CAUSES AND CONSEQUENCES OF MIGRATION IN INDIA: A SOCIOLOGICAL PERSPECTIVE

ABSTRACT: The research paper mainly focus on causes and consequences of migration in India: a sociological perspective, migration redistributes population and workforce from rural to urban areas. This study was designed to investigate the consequences of internal migration on family at destination. Information obtained from each respondent, which covers the objectives of the study as well as social and economic background of the migrants and their families. Considerable proportion of migrated population particularly in large and metropolitan cities lives in marginal settlements, slums and squatter areas with limited infrastructure services threatening health, environmental degradation of urban areas, traffic and other problems of urban areas. The study describes the factors contributing towards rural to urban migration. In rural areas, less employment opportunities, low wages, drought, lack of basic amenities, landlessness, social factors act as push factors and more employment opportunities, higher income, better wages, better facilities activities as pull factors towards the rural to urban migration. Thus to study the process of migration is very important in order to understand it and for overcoming the problems attached with the process of migration. This paper is an attempt to understand the phenomenon of labour migration as migration has become a universal and dynamic process. Recent development has undergone a number of socio-economic changes.

Keywords: migration, out migrant, usual place of residence, casual labour, seasonal, pull, and push factors, knowledge, awareness, internal, immigration, return migration, migrant, Drought, Waterlogging, Urbanization,
INTRODUCTION:

Migration process has been one of most dynamic human activities from the very beginning of human life. During early days people used to move from one forest to another in search of forest products. When most of people divorced forest life and adopted civilized life they developed relationship with domesticated animals and fertile land. As a result, mobility of mankind changed considerably. They almost left a wanderer’s life and started developing settlements. Certainly at this stage also mobility of mankind did not stop at all. In fact people continued to move from one region to another in search of fertile land for developing cultivation. Afterwards, the nature of mobility frequently changed. The people moved from early civilized area to other parts of world, partly for agricultural purposes or for trade and partly for investigation. Migration of the people to big cities takes from all the corners of the country with different social and cultural background. When such people meet in cities and stop living together, a new cosmopolitan culture develops, cities are, therefore, known as “melting pot of cultures”. Such cultures are more liberal, impersonal, self-centered and more materialistic. One important facet of study on population is the study of migration arising out of various social, economic or political reasons. For a large country like India,

the study of movement of population in different parts of the country helps in understanding the dynamics of the society better. At this junction in the economic development, in the country, especially when many states are undergoing faster economic development, particularly in areas, such as, manufacturing, information technology or service sectors, data migration profile of population has become more important. When a person is enumerated in census at a different place than his / her place of birth, she / he is considered a migrant. This may be due to marriage, which is the most common reason for migration among females or for work, what is the case as generally among males, etc. It also happens that many return to their place of birth after staying out. To capture such movements of population census collect information on migration by last helps to understand the current migration scenario better. In India, as per census 2001, about 307 million person have been reported as migration by place of birth. Out of them about 259 million (84.2%), migrated from one part of the state to another, i.e., from one village or town to another village or town. 42 million (2%) from out side the country.

The data on migration by last residence in India as per Census 2001 shows that the total number of migrants has been 314 million. Out of these migrants by last residence, 268 million (85%) has been intra-state migrants, those who migrated from one are of the state to another. 41 million (13%) were interstate migrants and 5.1 million (1.6%) migrated from out side of the country. (2001 Census Data / Census And You / Migration). As Migration as a negative force, focusing on distress migration which is what happens when people have to go to cities to find work because they cannot survive on what they can earn in their own villages. Rural Urban migration is a response to diverse economic opportunities across space. However many urban problems like over burdened infrastructure, urban poverty and crime, have been blamed on this ‘rural spill over’. Wage Employment Programmes an important component of the anti poverty strategy have sought to achieve multiple objectives. They not only provide employment opportunities during lean agricultural seasons but also in time of floods, drought and other natural calamities. They create rural infrastructure which support further economic activity. On the basis of a large sample survey in
Bihar, kerala and Uttar Pradesh, that in all the urban areas of the three states, female migrants work participation rates are generally higher among Christians and Schedule castes/ Tribe whether married or unmarried and availability of high productivity jobs in the rural areas could reduce in migration to the urban areas. It is widely accepted that people move in search of employment and also from low wage to higher wage region – a rational choice to be able to earn more and improve their standard of living.

RESEARCH OBJECTIVE OF THE STUDY :
1. To Study the labour Migration in India.
2. To know the Problems and challenges of Migrants workers.
3. To study specific factors responsible for the migration.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY:
The research is mainly focus on causes and consequences of migration in india: a sociological perspective. methodology was followed for this article, comprising literature review, and analysis of secondary data. In order to achieve the research aim and objectives, the article mainly based on secondary data are drawn classified from the Publications of books, monthly journals, article, magazines, reports on migration and rural Development,

CONCEPTS & DEFINITIONS :
Migrant: A person, whose last usual place of residence was different from the present place of enumeration on the date of enquiry has been considered as migrant.
Out migrant: Usual residents of a household who migrated out of Karnataka were living outside Karnataka but with in India.
Return-migrant: A migrant whose place of enumeration was his/her UPR anytime before his/her last UPR has been considered as a returnmigrant.
Usual place of residence (UPR): In this survey usual place of residence(UPR) has been defined as a place (village/town) where the person has stayed continuously for a period of six months or more. Here, it may be noted that the place of enumeration may or may not be UPR of a person depending on the period of stay at the place of enumeration.
Rural labour: A rural labour is one who is engaged in manual labour (jobs essentially involving physical labour), residing in rural areas and working in agricultural or non-agricultural occupation in return for wages paid either in cash or kind (excluding exchange labour).
Casual labour: Persons engaged in others’ farm or non-farm enterprise (both household and non-household) and getting in return wages according to terms of the daily wage or periodic word contract are treated as casual labourers.
Non-migrant: A person who has not left from his or her birth place for any purpose and in any time is called as a non-migrant.
Types of Migration:

Internal Migration: Moving to a new home within a state, country, or continent.

External Migration: Moving to a new home in a different state, country, or continent.

Emigration: Leaving one country to move to another (e.g., the Pilgrims emigrated from England).

Immigration: Moving into a new country (e.g., the Pilgrims immigrated to America).

Return Migration: When groups of people move back to where they came from.

Seasonal Migration: When people move with each season (e.g., farm workers following crop harvests or working in cities off-season).

What is Human Migration: Migration (human) is the movement of people from one place in the world to another. People can either choose to move (“voluntary migration”) or be forced to move (“involuntary migration”). Migrations have occurred throughout the past, beginning with the movements of the first human groups from their origins in East Africa to their current homes throughout the world. Migration occurs in a variety of ways: Migration can occur between continents, within a continent, or within a single country. Migration can even occur when people move out of the city and into the country. The most important thing about migration to remember is that it occurs when groups of people move for the same reason.

WHY DO PEOPLE MIGRATE: People move for many reasons. To decide, they think about what is good or bad about staying or moving.

Push factors are those in their old place which force people to move. For example, there may be civil wars in general in the country, but political or religious oppression, climate changes, lack of jobs or simply poverty are all important push factors. (such as a food shortage, war, flood, etc.)

Pull factors are factors in the target country which encourage people to move. These include peace and safety, a chance of a better standard of living in general as well as political and religious freedom. (such as a nicer climate, better food supply, etc.)

Process of Migration: There are many definitions of migration. According to Lee, ‘migration is permanent or semi-permanent change of residence’. According to Caplow, “Migration is considered as a change of residence and should not necessarily involve any change in occupation.” According to Weinberg, “Human migration as change of place permanently or temporarily for an appreciable duration as in case of seasonal worker. According to Safa, “Migration is normally viewed as an economic phenomenon through non-economic factors obviously has some bearing. (Singh, 1989)

Though pull factor dominates the process of migration from rural to urban areas, yet social networks both at the origin and destination are to be considered as an integral part in the whole process of migration. The majority migrates only short distances and thus establishes “currents of migration” towards larger centers. This causes displacement and development processes in connection with populations in sending and destination regions. This causes migration chains develop over time. Urban residents are less prone to migrate than rural people. This is also true for female population. Agriculture is the main occupation of migrants before migration at their place of origin. The highest
A proportion of migrants left their home at 10 to 20 years age group. 61.88% migrants revealed that friends and relatives were instrumental in their migration. (Kaur, 1994; Chand, 1998) The process of migration deals with the change in place of residence. With the change in place of residence changes in social life takes place. It also brings change in process of social interaction, change in social group, change in culture, change in obligations and duties, new expectations, problem of adjustment at new place, social mobility and many other socioeconomic challenges.

**Factors related to migration:** Two principle factors- push and pull- influenced people for migration. In the study, push factors are poverty, unemployment and natural calamity, while better opportunity, high wage, relatives or friends stay since long time are the indicators of pull factors. Migration is a natural process that often happens depending on the socio-economic, demographic, cultural, political and environmental factors related to the migrant people. All of the factors of migration are included in two broad classifications as Push and Pull factors. Push factors are those that compel a person, due to different reasons, to leave place of origin and to go to some other place For instance, lack of work opportunities, unemployment and underdevelopment, poor economic condition, lack of opportunities, exhaustion of natural resources and natural calamities. On the other hand, pull factors indicate the factors which attract migrant to an area (area of destination), like, employment and higher education opportunities, higher wages facilities, better working condition. In aspect of Bangladesh, factors such as, poverty, natural calamities e.g. flood, draught, soil erosion, river erosion, etc and socio-cultural factors like marriage, family conflict, social discrimination, social problems, political chaos, dominating village elders, better employment, better life living, better education facilities etc. are considered to be the determinant of internal migration.

The “push”: mostly declining opportunities in agriculture Situations of surplus labour arising from scarcity of cultivated land, inequitable land distribution, low agricultural productivity, high population density and the concentration of the rural economy almost exclusively on agriculture frequently lead to an increase in outmigration. This combination of factors creates a “push” that is encountered more often in fragile environments, examples of which are cited below.

**Drought:** Drought is the classic “push” affecting millions of people especially in sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia. In Africa the movement of people in a fragile and challenging environment can be seen as one of the main characteristics and drivers of history). Drought-prone Sahelian and Sudanese rural economies have strong traditions of trade and labour migration. It is estimated that the population of Nouakchott in Mauritania rose forty-fold between 1965 and the end of the 1980s because of prolonged drought and loss of livelihoods It is likely that migration will become even more important: a European Food Security Network study of employment and labour mobility in Ethiopia notes that migratory labour is likely to play an increasingly important role as a coping mechanism for food-insecure rural households.

**Water-logging:** Water-logging can also be a trigger for migration. In parts of Pakistan, the uncontrolled use of irrigation water has resulted in the waterlogging and salination of lands. This has led to falling crop yields, which in turn has led to migration by poor families.
Population pressure and land fragmentation: Having little access to land in a predominantly agrarian society leaves the land-less with few alternatives to migration. In some Latin American countries access to land is so limited that nearly all poor young people view migration as their main and perhaps only livelihood option. The PPA in Ecuador tellingly states “The voices of poor people in Ecuador are voices of people on the move, travelling to new places in hope of improving their circumstances”. Many young people in the study sites of Asociacion 10 de Agosto, Voluntad de Dios, La Calera, and Tumbatu and Tablas possessed no land at all and a majority migrated temporarily or permanently to work in factories, farms, as domestics, or selling handicrafts. The situation in parts of Cambodia is the same where there are reports of “a new and growing breed of land-less workers which has led to increased migration from rural areas to cities and other countries”

River-bank erosion: In Bangladesh several districts are affected by river bank erosion which has been an important driver of migration. According to a study conducted in the late 1980s the number of people affected annually by river bank erosion in the delta areas was 1 million (Rahman, 1991). The study found that roughly 11 per cent of the squatters in Dhaka came from Barisal district and a further 31 per cent from Faridpur (both districts are very prone to river bank erosion). A further 19 per cent of the rickshaw pullers were from Barisal and 32 per cent from Faridpur. Recent studies also show that such areas have high outmigration rates.

Poor mountain and forest economies: In the poor mountainous areas of South Asia low agricultural productivity, poor access to credit or other pre-requisites for diversification and high population densities create the conditions for outmigration. A recent increase in migration has been reported from Uttaranchal by Mamgain (2003) as the fragile mountain ecosystem cannot support increasing populations. The poor mountainous districts of Nepal also have high rates of outmigration. More or less the same factors create a push from many forested areas where population pressure has increased and CPR based livelihoods have become unsustainable. The very high rates seen from forested tribal areas of Madhya Pradesh in India are an example of this.

Other push factors: Apart from environmental push factors is the downsizing of public sector jobs and overall stagnation in formal sector job creation. In MENA countries migration has been triggered by a rapid growth of their labour forces, high rates of unemployment, and a heavy reliance on the public sector for job creation (which is now being downsized under structural adjustment). Roughly 70 per cent of the poor in the MENA region live in rural areas. Since the 1970s, the share of employment in agriculture has declined rapidly but manufacturing and other industries have not increased proportionally creating a stream of rural-urban migration in all MENA countries, leading to rapid urbanization and, in turn, to the transformation of urban spaces into clusters of unemployed people.

The “pull”: often new opportunities in urban-based industry and services: In the 1950s, development economists viewed the demand for labour created by “growing modern industrial complexes” and the gap in rural and urban wages as the main “pull” factor. There have since been many models and debates on what motivates people to migrate including theories of “expected” as
opposed to actual wage differentials. Other pull factors include the desire to acquire skills or gain new experiences. In the case of voluntary migration of the poor for economic reasons, the wage gap is probably the most important pull and the most important recent determinants of this appear to be urbanization and the spread of manufacturing.

**Urbanization:** Urbanization has been a major driver of internal migration in many countries and has overtaken other factors in many Asian locations. Rates of urbanization influence rural-urban wage differences: an increase in the demand for labour in urban areas can push up urban wages and increase migration. Rural-urban differences in average incomes increased in many South and East Asian countries during the 1990s, especially in China and fell in most African countries (IFAD, 2001). Current ESCAP projections are that urbanization rates in South and South-West Asia will soon exceed other regions in Asia. Urbanization is progressing throughout Africa albeit more slowly: in 1960, 18 per cent of the population lived in urban centres (i.e. in settlements with more than 2,000 people). In 1990, the figure had increased to 34 per cent for Africa as a whole.

**New opportunities in agriculture:** Since the time that high yielding varieties, assured irrigation and agro-chemicals were introduced across the developing world in the 1960s high productivity agricultural pockets have become a magnet for poor migrant workers from poor areas. This continues to be an important pull due to the marked wage differences in many countries even today: for instance there is much rural to rural migration between lowland and upland Viet Nam (Winkels, 2004). Workers go from the densely populated Red River Delta in the North, to the Central Highland frontier which had until very recently a growing export oriented agro-economy primarily in coffee. Similarly rural-rural migration in Ethiopia has increased since 1991 where young men from heavily populated areas go to irrigated farms for three to five months (RESAL, 1999).

**Knowledge and Awareness of Migration:** By the term “safe migration,” most Bangladeshi migrants meant finding a “good company” to work for at a “good salary.” A substantial proportion of aspirant migrants said that “recruitment by the government” rather than by a recruitment agency was the key to safe labour migration. Interestingly, all the Bangladeshi respondents expressed the belief that as long as an agency was involved in the recruitment process, it was impossible to make the process safe. Some returnee migrants defined safe labour migration as “completing the whole process without an intermediary.” But some returnee migrants who had arranged their journeys through irregular channels said safe labour migration required “safety” provided by both the intermediary at home and the employer in the destination country. Since many of the aspirants surveyed were right on the verge of departure, they often expressed their current doubts and anxieties instead of expressing their knowledge of safe labour migration. This group defined safe labour migration as “reception at the airport by the proper authority” and “getting the job promised by the agency or intermediary.” A large proportion of respondents could not give a satisfactory account of safe labour migration.
The impacts on family structure: While women participants voiced worries about the effect of migration on their families and social structure during many PPAs it was also noted that the prolonged absence of male decision makers can result in a change in the social order with women becoming more vocal in village decision-making and participating more often and openly. For example a PPA conducted in Indonesia shows that women have gained more power in the domestic sphere because they earn more cash income and manage landed assets more often now than they did ten years ago. Similarly in Ecuador (PPA) women are participating in greater numbers in community development activities because of the high outmigration of males. In the Senegal River Valley also women have adapted to long absences of their emigrated husbands by becoming more active in farming. While migrant work has stressed household relations, many women may also benefit from related independent incomes. It was also pointed out in the synthesis report of the PPAs (Voices of the Poor) that family dissolution is not necessarily a disempowering experience for women, and it is certainly empowering for some women.

Migration and Development: In recent years, there has been a sea change in thinking about migration and development. For many years, the focus was on migration as a problem, either because it was seen as a consequence of a lack of development, or because of fears about a ‘brain drain’ of skilled workers. Today, there is a much greater recognition among policymakers that migration can contribute to development, and that these benefits can be enhanced where policymakers have the capacities to manage migration effectively. In addition to contributing to economic growth in destination countries, migration can contribute to poverty reduction and economic growth in origin countries, particularly as a result of the remittances sent back by migrants (see map 7 – comparing remittance flows with foreign aid received by region), through investments by diaspora associations, and when migrants go home. Capacity-building is required not just to enhance the positive outcomes of migration for development, but also to reduce or prevent potentially negative outcomes. In certain circumstances, for example, remittances can become a disincentive to work for those left at home, and diaspora investments can exacerbate disparities, including gender disparities.

ENVIRONMENTAL CHANGE: Most commentators agree that migration resulting from environmental change is likely to continue to increase in the foreseeable future. The effects of climate change are likely to exacerbate this trend, although it is not always appropriate to ascribe environmental changes that might precipitate migration to climate change. For example, environmental degradation may be the result of changes in average annual temperatures or rainfall levels, but it may equally be the result of deforestation or poor land management—or a combination of these factors. Additionally, it can be difficult to isolate environmental factors from other drivers of migration. In the Middle East and North Africa, for example, it has been predicted that environmental degradation will reduce the amount of fertile arable land and thus compound a shortage of employment for a youthful population expanding quickly as a result of demographic trends, a proportion of whom may thus migrate to look for work. In this case, environmental degradation, demographic trends and economic factors (a lack of employment) combine as potential drivers for migration. There is no agreed definition or defined category and no explicit legal or normative
framework pertaining to people moving as a result of the effects of environmental change.

**CHALLENGES AND PROBLEMS:** In this section, the study looks specifically at the challenges and problems faced by Bangladeshi and Nepali labour migrants in the destination country. Any person migrating to a new country faces multiple challenges, from cultural adaptation and language barriers to homesickness and loneliness. Along with these general challenges, foreign labour migrants often face unacceptable treatment from their employers. For instance, some labour migrants are paid below their contract wage. They may be forced to work long hours and denied regular time off. Contract substitution is a common problem faced by foreign labour migrants, or contracts may be terminated in ways that enable the employers to break their contractual obligations. Some labour migrants have reported that their employers physically tortured them. The following section surveys the problems reported by returnee migrants in their destination countries. This section explored the vulnerabilities and exploitation faced by the labour migrants in the destination country. The challenges and problems ranged from contractual issues, living conditions, to the behavior of the employers. The challenges for the migrants in the destination countries start as soon as they arrive at the airport as many reported that they had to spend days in the airport as they were not received or given clear instruction by the contractors and employees. The problems faced by migrants in the destination countries ranged from contract violation, non-payment of salary, long working hours, and poor working condition. The study illustrated serious forms of exploitation such as abuse, threats, limited communication, and longer and heavy work in the destination countries. As most of the migrants had made the journey based on the promises made by the agents and had not seen the actual contract, many migrants were faced with situations of breach of contract in terms of the jobs, salary and other benefits. The poor and harsh living conditions coupled with difficult and risky working conditions, lack of information, and lack of medical health support also led to several health problems of the migrants. In some cases, the migrants returned home prior to the completion of the contract due to health reasons or occupation hazard in the workplace. In spite of the challenges and problems faced by the migrants in the destination countries, low tendency to seek assistance from the diplomatic missions in the destination countries were also observed by the migrants due to lack of knowledge, trust and effectiveness to enhance access to justice. Thereafter, lack of information about the role of diplomatic missions amongst the migrant workers also limited the effectiveness of the missions to address the gaps and challenges of the migrants. Therefore, it is evident that no adequate institutional mechanism is in place to provide services to labour migrants who face exploitation or abuse in the destination country.

**SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION:** This study derives that migration is a function of push and pull factors that is in rural areas increasing of population did not have job facilities, reasonable income, basic amenities. The pull factors of better job facilities, good salary, and more income, medical and educational facilities are attracting the rural people to move to the cities like Chennai city. The push factors of no job facilities, low salary, less income, drought, less medical and educational facilities are the push factors of the rural people from rural to urban migration. Even though, to minimize the rural to urban migration and to prevent to move to cities the following are the some measures has to be taken by government and government organizations. where migrants who acquire new skills,
new money and new outlooks help transform the institution. However, such volunteer return migration is likely to be attenuated to Nearly all sectors employ migrant workers (including children) through a complex system of contractors and agents who are well-positioned to exploit illiterate and poor workers. Where workers have become more experienced and confident the hold of market intermediaries has weakened but in the absence of effective employment exchanges for the poor, agents and contractors provide vital information and job opportunities to people who would otherwise be unemployed in villages. The immediate need is to change the policy level discourse on migration by reviewing key documents and policies and moving away from theory and language which portrays migration as bad and something that must be stopped. Other Asian countries have recognised the need to support migrant workers and reduce their vulnerability by improving their access to education, housing and health programmes. India needs to take similar steps urgently. Without such recognition and action large parts of the population will continue to be excluded and this will compromise India’s prospects for poverty reduction and reaching the Millenium Development Goals.

REFERENCES:


