

**CAUSES AND CONSEQUENCES OF MIGRATION: A STUDY OF  
SEASONAL MIGRANT WORKERS IN A SELECT AREA**

**SUBMITTED BY  
C.DEEPA PRIYA  
(12PEC004)**

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

**IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE  
DEGREE OF MASTER OF ARTS IN ECONOMICS**

**MARCH 2014**

**CAUSES AND CONSEQUENCES OF MIGRATION: A STUDY OF  
SEASONAL MIGRANT WORKERS IN A SELECT AREA**

**SUBMITTED BY**

**C.DEEPA PRIYA**

**(12PEC004)**

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

**IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE  
DEGREE OF MASTER OF ARTS IN ECONOMICS**

**MARCH 2014**

**CERTIFIED AS BONAFIDE RESEARCH WORK**

*P. Ambuj Devi / 25.3.14*

**SIGNATURE OF THE  
HEAD OF THE DEPARTMENT**

*Arachanan.K*

**SIGNATURE OF  
THE SUPERVISOR**

# *ACKNOWLEDGEMENT*

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

This investigator places her deepest sense of gratitude and indebtedness at the feet of **God Almighty**.

The investigator is grateful to **Dr. T.S.K.MEENAKSHI SUNDARAM**, Chancellor, Avinashilingam Institute for Home Science and Higher Education for Women, Coimbatore, for providing the opportunity to conduct her investigation in this esteemed University.

The investigator expresses her gratitude to **Dr. (Tmt) SHEELA RAMACHANDRAN**, Vice-Chancellor, Avinashilingam Institute for Home Science and Higher Education for Women, Coimbatore, for providing the amenities to carry out the study.

The investigator is indebted to **Dr. (Tmt) GOWRI RAMAKRISHNAN**, Registrar, Avinashilingam Institute for Home Science and Higher Education for Women, Coimbatore, for the administrative support imparted for the study.

The investigator expresses her sincere gratitude and thankfulness to **Dr. (Mrs) B. NEELAVATHY**, Dean Faculty of Humanities, Avinashilingam Institute for Home Science and Higher Education for Women, Coimbatore, for the support and help in the conduct of the study.

The investigator expresses her sincere gratitude and thanks to **Dr. (Mrs) P. AMBIGA DEVI**, Professor and Head of the Department of Economics, Avinashilingam Institute for Home Science and Higher Education for Women, for her support in the conduct of the study.

The investigator wishes to extend her deepest gratitude and thankfulness to her guide **Dr.(Mrs.) K. ARULSELVAM** Professor, Department of Economics, Avinashilingam Institute for Home Science and Higher Education for Women, Coimbatore, for her scrupulous care, patience, guidance, help and support, endless encouragement and motivation from the commencement till the completion of the study.

The investigator wishes to owe her gratitude to the **Librarian**, Avinashilingam Institute for Home Science and Higher Education for Women, Coimbatore.

On a moral personal note, the investigator is indebted to her **parents, family members and friends** for their support, encouragement, understanding and patience rendered throughout the period of study.

The investigator is indebted to **Dr. SAROJA PRABHAKARAN**, Director Hall of Residence, for her endless support and cooperation throughout the study.

# *CONTENTS*

## **CONTENTS**

<b>CHAPTER NO.</b>	<b>TITLE</b>	<b>PAGE NO.</b>
--------------------	--------------	-----------------

**LIST OF TABLES**

**LIST OF FIGURES**

<b>I.</b>	<b>INTRODUCTION</b>	
<b>II.</b>	<b>REVIEW OF LITERATURE</b>	
<b>III.</b>	<b>METHODOLOGY</b>	
<b>IV.</b>	<b>RESULTS AND DISCUSSION</b>	
<b>V.</b>	<b>SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION</b>	
	<b>BIBLIOGRAPHY</b>	
	<b>APPENDIX</b>	

## LIST OF TABLES

<b>TABLE NO</b>	<b>TITLE</b>	<b>PAGE NO.</b>
1	Age Composition of the Sample Migrants	
2	Religion-Wise Distribution of the Sample Migrants	
3	Caste-Wise Distribution of the Sample Migrant	
4	Type of Family of the Sample Migrants	
5	Marital Status of the Sample Migrants	
6	Educational Level of the Sample Migrants	
7	Family Size of the Sample Migrants	
8	Occupational Pattern of the Sample Migrant	
9	Distance between Native and Migrated Place	
10	Types of Migration	
11	Working Hours of the Sample Migrants	
12	Monthly Income of the Sample Migrants	
13	Necessity for Part Time Job	
14	Discrimination at Work Spot	
15	Saving Details of the Sample Migrants	
16	Debt Details of the Sample Migrants	
17	KMO and Bartlett's Test Measures	
18	Rotated Component Matrix	
19	KMO and Bartlett's Test Measures	
20	Rotated Component Matrix	
21	Coefficients	
22	Reasons for Remittance of Money	
23	Problem Faced Due To Migration	
24	Loss Incurred Due To Migration	
25	Health problem of Sample Migrant	

## LIST OF FIGURES

<b>FIGURE NO</b>	<b>TITLE</b>	<b>PAGE NO</b>
1	Age Composition of the Sample Migrants	
2	Occupational Pattern of the Sample Migrant	
3	Types of Migration	
4	Loss Incurred Due To Migration	

# *INTRODUCTION*

# CHAPTER-I

## INTRODUCTION

Development in any particular nation consists of a synergy of development goals such as promoting literacy, improving nutrition and health, limiting family size, increasing productivity and material advancements including greater equality, freedom and other valued qualities. Vinita (2006) and Anisur (2006) remarked that sustainable development aims at reducing the absolute poverty of the world's poor through providing lasting and secured livelihood that minimize resource depletion, environmental degradation, cultural disruption and social instability. India's present path of development has created regional inequalities in the development. While the agriculture and industrial development of developed areas had created demand for labour, the backward areas have become the suppliers of labour. In India, agriculture still remains the dominant sector giving employment to majority of labour force. Rapidly increasing population has caused deterioration in the land/man ratio. Due to increased hardship, the process of transfer of surplus labour from rural to urban centers has been taking place.

Human migration is a universal phenomenon. It is a process through which people move from a permanent place of residence to another, more or less permanent one for a substantial period of time (Chakravarthi, 2001). Migration can be classified as rural to urban, urban to urban, urban to rural and rural to rural. Migration leads to redistribution of people at the origin and at the place of destination (Singh, 1998). Migration plays an important role in the distribution of the population of any country and determines the growth of labour force in any area. Migration is thus an important symptom of social change in a society. In recent times, migration is being accepted as a global phenomenon.

With regard to the determinants of rural-urban migration, it could be stated that the important factor which motivate people to move may broadly be classified in to five groups: economic factors, demographic factors, socio-cultural factors, political factors and miscellaneous factors. Despite the relevance of non-economic factors most of the studies (Kumar and Sudhir, 1992; Singh, 1998; Srivastava, 1998) indicated that migration is primarily motivated by economic factors. The basic two economic factors which motivate migration may be termed as 'push factors' and 'pull factors'.

Push factors are those that compel a person, due to different reasons, to leave that place and go to some other place. For instance, low productivity, unemployment and underemployment, poor economic conditions, lack of opportunities for advancement, and natural calamities may compel people to leave their native place in search of better economic opportunities. In most of the developing countries, land-man ratio has declined due to population explosion resulting in significant increase in unemployment and underemployment. Introduction of capital intensive methods of production into the agricultural sector and mechanization of the certain processes has reduced labour requirements in rural areas. The non-availability of alternative sources of income in rural areas is another important factor for migration.

Better opportunities for education, better health facilities and sources of entertainment, etc. explain the difference in the reasons for migration of males and females in India. The reasons for migration for males and females are different in India. Majority of male (38 percent) in India migrates due to work and employment reasons whereas only three percent of females migrated due to this reason. Due to this reason males dominate migration in urban areas. Majority of females (68 percent) migrate due to reasons of marriage whereas it is only two percent for male migration. Due to this reason females dominate migration in the rural areas of India

The basic idea of classical thought is that labour migration arises due to the actual wage differentials between regions. The neo-classical idea on migration, which is an extension of classical idea, based on the expected rather than actual wage differentials between regions. Despite its seminal contribution to understanding people outflows, this approach has failed to account for the risky nature of migration and the empirical evidence showing that people movement does not equilibrate expected incomes across regions. Indeed, the main limitation of Todaro model is that it does not include any other influences, besides expected income, that shape potential migrants' decision and also potential impacts on source economies.

Modern scholars, after recognizing this limitation of Neo-classical model, opined that migration is caused by a push from behind and/or pull from an appealing prospect in front. Push factors attribute to the negative characteristics operating at the center of origin whereas pull factors identify the positive characteristics at the center of destination. The combination of push

and pull factors and research into which specific determinants play a significant role in migration patterns has received a lot of attention in the empirical literature.

Migration in India is mostly influenced by social structures and patterns of development. The development policies by all the governments since Independence have accelerated the process of migration. Uneven development is the main cause of migration. The landless poor who mostly belong to lower castes, indigenous communities and economically backward regions constitute the major portion of migrants. In the very large tribal regions of India intrusion of outsiders, settlements by the outsiders displacing the local tribal people and deforestation also played a major role in migration. According to a study 77 percent of the population i.e. nearly 840 million Indians live on less than Rs.20 (40 percent's) a day. Indian agriculture became non remunerative, taking the lives of 100,000 peasants during the period from 1996 to 2003, i.e. a suicide of an Indian peasant every 45 minutes. Hence, the rural people from the downtrodden and backward communities and backward regions such as Bihar, Orissa, Uttar Pradesh travel far afield seeking employment at the lowest rungs in construction of roads, irrigation projects, commercial and residential complexes, in short, building the "shining" India. The pull factors of higher wages caused external migration to the Middle-East countries by skilled and semiskilled workers. Migration of professionals such as engineers, medical practitioners, teachers, managers etc. to developed countries constitutes another dimension of migration which we call "brain-drain".

Migration in India is predominantly short distance with around 60 percent of migrants changing their residences within their district of birth and 20 percent within their State (province), while the rest move across the state boundaries. The total migrants as per the census of 1971 are 167 million persons, 1981 census 213 million, 1991 census 232 million and 2001 census 315 million. As per the census of the year 1991, nearly 20 million people migrated to other states seeking livelihood. Within a decade, the number of interstate migrants doubled to 41,166,265 persons as per the census figures of 2001.

There are positive and negative economic consequences of migration. Migration of positive consequences of the remittance (payments) sent by migrants to their homes help in the growth of economy of the region. This money is mainly used by the family for purchasing food,

repayment of debts, medical treatment, marriages, children's education, purchasing agricultural inputs, construction of houses, etc. Many poor villages of Bihar, Uttar Pradesh, depend on this money for their survival. Similarly remittances from the international Indian migrants are one of the major sources of for foreign exchange in India. In 2002, India received US\$ 11 billion as remittances from these people. State such as Punjab, Kerala and Tamil Nadu receive very large amount of money from their international migrants. Migration of people from Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, to the rural areas of Punjab, Haryana, has resulted in the success of green revolution and agricultural development in Punjab and Haryana.

The negative consequence of unregulated migration to the metropolitan cities of India has caused overcrowding. Development of slums in industrially developed states such as Maharashtra, Gujarat, and Delhi is the result of unregulated migration. The under-development gets even worse due to our migration of skilled people. Positive consequences of migrants act as agents of social change. The new ideas related to new technologies, family planning, girl's education, etc. get spread from urban to rural areas through them. Migration also leads to intermixing of people from diverse cultures and results in the evolution of composite culture. The mind set of people change.

The positive consequence of the migration leads to the redistribution of the population within a country. It results in balanced distribution of people according to resources. Rural-urban migration is one of the important factors contributing to the population growth of cities. Negative consequences of it results in imbalances in sex composition due to selective male or female migration. Large cities have unfavorable sex ratio as compared to rural areas due to high male immigration. Rural areas face shortage of skilled people because most of the skilled people migrate to urban areas. They start thinking broadly and the narrow views changes. Negative consequences of migration it also causes anonymity, which creates social vacuum and sense of dejection among individuals. Continued feeling of dejection may motivate people to fall in the trap of antisocial activities like crime and drug abuse. Migration affects the women more in the rural areas, male selective out migration leaving their wives behind puts extra physical as well mental pressure on the on the women which increases their vulnerability.

There are environmental consequences of migrations. Overcrowding of people due to rural-urban migration has put pressure on the existing social and physical infrastructure in the urban areas. This ultimately leads to unplanned growth of urban settlement and formation of slums shanty colonies. Apart from this, due to over-exploitation of natural resources, cities are facing the acute problem of depletion of ground water, air pollution, and disposal of sewage and management of solid wastes.

The studies (Lazar, (2013), Kavitha, (2013), Kamble, (2012), Prakash V, (2012), Suraj Thapa (2013), showed the benefits of migration such as the increase in income levels of the workers. This has led to a rising of their standard of living. About one-third of the migrating women have been successful in raising their standard of living; 86 percent of the workers have managed to increase their consumer power and 70 percent of the workers are able to spend much more than before on festive and other social occasions.

Out of the total migrants 91 million are males and the rest 218 are females. Thus migrants constitute around 30 percent of the total population, male and female migrants constituting 18 percent and 45 percent of their population respectively; of the total migrants, 87 percent were migrants within the state of enumeration while 13 percent were interstate migrants. Among the male migrants, 79 percent moved within the state of enumeration while 21 percent moved between states. Among females, 90 percent were intrastate migrants and 10 percent were interstate migrants.

It is observed that employment among males and marriage among females are the main reasons for migration. Associational reasons such as movement on account of accompanying parents or any other member of the family is elicited second most important reason among both male and female intercensal migrants. Around 44 percent of the total intercensal migrants have moved due to marriages. However, it is predominantly led by females as 65 percent of females have migrated owing to their marriages compared to 2 percent among males. Among male migrants, employment has continued to be the main reason for migration with nearly 40 percent of them accounted by it.

When interstate migration is taken into account, employment emerges as the main reason for migration. Nearly 32 percent of all interstate migrants during the intercensal period migrated for the reason of work or employment. This is closely followed by 'moved with household' reason accounting for around 30 percent of the intercensal interstate migrants.

There is growing evidence in India to suggest that the country is moving fast in the overall development. Structural transformation in the 1990s has propelled the growth of the economy further. The percentage of people below poverty line has reduced and per capita consumption has improved simultaneously. Although India economy is predominantly agricultural, the proportion of work force engaged in agricultural activities has fallen significantly. This reduction is perhaps, a sign of enhanced job opportunities in other sectors. With this scenario of an optimistic economic growth at the national level, an attempt is made to relate the levels of migration of each state with some social and economic indicators. The following variables have been considered for the preliminary analysis:-proportion urban per capita income, proportion of non-agricultural workers, density, and economic dependency ratio, average earnings of rural labor, sex ratio, proportion age 15-59 and sex ratio of age 15-49. Zero order correlation coefficients of these variables with migration levels is expected to provide some insights on the mechanisms of push pull factors of spatial mobility in India. The measurement errors in both the state of variables, socio economic variables as well as migration, cannot be summarily ruled out, although efforts will be made to maximize the reliability.

In recent years, several changes in India are like to have impacted on the pattern and pace of migration. The pattern of growth in the last two decade has steadily widened the gap between agricultural and non-agricultural and between rural and urban areas, and it has steadily concentrated in a few areas and a few state. The growing spatial inequalities in economic opportunities must have necessarily also impact on the pace and pattern of migration. Uneven growth and a growing differential between agricultural and industry is a necessary concomitant of the pattern of development. Migration has historically played a role in reducing the gap in living standards between sectors and areas and in fuelling growth in the more dynamic sectors. The crucial question is whether, and to what extent, migration has been able to play this role in the Indian context. Since migration is diverse, attention has generally been focused on different groups of internal migrants, and a great deal of analysis has focused on the poorest segments, for

which both the costs and benefits could potentially be the highest. Changes in several factors in recent decades have impacted on migrant labour markets and on migration.

Labour out-migration may also speed up qualitative changes in extant labour relationships in rural areas, and thereby affect the pace of change. This may occur in several ways. First, there is the well-documented impact of migration on attitudes and awareness as migrant labourers and return migrants are more reluctant to accept adverse employment conditions and low wages. Second, out-migration leads to a more diversified livelihood strategy. Combined with some increase in the income and employment portfolio of poor households, this may tend to push up reservation wages in rural areas and may make certain forms of labour relationships more unacceptable (cf. Rogaly et al. 2001).

Out-migration as a result of debt or debt-interlocking involving the employees in the destination areas or their middlemen is quite common. Such out-migration may or may not lead to the elimination of the causes of debt. On the other hand, the reduction of personalized dependencies or interlocked relationships may accelerate labour mobility and migration (Srivastava 1987; Breman 1974, Mosse et al.1997).

The macro NSS data show that urban migrants are more likely to experience occupational change and mobility than other migrants. On the whole, after the initial change, a very small proportion of male migrants acquire further economic mobility in the destination areas (Srivastava 2011; Haberfeld 1999; Mosse et al.1997). The limited mobility occurs as migrants acquire a foothold in the destination areas or acquire some skills, and they are thus better positioned to exploit the labour market situation. Interestingly, Gupa and Misra (2002) show that socio networks are not very helpful in achieving upward mobility. In the source areas, there is a slightly greater impact on social and economic mobility, which, however, generally eludes the poorest, and in most cases, is not substantial for poor migrants (Rogaly et al.2001; Deshingkar et al. 2008).

Studies of the impact of migration on income and asset inequality are quite limited. The ethnographical study quoted above (Rogaly et al.2001) finds some evidence of reduced inequality, as income of labour households rise vis non-labour households. On the other hand,

Mosse et al. (1997) suggest that these inequalities increased because the differentiated nature of the migration process led to the amplification of income and asset inequalities.

Finally, migration has a differential impact on individual household members and inter-household relations. When one member of a family migrates alone, or even when family members migrate together seasonally, migration may have varied intra household impacts. The impact of migration on women, children and the elderly, both as participants in migration and as those who are left behind is an important area of study.

In the context of above discussion, the current study has been undertaken with the following objectives.

### **OBJECTIVES:**

The objectives of the study are:

- To study the socio-economic profile of the sample migrants,
- To assess the occupational details of the sample migrants,
- To identify the reasons for migration,
- To analyze remittance behaviour of the sample migrant workers and
- To highlight the problems faced by the migrants

# *REVIEW OF LITERATURE*

## **CHAPTER-II**

### **REVIEW OF LITERATURE**

The literature pertaining to the study on “**Causes and Consequences of Migration: A Study of Seasonal Migrant Workers in a Select Areas**” is presented under the following heads:

2.1 Theoretical Frameworks on Migration

2.2. Studies on Migration

2.3 Other related Studies

#### **2.1 Theoretical Frameworks on Migration**

The process of theorization of migration began in the 19th century. It has been discussed by sociologists, geographers and economists, who have respectively emphasized the social and cultural, the distance and economic factors as the causes of migration. The sociologists discussed demographic, social, physiological, economic and attitudinal factors to explain the migration flows. Economists have focused their attention on the causes and consequences of migration. They have been discussing role of wages, income, levels of employment and unemployment in influencing migration flows. Geographers are largely concerned with the movement of people in space and territorial redistribution of population.

#### **Ravenstein’s Laws of Migration**

The first name worth mentioning in theorization of migration is of Ravenstein. On the basis of internal migration data, at first, in Britain and later in twenty more other countries, he postulated laws of migration in his two classic papers, which have stood the test of time and have remained the starting point for the most of the contemporary migration theories (Ravenstein, 1889). He made out five explicit and two explicit statements concerning patterns, migratory streams, migration motives, characteristics of migrants and distance of migration. His laws of migration are as follow:

- Migration and distance: The rate of migration between two points will be inversely related to the distance between these two points. Long distance migrants have preferences for large centers of commerce and industry.
- Migration by stages: The inhabitants tend to move firstly towards towns and then migrate towards the most rapidly growing cities.
- Stream and counter-stream: Each main current of migration produces a Compensating counter current.
- Rural –urban differences in propensities to migrate: The natives of town are less migratory than those of the rural parts of the country.
- Technology communication sand migration: The magnitude of migration increases with the advancement of technology. It further accelerates with the growth in means of transport and communication and expansion of trade and industry.
- Predominance of females among short distance: Among the short distance, female migrants appear to dominate. Moreover females in general are more migratory than males.
- Motives behind migration: The economic motives is always predominant factor in influencing the decision to migrate

On the basis of the above description, he concluded that people move from an area of low opportunity to the areas of high opportunity. However some of his laws like female predominance in short distance, distance and migration, migration by stages etc.

### **Lee's Conceptual Framework for Migration**

On the basis of Ravenstein's Laws of Migration, Everett S. Lee (1966) postulated a general schematic framework for analyzing the volume of migration, the development of streams and counter streams and the characteristic of migrants. He elucidated the factors associated with the decision to migrate and the process of migration into four categories:

- Factors associated with the area of origin
- Factors associated with the area of destination
- Intervening obstacles and
- Personal factors

## Volume of Migration

The volume of migration within a given territory varies with the degree of diversity in the area included in that territory.

- The volume of migration varies with the diversity of people.
- The volume of migration is related to the difficulty of surmounting the intervening obstacles.
- Unless severe checks are imposed, both the volume and rate of migration tend to increase with time.
- The volume of migration varies with fluctuation in the economy.
- The volume and rate of migration vary with the state of progress in a country or in an area.
- Migration tends to take place largely within well-defined streams.
- For every major migration stream, counter stream also develops.
- The efficiency of the stream is high if the major factors in the development of a migration stream were minus factors at origin. In other words, origin push factors are relatively more important than destination pull factors.
- The efficiency of stream and counter stream tends to be low if origin and destination are similar.
- The efficiency of migration stream will be high if the intervening obstacles are great.
- The efficiency of migration stream varies with the economic conditions being high in prosperous times and low in times of depression.

The dominant theory of migration at the individual level is neo-classical economics, which states that rational actors migrate because a cost-benefit calculation leads them to expect positive net returns from international movement (Borjas, 1989 and Todaro, 1976). Migration is conceptualized as an investment in human capital; people move to places where they can be more productive given their skills (Sjaastad, 1962); yet before they can reap the higher wages associated with greater productivity they must pay the cost of travelling, looking for work, learning a new language and culture adapting to a new labour market and cutting odd ties

(Todaro, 1970). Potential migrants estimate the cost and benefits of moving to alternative locations and go where the expected net returns are greatest (Borjas, 1989, 1994).

At the household level, the dominant theoretical paradigm falls under the domain of new economic of labour migration in which it is argued that households members move collectively not merely to maximize expected income but also to overcome various market failures (Sudhir,1992 and Todaro 1976).

### **Lee's Theory of Migration**

Ravenstein's law of migration was restated by Evert Lee in 1956. To him, the forces exerting influence on migrant's perceptions were grouped into Push and Pull factors. The former are Negative Factors, which force migrants to leave the origin areas, while the latter are Positive Factors attracting migrants to destination areas.

### **Dualistic Theory**

Lewis (1954) developed his approach to rural-urban migration on the basis of dualistic nature of third world countries. This model assumes a dual economy consisting of two sectors (i) traditional agriculture sector with zero or very low productivity and surplus labour and (ii) a high productivity modern urban industrial sector which absorbs from the subsistence sector through gradual transfer. The Lewis theory of dualistic economy only explains the rural-urban migration but also focuses the growth of employment in the modern sector. The labour migration from rural to urban employment growth is caused by output expansion in the modern sector. The acceleration of the progress depends upon the rate of investment. Capital investment is possible when there is excess of modern sector profits over wage under the assumption the capitalists regularly reinvest all their profits. The levy of progress in the industrial sector is assumed to be constant and taken as affixed premium over the subsistence level of wages in the traditional agriculture sector (urban wages would have to be dived atleast 30 percent higher than average rural wages in order to induce the rural labour to urban industrial sector). The process continues till the surplus labour in the agriculture sector is exhausted or the wage gap in both the sectors is minimized.

## **Sjaastad Human Capital Approach**

In 1962, Sjaastad advanced a theory of migration which considers the decisions to migrate as an investment decision involving of an individual expected cost and returns over time. The components of costs consist at transport expenses, subsistence until getting a job in the destination, cost of income forgone in the origin, cost of training for a new job and physical costs of adjustment in the new surroundings /social customs, food habits and so on. Similarly benefit constitute both monetary and non-monetary component i.e. the present values of expected aggregate income over the life time and psychic benefits as a result of a location preferences. If expected benefits in terms of higher earnings over the future years exceed the cost of moving from the region the individual concerned would, move.

This theory helps to explain while most of the migrants belong to younger and productive age groups, since for them psychic cost of adjustment is low. Income foregone in the native place is low, while the expected gain of the movement over the life time is much greater.

## **2.2. Studies on Migration**

**Rath et al., (1989)** mainly examined the “Socio-economic Conditions of Out-migrants of Ganjam Districts (Orissa)”. Such out-migrants (Dadan labourers) reported differed exploitation and harassments at the hands of the agents who recruited them and also the principal employers who provided them employment. Though, a very old system the Dadan out-migration has been portrayed as an institution of exploitations by the press in early 70’s with the help of survey method. The study has been conducted to collect information pertaining to the socio-economic condition of migrant’s labourers household in various blocks of Ganjam district. The study had observed the individual workers outmigration on their own without the agent supports. The push factors were stronger than the pull factors in causing out-migration whatever little role the pull factors play, they are observable as motivations only for eth first experience of Dadan labourers. The study had further remarked that “ the legal measures taken by the government to regulated the Dadan system so as to bring relief to the out-migrants in the event of exploitation could not be realized because of in built snags in the law which had given rise to the clandestine drafting

and trafficking of Dadan labourers”. This study has the lacuna by not covering the Surat migrants which has been found predominantly in the villages of Ganjam

**Kasar (1992)** has focused light on “The Seasonal Migration of Farm Labourers from Dry and Backwards Tracts of Maharashtra” to co-operative units in irrigation sector for employment and income earnings. He has identified the important factors behind the seasonal migration, engaged in harvesting and transport of sugarcane during crushing season of sugar factories. This seasonal migration had depended upon the involvement of middlemen who generally exploit poor, literate and fragmented agricultural labourers. The problems are further aggravated by involvement of the basic facilities of education and health. Hence, the study had significance in view of examining the socio-economic features of migrants and the effect of migration in the economy. The seasonal migration has significant effect on the annual gross family employment of migrants households as the migrants were indebted than the non-migrants.

**Singh and Ghaffari (2001)** examined “Rural-Urban Migration: A Search for Economic Determinants the Contributing Factors for Rural-Urban Migration” may either be push or pull with the dormers guided by force of internal circumstances and the latter by the presence of external attractions or incentives. The present study attempted to identified the major push and pull factors responsible for rural out migration ,based on the data collected from 1991 census for 50 district of Uttar Pradesh. The OLS regression model had been applied to examine the impact of various determinants of rural-urban migration. It has been found that development of educational facilities as well as irrigation facilities in rural areas and acceleration of industrialization process in these areas are significant variable sin abating the flow of rural exodus. The study concluded that the result of the regression model were impressive. The three variable in the pull model explained 51 percent of variation in the push model explained 41 percent of eth variation in (RUM). Considering the fact that rural-urban migration depends on a number of social, economic, demographic, political, cultural and educational factors, the magnitude of R<sup>2</sup> in the analysis indicated the good fit for the regression model, the result of the regression analysis suggests some policy implication which are useful for controlling the undesired flow of rural population. According to the findings based on descriptive as well as statistical analysis, the existing educational facilities in urban areas in a crucial variable in rural exodus. Thus, to control the flow of rural-urban migration, more educational facilities including

more school and colleges of good quality need to be established in the vicinity of villages and small towns. Since lack of development of the non-households manufacturing sector in the rural areas is an important contributing factor in rural-urban migration, development of industrialization process in rural areas is a necessity also on the basis of the result of the regression models, lack of irrigation facilities acts as a significant push factor to rural out migration. To abate the unbalanced flow rural population to urban area high priority must be given to development of irrigation facilities in rural areas.

**Maharatna (2003)** analyzed the “Brighter side of Seasonal Migration”. This study was based on field surveys of two locations of rural West Bengal during the 1990’s. It presented contrasting scenarios fertility behavior and its transition for a tribe, namely sandals, between two locations as well as between sandals and lower caste people in the same village.

**Naresh and Sindhu (2005)** examined the. “Pull and Push Factors in Labour Migration: A Brick-Kiln Worker in Punjab”. A sample of 200 workers drawn from 25 brick-kiln located in their districts of Punjab was interviewed. This study found that industrial development, better job opportunities and comparatively higher wages in Punjab were emerged as the most important pull factors which motivated labour to migrate. Lack of development, inadequate agricultural land and poor economic conditions of family forced labour to migrate out of their native place. The study further found that economic factors were emerged more significant as compared to non-economic factors in the process of migration. The study recommended that in view of the slow absorption rate in the urban industrial sector, the labour migration should be regulated. Concrete plans and their effective implementation were necessary to minimize the differences between the economic opportunities in urban and rural sectors.

**Sundari (2005)** in her research work on “Migration as a livelihood strategy: A Gender Perspective”, based on a sample study of female migrant workers in Tamil Nadu, highlighted the trends, pattern and nature of female migration in Tamil Nadu, the push and pull factors of migration and finally the role of migration as a livelihood strategy. The major push factor was lack of employment opportunities in the place of origin caused by drought and the pull factor was a favorable employment situation in the destination areas. After migrated there was sizeable improvement in self-employment and regular salaried jobs for women.

**Nair (2005)** studied “Migrant labourers from Kerala and the Impact on Household Economy: Kerala the Southernmost State in India” has emerged as major Centre for exporting for human resource to the oil rich gulf countries in South Asia. The national family health survey Kerala in 1992-963 provided a unique opportunity for assessing the impact on some socio-economic variables. The survey in Kerala included on questions on emigration from Kerala, especially to Middle East counties. The study concluded that the analysis of the NFHS I of Kerala revealed that the estimate rate of out-migration from Kerala to other countries is 2.1 percent. Applying this rate to the projected population it was estimated to be 626, 55 migrants. A sample of 4387 households with a migrant family member was included in the analysis of socio- demographic characteristic and economic impact on the household in Kerala. The analysis revealed that most of the migrants (88.6 percent) had migrated to the gulf countries. Migrants were mostly men, young currently married and literates. While migrants were from religious groups, Muslims (42 percent) were more than Hindus or Christian. Most of the migrants worked as labourers.

**Sidhu and Naresh (2005)** made an attempt to identify “The Push and Pull Factors” which influence workers inter stare migration, on the basis of the perception of workers. A sample of 200 workers draw from 25 brick kiln located in three districts of Punjab was interviews. This study found that industrial development, better job opportunities and comparatively higher wages in Punjab have emerges as the most important pull factor which motivated labour to migrate. Lack of development, inadequate agricultural land and poor economic condition of family forces labour to migrate out of its native place. The study further found that economic factors have emerged more significant as compared to non-economic factors in the process of migration. The study recommended that in view of the slow absorption rate in the urban industrial sector, the labour migration should be regulated. Concentrate plans and their effective implementation are necessary in order to minimize the difference between the economic opportunities in urban and rural sectors.

**Catalina (2006)** used data of “Mexico While Studying about Migration, Remittances and Male and Female Employment Patterns”. They traced the impact of international remittances on the labour supply of working age men and women in Mexico. They accounted for the endogeneity of remittances income and examined differences in the hours worked in various

type of employment by men and women in urban and rural areas, owing to their remittances income. Remittances may reduce or increase work hours depending on the gender of the recipient the, location of the household and the type of work. The income effect appears to dominate in the case of women in rural areas, who seem to be using remittance to purchase durables. Higher remittances appeared to be associated with a reduced male labour supply in informal sector work and urban self-employment.

**Ramesh (2007)** in his study on “Out Migration of Labour from Rural Areas”, made an attempt to study migrants farm labourers, unskilled, skilled non-farm labourers in the village of Mahabubnagar District of Andhra Pradesh. The objectives of the study were to understand the nature and characteristics of migrant labour in a drought prone area, find out causes behind these migration and to analyze their problems like wages, exploitation of contractors etc. The study examined the major characteristics of migrant labourers and also analyzed the housing conditions, health conditions and also brought out the importance of non-farm sector. The study concluded that the labour demand is not adequate to provide sufficient work to the existing rural labour force in the villages. There is thus shortage of employment opportunities and uncertainty of work. The situation had prompted some workers to shift occupations and some to shift places. It is mostly the younger males who go out of the village for work. The workers who stay behind are mostly elderly persons. Efficient and hardworking workers do not experience any difficulty in getting employment.

**Meiyan (2007)** analyzed in his study on “Migrant Workers vs. Urban Local Workers: Employment Opportunities and Earnings Differentials in Urban China”. The study examined the duality of urban labour markets during the transition in china and decomposes the components of the earning differentials between migrant’s workers and urban local workers. The results showed that nearly 15.62 percent of the hourly earnings differentials between migrant workers and urban local workers were due to the inter occupational earnings differentials while the remaining is caused by intra occupational earning differentials. The study concluded that urbanization is an important theme in the economic and social development of any nation. The process of urbanization is itself the process of constant merging and converging of rural and local workers in terms of income, social security and welfare, opportunity for and quality of education, employment conditions and living environment. The children of migrant workers should be able

to enjoy equal opportunity for and the same quality of education as their urban counter parts ,thus reducing and eventually eliminating all sorts of differences in the generational transition. Since almost all public services, policies and even behaviours of enterprise are intricately related to its exclusive welfare implications, migrants workers have been comprehensively excluded from the mainstream of urban economic and social life.

**Kaur (2007)** conducted a case study “Migration for Work: Rewriting Gender Relations in” argues that poverty is not the only push factor for women to migrate. She discusses cases where women migrate independently to improve their existing socio-economic conditions under different circumstances, which are mainly to get better employment. Rigid caste restrictions at the place of origin discourage women to enter in paid work which compel them to move to the urban areas to create an economically comfortable life for themselves as well as for their children.

**Reshmi (2009)** in a study on “Gendered Vulnerabilities, Discrimination and abuse among Women Migrants: A Special Reference to Return Domestic Workers in Kerala, India” discussed about the working conditions and problems faced by the returning migrant domestic workers to their original destination. The study considers of six villages of Thiruvananthapuram, and revealed that a sizeable proportion of the migrants moved without any formal contract and many of them faced a lot of abuse during the recruitment process. The majority of them suffered from harsh working conditions like long working hours and physical and sexual abuse and emotional stress due to the detachment from their families. Migrants who had higher education and whose relatives were present at the place of destination were less likely to face any kind of discrimination but the majority of them had no support mechanism.

**A.E.R.C University (2011)** in a study on “Impact of MGNREGS on Wage Rates, Food Security and Rural Urban Migration in Haryana” collected data from five districts of Haryana namely, Mewat, Ambala, Panipat, Sirsa and Rewari. All the districts have completed three phases of MGREGA. Two villages were selected from each district and 25 samples were selected from each village, making the total sample size 250. The major objectives of the study were identification of factors determining the participation of the people and households in MGNREGS, impact of implementation of MGNREGS on employment, share of women in

employment and change in their social status due to self-earnings, impact on MGNREGS and non MGNREGS wage differentials, impact of MGNREGA rural food security impact of MGNREGA on rural urban migration, overall assessment of the scheme and policy implications and impact of MGNREGA on assets creation and sustainability. The study brought out both positive and negative aspects of MGNREGA. The study concluded that NREGA has helped to improve the income level of the beneficiaries through both, increase in the wage rates and additional work, their food security, and that too with productively utilizing the scarce resources.

**Kamble (2012)** in his study “Labour Migration among Backward Castes (BCs) in India” used secondary data published by NSSO rounds, NSS reports, Ministry of Labour, Government of India publications and others. The main objectives of the study were to study the nature and the extent of the migration of labour in India, to examine labour migration among backward caste in India and to study problems of labour migration among backward castes in Maharashtra. The study revealed implication and policy guidelines to deal with problem of labour migration among backward castes in India. Labour migration is an important labour problem in India, which has severe consequences and important implications for India. Migrated labours have been facing a number of severe problems like nature and extend of employment, physical or intellectual work, rates of wages, levels of income, provision of basic necessities of life, number of working hours, disposal of income, social security service, social service like education, health and medical, social status, political power and many more.

**A.E.R.C University (2012)** conducted a study on “Impact of NREGA on Wage Rates, Food Security and Rural Urban Migration in Kerala”. The major objectives of the study were to measure the extent of manpower employment generated under NREGA, their various socio economic characteristics and gender variability in all the district implementing NREGA since its inception in Kerala, to compare wage differentials between NREGA activities and other wage employment , to study the effect of NREGA on the pattern of migration from rural to urban areas, to find out the nature of asset created under NREGA and their durability and identification of factors determining the participation of the people in NREGA scheme and whether NREGA has been successful in ensuring better food security to the beneficiaries. In 2009-2010 Thiruvananthapuram district stood first with 1.23 lakh households and the lowest number of the households demanded employment was founded in Kottayam district in 2009-2010. As in 2008-

2009 the same Palakkad district with 1.42 lakh persons demanded employment ranked first in 2010-2011 also and Pathanamthitta district had a lowest number of households demanded employment

**A.E.R.C University (2012)** covering five districts, namely sharanpur, Etah, Barabanki, Allahabad and Kushi Nagar. In a study on “Impact of NREGA on wage rates, food security and rural urban migration in Uttar Pradesh” Each district belonged to different phases and is located at north, west, central, south and east part of the state. From each district 100 samples were taken. The major objectives of the study were to measure the extent of manpower employment generated under NREGA, their various socio economic characteristics and gender variability in sample district of U.P , to compare wage differentials between NREGA activities and other wage employment activities, to study the effect of NREGA and the pattern of migration from rural to urban areas, to find out the nature of assets created under NREGA and their durability, to identify factors determining the participation of the people in NREGA scheme and whether NREGA has been successful in ensuring better food security to the beneficiaries and to access the implementation of NREGA its functioning and to suggest suitable policy measures to further strengthen the programmed.

**Turkhade (2012)** analyzed “Migration-impact and Relevance of Remittance on Rural Areas”. This study was mainly based on secondary source and data is obtained from books and reports on migration and rural development. The main objectives of the study were to examine the impact of remittance on agricultural, health and education and poverty alleviation and inequality in rural areas. The study concluded that migrants usually keep their alliance with the place of origin. Migrant usually carry the knowledge which they impart to the native population by way of discussion and participation in various activities, their sense of importance of education which they realize and develop in their surroundings, their liberal attitude regarding the traditional social system, all these things directly contributed to the development of the rural areas. Almost all the migrants contributed to the development of the rural areas both economically and socially.

**Akthar and Azeez (2012)** emphasized on “Rural Employment Guarantee Programme and Migration” (Bihar, Kerala and Uttar Pradesh). The study revealed that migration is the only option for the landless and marginal farmers who are in constant debt. The push arising out of lack of livelihood options in the village and indebtedness and crop loss lead to the pull factors such as the attraction of the livelihood in the loan seasons. However, it has been established that migration enables one just enough earnings to tide over the distress in the loan season in no way helps to accumulate capital. The migrants and their households benefit individually, it is seen that this individual benefit occurs at the cost of net loss to both rural and urban areas, and decline in the social welfare, through overcrowding and increased population in urban destination areas and a greater regional concentration of wealth, income and human capital. One of the significant objectives of the MGNREGA is to arrest out migration of unskilled and landless labour force from the rural areas to urban areas by ensuring up to hundred days of wage employment within their native jurisdiction so that these guaranteed wage employment can be judiciously and rationally utilized by the landless peasants during loan and distress seasons.

**Nasir Anjum and Ullas (2012)** conducted a study on “Migration of Cottage Industry Workers, (Uttar Pradesh)”. The survey covered 246 cottage industry workers from nine blocks. Ambedkarnagar is one of the important district of Uttar Pradesh which contributed in providing employment and supplementary income to thousands of artisans, villagers and peasants during slack agricultural season. A percentage tool was used in this study. The major objectives of the study were to assess the economic condition of cottage industry workers and to find out the causes of non-migration for cottage industry worker. The region of the study is found to be the Centre of cottage industry in eastern U P. Most of the industrial workers are engaged in cottage industries. As far as migration is concerned insignificant numbers of cottage industry workers migrated towards cities. In spite of low earnings they do not prefer to migrate as they have attachment for their native place and are satisfied with their present work.

**Kumar (2012)** in his study on “Impact of Rural Migration of Agricultural Labours of Bihar in Assam” made an attempt to study the factors responsible for migration of labours of Bihar to a far flung area of south Assam and its impact on the economy of the migrant labours of Bihar. The socio-economic profile of these labour societies has also been affected by their migration. In order to study the problem , a sample of 200 Bihar labourers working in Silchar

engaged in different institutions, establishment and commercial concern, have been taken and on the basis of responses made by them a critically analysis has been done. This rural labour has also shifted to developing states of Assam, Orissa and Arunachal Pradesh. Unlike other states of Gujarat, Kerala, Tamil Nadu and west Bengal, the migration of rural labour of Bihar are most confined to different centers inside the countries. Migration of rural labourers of Bihar is both of permanent as well as seasonal migration of Bihar labourers in nature. The seasonal migration of Bihar labourers in Assam is mostly categorized as weavers, bricklin workers, rice god own workers, while permanent migration includes workers who get regular work throughout the year and acquire handsome income from the work. Such workers are: Washer man, shoemaker, hawkers, kerosene sellers, rickshawallas, thellawallas, bag carriers, railway porters and other important wholesale food stochastic.

**Sarkar (2012)** studied the “Migration Livelihood and Experience of paid Domestic Workers in Delhi”. Today demand of women in care service especially in domestic work in urban areas is very high. In urban India increasing nuclear and single parent families, greater participation of women in formal workforce are important reasons which fuel this demand. Women who migrate from very poor families from rural areas to urban areas locales with low or nil skill, literacy or with very little education fulfill this demand. In Delhi workers, who provide paid domestic service are mostly migrants, most of them first generation and very few second or third generation migrants. The present study explored the migration experience of part time paid domestic workers in Delhi by conducting a primary survey (2010-2011). If tries to understand the reason of migration from different backward states of India as well as from its neighboring countries like Bangladesh and Nepal. Further the paper demands the need of implementing decent work standards for these workers which will further improve the quality of life and would bring an overall development in society.

**Shree (2012)** conducted a study on “Female Tribal Migrants as Domestic Workers”. A study of the compulsions and working conditions in migration is not new phenomena in any part of the world. Ever since the world existed, people have been and are still migrating. According to the NSS 2008, a migrant is defined as “a household member whose last useful place of residence anytime in the past, was different from the present place of enumeration was considered as a migrant member in household”. Migration can be seen as in various perspectives. It has acquired

significance because of the labour mobility. Almost 400 million people, more than 85 percent of the working population in India, work in the unorganized sector however men and women migrants especially those working as domestic workers end up being exposed to severe vulnerabilities. Most of the domestic workers are deprived of overtime pay, public holidays and timely payment of salaries. They are exposed to hazardous working and living conditions, lack of sanitation, malnutrition, fatigue, separation from family, forced restriction, loneliness, physical exploitation by the manager and supervisor in the factories they work in, which affect the mental health of these women.

**Mohan (2012)** in his study on “Rural Employment Programme and Migration” emphasized on the landless and marginal farmers who are in constant debt, migration is the only choice for livelihood. The push arising out of lack of livelihood options in the village and indebtedness and crop loss leads to the pull factors such as the attraction of livelihood in the lean seasons. However it has been season and in no way helps to accumulate capital. Today every year thousands of people across the length and breadth of the region leave their native villages in search of food and employment. Most end up as bonded labourers being paid minimal daily wages. Though the migrants and their households might benefit individually it is seen that this individual benefit occurs at the cost of net loss to both rural and urban areas, and a decline in social welfare, through overcrowding and increased population in urban destination areas and a greater regional concentration of wealth, income and human capital. Though there has been some decline in the incidence of migration from the beneficiary households, seasonal and distressed migration continues to take place. This is primarily because of the non-availability of jobs when needed, and the lack of awareness about the details of the provisions and entitlements under the scheme among the potential beneficiaries of the schemes. The efforts to educate these migrants about the benefits of the MGNREGS at the place of departure itself are likely to have an impact and persuade the migration to stay back in their home states and avail of the benefits of this scheme.

**Pandey (2013)** analyzed the “Changing Dynamics of Rural Urban Male Migration and Economic Development in India after Economic Reforms”. In the process of economic reform in India, the gap between rural and urban areas in terms of economic development has been increased and to a greater extent the increasing rural urban male migration is the result of

increasing regional disparities in the level of economic development in different states of India. The census data of male migration up to 2011 is too early to analyze the impact of economic reforms on the process of rural-urban migration and its inter-relationship to economic development. In this context the present study which is based on the data of rural-urban male migration given by National Sample Survey gives the latest pictures of rural – urban male migration in India. To find out the interlink age between rural urban male migration and economic development an OLS model has been used and the results suggested that rural to urban male migration in India is still guided by the economic development and regional disparities. The study concluded that rural urban male migration in India is increasing after economic reforms and it is attributed to the regional disparities in different states in terms of economic development. Inter-district and inter-state rural urban male migration is increasing while inter-district rural urban male migration is decreasing over time of the period which show the changing nature of male migrants in India in which male migration are preferring big urban Centre's where job opportunities in urban formal and informal sectors are growing and they can get jobs with the help of social networking.

**Ponnusamy and Srinath (2013)** tested “The Mechanism of Rural Migration and Technological Interventions to reduce it (Bhubaneswar)”. Hundred rural women migrants were randomly identified and investigated in four labour markets of Bhubaneswar city in Orissa for assessing the socioeconomic conditions. The study was based on the preliminary investigation ground level situation of states of agriculture was studied in Ganjam district where the large scale migration took place. District migration in rural areas take place due to economic compulsions and the failure of agriculture to provide enough job opportunities. The migration flow is further aggravated with natural calamities such as flood and drought in regions which are also poverty ridden. Both at origin and destination the employment sectors for migrants are unorganized and also their gender issues such as loss of social fabric and securities, increased physical and mental drudgery, reduction in active work life and lack of educational measures must be adapted through entrepreneurial skills and profitable agriculture practice to reduce rural migration.

**Thapa (2013)** focused on “Urban Migrants and Electrical Issues in Ludhiana City (Punjab)”. Based on field work undertaken during the Punjab Assembly Election 2012, the present study tried to understand and analyze the key electrical issues raised by the local migrant leaders for mobilizing support from the migrant community. Taking recourse to oral narratives in migrant leaders contesting at different levels, the study was conducted in Ludhiana, the first metropolitan city of Punjab, which is dominated by small scale industry and has people from different states. The paper argues that because of the numerical presence in the city the migrants have emerged at a distinct and separate stratum. Owing to their relatively better economic condition and their importance as voters. Migrant voters have been forced to play an active role in the politics of the city.

**Lazar (2013)** conducted a study on “Migrant Labour in Kerala, A Study of Trissur City”. The study has been based on a sample of 100 male migrant workers to the Trissur city from many places. The objective of the study was to analyse socio economic characteristics of migrant labourers in Trissur city and reasons for their migration and to understand the living and working conditions of the migrants. The study concluded that the migrant population is a boon to Kerala economy as it faces shortage of labour force with its labour migrating to other countries. The migrants have entered into almost all sectors of Kerala and play a pivotal role in the progress of the economy. But Kerala is not free from the numerous problems due to increased migrant labour. Social events, increasing crimes, spread of infectious disease, poor sanitation, drug trafficking and hawala. Bangladesh refugee hideouts are some of the issues which need to be addressed. Employers should provide basic facilities to the migrant labourers.

**Kavitha (2013)** in her study on “Migration of Women Labour-An Empirical Study” (Karnataka), analyzed a sample size of 100 women labour households pursuing different types of occupation were selected for survey in Chitradurga town of Karnataka. The study used percentage tools in their study. The objectives of the study was to access the socio economic background of the women migrants, to identify the socio economic factors responsible for migration to examine the change in employment, wages and other living conditions of the women after migration and to examine the problems of the women labour migrants. The study revealed that about one-fourth of the women migrants from rural areas are not satisfied with their

present jobs/work. Due to severe unemployment in the society they have to migrate to other places/towns for the searching jobs/work.

### **2.3 Other related Studies**

**Gupta (1990)** in his study examined the “Migratory Process of Farm Labour” in the context of their socio-economic characteristics, factors of migration, method recruitment and relative deprivation in the agriculturally advanced state of Punjab.

**Nayak (1993)** has mainly studied the “Problems of Migration” in Ganjam and Puri districts of Orissa. The study focused light on the situation of migrant labour prevalent in Orissa. The study pointed out that remittance received by the rural households from the migrants not only enhanced the level of income through increasing the productivity of rest of household members by adjusting newer technologies in their productive process but also improve their life style. The study points out that migration are rarely a solitary affair. Potential migrants did not wish their decision in isolation. Most of the majority flow indicated that the labourers to migrate in groups mostly with kiths and kin. Many of the migrants do not have choicest destination of their own, their movement is regulated either through a contractor or an agent sometimes to a place whether a friend/ relatives stay and provided with initial assistance.

**Partha (2004)** illustrated that people have been moving from one place to another since the dawn of mankind. In south Asia, the migrants and the original inhabitants are alike in almost all resources, with the only difference being religion. Against the background, the problems of refugees, migrant stateless and displaced person in South Asia assumed important dimensions. The author has emphasized two aspects-the political issues involved and secondly on the issue of regional security. The study concluded that the problem of migrants and refugees in South Asia cannot be addressed unless the receptive developmental models of the regional states are coordinated.

**Neetha (2004)** conducted a case study of migrant female ‘Domestic Workers’ in Delhi that focused on the significant role of women in migration and the survival of their family. The author argued that specifically in gendered labour market like domestic work, women play a vital role where they can mobilize females for subsequent migration. Female domestic workers assist

migration by providing income support, information about the destination, residence and access to jobs. Networking of 'domestic workers' through kith and kin encourages mobility of women from rural areas to the metropolis, which further leads to gendering of domestic work and creation of a strong segmentation and identity formation among domestic workers. Female migrants play an active role even in decision making for the family; they acquire the status of household head and prime breadwinner. Thus, the author demands that female migration needs to be seen as a part of migration system and subsystems with numerous roles and functions.

**Borman and Das (2004)** in their work on "Urban Migrants and Rural Development" tried to analyze that there is a long standing debate on urbanization and urbanism as a way of life. One view stated that due to urban influence rural migrant feel alienated and get disillusioned. Another view stated that rural migrants in urban areas tend to cling together in specific pockets. They form welfare association to take care of their interest, mainly saving the slums resist eviction by municipal boards.

**Patel (2005)** conducted a sociological study of "Migrants Tribal Farm Labourers in Villages of Anand district of Gujarat". In his study he attempted to study the migrant tribal farm labourers in villages of Anand district of Gujarat. Seventy five migrant's tribal farm labourers were selected from villages like Mogri, Karamsad and Gana. Information was duly classified and analyzed. The objective of these studies were as follow to understand the inter-relationship to the tribal migrants with cultivators and other group of villages; to find out some reasons behind these migration; to know their problems like wages, exploitation etc. The tribal migrants in these villages were proved employment by cultivators, mainly patidars. They gave them daily wages ranging between Rs 40 to Rs. 45. Even though wage rate depend upon the type of agricultural work and seasons the rate is high in the monsoon and winter season than in summer. Sometimes they are served with biddies and teas. The vacuum created by local landless welcomes then because they believed that they are loyal, faithful, diligent, trustworthy etc. sometimes land owner sexually exploit the women. Cultivators took more work from them. It was essential to know the age of tribal migrants because age always had a bearing on the efficiency of work.

**Freeman (2006)** studied about the “Causes and Consequences of Immigration” and showed that people flows are large and growing but remain smaller than the trade and capital flows and represent a promising way to Attain global economic benefits. Greater mobility of labour across borders could raise the output and economic well-being of workers in developing countries. Recipient countries could experience modest gain as well, not because immigration can be economically and culturally disruptive, countries are unlikely to favour free immigration event to the moderate extent that they favour free trade. People flows will become more important in globalization and should help to reduce global inequality among workers around the world.

**Sharma and Iyer (2010)** discussed the critical exploitative situation faced by many migrant domestic workers by the recruitment agent’s especially Nepali women who come to India as domestic workers or some who go to other destination countries. The paper demands strong security for women in this occupation, and also emphasizes the formalizing of domestic work which could further help them to organize themselves and provide support and recognition to access legal resource in case of exploitation. The paper critically refers to the lack of information at the source region, lacunae in the system that permits passports and other paper, absence of any bilateral agreements between Nepal and Saudi Arabia, lack of mechanisms to protect domestic workers in destination countries which encourages international trafficking, etc.

**Gautam (2012)** questioned “Can we Check Migration from Rural Areas”. There is continuous migration from rural to urban areas in search of better employment opportunities and living standard. During the last fifteen years rural population has decreased from 82 percent to 68.9 percent. Migration from rural to urban areas is from 27.8 percent to 31.1 percent since 2001. It is estimated that approximately two million people are shifting from rural to urban areas annually and approximately 22 million people have migrated from rural to urban areas since 2001. Further, approximately 55 percent of the households in rural areas and 67 percent of the households in urban areas had migrated for employment related reasons. Loss of job opportunity in agriculture is the primary factor of driving people away from agriculture.

**Jayaraj (2013)** focused on “Family Migration in India ‘Push’ and ‘Pull’ or Both or What” in this paper an attempt has been made to provide an account of family migration which is a relatively under researched phenomenon, in India. The analysis, while suggesting the importance of factors related to both growth theory (“Pull”) and Third world Urbanization (“Push”) versions in explaining family migration, also brings out the importance of evolving a framework that incorporates the complex interplay of social, political, environmental and development-related factors for a more comprehensive understanding of family migration in India and in other parts of the developing world. A study of family migration also assumes importance as it entails forgoing all benefits arising from social networks created by long years of association with the society in which the family had been living. It may take considerable time for a migrant family to get assimilated into the new village/ urban society into which it moves. The migrant families, especially long-distance migrant families, live in constant fear of insecurity of life. An attempt has been made to provide an account of family migration in India, a relatively under researched phenomenon. In this connection, growth theory and Third world urbanization strands of reasoning on migration have been employed. While in the growth theory version, migration is seen as being induced by expanding opportunities in the urban areas, in the world urbanization version migration is seen as being induced by the failure of the rural labour market to provide employment opportunities to the growing labour force. It may also be noted that both versions concentrate only on labour market related migration/movement. The analysis in the paper also indicates that in a period of impressive growth of the economic, migration of families in search of livelihood had gone up. The increase was from around 1.7 in lakhs in 1993 to 3.5 lakhs in 2007-2008. This suggests that assessment of the economy based on the overall growth of the economy may be misleading. The impact of such growth to provide secure livelihood options to family’s needs to be taken on board in assessing the overall performance of the economy.

**Roy and Avijit (2011)** in this study “Impact of Migration on Economic Development: A Study of Some selected States” that they made an attempt to investigate firstly, the impact of a variety of economic and non-economic factors on net state in-migration and secondly, the impact of net migration on the level of economic development in fifteen major states of India. Migration has been a major source of human survival, adaptation, and growth across the centuries and

millennia. In the early days human migration was accompanied by anticipation, excitement, fear, the fracturing of long-standing social relationships, heartaches, tensions, and even bloodshed between the migrants and the local populations, and the willing or unwilling exchange of ideas, skills, attitudes, and genes the over whelming majority of people who move do so inside their own country. Data reveals that internal migration is four times higher than international migration. And when it comes to internal migration, case of Indian economy is of particular interest because of the strong heterogeneity across states in their levels of per capital income, and demographic characteristics. We have identified two Pull and two Push factors of inter-state migration in India. The other variable, crime rate, has 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 are rather concerned about basic needs of life. This calls for importance of basic needs approach to human development in India states. Further, migration-development relationship tested in the study indicates that level of development is positively associated with net migration. This is an important finding as it defends the controversial though that migration is beneficial for development and there is no reason to raise voice against human mobility in the content of India economy.

**Singh (1998)** analyzed the “Socio-economic Profile of Migrant Rural Labourers in India” Labour is an important factor of production in absence of which no single productive activity can be started. Labour may extend physical as well as intellectual services. But labour should get necessary and desirable employment opportunities at places they live. It is development activities that generate employment opportunities. It is a fact that economic development activities have been concentrated in urban areas and not in rural areas. Only agriculture and some allied activities have been located and developed in rural areas in the economy like India. Hence, migration is inevitable especially from rural areas to urban areas. This migration of labour has certain implications for the economy like India. Migration of labour can pose some problems like nature and extent of employment, physical or intellectual work, rates of wages, levels of income, provision of basic necessities of life, number of working hours, disposal of income, social security services, social services like education, health and medical, social status, political power etc. the distribution of migrants by migration streams (i.e., rural to rural, rural to urban, urban to rural, urban to urban areas) is generally associated with the degree of economic and social

development. Population pressure on land, increased opportunities for work, education and a variety of reasons including marriage in case of females contribute to migration to rural or urban areas.

**Sahu (2012)** conducted a study on “Migrant Workers- Present Position and Future Strategy towards Social Security” migration of workers is a human phenomenon which has historical roots and wider implications. The search for the source of survival or quest for Eldorado, the blissful life, has ever remained the inspiring and the dovetailing force of migrations within countries or of trans-migration. Migrations have economic genesis but resulting socio-political cultural ramifications. Indeed, mingling of different cultures has had positive consequences as well as placing strain on the culture and life of the upcoming society affected in either way by migration. In economic parlance, migration is perceived as when a person is engaged or likely to engage in a remunerative activity in a place of which he is not a native or national. Migration is an important feature of human civilization. It reflects human endeavours to survive in the most testing conditions both natural and man-made. Migration in India has existed historically, but in the context of globalization and opening up of the world economy it has assumed special significance for the country and the society. As a consequence of historical and economic factors, there are serious income disparities, agrarian distress, inadequate employment generation, vast growth of informal economy and the resultant migration from rural areas to urban, urban to urban and backward to comparatively advanced regions in the most appalling conditions.

**Ravi Srivastava (2011)** analyzed the “Internal Migration in India” internal migration for India shows that migration is dominated by female migration. This is mainly due to the widely prevalent social custom of exogamous marriages. Both the census and the NSS record this as the first reason for migration given by respondents. Since the NSS gives an elaborate set of 18 reasons, which can further be clubbed into broader categories, we have discussed the NSS results below. Compares the stated reasons for migration for 1999-2000 and 2007-2008. Marriage-related migration predominates in both rural to urban areas gave marriage as the reason for migration in 2007-2008. Marriage-related migration has increased as a percentage of female migrants, over the successive surveys. Among all (male + female) migrants, marriage-related migration of women alone constitutes 68.5 per cent of all migration. For male, migration for

economic reasons has been cited as the most important reason for migration. In 2007-2008, 28.5 per cent of rural male migrants and a majority -55.7 per cent –of urban male migrants gave economic reasons for migration. Joining one's parents and/or the earning member of the family is the second most important reason for migration for both male and female migrants in both urban and rural areas. Eight per cent of rural male migrants also cite involuntary reasons for their migration. Shows that among urban male migrants, economic reasons for migration have become more important in recent years. In 1992-1993, 41.5 per cent urban male migrants cite economic reasons for migration. But this figure increased to 51.9 percent in 1999-2000 and further to 55.7 percent 2007-2008. Both the census and the NSS show an increase in these rates over 1991-1002, although the figures are still less than the rates but only for urban male migrants. In 1993, 12.73 percent of the urban population consisted of people migration to within urban areas for economic reasons. This increased to 13.17 percent in 1999-2000 and further to 14.36 percent in 2007-2008. The overwhelming preponderance of marriage-related migration skews results on trends and patterns in certain directions. Excluding marriage-related migration, internal migration in India is comparatively more employment oriented, male oriented and long distance. A re-tabulation of the NSS 2007-2008 migration data without marriage-related migration shows that males form 59.1 percent of migrants, while females formed 40.9 percent of migrants. Of the male migrants, 49.55 percent were employment oriented, while 5.1 percent of the female migrants were employment oriented.

## *METHODOLOGY*

## **CHAPTER-III**

### **METHODOLOGY**

The methodology relating to the current study on “**Causes and Consequences of Migration: A Study of Seasonal Migrant workers in a Select Areas**” is discussed under the following heads;

3.1 Selection of the area

3.2 Selection of the problem

3.3 Collection of data

3.4 Period of study

3.5 Techniques of analysis

#### **3.1 Selection of the area**

As per Census 2011, Erode has population of 2, 251,744 of which males and females were 1,129,868 and 1,121,876 respectively. In 2001 Census, Erode District had a population of 2,016,582 of which males were 1,024,732 and remaining 991,850 were females. District Erode has rural population (Census 2011) which is Eleven lakhs, two thousand, two hundred and fifteen (11, 02,215). Urban population of Erode according to census 2011 is Eleven lakhs, fifty seven thousand, and three hundred and ninety three (11,579,393). This population consists of local as well as migrant population from different regions of Tamil Nadu. Further as per Census India 2011, that density of Erode district is 391 people per sq.km.

The total number of workers in the Erode district were 1012356 of which males were 674357 (66.61 percent) and the remaining 425407 (42.02 percent) were females (Census 2011). Of the total the rural workers constituted about (61.02 percent) and the urban workers accounted for (47.61 percent). Among the total workers, 196194 were cultivators, 323597 were agricultural workers and 53575 were employed in household industries. The other workers accounted for (43.36 percent), marginal workers (32.62 percent) and non-workers were (132.62 percent).

### **3.2 Selection of the problem**

Migration can result in the permanent relocation of an individual or household, which may be termed as permanent migration. But if individuals migrate leaving their families and land and property in the area of origin, they may do so with the intention of reverting back to the area of origin. This is more likely to happen if the individuals have previous jobs in the destination areas or if the cost of permanent relocation is high relative to its benefits. In such a case, although individuals may find a hold in the destination areas, it may be called as semi-permanent or long-term circular. If individuals, or groups of individuals, migrate for temporary periods, either moving from place to place or to a fixed destination, such migrants are seasonal or circular migrants. Usually, these three types of migrants have different model characteristics.

Data on internal migration in India is principally drawn from two main sources—the decennial population Census and the quinquennial migration surveys carried out by the National Sample Survey office. Both these sources provide a wealth of data on migration. The census defines a migrant as a person residing in a place other than his/her place of birth or one who has changed his/her usual place of residence to another place (change in usual place of residence or UPR definition). The NSS confines itself to the UPR definition. In both the surveys, a resident is defined as one who has been staying in a location for six months and more (except newly born infants). The Census collects data on the age and sex of the migrant, reason for migration, its duration, place of origin, and the industry and occupation of the migrant; the results are available up to the district level. The NSS also collects additional data on items such as the consumption expenditure of the migrant's household, educational attainment, activity, industry and occupation of the household at the place of origin, as well as remittances.

### **3.3 Collection of data**

A sample of 120 labourers who are in-migrants into Erode district, who are pursuing different types of occupation was selected for survey in Erode District of Tamil Nadu. Data for the study were collected by administering interview schedule, (Appendix I) personally by the investigator. The interview schedule consists of questions on the general profile of the respondents, such as, age, religion, community, and total family income. The other migration related details were also asked and collected.

### 3.4 Period of study

The data for the study were collected from the respondents, in the month of December 2013.

### 3.5 Techniques of analysis

#### 3.5.1 Data analysis

The collected data were analyzed using percentages and graphs.

#### 3.5.2 Multiple Regression Analysis

Multiple regression analysis is a statistical technique which is used to analyze the relationship between a single dependent (criterion) variable and several independent (predictor) variables. Its basic formulation is

$$Y_1 = b_0 + b_1X_1 + b_2X_2 + \dots + b_nX_n + e$$

where  $Y_1$  – dependent variable,  $X_1 \dots X_n$  – independent variables,  $b_0$  – intercepts,  $b_i$  - coefficient of the independent variable ( $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ ) and  $e$  – random component.

Multiple regression analysis was applied to determine determinants of migration.

#### 3.5.3 Garrett's Rating Scale

To find out the strength of factors ranked by the selected sample groups in relation to the reasons for migration and facilities available in migrated area Garrett's rating scale technique was used. From the ranks given for each factor, percent positions were calculated by using the formula.

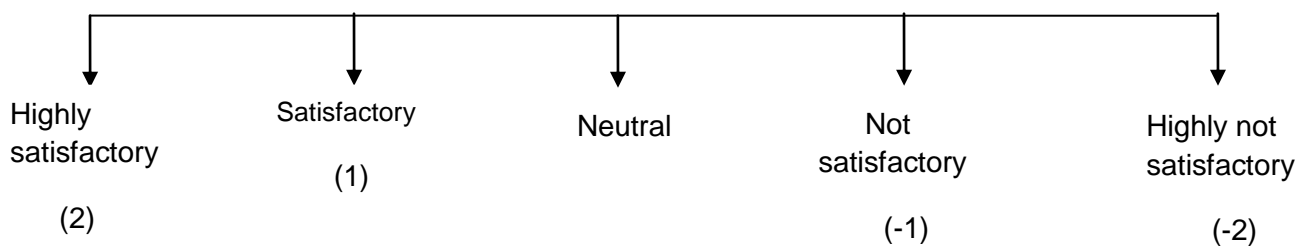
$$\text{Percent position} = 100 * (R - 0.5) / N$$

Where  $R$  is the rank assigned and  $N$  is the number of items ranked. The percent position was then converted into scores using Garrett's scores table (Garrett H, 2005).

Garret ranking scale technique was used in ranking the various reasons for Migration and Facilities Available in Migrated Areas.

### 3.5.5 Likerts' Summated Scale

The Likert summated scaling technique was used to scale the reasons, lack of job opportunities, lack of education, climate changes, marriage, transport problem, communication, low salary, no cultivatable land, flood, poor environment, water scarcity, no proper health care system, high house rent, other specify, room facility, food, transport, education, water, sanitation, medical, communication and other specify In the Likert scale, the respondent was asked to respond to each of the statements in terms of five degrees of agreement or disagreement.



Each point on the scale carries a score. Response indicating the least favourable degree of satisfaction is given the least score (say 1) and the most favourable is given the highest score (say 5). These score values are normally not printed on the instrument but are shown here just to indicate the scoring pattern. The Likert scaling technique, thus, assigns a scale value to each of the five responses. The same procedure is repeated for each and every statement in the instrument. This way the instrument yields a total score for each respondent, which would then measure the respondent's favourableness toward the given point of view.

### Factor Analysis

Factor analysis is a generic name given to a class of multivariate technique whose primary purpose is to define the underlying structure in a data matrix. Broadly speaking, it addresses the problem of analyzing the structure of the interrelationships (correlations) among a large number of variables by defining a set of common underlying dimensions, known as factors. With factor analysis, the researcher can first identify the separate dimensions of the structure and then determine the extent to which each variable is explained by each dimension. Once these dimensions and the explanation of each variable are determined, the two primary uses for factor analysis, namely summarization and data reduction can be achieved. In summarizing the data,

factor analysis derives underlying dimensions that, when interpreted and understood, describe the data in a much smaller number of concepts than the original individual variables.

Factor analysis was used in the present study to identify the underlying variables such as pattern of lack of job opportunities, lack of education, climate change, marriage, transport problem, communication, low salary, no cultivatable land, flood, poor environment, water scarcity, no proper health care system, high house rent, other specify, room facility, food, transport, education, water, sanitation, medical, communication and others.

## *RESULTS AND DISCUSSION*

## **CHAPTER - IV**

### **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

The major findings of the study on “**Causes and Consequences of Migration: A study of seasonal migrant workers in a select area**” are presented and discussed under the following heads:

- 4.1 Socio-economic profile of the sample migrants
- 4.2 Occupational details of the sample migrants
- 4.3 Savings and debt of the sample migrants
- 4.4 Reasons for migration
- 4.5 Remittance behavior of the sample migrant workers
- 4.6 Problems faced by the migrants

#### **4.1 Socio-economic profile of the sample migrants**

The population foundation of India has done estimation of not only the total population but also of categorizing them by age, gender, religion etc. A clear insight into the socio-economic factors is of paramount significance to establish the influence of these factors on the life and activities of the respondents. A probe into the socio-economic conditions of the sample will be of immense use for any study. Since the age profile will be directly related to employment opportunities, the relevant information is summarized in the following table 4.1.1.

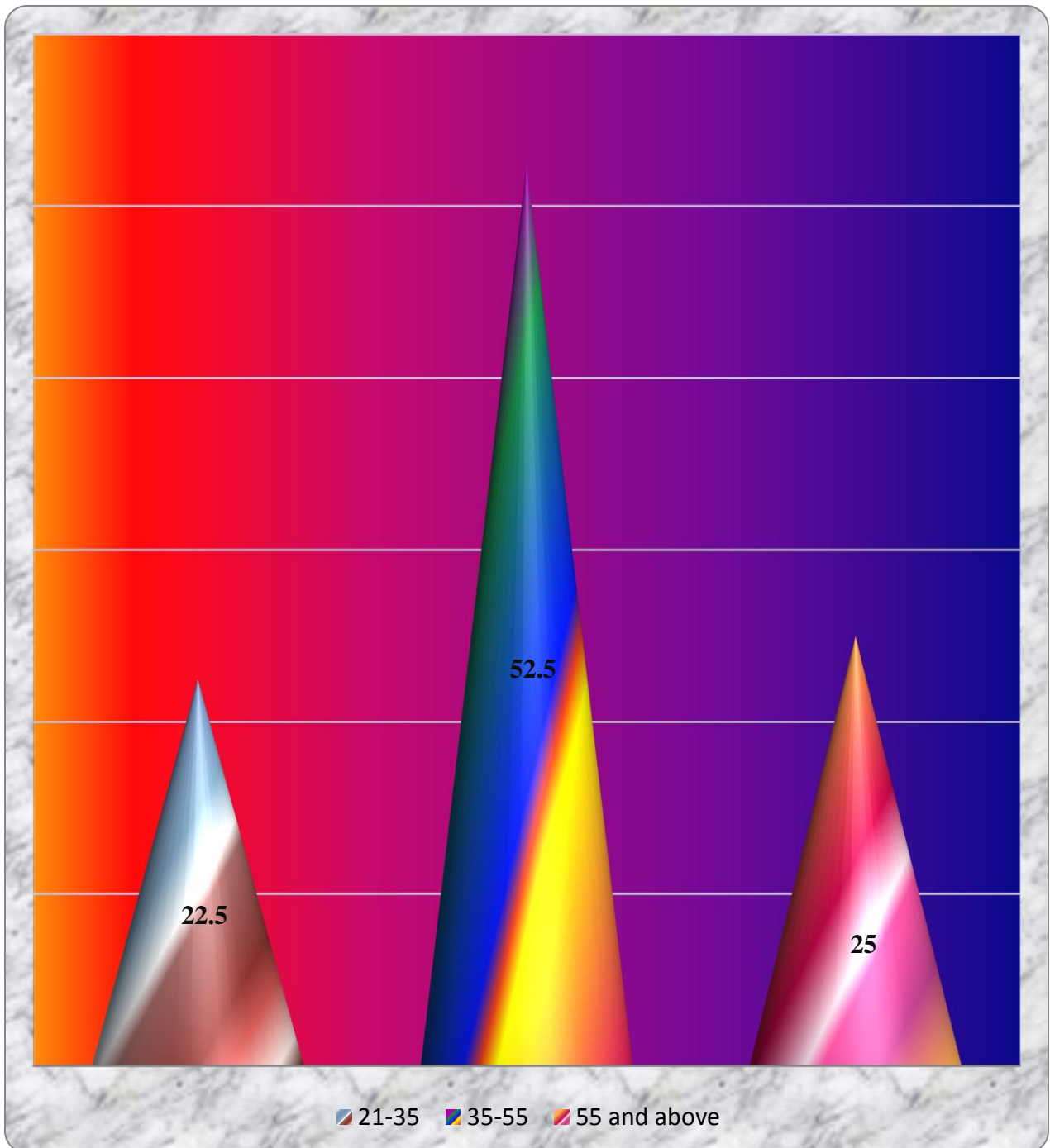
**Table – 4.1.1**  
**Age Composition of the Sample Migrants**

Age (in years)	Number of Respondents					
	Male	Percentage	Female	Percentage	All	Percentage
<b>21-35</b>	7	11.7	20	33.3	27	22.5
<b>35-55</b>	27	45.0	36	60.0	63	52.5
<b>55 and above</b>	26	43.3	4	6.7	30	25.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>60</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>60</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>120</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: Field Survey, 2013

Most of the migrant workers (both male and female) 52.5 percent were in the age group of 35-55 years. The type of work that these migrant workers do is unskilled work that demands hard physical works which may be the reason for large number of workers are found in most productive age group. The migrants were found equally distributed in all age groups.

**Figure – 4.1**  
**Age Composition of the Sample Migrants**



## Religion-Wise Distribution of the Sample Migrants

A religion is an organized approach to human spirituality which usually encompasses a set of narratives, symbols, beliefs, practices and is used interchangeably with faith or belief system. In India religions come under different categories namely Hindu, Muslim, Christian, Buddhism, Jainism and Sikhism.

**Table – 4.1.2**  
**Religion-Wise Distribution of the Sample Migrants**

Religion	Number of Respondents					
	Male	Percentage	Female	Percentage	All	Percentage
Hindus	51	85.0	55	91.7	106	88.3
Muslims	3	5.00	-	-	3	5.00
Christians	6	10.0	5	8.3	11	9.17
<b>Total</b>	<b>60</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>60</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>120</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: Field Survey, 2013

The greater part of the migrants population belong to Hindu category (88.3 percent). Remaining respondents belong to Christian i.e. 9.2 percent and five percent come under Muslim. Indian census (2011) has established that Hinduism accounts for 80 percent of the population of India and Hinduism is the predominant [religion](#) of the [Indian subcontinent](#).

## Caste - Wise Distribution of the Sample Migrants

Community is a group of interacting people living in a common location and is often refer to a group that is organized around common values and social cohesion within a shared geographical location, generally in social units larger than a household. In India, community is split on different group like backward, most backward, forward, scheduled caste and scheduled tribe it be a sign of social status.

**Table – 4.1.3**  
**Caste - Wise Distribution of the Sample Migrant**

Caste	Number of Respondents					
	Male	Percentage	Female	Percentage	All	Percentage
<b>Scheduled tribes</b>	8	13.3	9	15.0	17	14.1
<b>Scheduled caste</b>	6	10.0	7	11.7	13	10.8
<b>Most backward caste</b>	36	60.0	32	53.3	68	56.7
<b>Backward caste</b>	10	16.7	12	20.0	22	18.3
<b>Total</b>	<b>60</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>60</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>120</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: Field Survey, 2013

In the study area, it is evident that greater parts of the sample respondents belonged to most backward caste (MBC) i.e. 56.7 per cent and 18.4 per cent of the sample respondents come under backward caste (MBC). Next, to this scheduled tribe (ST) are 14.1 per cent and 11 percent of the sample respondents belong to scheduled caste (SC).

#### **Type of Family of the Sample Migrants**

Family refers to a group of people associated by a kinship or co-residence and to share love, care and affection with each other which shows the value of human being. In general, family structure is divided into nuclear family and joint family. The details on the type of family system prevailing among the population sample reported in table 4.1.4

**Table – 4.1.4**  
**Type of Family of the Sample Migrants**

Family Type	Number of Respondents					
	Male	Percentage	Female	Percentage	All	Percentage
<b>Nuclear</b>	2	3.3	7	11.7	9	7.5
<b>Joint</b>	58	96.7	53	88.3	111	92.5
<b>Total</b>	<b>60</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>60</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>120</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: Field Survey, 2013

Ninety three percent of the migrants followed joint family system; this is the main reason for migration to look after the family members. Only 8 percent were in nuclear family system. Nuclear families were seen to be more because of economic hardship and development of the ideology of individualizing and materializing.

#### **Marital Status of the Sample Migrants**

Marriage brings an important and major change in the lives of men and women irrespective of their economic position. The migration decision of an individual is influenced by marital status. It is observed that the distance moved by a migrant is found closely associated with the marital status, and depends, to some extent on his/her responsibilities towards the family. In this background, an attempt has been made in the study to know the marital status of the respondents.

**Table – 4.1.5**  
**Marital Status of the Sample Migrants**

Marital status	Number of Respondents					
	Male	Percentage	Female	Percentage	All	Percentage
<b>Married</b>	57	95.0	54	90.0	111	92.5
<b>Unmarried</b>	3	5.0	1	1.7	4	3.3
<b>Widowed</b>	-	-	5	8.3	5	4.2
<b>Total</b>	<b>60</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>60</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>120</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: Field Survey, 2013

Around 93 percent of migrant population both male and female was found to be married. It was surprising to note that five female members were widowed and they came from their families due to family conflicts and problems. To earn livelihood and have economic security they had decided to move out of their places of origin even to a long distance in search of employment.

### **Educational Level of the Sample Migrants**

The contribution of education to reduce the absolute poverty was recognized long ago. Education is expected to reduce absolute poverty the higher the level of education the lower would be the proportion of poor people in the total population. Table 4.1.6 shows the distribution of migrants according to their educational level.

**Table – 4.1.6**  
**Educational Level of the Sample Migrants**

<b>Education</b>	<b>Number of Respondents</b>					
	<b>Male</b>	<b>Percentage</b>	<b>Female</b>	<b>Percentage</b>	<b>All</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
<b>Illiterate</b>	30	50.0	22	36.7	52	43.3
<b>Primary</b>	1	1.7	14	23.3	15	12.5
<b>Secondary</b>	14	23.3	23	38.3	37	30.8
<b>Higher secondary</b>	10	16.7	1	1.7	11	9.2
<b>Degree</b>	5	8.3	-	-	5	8.3
<b>Total</b>	<b>60</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>60</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>120</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: Field Survey, 2013

The literacy levels of the sample population indicate that 43 percent of the migrant workers are illiterates; 30.8 percent of them had secondary level education. Among both males and females (12.5 percent) they had education up to primary level; 9.2 percent completed higher secondary level. Only 8.3 percent had studied up to degree. Because of the low level of

education they had opted to work in informal sector especially in unskilled jobs in construction industry which does not require any formal education.

### **Family Size of the Sample Migrants**

Family is one of the basic institutions of the society; employment and utilization of resources in any productive activity and its beneficial effects depend upon the size of the family. The size of family reveals the structure of family. It was classified into three categories small (up to four members) medium (4- 6 members) large (6-8 members) and very large (8 and above members). Table 4.1.7 gives the details on the size of the family of the migrant population covered in the study.

**Table – 4.1.7**  
**Family Size of the Sample Migrants**

Size	Number of Respondents					
	Male	Percentage	Female	Percentage	All	Percentage
<b>Upto 4 members</b>	10	16.7	16	26.7	26	21.7
<b>4-6 members</b>	18	30.0	15	25.0	33	27.5
<b>6-8 members</b>	24	40.0	18	30.0	42	35.0
<b>Above 8 members</b>	8	13.3	11	18.3	19	15.8
<b>Total</b>	<b>60</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>60</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>120</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: Field Survey, 2013

Information gathered regarding the size of the households of the respondents highlights the largest groups of households among the male migrants (40 percent) and female (30 percent) have been formed by those having 6-8 members in their family. The remaining 27.5 percent of the migrants have been formed by more than 4-6 members in both the groups. The percentage of small family was very minimum and 17 percent of both male and female respondents have large size families above eight members. Generally, a large family size is said to be the cause of low income, poverty and low standard of living. These migrant populations have no better economic assets other than their own labour and the more the workers or earners in the family, the more the earnings of the family.

## 4.2 Occupational Pattern of the Sample Migrants

Occupation refers to the type of activity performed by a household for higher livelihood. The nature of work, type of activity, numbers of days of availability of employment etc. decide upon the impact of migration on the household or individual migrant. Table 4.2.1 reports the occupational distribution of the sample migrant respondents included in the study.

**Table – 4.2.1**  
**Occupational Pattern of the Sample Migrant**

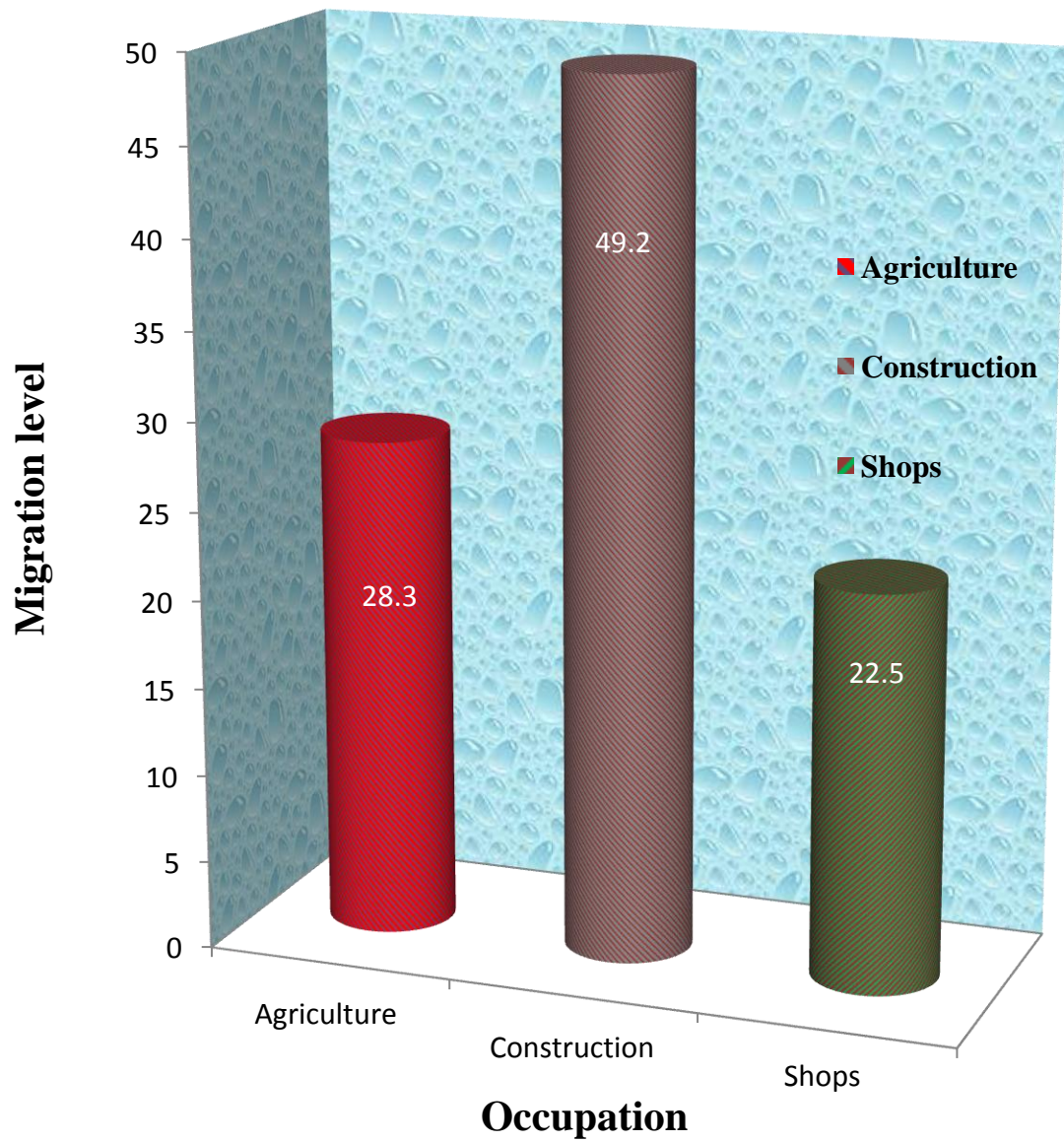
Occupation	Number of Respondents					
	Male	Percentage	Female	Percentage	All	Percentage
<b>Agriculture</b>	18	30.0	16	26.7	34	28.3
<b>Construction</b>	27	45.0	32	53.3	59	49.2
<b>Shops</b>	15	25.0	12	20.0	27	22.5
<b>Total</b>	<b>60</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>60</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>120</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: Field Survey, 2013

Main stream of the respondents from both the groups were engaged in construction activity. Among the male migrants majority (45 percent) were in construction, followed by agriculture (30 percent) and shops like garments, hotels etc... (25 percent). Among the female migrants, there were also engaged in construction (53 percent) followed by agriculture (26.7 percent) and shops (20 percent).

**Figure – 4.3**

**Occupational Pattern of the Sample Migrant**



## Distance between Native and Migrated Place

Migrants were found to visit their native places. Normally, they come from nearby locality. Table 4.2.2 shows the details about the distance between native and migrated place of the sample migrant in the study area.

**Table – 4.2.2**  
**Distance between Native and Migrated Place**

Distance	Number of Respondents					
	Male	Percentage	Female	Percentage	All	Percentage
Less than 150 km	18	30	9	15.0	27	22.5
150-300km	28	46.7	32	53.3	50	41.7
Above 300 km	14	23.3	19	31.7	33	27.5
<b>Total</b>	<b>60</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>60</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>120</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: Field Survey, 2013

Majority (41.7 percent) of the migrants travelled 150-300 km to reach the migration place and 27.5 percent of them found travel above 300 km. Only 18 percent of them commuted less than 150km.

## Types of Migration

The migrant workers shift to different places either individually or with families depending upon the nature of work and seasonality of work. Table 4.2.3 depicts the details of types of migration.

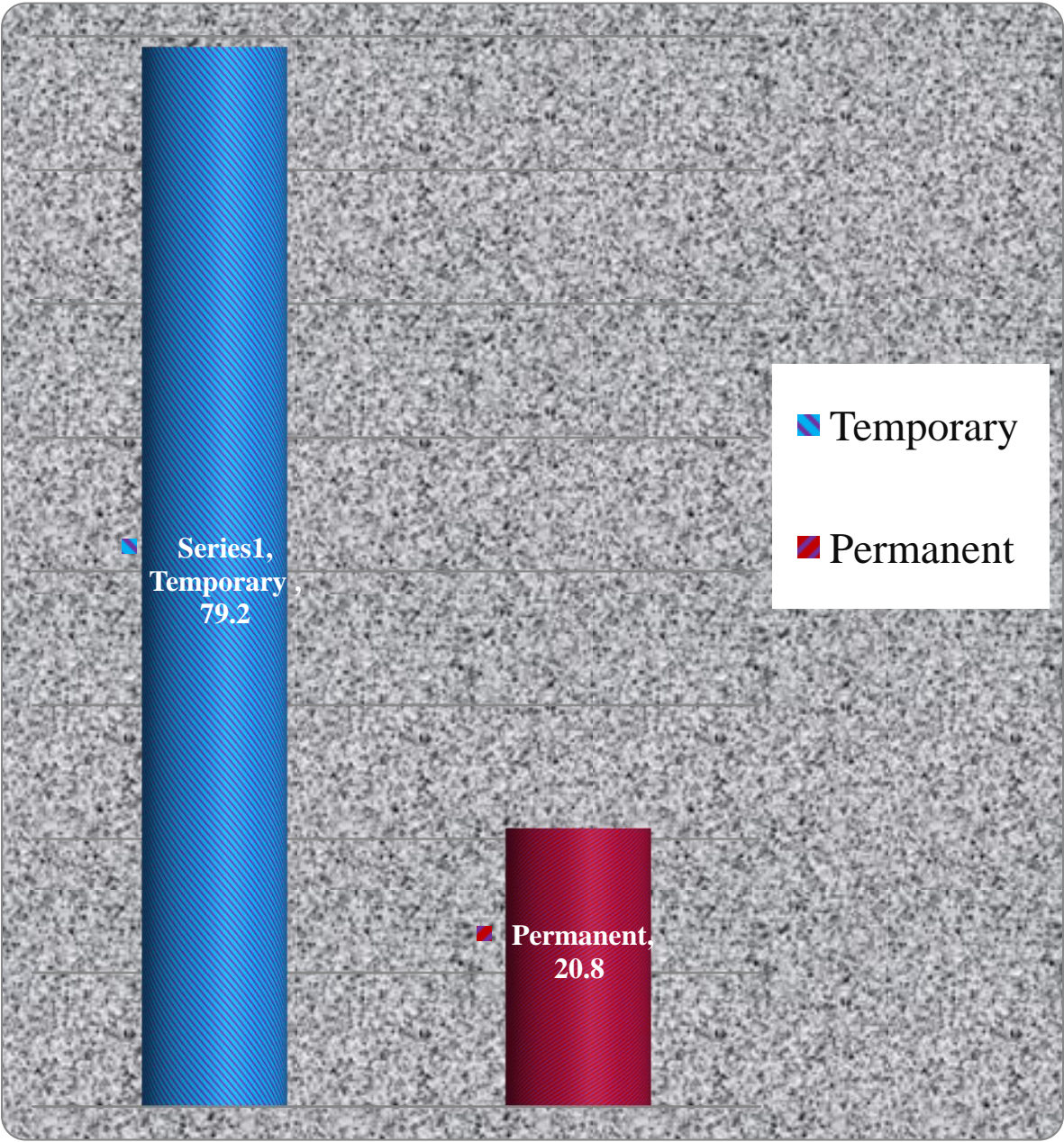
**Table – 4.2.3**  
**Types of Migration**

Migration	Number of Respondents					
	Male	Percentage	Female	Percentage	All	Percentage
<b>Temporary</b>	49	81.7	46	76.7	95	79.2
<b>Permanent</b>	11	18.3	14	23.3	25	20.8
<b>Total</b>	<b>60</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>60</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>120</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: Field Survey, 2013

Majority of the migrant respondents (79.2 percent) i.e. both male and female stated that they migrate just for temporary but they are willing to settle down in native place. Only 21 percent of respondents did not shift temporarily because they want to settle down permanent in migrated place.

**Figure – 4.4**  
**Types of Migration**



## Working Hours of the Sample Migrants

Working conditions are reflected through many things and one of the most important indicators is the hour of work. The hours of work was considered to gauge the extent of work burden on men and women this is depicted in table 4.2.4.

**Table – 4.2.4**  
**Working Hours of the Sample Migrants**

Working Hours	Number of Respondents					
	Male	Percentage	Female	Percentage	All	Percentage
Less than 8 hrs.	6	10	25	41.7	31	25.8
8-12 hrs.	50	50.0	33	55.0	83	69.2
Above 12 hrs.	4	6.7	2	3.3	6	5.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>60</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>60</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>120</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: Field Survey, 2013

Most of the sample migrants (69.2 percent) were working for a maximum of 8-12 hours a day because they start their business in the early hours of the day and go on till afternoon. Among these sample migrants only 25.8 percent worked for less than 8 hours a day, followed by 5 percent who worked more than 12 hours a day. There are no fixed working hours.

## Total Monthly Earnings of the Sample Migrants

Security of employment should ensure security of income. It is accepted that to ensure a decent standard of living, workers, need reasonably regular income. When wage rates are low, income insecurity may arise even though there is employment security. The inadequacy of income causes uncertainty and insecurity to workers. The details on income of the migrant workers get after migrations are given in table 4.2.5

**Table – 4.2.5**  
**Monthly Income of the Sample Migrants**

Income	Number of Respondents					
	Male	Percentage	Female	Percentage	All	Percentage
<b>Less than 10000</b>	9	10.0	11	18.3	20	16.7
<b>10000-15000</b>	42	70.0	44	73.3	86	71.7
<b>Above 15000</b>	9	15.0	5	8.3	14	11.7
<b>Total</b>	<b>60</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>60</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>120</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: Field Survey, 2013

Migrant workers were seen working in very many activities such as construction work, brick cutting, bricks shifting, mixing cement, agriculture etc. which do not require much of education and skill. Depending on the type of work, wages also varied between the men and females. The regularity in the availability of job and seasonal demand helped the workers to earn adequate amount of income. These levels of wages they could not earn at the places of origin due to lack of job availability and poverty. The attractive wages they earn at the places of destination were received either on weekly or monthly basis. The male workers were seen taking advance from the owners of brick chambers and often seen reducing the amount taken from their earnings regularly without paying any interest. Majority of the migrant workers (71.7 percent) had income between Rs.10000-15000; 17 percent of them had less than 10000. The economic conditions of these workers are such that they purchase their essentials on daily basis, only few items of consumption are brought in the weekly markets. These workers strictly follow working hours of eight hours per day. For extra hours of work, they are paid additional payment which adds up to their total earnings above Rs 15,000/month for both male and females migrant workers.

### **Part Time Job Detail of the Sample Migrants**

The table 4.2.6 reveal the details of the sample migrant have any other part time job in the migrate place.

**Table – 4.2.6**  
**Necessity for Part Time Job**

<b>Part Time Job</b>	<b>Number of Respondents</b>					
	<b>Male</b>	<b>Percentage</b>	<b>Female</b>	<b>Percentage</b>	<b>All</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
<b>Yes</b>	5	8.3	11	18.3	16	13.3
<b>No</b>	55	91.7	49	81.7	104	86.7
<b>Total</b>	<b>60</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>60</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>120</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: Field Survey, 2013

Nearly 87 percent of the migrant populations do have some part time job apart from the present job in the migrated place. Only 13 percent of them have part time job in the migrated place because both men and women have a motivation to remit money to their families.

#### **Discrimination at Work Spot among the Sample Migrant**

The table 4.2.7 reveal the about discrimination at work spot among the sample migrant

**Table – 4.2.7**  
**Discrimination at Work Spot**

<b>Discrimination</b>	<b>Number of Respondents</b>					
	<b>Male</b>	<b>Percentage</b>	<b>Female</b>	<b>Percentage</b>	<b>All</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
<b>Yes</b>	45	75.0	39	65	84	70.0
<b>No</b>	15	25.0	21	35	36	30.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>60</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>60</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>120</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: Field Survey, 2013

Nearly 70 percent of both male and female migrant respondents stated that they have discrimination at work spot which make them uncomfortable to work. Only 30 percent of them have no discrimination at work place which is according to their work environment and employer

### 4.3 Savings Details of the Sample Migrants

With increased earnings the incidence of saving is also likely to be higher. Along with income, savings are also an important indicator of economic status of households. When the woman saves it is great asset to the family. The details of savings by the sample migrants are reported in table 4.3.1.

**Table 4.3.1**  
**Savings Details of the Sample Migrants**

Details		Number of Respondents					
		Male	Percentage	Female	Percentage	All	Percentage
Place	Bank	6	37.5	7	36.8	13	37.1
	Post office	4	25.0	6	31.6	10	28.6
	Chit funds	3	18.8	4	21.0	7	20.0
	LIC	3	18.8	2	10.5	5	14.3
Amount	Less than 500	5	31.3	5	26.3	10	28.6
	500-1000	8	50.0	10	52.6	18	51.4
	Above 1000	3	18.8	4	21.0	7	20.0
Purpose	Education	2	12.5	5	26.3	7	20.0
	Marriage	4	25.0	3	15.8	7	20.0
	Future needs	10	62.5	11	57.9	22	62.9
<b>Total</b>		<b>16</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>19</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>35</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: Field Survey, 2013

The analysis of the savings behavior of the surveyed group revealed that about 35 migrants have saving habit and 65 migrants had no savings. The proportion of non-savers was high. Nearly half of the surveyed population (37 percent) reported that the bank was preferred as source of saving bank while for post office (28.6 percent); chit funds (20 percent) and LIC (14.3 percent) was also chosen by migrants for their savings. The amount of savings also

varied among the respondents with the majority (51.4 percent) of them savings of Rs 500-1000 per month and 28.6 percent of them have saved above Rs 1000. Only 20 percent of them had saved less than Rs 500 from their income. Majority (62.9 percent) of the respondents have stated that the major motivation for savings was to provide for future and the remaining (20 percent) have stated that they save for their children's marriage and for children's education.

### Debt Details of the Sample Migrants

Poverty and indebtedness generally go together. Low income coupled with lack of proper employment also induces these households to borrow to meet both current expenditure and also unforeseen expenditure. The details of the debt pattern are shown in table 4.3.2.

**Table 4.3.2**  
**Debt Details of the Sample Migrants**

Details		Number of Respondents					
		Male	Percentage	Female	Percentage	All	Percentage
Place	Bank	16	35.6	10	28.6	26	32.5
	Money lenders	19	42.2	19	54.2	38	47.5
	Chit funds	10	22.2	6	17.1	16	20.0
Amount	Less than 50000	9	20.0	14	40.0	23	28.8
	50000-100000	21	46.7	16	45.7	37	46.3
	Above 100000	15	33.3	5	14.2	20	25.0
Purpose	Education	11	24.4	8	22.9	19	23.8
	Marriage	11	24.4	14	40.0	25	31.3
	House buildings	18	40.0	3	8.6	21	26.3
	Health problems	5	11.1	10	28.6	15	18.8
<b>Total</b>		<b>45</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>35</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>80</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: Field Survey, 2013

Out of 120 sample respondents the 80 migrants had reported that they have debt. Inadequacy of income coupled with indiscriminate spending may have caused the migrants to borrow. The main source of borrowings among the migrants were from private money lenders (47.5 percent) and from bank was 32.5 percent because in the banks there was lot procedure to get loan or financial assistance and from chit funds (20 percent). Majority of the respondents (46.3 percent) had borrowed amount of Rs 50000 -10,0000 similarly 28.8 percent of them had outstanding amount of less than Rs 50000 and 25 percent had borrowed amount above Rs 100000. Thirty one percent of the migrants stated that the major reason for borrowing was “marriage”. The next important reason for borrowings was house buildings and 23.8 percent for education of their children, followed by medical care which was started by nearly 18.8 percent of the respondents.

#### **4.4 Reasons for Migration**

The reasons for migration in National Sample Survey (NSS) rounds have been elaborated by taking the economic reasons such as search for employment, better employment, transfer of job, proximity to work place, for pursuing study, after marriage, movement of parents or earning members, social or political problems, health, housing and other reasons. It is found that economic reasons among males and social reasons for females have been the most dominant reasons for migration. Factor analysis was used in the study to identify the underlying pattern of relationship between the various reasons for migration among the respondents and whether these dimensions can be grouped in terms of a composite variable. To determine the appropriateness by applying factor analysis the Kaiser Meyer Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett’s test measure were computed KMO statistics was .808 simplifying higher than acceptable adequacy of sampling. The Bartlett’s test of sphericity was also found to be significant at 1 percent level providing evidence of the presence of relationship between variables to apply factor analysis.

**Table-4.4.1**  
**KMO and Bartlett's Test Measures**

<b>Test Measure</b>		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.808
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	531.376
	Degrees of freedom	78
	Significance	.000

**Source: Estimation based on Field Survey, 2012**

The communalities for each variable were assessed to determine the amount of variance accounted by the variable to be included in the factor rotations. All the variables had value greater than 0.50 signifying substantial portions of the variance accounted by the factors. Table 4.4.2 enlists the Eigen values, their relative explanatory powers and factor loadings for 13 linear components identified within the data set.

**Table -4.4.2**  
**Rotated Component Matrix**

<b>Factors</b>	<b>Component</b>			
	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>
Lack of job opportunities	.832			
Lack of education	.777			
Climate changes		.698		
Marriage		.820		
Transport problem			.774	
Communication			.754	
Low salary	.768			
No cultivatable land	.754			
Flood				
Poor environment				
Water scarcity	.647			
No proper health care system				.633
High house rent		.789		
Eigen value	<b>4.360</b>	<b>1.591</b>	<b>1.295</b>	<b>1.059</b>
Percentage of variance	<b>33.537</b>	<b>12.238</b>	<b>9.963</b>	<b>8.149</b>
Cumulative percentage of variance	<b>33.537</b>	<b>45.774</b>	<b>55.737</b>	<b>63.886</b>

**Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis**

**Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization Rotation converged in 6 iterations**

The Kaiser rotated component matrix are presented in table 4.4.2. Factor 1 had significant loadings for five dimensions namely 'lack of job opportunities' 'lack of education', 'low salary' 'no cultivable land' and 'water scarcity'. Factor 1 was very powerful as it explains nearly 36 percent of the variance. Factor 2 had significant loadings on three dimensions namely; 'Climate changes', 'marriage', 'high house rent' which explains only 12 percent of the variance. Factor 3 had significant loadings on two dimensions namely 'transport problem' and 'communication' explains 10 percent of the variance. Factor 4 had significant loadings on one dimension namely 'no proper health care system' explains 8 percent of the variance. Thus these are the various reasons for migration among the migrant population.

### **Facilities Available in Migrated Areas**

Migration of people from one place to another place is an age old process. It dates back to human civilization. Its pace and progress has accelerated with the development of the country. It is the only factor which can change the demographic features of a region apart from the natural growth of population. It is an ingredient of changing socio-economic and political conditions. It mainly exists due to the wide disparity in economic and social condition between the origin and destination. Factor analysis was used in the study to identify the underlying pattern of relationship between the various facilities available in migrated areas among the sample migrants and whether these dimensions can be grouped in terms of a composite variable. To determine the appropriateness by applying factor analysis the Kaiser Meyer Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett's test measure were computed KMO statistics was .808 simplifying higher than acceptable adequacy of sampling. The Bartlett's test of sphericity was also found to be significant at 1 percent level providing evidence of the presence of relationship between variables to apply factor analysis.

**Table-4.4.3**  
**KMO and Bartlett's Test Measures**

<b>Test Measure</b>		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.733
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	208.841
	Degrees of freedom	28
	Significance	.000

**Source: Estimation based on Field Survey, 2013**

The communalities for each variable were assessed to determine the amount of variance accounted by the variable to be included in the factor rotations. All the variables had value greater than 0.50 signifying substantial portions of the variance accounted by the factors. Table 4.4.4 enlists the Eigen values, their relative explanatory powers and factor loadings for 8 linear components identified within the data set.

**Table -4.4.4**  
**Rotated Component Matrix**

Factors	Component	
	1	2
Room facility		.863
Food		.727
Transport	.627	
Education		.673
Water	.803	
Sanitation		
Medical	.782	
Communication	.653	
Eigen value	<b>2.984</b>	<b>1.261</b>
Percentage of variance	<b>37.301</b>	<b>15.761</b>
Cumulative percentage of variance	<b>37.301</b>	<b>53.062</b>

**Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis**

**Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization Rotation converged in 6 iterations**

The Kaiser rotated component matrix are presented in table 4.4.4. Factor 1 had significant loadings for four dimensions namely ‘transport’, ‘water’, ‘medical and ‘communication’. Factor 1 was very powerful as it explains nearly 37 percent of the variance. Factor 2 had significant loadings on three dimensions namely; ‘room facility’, ‘food’, ‘education’ which explains only 15 percent of the variance. Thus these are the some of the facilities available in the migrated areas among the migrant population.

### **Determinants of Migration**

Migration is considered a shift of people from one place of residence to another. Migrants move out from areas where employment opportunities are stagnant, where income is low and where the rate of population growth is high and attracted to areas of new industrial development

and areas of higher per capita income. Therefore, one continuing thread is the migration from one place to another in search of the highest rewards and greener pastures (Dharmaraj, 1993). Several factors are responsible for the movement of people from one region to another, for instance, age, sex, place of residence, educational level, and marital status and so on. To find out the determinants of migration of the sample respondents, regression analysis was used. In the present study, type of migration was hypothesized to be a function of, age, sex, marital status, family type, education, occupation and monthly income of the sample respondents in table 4.4.5.

**Table -4.4.5**  
**Coefficients<sup>a</sup>**

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
Constant	-.038	.350		-.108	.915
Age	.003	.003	.083	.901	.369
Sex	.124	.075	.152	1.643	.103
Family type	.182	.114	.126	1.589	.115
Marital status	.009	.053	.014	.169	.866
Education	.002	.007	.021	.255	.799
Occupation	.242	.043	.486	5.578	.000
Monthly income	5.870E-6	.000	.198	2.192	.030

**a. Dependent Variable: types of migration**

**\* & \*\* significant at 1 and 5 % level**

**R<sup>2</sup>: 0.560**

**F value: 8.224**

**T Value: .000\*\***

The R<sup>2</sup> value, measure of goodness of fit, was 0.56 variations in type of migration were explained by occupation and income of the respondents. The F ratio was significant at one percent level implying that the model showed good fit. Occupation emerged as a significant factor and had positive impact on types of migration. Another variable emerged significant for

migration was education which was found to have positive. Occupation and monthly income was the main factors determining for the migration among the sample migrants. Age, education, sex, marital status and family types have negative impact on migration.

#### 4.5 Remittance Behavior of the Sample Migrants

The remittances from urban areas or other countries to the rural areas of developing countries loosen family budgets and create the potential for investment and rapid economic development. Migrants can be seen as acting altruistically sending money and other forms of support to increase the welfare of family members. As the income of the migrant increases the household will be less likely to send remittances. As the number of people from an origin increase the migrants will have more responsibility to send more money. Ties between the migrant and origin household serve to strengthen the bond between them and have an impact on household who receive remittances from migrants affected migrant to household remittances. These remitted amounts were used by members at the places of origin for varieties of reasons were listed and the respondents, both men and women were asked to rank them in their order of preferences. The ranks were converted into percent position first and from the percent positions the individual scores were determined of a scale of 100 points by using Garrett's rating scale. The average scales and the ranks corresponding to each reason for remittances are shown in table 4.5.

**Table – 4.5**  
**Reasons for Remittance of Money**

<b>Reasons</b>	<b>Scores</b>	<b>Rank</b>
Consumption purpose at the home	28.25	2
Marriage expense of their children	19.46	7
To repay the old debt	30.02	1
To meet educational expenses	24.81	4
To meet Health expense	25.62	3
To buy agricultural land and other assets	22.05	6
To take care of elders at home	23.23	5

Source: Field Survey, 2013

It is evident from the table that both men and women remitted money to their places of origin for a number of reasons. The major reasons for remittances followed by the sample migrants in their life was ‘to repay the old debt’ (1st rank), most of the respondents were found sending money to pay back their old debts which they incurred due to various reasons earlier, followed by ‘consumption purpose at the home’ (2nd rank), ‘to meet health expense’ (3rd rank), ‘to meet educational expenses’ (4th rank) and to take care of elders at home (5<sup>th</sup> rank). To buy agricultural land and other assets (6<sup>th</sup> rank) which are useful for buying assets, land and also for doing some improvement on existing land like undertaking cultivation, providing irrigational facility or buying fertilizers etc. Marriage expense of their children (7<sup>th</sup> rank), were significant personal reason for remittance followed by the migrant workers.

#### 4.6 Problems Faced Due To Migrants

There are various problems faced by the migrant due to migration in their day to day life. The following table 4.6.1 depicts the problems faced fur to migration by the sample respondents.

**Table – 4.6.1**  
**Problems Faced Due To Migration**

Problems	Number of Respondents					
	Male	Percentage	Female	Percentage	All	Percentage
<b>Food</b>	6	10	6	10.0	12	10.0
<b>Language</b>	4	6.7	8	13.3	12	10.0
<b>Co-operation</b>	41	68.3	45	75.0	86	71.7
<b>Climate</b>	9	15.0	5	8.3	14	11.7
<b>Total</b>	<b>60</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>60</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>120</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: Field Survey, 2013

Majority of the sample migrants (71.7 percent) faced co-operation has their main problems because the co-workers did not help or support them; 10 percent of the sample migrants whether it is male or female they overcome the common problems like food and language. Only 12 percent of the sample migrants reveal the climate change is the problems met by them in the destination place.

## Loss Incurred Due To Migration

The following table 4.6.2 depicts the loss incurred due to migration.

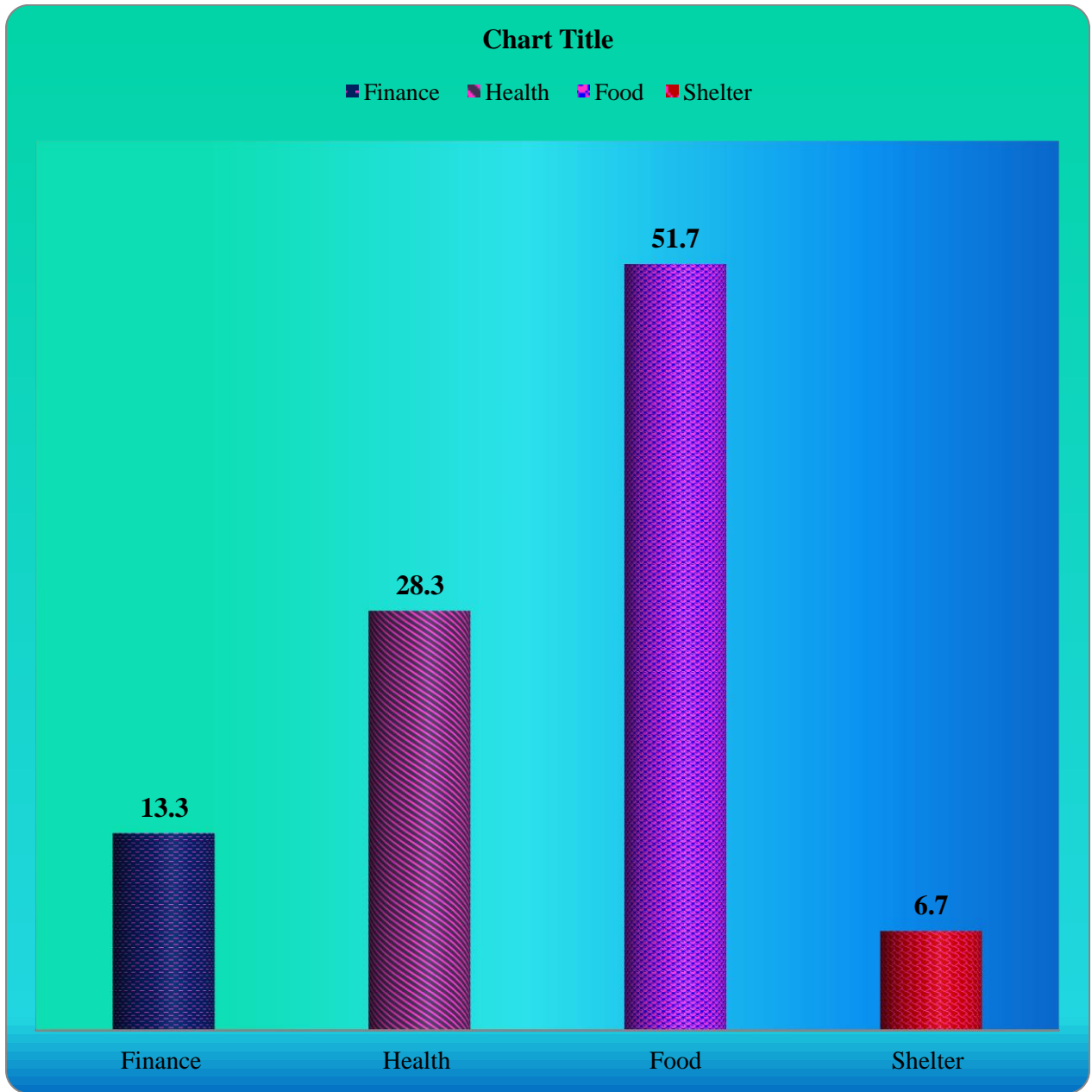
**Table – 4.6.2**  
**Loss Incurred Due To Migration**

Reasons	Number of Respondents					
	Male	Percentage	Female	Percentage	All	Percentage
<b>Finance</b>	4	6.7	12	20.0	16	13.3
<b>Health</b>	19	31.7	15	25.0	34	28.3
<b>Food</b>	36	60.0	26	43.3	62	51.7
<b>Shelter</b>	1	1.6	7	11.7	8	6.7
<b>Total</b>	<b>60</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>60</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>120</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: Field Survey, 2013

The major proportions of respondents (51.7 percent) reporting that food is the main loss incurred due to migration; 28.3 percent of them stated health problems met by them after migration; 13.3 percent had finance problem because at the beginning stage of the job and migration they do not have money to consume and only 7 percent of them yet now do not have any proper shelter. These are the various main problems faced by the sample migrants due to migration.

**Figure – 4.5**  
**Loss Incurred Due To Migration**



## Health Problems of Sample Migrant

Good health is the outcome of balanced and nutritious diet, healthy living atmosphere, proper rest and mental satisfaction. The people who working in the informal sector succumbed to various kinds of deficiency in food, resulting in fatigue leading to different types of health issues. The following table 4.6.3 gives an account of health problems faced by the selected sample migrant.

**Table – 4.6.3**  
**Health Problems of Sample Migrant**

Problems	Number of Respondents					
	Male	Percentage	Female	Percentage	All	Percentage
<b>Cold/fever</b>	6	10	10	16.7	16	13.3
<b>Allergic</b>	2	3.3	7	11.7	9	7.5
<b>Skin irritation</b>	9	15.0	10	16.7	19	15.8
<b>Respiratory problem</b>	1	1.7	5	8.3	6	5.0
<b>Body pains</b>	42	70.0	28	46.7	70	58.3
<b>Total</b>	<b>60</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>60</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>120</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: Field Survey, 2013

Most of the sample migrants had various health problems due to migration from the origin place. Most of them (58.3 percent) undergone body pains because they are doing hard work; lifting the heavy practical at the construction site and pains again due to their posture during working hours. Around 16 percent of the migrants had skin irritation. This is mainly due to the polluted environment at work spot. In the same way 13 percent of migrants often had cold and fever. In the study 9 migrants were found suffering from allergic and only 5 percent migrants met respiratory problems.

## *SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION*

## CHAPTER-V

### SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

Human migration is a universal phenomenon. It is a process through which people move from a permanent place of residence to another, more or less permanent one for a substantial period of time. Migration can be classified as rural to urban, urban to urban, urban to rural and rural to rural. Migration plays an important role in the distribution of the population of any country and determines the growth of labour force in any area. Migration is thus an important symptom of social change in a society. With regard to the determinants of rural-urban migration, it could be stated that the important factor which motivate people to move may broadly be classified in to five groups: economic factors, demographic factors, socio-cultural factors, political factors and miscellaneous factors. In recent years, several changes in India are likely to have impacted on the pattern and pace of migration. The pattern of growth in the last two decade has steadily widened the gap between agricultural and non-agricultural and between rural and urban areas, and it has steadily concentrated in a few areas and a few state. Migration has historically played a role in reducing the gap in living standards between sectors and areas and in fuelling growth in the more dynamic sectors. The crucial question is whether, and to what extent, migration has been able to play this role in the Indian context. Since migration is diverse, attention has generally been focused on different groups of internal migrants, and a great deal of analysis has focused on the poorest segments, for which both the costs and benefits could potentially be the highest.

The current study covered 120 sample migrants who migrated into Erode District. The required data were collected by using an interview schedule. The objectives of is study were:

- To study the socio-economic Profile of the sample migrants
- To assess the occupational details of the sample migrants
- To identity the reasons for migration
- To analyze remittance behaviour of the sample migrant workers and
- To highlight the problems faced by the migrants

The major findings emerged out of the study were:

## **5.1 Socio-economic profile of the sample migrants**

- Most of the migrant workers (both male and female) 52.5 percent were in the age group of 35-55 years. The migrants were found equally distributed in all age group.
- The greater part of the migrants population belonged to Hindu category (88.3 percent). Remaining respondents belonged to Christian i.e. 9.2 percent and five percent came under Muslims.
- In the study area, it is evident that greater part of the sample respondents belonged to most backward caste (MBC) i.e. 56.7 per cent and 18.4 per cent of the sample respondents came under backward caste (MBC).
- Scheduled tribes (ST) are 14.1 per cent and 11 percent of the sample respondents belonged to scheduled caste (SC).
- Around 93 percent of migrant population both male and female was found to be married. It was surprising to note that five female members were widowed and they came out from their families due to family conflicts and problems.
- The literacy levels of the sample population indicated that 43 percent of the migrant workers were illiterates; 30.8 percent of them had secondary level education.
- Forty percent of the male migrants and thirty percent of the female migrants had six to eight members in their largest groups of households among the male migrants (40 percent) and female (30 percent) have been formed by those having 6-8 members in their family.
- The remaining 27.5 percent of the migrants belonged to families more than 4-6 members in both the groups.
- The percentage of small family was very minimum and 17 percent of both male and female respondents have large size families above eight members.

## **5.2 Occupational details of the sample migrants**

- Among the male migrants, majority (45 percent) were in construction, followed by agriculture (30 percent) and shops like garments, hotels etc... (25 percent).
- Among the female migrants, they were also engaged in construction (53 percent) followed by agriculture (26.7percent) and shops (20 percent).

- Majority (41.7 percent) of the migrants travelled 150-300 km to reach the migration place and 27.5 percent of them found traveled above 300 km.
- Majority of the migrant respondents (79.2 percent) i.e. both male and female stated that they migrated just for temporary period but they are willing to settle down in native place.
- Only 21 percent of respondents did not shift temporarily because they want to settle down permanent in migrated place.
- Most of the sample migrants (69.2 percent) were working for a maximum of 8-12 hours a day because they start their work in the early hours of the day and go on till afternoon.
- Among these sample migrants only 25.8 percent worked for less than eight hours a day, followed by five percent who worked more than 12 hours a day. There are no fixed working hours.
- The regularity in the availability of job and seasonal demand helped the workers to earn adequate amount of income.
- The attractive wages they earn at the places of destination were received either on weekly or monthly basis.
- The male workers were seen taking advance from the owners of brick chambers and often seen reducing the amount taken from their earnings regularly without paying any interest.
- Majority of the migrant workers (71.7 percent) had income between Rs.10000-15000; 17 percent of them had less than 10000.
- For extra hours of work, they are paid additional payment which adds up to their total earnings above Rs 15,000/month for both male and females migrant workers.
- Nearly 87 percent of the migrant population does have some part time job apart from the present job in the migrated place.
- Only 13 percent of them have part time job in the migrated place because both men and women have a motivation to remit money to their families.
- Nearly 70 percent of both male and female migrant respondents stated that they have discrimination at work spot which make them uncomfortable to work.

### **5.3 Saving and debt details of the sample migrants**

- Thirty five migrants have saving habit and 65 migrants had no savings.
- Nearly half of the surveyed population (60 percent) reported that the bank was preferred as source of saving bank while for post office (28.6 percent); chit funds (20 percent) and LIC (14.3 percent) was also chosen by migrants for their savings.
- The amount of savings also varied among the respondents with the majority (51.4 percent) of them savings of Rs 500-1000 per month and 28.6 percent of them have saved above Rs 1000.
- Only 20 percent of them had saved less than Rs 500 from their income.
- Out of 120 sample respondents the 80 migrants had reported that they have debt.
- The main source of borrowings among the migrants were from private money lenders (47.5 percent's) and from bank was 32.5 percent because in the banks.
- Majority of the respondents (46.3 percent) had borrowed amount of Rs 50000 -10,0000 similarly 28.8 percent of them had outstanding amount of less than Rs 50000 and 25 percent had borrowed amount above Rs 100000.
- Thirty one percent of the migrants stated that the major reason for borrowing was conducting marriage of their children.

### **5.4 Reasons for migration**

- Factor analysis carried out for identifying reasons for migration indicated that 'lack of job opportunities', lack of education', 'low salary', no cultivable land' and 'water scarcity' were the main erasers for migration.
- The  $R^2$  value, measure of goodness of fit, was 0.56 implying the variations in type of migration were explained by occupation and income of the respondents.
- The F ratio was significant at one percent level implying that the model showed good fit. Occupation emerged as a significant factor and had positive impact on types of migration.

## **5.5 Remittance behavior of the sample migrant workers**

- The major reasons for remittances followed by the sample migrants in their life was ‘to repay the old debt’ (1st rank), most of the respondents were found sending money to pay back their old debts which they incurred due to various reasons, followed by ‘consumption purpose at the home’ (2nd rank), ‘to meet health expense’ (3rd rank),

## **5.6 Problems faced due to migration**

- Majority of the sample migrants (71.7 percent) faced lack of co-operation as their main problems because the co-workers did not help or support them; 10 percent of the sample migrants whether it is male or female they overcome the common problems like food and language.
- Most of the sample migrants had various health problems due to migration from the origin place.
- Most of them (58.3 percent) undergone body pain because they are doing hard work; lifting the heavy material at the construction site and pain again due to their posture during working hours.
- Around 16 percent of the migrants had skin irritation.

## **Conclusion**

Migrants usually keep their alliance with the place of origin. Migrants usually carry the knowledge which they impart to the native population by way of discussion and participation in various activities, their sense of importance of education which they realize and develop in their surroundings, their liberal attitude regarding the traditional social system, all these things directly contribute to the development of rural areas. Almost all the migrants contribute to the development of the rural areas either economically or socially or both. The economic condition of the migrants families is by and large better than those families in the village where from no migration has taken place. Thus, rural to urban migration seems to be an important factor in the social and economic development of the rural areas.

## *BIBLIOGRAPHY*

## BIBLIOGRAPHY

- A.E.R.C University, (2011), “Impact of MGNREGS on Wage Rates, Food Security and Rural Urban Migration in Haryana”, **Agricultural Situation in India**, Published by Division Directorate of Economics and Statistical Department of Agriculture and Cooperation Ministry of Agricultural Government of India, Vol. LXVIII, No. 7, Pp. 342-346.
- A.E.R.C University, (2012), “Impact of NREGA on Wage Rates, Food Security and Rural Urban Migration in Kerala”, **Agricultural Situation in India**, Published by Division Directorate of Economics and Statistical Department of Agriculture and Cooperation Ministry of Agricultural Government of India, Vol. LXI, No. 4, Pp. 219-223.
- A.E.R.C University, (2012), “Impact of NREGA on Wage Rates, Food Security and Rural Urban Migration in Uttar Pradesh”, **Agricultural Situation in India**, Published by Division Directorate of Economics and Statistical Department of Agriculture and Cooperation Ministry of Agricultural Government of India, Vol. LXIX, No. 5, Pp. 270-277.
- Anisur Rahman, (2006), “Population of Indian Migrants in the Gulf: A Boon or Bane from the Viewpoint of Sustainability”, **Economic and Political Weekly**, Vol. 23, Pp. 253-271.
- Amartya Sen, K. (1966), “Peasants and Dualism With or Without Surplus Labor”, **The Journal of Political Economy**, Vol. LXXIV, No. 5, Pp. 425-439.
- Arup Maharatna, (2003), “Brighter Side of Seasonal Migration”, **Economic and Political Weekly**, Vol. XXXVIII, No. 35, Pp. 3723-3735.
- Arvind Kumar Pandey, (2013), “Changing Dynamics of Rural Urban Male Migration and Economic Development in India after Economic Reforms”, **Man and Development**, Vol. XXXV, No. 1, Pp. 121-130.
- Binduja Mohan, S. (2012), “Rural Employment Programme and Migration”, **Kisan World**, Published by Dr.K.P.Ganesan, Vol. 39, No. 5, Pp. 42-45.

Borjas, G.J. (1989), "Economic Theory", **International Migration Review**, Pp. 457-485.

Borman and Das, (2004), "Urban Migrants and Rural Development", **The Indian Journal of Social Work**, Vol. 65, No. 2, Pp. 32-40.

Breman, Jan, (1974), "Patronage and Exploitation: Changing Agrarian Relations in South Gujarat, India", **Berkeley: University of California Press**, Pp. 13-16.

Cataline Amuedo, and Susan Pozo, (2006), "Mexico While Studying about Migration, Remittances and Male and Female Employment Patterns", **Migration, Human Capital, Employment and Earnings**, Pp. 222-226.

Chakravarthi, A. (2001), "Caste and Agrarian Class: A View from Bihar", **Economics and Political Weekly**, Vol. 34, Pp. 1454-1457.

Deshingkar, P. Sharam, P. Kumar, S. Akter, S. and Farrington, J. (2008), "Circular Migration in Madhya Pradesh: Changing Patterns and Social Protections Needs", **The European Journal of Development Research**, Vol. 20, No. 4, Pp. 612-628.

Dr. Harender Raj Gautam, (2012), "Can we Check Migration from Rural Areas", **Kurukshetra**, Published K. Ganesan, Vol. 60, No. 4, Pp. 6-10.

Dr. Jawed Akthar, S.M. and Abdul Azeez N.P. (2012): "Rural Employment Guarantee Programme and Migration", **Kurukshetra**, Published by K. Ganesan, Vol. 60, No. 4, Pp. 11-15.

Dr. Jamshed Nasir, Mahvish Anjum, and Ullas, T. (2012), "Migration of Cottage Industry Workers", **Kurukshetra**, Published by K. Ganesan, Vol. 60, No. 4, Pp. 20-23.

Dr. Kumar Amarendra Narain, (2012), "Impact of Rural Migration of Agricultural Labourers of Bihar in Assam", **Kurukshetra**, Published by K. Ganesan, Vol. 60, No. 4, Pp. 24-27.

- Gaurav Turkhade, (2012): "Migration-impact and Relevance of Remittance on Rural Areas", **Kurukshetra**, Published by K. Ganesan, Vol. 60, No. 4, Pp. 16-19.
- Gary Fields, S. (1954), "Dualism in the Labor Market: A Perspective on the Lewis Model after Half a Century", **Cornell University ILR School**, Pp. 1-27.
- Gupta I and Mitra A, (1990), "Migratory Process of Farm Labour", **Economic and Political Weekly**, Pp. 163-168.
- Gupta, Indrani, and Arup Mitra, (2002), "Rural Migrants and Labour Segmentation, Micro-level Evidence from Delhi Slums", **Economic and Political Weekly**, Vol. 37, No. 2, Pp. 163-168.
- Haberfeld, Y.R.K. Menaria, B.B. and Vyas, R.N. (1999), "Seasonal Migration of Rural Labour in India", **Population Research and Policy Review**, Pp. 473-489.
- Jayaraj, (2013), "Family Migration in India 'Push' and 'Pull' or Both or What", **Economic and Political Weekly**, Vol. XLVIII, No. 42, Pp. 44-52.
- Julle Lazar, P. (2013), "Migrant Labour in Kerala- A study of Trissur City", **Southern Economist**, Published Mrs. Susheela Subramanya, Sreeranga Printers pvt. Ltd, Vol. 52, No. 7, Pp. 13-14.
- Kamble, P.S. (2012), "Labour Migration among Backward Castes (BCs) in India", **Southern Economist**, Published Mrs. Susheela Subramanya, Sreeranga Printers pvt. Ltd., Vol. 50, No. 20, Pp. 39-44.
- Kasar, (1992), "The Seasonal Migration of Farm Labourers from Dry and Backwards Tracts of Maharashtra", **Migrants Labour in India**, Pp. 55-67.
- Kaur, Ravinder, (2007), "Migration for Work: Rewriting Gender Relations in: Arya Sadhna and Roy Anupama, (Ed)", **Poverty, Gender and Migration India**, Vol. 2, No. 9, Pp. 12-15.

- Kavitha, A. (2013), "Migration of Women Labour- an Empirical Study", **Southern economist**, Published Mrs. Susheela Subramanya, Sreeranga Printers pvt. Ltd, Vol. 52, No. 12, Pp. 21-23.
- Kumar and Sudhir, (1992), "Migration and Economic Development", **Journal of Social and Economic Studies**, Vol. 9, Pp. 115-132.
- Megha Shree, (2012): "Female Tribal Migrants as Domestic Workers: A Study of Their Compulsions and Working Conditions", **Man and Development**, Vol. XXXIV, No. 1, Pp. 45-53.
- Meiyan, Wang, (2007), "Migrant Workers vs. Urban Local Workers: Employment Opportunities and Earnings Differentials in Urban China", **Econblz Find Economic Literature**, Vol. 50, No. 3, Pp. 541-554.
- Mosse David, S. Gupta, M. Mehta, V. Shah, and Rees, (1997), "Seasonal Labour Migration in Tribal (Bhil) Western India", **Centre for Development Studies, University of Wales, Swansea**, Pp. 4547-4558.
- Nair, (2005), "Migrant Labourers from Kerala and the Impact on Household Economy Kerala the Southernmost State in India", **Economic and Political Weekly**, Vol. 13, No. 28, Pp. 1141-1153.
- Naresh Kumar and Sindhu, A.S, (2005), "Pull and Push Factors in Labour Migration- A Study of Brick-Kiln Workers in Punjab", **Indian Journal of Industrial Relations**, Vol. 41, No. 2, Pp. 221-231.
- Nayak, (1993), "Problem of Migration", **Working Paper Series**, No. 194, Pp. 323-335.
- Neetha, N. (2004): "Making of Female Breadwinners: Migration and Social Networking of Women Domestic in Delhi", **Economic and Political Weekly**, Vol. 39, No. 17, Pp. 1681-1687.

- Niranjan Roy, M. Avijit Debnath, (2011), "Impact of Migration on Economic Development: A study of some Selected States", **2011 International Conference on Social Science and Humanity IPEDR**, Vol. 5, Pp. 198-202.
- Lee, S. (1966), "Push-Pull Models; Everett Lee's", **Theory of Migration**, Pp. 156-169.
- Partha, (2004), "Unwanted and Uprooted", **A Political Study of Migrants Refugees, Stateless and Displaced of South Asia, Sanskrit, And New Delhi**, Pp. 42-44.
- Patel, (2005), "Migrant's Tribal Farm Labourers in Villages of Anand District of Gujarat", **Man and Development**, Vol. 27, No. 1, Pp. 125-132.
- Ponnusamy, K. and Krishna Srinath, (2013), "The Mechanism of Rural Migration and Technological Interventions to Reduce it", **Indian Farming**, Published Dr.Rameshwar Singh, Vol. 62, No. 10, Pp. 11-14.
- Prakash, V. (2012), "Interstate Migrant Workers in Kerala: A Socio Economic Background", **Southern Economist**, Published Mrs. Susheela Subramanya, Sreeranga Printers pvt. Ltd, Vol. 51, No. 10, Pp. 47-55.
- Ramesh, (2007), "Out Migration of Labour from Rural Areas", **Economic and Political Weekly**, Vol. XL, No. 3, Pp. 35-45.
- Rath, Gopal, C. Patra, G.C. Parida, S.C. and Dadan, (1989), "Socio-economic Conditions of Out-migrants of Ganjam Districts (Orissa)", **Migration and Migrant Labour in India**, Pp. 1-14.
- Ravenstein, (1889), "Ravenstein's Laws of Migration", **Journal of the Royal Statistical Society**, Vol. 52, No. 2, Pp. 241-305.
- Ravi Srivastava, (2011), "Internal Migration in India", **National Workshop on Internal Migration and Human Development in India**, Published by the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization UNESCO House, Vol. 2, Pp. 1-47.

- Reshmi, R.S. (2009), "Gendered Vulnerabilities, Discrimination and abuse among Women Migrants-A Special Reference to Return Domestic Workers in Kerala, India", **IUSSP International Population Conference Morocco**, Vol. XXVI, Pp. 1-20.
- Richard, B. Freeman, (2006), "Causes and Consequences of Immigration", **Journal of Economic Perspectives**, Vol. 20, No. 2, Pp. 145-170.
- Rogaly, Ben, Biswas, J. Daniel, C. Abdur, R. Kumar, R. and Sengupta, A. (2001), "Seasonal Migration, Social Change and Migrants Rights, Lessons from West Bengal", **Economic and Political Weekly**, Pp. 4547-4558.
- Sahu, B.K. (2012), "Migrant Workers- Present Position and Future Strategy towards Social Security", **Migrant Workers**, Published by Himalaya Forum, Pp. 110-123.
- Sharma and Iyer, (2010): "Domestic Workers and Trafficking", **Labour File**, Vol. 8, No. 1-3, Pp. 35-37.
- Sidhu and Naresh, (2005), "Push and Pull Factors", **Indian Journal of Industrial Relations**, Vol. 41, No. 2, Pp. 14-22.
- Singh, (1998), "Socio-economic Profile of Migrant Rural Labourers", **Indian Journal of Extension Education**, Vol. 34, No. 3-4, Pp. 158-160.
- Singh and Ghaffari Haddi, (2001), "Rural-Urban Migration: A Study for Economic Determinants", **Asian Economic Review**, Vol. 48, No. 3, Pp. 55-67.
- Sjaastad, L.A. (1962), "Cost and Returns of Human Migration", **Journal of Political Economy**, Vol. 70, Pp. 80-83.
- Srivastava Ravi, S. (1987), "Surplus Appropriation and Capital Accumulation by Rural Households in India: A study Based on Fieldwork in Uttar Pradesh", **Unpublished ph.D. Dissertation, University of Cambridge**, Pp.1-23.

- Srivastava Ravi, S. (1998), "Migration and the Labour Market in India", Invited Keynote paper, Conference Issue, **The Indian Journal of Labour Economics**, Vol. 41, No. 4, Pp. 583-617.
- Sudipta Sarkar, (2012), "Migration Livelihood and Experience of Paid Domestic Workers", **Man and Development**, Vol. XXXIV, No.3, Pp. 105-116.
- Sundari, S. (2005), "Migration as a Livelihoods Strategy: A Gender Perspective", **Economic and Political Weekly**, Vol. XL, No. 22, Pp. 2295-2303.
- Suraj Thapa, (2013), "Urban Migrants and Electrical Issues in Ludhiana City", **Man and Development**, Vol. XXXV, No. 3, Pp. 71-81.
- Todaro M.P, (1976), "Internal Migration in Development Countries", **Geneva, ICO**, Pp. 32-34.
- Vinita Singh, and Kali Nath Jha, (2006), "Migration of Tribal Women from Jharkhand: Demographic and Developmental Issues", **Population and Sustainable Development in India**, Pp. 217-232

# *APPENDIX*

## APPENDIX

### CAUSES AND CONSEQUENCES OF MIGRATION: A STUDY OF SEASONAL MIGRANT WORKERS IN A SELECT AREA

#### GENERAL INFORMATION

1. Name:
2. Age:
3. Sex : Male / Female
4. Present address :
5. Caste :
6. Religion:
7. Type of family : Joint / Nuclear
8. Marital status :  
 Married    Unmarried    Divorced    Widow/ Widower
9. Family background :

Name	Relationship to the head of the family	Age	Sex	Marital status	Education level	Occupation

10. Place of permanent residence:
11. Distance between native and migrated place:

12. Nature of your current employment :

- a. Temporary : yes / no
- b. Working hours:
- c. Duration of employment:
- d. Wages per week or month (specify):

13. Monthly income :

14. Do you have any savings : yes/no

If yes

Mode of saving:

- Bank    Post office    Chit funds    LIC    Others specify

Amount (in Rs):

Purpose:

15. Do you have any debt : yes / no

16. If yes reasons for debt:

- Education    Marriage    Health problems  
 House building    others specify

17. Amount borrowed:

18. Do you have any other part time job : yes / no

If yes what type of job:

19. Reasons for migration:

Reasons	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Lack of job opportunities					
Lack of education					
Climate changes					
Marriage					
Transport problem					
Communication					
Low salary					
No cultivatable land					
Flood					
Poor environment					
Water scarcity					
No proper health care system					
High house rent					
Other specify					

20. Facilities available in migrated areas:

Facility	Excellent	Very good	Good	Satisfactory	Not satisfactory
Room facility					
Food					
Transport					
Education					
Water					
Sanitation					
Medical					
Communication					
Other specify					

21. Your job has positive effect on :

- Child care     
  Children's education and upbringing     
  Taking care of elders  
 Personal health     
  Participation in family functions     
  Family maintenance

22. Mention the reason for remittance of money:

Consumption purpose     Marriage     Children     Health expenses

To buy agricultural land     House construction and maintenance

23. Are you discriminated at work spot: yes/ no

24. Loss incurred because of migration:

Finance     Health     Food     Shelter     Others specify

25. Health problems faced during stay in migrated place:

Allergic cold                       Fever                       Skin irritation

Respiratory problems     Body pains     Wounds

26. Problems faced in family due to migration

Problems faced	Ranks					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Unable to do the Household duties						
Don't have time to Care of children						
Family obligation						
Social obligation						
Education of children						
Cost of living						

27. Problem faced due to migration in work spot

Food     Language     Cooperation     Climate     Others specify

28. Any other suggestions: