country, and the most populous democracy in the world. Bounded by the Indian Ocean on the south, the Arabian Sea on the southwest, and the Bay of Bengal on the southeast, it shares land borders with Pakistan to the west; China, Nepal, and Bhutan to the north; and Bangladesh and Myanmar to the east. In the Indian Ocean, India is in the vicinity of Sri Lanka and the Maldives; its Andaman and Nicobar Islands share a maritime border with Thailand, Myanmar and Indonesia.

According to the International Monetary Fund (IMF), the Indian economy in 2021 was nominally worth \$3.04 trillion; it is the sixth-largest economy by market exchange rates, and is around \$10.219 trillion, the third-largest by purchasing power parity (PPP). With its average annual GDP growth rate of 5.8% over the past two decades, and reaching 6.1% during 2011–2012, India is one of the world's fastest-growing economies. However, the country ranks 139th in the world in nominal GDP per capita and 118th in GDP per capita at PPP. Until 1991, all Indian governments followed protectionist policies that were influenced by socialist economics. Widespread state intervention and regulation largely walled the economy off from the outside world. An acute balance of payments crisis in 1991 forced the nation to liberalise its economy; since then it has moved slowly towards a free-market system by

emphasising both foreign trade and direct investment inflows. India has been a member of World Trade Organization since 1 January 1995.

The 522-million-worker Indian labour force is the world's second-largest, as of 2017. The service sector makes up 55.6% of GDP, the industrial sector 26.3% and the agricultural sector 18.1%. India's foreign exchange remittances of US\$87 billion in 2021, highest in the world, were contributed to its economy by 32 million Indians working in foreign countries. Major agricultural products include: rice, wheat, oilseed, cotton, jute, tea, sugarcane, and potatoes. Major industries include: textiles, telecommunications, chemicals, pharmaceuticals, biotechnology, food processing, steel, transport equipment, cement, mining, petroleum, machinery, and software. In 2006, the share of external trade in India's GDP stood at 24%, up from 6% in 1985. In 2008, India's share of world trade was 1.68%; in 2011, India was the world's tenth-largest importer and the nineteenth-largest exporter. Major exports include: petroleum products, textile goods, jewellery, software, engineering goods, chemicals, and manufactured leather goods. Major imports include: crude oil, machinery, gems, fertiliser, and chemicals. Between 2001 and 2011, the contribution of petrochemical and engineering goods to total exports grew from 14% to 42%. India was the world's second largest textile exporter after China in the 2013 calendar year.

Averaging an economic growth rate of 7.5% for several years prior to 2007, India has more than doubled its hourly wage rates during the first decade of the 21st century. Some 431 million Indians have left poverty since 1985; India's middle classes are projected to number around 580 million by 2030.

Driven by growth, India's nominal GDP per capita increased steadily from US\$308 in 1991, when economic liberalisation began, to US\$1,380 in 2010, to an estimated US\$1,730 in 2016. It is expected to grow to US\$2,313 by 2022. However, it has remained lower than those of other Asian developing countries such as Indonesia, Malaysia, Philippines, Sri Lanka, and Thailand, and is expected to remain so in the near future.

According to a 2011 PricewaterhouseCoopers (PwC) report, India's GDP at purchasing power parity could overtake that of the United States by 2045. During the next four decades, Indian GDP is expected to grow at an annualised average of 8%, making it potentially the world's fastest-growing major economy until 2050. The report highlights key growth factors: a young and rapidly growing working-age population; growth in the manufacturing sector because of rising education and engineering skill levels; and sustained growth of the consumer market driven by a rapidly growing middle-class. The World Bank cautions that, for India to achieve its economic potential, it must continue to focus on public sector reform, transport infrastructure, agricultural and rural development, removal of labour regulations, education, energy security, and public health and nutrition.

As the world's largest origin for international migrants, India has a rich history of immigration and emigration. The massive India diaspora, which can be found across the globe, includes millions of descendants of migrants and has taken shape mostly since the start of the colonial era, when large numbers of Indians were forcibly relocated to work on plantations and construction projects. The 1833 abolition of slavery in most parts of the British Empire transformed the colonial system, replacing slavery with indentured servitude. In the eight decades that followed, the United Kingdom relocated millions of bonded Indian workers to colonies across Africa, Asia, and the Caribbean. Later, India's 1947 partition with Pakistan prompted the movement of millions of migrants throughout South Asia, in a vast reshuffling carried out along religious, ethnic, and other lines. India's relationship with its neighbors has defined many aspects of its migration trends and foreign policy in the decades since.

More recently, the Middle East and Western countries have been top destinations for Indians abroad. Slightly more than half of India's 17.9 million emigrants in 2020 lived in Persian Gulf countries, with nearly 3.5 million in the United Arab Emirates alone. Many have moved abroad for employment purposes; India is a significant source for low- and semi-skilled workers, as well as professionals in the health-care and science, technology, engineering, and math (STEM) fields.

2. Period of study:

Based on the availability of data, the information's were collected for the period 2011 - 2020.

3. Sources of data:

The data for the present study were collected from World Bank development reports.

4. Tools of analysis:

The following tools were applied in the present study.

(A). TREND ANALYSIS:

To find out the trend patterns of Net Migration, GDP per capita and unemployment in India the following formula was used. Trend lines were fitted by using the following model.

$$Y = a + b X$$

Where, Y = Predicted value of the dependent variable

X = Time (independent variable)

a is the intercept term, b is the regression coefficient.

(B). PEARSON'S CORRELATION ANALYSIS

Correlation is a statistical measure that expresses the extent to which two variables are linearly related (meaning they change together at a constant rate). It's a common tool for describing simple relationships without making a statement about cause and effect.

The sample correlation coefficient, r , quantifies the strength of the relationship. It ranges from -1 to +1 and is denoted by r . The closer r is to zero, the weaker the linear relationship. Positive r values indicate a positive correlation, where the values of both variables tend to increase together. Negative r values indicate a negative correlation, where the values of one variable tend to increase when the values of the other variable decrease. Correlations are also tested for statistical significance.

In this study Pearson correlation analysis was used to find out the Relationship between Net Migration and Macro - Economic Variables in India.

CHAPTER – IV

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The results and discussion of the current study entitled “Relationship between Net Migration and Macro - Economic Variables in India is discussed with the following heads”

- ❖ Annual change in Net Migration in India
- ❖ Annual change in Unemployment in India
- ❖ Annual change in GDP per capita in India
- ❖ Net Migration trends in India
- ❖ Unemployment trends in India
- ❖ GDP per capita trends in India
- ❖ Relationship between Net Migration and Macro - Economic Variables in India

I. Annual change in Net Migration in India

Table I represents Annual change in Net Migration in India for the period from 2011 to 2020.

TABLE – I
ANNUAL CHANGE IN NET MIGRATION IN INDIA

Year	Net Migration Rate	Growth Rate
2011	-0.4	-3.61%
2012	-0.384	-4.00%
2013	-0.369	-3.91%
2014	-0.374	1.36%
2015	-0.38	1.60%
2016	-0.385	1.32%
2017	-0.391	1.56%
2018	-0.396	1.28%
2019	-0.383	-3.28%
2020	-0.369	-3.66%

Source: World Bank Report, 2021

It is observed from table 1 that the net migration rate from the year 2011 to 2020 is a negative variation ranging from 0.4 to 0.369, which indicates more people are leaving the country. The annual change in net migration shows negative growth rate during the period 2011 to 2013 and from 2019 to 2020.

II. Annual change in Unemployment in India

Table II represents Annual change in Unemployment in India for the period from 2011 to 2020.

TABLE – II
ANNUAL CHANGE IN UNEMPLOYMENT IN INDIA

Year	Unemployment Rate (%)	Annual Change
2011	5.65%	0.00%
2012	5.66%	0.01%
2013	5.67%	0.01%
2014	5.60%	-0.07%
2015	5.56%	-0.04%
2016	5.51%	-0.05%
2017	5.41%	-0.10%
2018	5.33%	-0.08%
2019	5.27%	-0.06%
2020	7.11%	1.84%

Source: World Bank Report, 2021

It is observed from table 2 that the annual change in unemployment shows positive variation from the year 2011 to 2013 ranging from 0.00 to 0.01%. From the year 2014 to 2019, there is a negative variation ranging from 0.07 to 0.06 %. There is a positive change in the year 2020.

III. Annual change in GDP per capita in India

Table III represents Annual change in GDP per capita in India for the period from 2011 to 2020.

TABLE – III

ANNUAL CHANGE IN GDP PER CAPITA IN INDIA

Year	GDP Per Capita (US \$)	Growth Rate
2011	\$1,458	5.24%
2012	\$1,444	5.46%
2013	\$1,450	6.39%
2014	\$1,574	7.41%
2015	\$1,606	8.00%
2016	\$1,733	8.26%
2017	\$1,981	6.80%
2018	\$1,997	6.53%
2019	\$2,101	4.04%
2020	\$1,901	-7.96%

Source: World Bank Report, 2021

The GDP per capita growth rate shows a positive variation from the year 2011 to 2019 ranging from 5.24% to 4.04%. In the year 2020 the growth rate is negative (-7.96). The growth rate increases up to the year 2016 and decreases from the year 2017.

IV. Net Migration trends in India

Table IV represents estimated trend value for Net Migration in India for the period from 2011 to 2020.

TABLE – IV

ESTIMATED TREND VALUE FOR NET MIGRATION IN INDIA

Year	Trend values
2011	3.109
2012	2.4181
2013	1.7272
2014	1.0363
2015	0.3454
2016	-0.345
2017	-1.036
2018	-1.727
2019	-2.418
2020	-3.109

Source: Estimated based on secondary data

It is observed that the estimated trend value for net migration in India shows a positive variation for the year 2011 – 2015 ranging from 3.109 to 0.3454 showing a gradual decrease in the values. There is a negative variation from the year 2016 to 2020 ranging from 0.345 to 3.109.

V. Unemployment trends in India

Table V represents estimated trend value for Unemployment in India for the period from 2011 to 2020.

TABLE – V

ESTIMATED TREND VALUE FOR UNEMPLOYMENT IN INDIA

Year	Trend values
2011	-51.1
2012	-39.74
2013	-28.39
2014	-17.03
2015	-5.68
2016	5.68
2017	17.03
2018	28.39
2019	39.74
2020	51.1

Source: Estimated based on secondary data

The estimated trend value for unemployment in India ranges from -51.1 to 51.1. There is a negative variation from the year 2011 to 2015. From the year 2016, there is positive variation. Overall there is an increase in the unemployment trend value.

VI. GDP per capita trends in India

Table VI represents estimated trend value for GDP per capita in India for the period from 2011 to 2020.

TABLE – VI

ESTIMATED TREND VALUE FOR GDP PER CAPITA IN INDIA

Year	Trend values
2011	-15866.01
2012	-12340.23
2013	-8814.45
2014	-5288.67
2015	-1762.89
2016	1762.89
2017	5288.67
2018	8814.45
2019	12340.23
2020	15866.01

Source: Estimated based on secondary data

The estimated trend value for GDP per capita in India shows a negative variation from the year 2011 to 2015. From the year 2016 to 2020, there is a positive variation in the trend value. Overall, there is an increase in the trend value ranging from -15866.01 to 15866.01.

VII. Relationship between Net Migration and Macro - Economic Variables in India

Pearson correlation analysis was used to find out the Relationship between Net Migration and Macro - Economic Variables in India. Table VII represents the correlation analysis results.

Table – VII
CORRELATION ANALYSIS RESULT

		Net Migration	GDP per capita	Unemployment
Net Migration	Pearson Correlation	1	.519	-.375
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.124	.286
	N	10	10	10
GDP per capita	Pearson Correlation	.519	1	-.728*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.124		.017
	N	10	10	10
Unemployment	Pearson Correlation	-.375	-.728*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.286	.017	
	N	10	10	10
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).				

The estimated Pearson correlation indicates that there is insignificant negative (-0.375) relationship between Net migration rate and unemployment and there is insignificant positive (0.519) association between net migration and GDP per capita, whereas per capita GDP show significant negative correlation (-.728*) with unemployment.

CHAPTER – V

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

Migration (human) is the movement of people from their place of birth to another region, sometimes, across political boundaries, for taking up permanent or semi-permanent residence. When the movement is across national boundaries, it is termed as emigration and within national boundaries it remains migration. In India, we see farm labourers, who come to cities to earn extra income during non-farming time and go back to the villages during farming times. These are seasonal migrants who would have 'semi-permanent residence'. Generally, there are two types of migration, i.e. temporary and permanent.

Temporary migration includes annual, seasonal or even daily movements of the population between two areas. It is also called 'commutation'. When people move from one place to another to reside permanently, it is known as permanent migration. People can either opt to move (voluntary migration) or be coerced to move (involuntary migration). Migration should not just be looked at as a simple movement of people across boundaries, but it should be looked as a much more complex issue that involves development, security and other social issues. Migration is a global phenomenon caused not only by economic factors but many other factors like social, political, cultural, environmental, health, education are included under the broader classification of Push and Pull factors of migration:

Migration of human being in search of livelihood options is a common phenomenon. Migration is the movement of the people from one place of residence to another for some length of time or permanently including different types of voluntary movements. It has great effects on social, economic, cultural and on the psychological life of people, both at the place of in-migration as well as of out-migration (Kaur, 2003) in India the labour migration is mostly influenced by social structures and pattern of development in general.

Uneven development is the main reason behind migration. Factors like: unemployment, low wages at the origin, agricultural failure, poor industrial support, and poverty, lack of employment opportunities in the origin, large family- size and natural disasters also cause migration. The higher land ratio, free-for- all caste system and exploitation at the native place to speed up the breakdown of traditional socio – economic relations in the rural areas make people decide to migrate to the relatively improved areas make people decide to migrate to the relatively improved areas in search of better employment and income. Diversification of economy and increased land productivity in certain areas, rapid improvement in the means transport and communication, improvement in education, increased population pressure and zeal for improving living added momentum to the mobility of population in India.

Migration has been as a response of individuals to better their economic and non-economic opportunities as well as an expectation of increased economics welfare in the areas (Mazumdar, 1987). According to Mazumdar, factors that “push individuals from areas into cities include the expectation that the pressure of population in rural areas has nearly exhausted all margins of cultivation, thus pushing hopeless people towards a new life in the cities with a mere expectation of subsistence living. On the hand, the pull hypothesis emphasizes the attractiveness of the urban life and the rural-urban wage gap. In particular, Todaro (1969) and Harris - Todaro (1970) developed probabilistic models, wherein they describe migrants are attracted to the cities with the expectation of a higher wage than they receive in agriculture, and are willing to accept the probability of urban unemployment, or lower wages and “underemployment” in the urban informal (traditional) sector. According to Todaro (1969), the migrant is willing to accept urban unemployment or lower wages and the urban informal sector as long as he expects graduate to be urban modern sector in the future. That is in the rural areas, sluggish agriculture growth and limited development of the rural non-farm sector raises the incidence of rural poverty, unemployment and underemployment. Given the fact that most of the high productivity activities are located in the urban areas, the rural-urban income differentials, particularly for the poor and unemployed, are enormous. Thus, many of them migrate to the urban areas in search jobs. Even when jobs in the high

productivity activities are limited in number relative to the supply, and often they are not accessible, population still migrate to the urban areas in search of opportunities in the informal sector’.

Migration can be considered as a significant feature of livelihoods in developing countries to pursue better living standards. Central to the understanding of rural-urban migration flow is the traditional push-pull factors. Push factors refer to circumstances at home that repel; examples include famine, drought, low agricultural productivity, unemployment etc. while “pull factor refers to those conditions found elsewhere (abroad) that attract migrants. There are many factors that cause voluntary rural-urban migration, such as urban job opportunities, housing conditions, better income opportunities etc. There is no doubt that, apart from these factors, urban areas also offer a chance to enjoy a better lifestyle.

For some decades, various disciplinary and multi-disciplinary approaches have been trying to analyze and provide fundamental understanding for the phenomenon of migration. There are multitudes of theoretical as well as empirical studies, which are concerned with characteristics, determinants and impact of migration both of international and of internal levels.

Human migration is one of the most challenging issues facing the world today. Several human sciences study migration, but the nature of their interest differs considerably. Migration plays an important role in determining the economic status of most developing countries in the World.

In recent years, migration has taken centre stage in the political discourse in many countries, especially advanced economies. Opinion surveys indicate that in main destination countries (for example, Germany, United Kingdom, United States), a majority of the public has a positive view of immigration (Pew Research Center 2019). However, there are also misconceptions and concerns about migration among local populations. A common misconception is that the number of immigrants is twice as high as it is in reality (Alesina, Stantcheva, and Miano 2019). Concerns include higher competition for jobs in

segments of the local labor market, higher demand for public services, potential strains on public finances, and a perceived threat to the native cultural identity and social cohesion. Migration raises a vast and multifaceted array of macroeconomic issues.

In this study an attempt was made to assess the “Relationship between net migration and macro-economic variables” with the following objectives.

Objectives:

- To examine trends in net migration and macro economic variables in India
- To assess the relationship between net migration and macro – economic variables

Methodology:

As the world’s largest origin for international migrants, India has a rich history of immigration and emigration. The massive India diaspora, which can be found across the globe, includes millions of descendants of migrants and has taken shape mostly since the start of the colonial era, when large numbers of Indians were forcibly relocated to work on plantations and construction projects. The 1833 abolition of slavery in most parts of the British Empire transformed the colonial system, replacing slavery with indentured servitude. In the eight decades that followed, the United Kingdom relocated millions of bonded Indian workers to colonies across Africa, Asia, and the Caribbean. Later, India’s 1947 partition with Pakistan prompted the movement of millions of migrants throughout South Asia, in a vast reshuffling carried out along religious, ethnic, and other lines. India’s relationship with its neighbors has defined many aspects of its migration trends and foreign policy in the decades since.

More recently, the Middle East and Western countries have been top destinations for Indians abroad. Slightly more than half of India’s 17.9 million emigrants in 2020 lived in Persian Gulf countries, with nearly 3.5 million in the United Arab Emirates alone. Many have moved abroad for employment purposes; India is a significant source for low- and semi-skilled workers, as well as professionals in the health-care and science,

technology, engineering, and math (STEM) fields. The present study focused on trends in migration, unemployment and GDP. The present study was based on secondary data from 2011 to 2020. The data for the present study were collected from World Bank development reports. Trend analysis and Pearson Correlation analysis were used for analysis purpose.

Major findings:

- ❖ The study observed that the net migration rate from the year 2011 to 2020 is a negative variation ranging from 0.4 to 0.369, which indicates more people are leaving the country. The annual change in net migration shows negative growth rate during the period 2011 to 2013 and from 2019 to 2020.
- ❖ It is observed that the annual change in unemployment shows positive variation from the year 2011 to 2013 ranging from 0.00 to 0.01%. From the year 2014 to 2019, there is a negative variation ranging from 0.07 to 0.06 %. There is a positive change in the year 2020.
- ❖ The GDP per capita growth rate shows a positive variation from the year 2011 to 2019 ranging from 5.24% to 4.04%. In the year 2020 the growth rate is negative (-7.96). The growth rate increases up to the year 2016 and decreases from the year 2017.
- ❖ It is observed that the estimated trend value for net migration in India shows a positive variation for the year 2011 – 2015 ranging from 3.109 to 0.3454 showing a gradual decrease in the values. There is a negative variation from the year 2016 to 2020 ranging from 0.345 to 3.109
- ❖ The estimated trend value for unemployment in India ranges from -51.1 to 51.1. There is a negative variation from the year 2011 to 2015. From the year 2016, there is positive variation. Overall there is an increase in the unemployment trend value.
- ❖ The estimated trend value for GDP per capita in India shows a negative variation from the year 2011 to 2015. From the year 2016 to 2020, there is a positive variation in the trend value. Overall, there is an increase in the trend value ranging from -15866.01 to 15866.01
- ❖ The estimated Pearson correlation indicates that there is insignificant negative (-0.375) relationship between Net migration rate and unemployment and there is

insignificant positive (0.519) association between net migration and GDP per capita, whereas per capita GDP show significant negative correlation (-.728*) with unemployment.

CONCLUSION:

Migration generally improves the macroeconomic outcomes of recipient economies. Migrating is very costly, and as such, only a very small fraction of the world population migrates. While migrants are a remarkably stable share of the world population, migration toward advanced economies has been growing rapidly and will likely continue to do so in the future. Migrants can play an important role in sustaining economic growth in destination economies.

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