

See discussions, stats, and author profiles for this publication at: <https://www.researchgate.net/publication/283299707>

Gender Dimensions of Migration in Urban India

Chapter · January 2016

CITATIONS

0

READS

1,019

3 authors:



[Nishikant Singh](#)

Jawaharlal Nehru University

3 PUBLICATIONS 1 CITATION

[SEE PROFILE](#)



[Kunal Keshri](#)

The Govind Ballabh Pant Social Science Institute

12 PUBLICATIONS 91 CITATIONS

[SEE PROFILE](#)



[R. B. Bhagat](#)

International Institute for Population Sciences

121 PUBLICATIONS 464 CITATIONS

[SEE PROFILE](#)

Some of the authors of this publication are also working on these related projects:



Understanding Homelessness [View project](#)



Urbanisation and access to basic amenities [View project](#)

All content following this page was uploaded by [R. B. Bhagat](#) on 01 May 2016.

The user has requested enhancement of the downloaded file.

GENDER DIMENSION OF MIGRATION IN URBAN INDIA

Nishikant Singh¹, Kunal Keshri² and R.B.Bhagat³

Abstracts

Given the robust and growing economy, urban India is well positioned to take advantage of the benefits of migration. However, gender inequality in migration is a hindrance in realizing the potential benefits of migration. Therefore, this study focuses on the gender dimension of migration in urban India using the data from two successive rounds of the Indian National Sample Survey. Bivariate and multivariate analyses have been used in the study. Results show that overall, migration of men is low compared to women. However, the recent trend in women's migration is disappointing as the share of non-working women among women migrants has increased from 81 % in 1999-2000 to 85 % in 2007-2008 in urban areas. Also, percentage of working women declines when we compare pre and post migration work status of women unlike men migrants. This reflects a phenomenon of defeminization of female migrant work force in the recent times. Along with marriage, high income, high literacy and higher social status are other critical factors associated with women's migration in urban India.

¹ Nishikant Singh, Research Scholar, Center for the Study of Regional Development, School of Social Sciences, Jawaharlal Nehru University, New Delhi- 110067, India. Email: nishiiips@gmail.com

² Kunal Keshri, Assistant Professor, G. B. Pant Social Science Institute, University of Allahabad, Jhusi, Allahabad-211019, Uttar Pradesh, India. Email: kunalkeshri.lrd@gmail.com

³ R. B. Bhagat, Professor and Head, Department of Migration and Urban Studies, International Institute for Population Sciences, Govandi Station Road, Deonar, Mumbai-400088, Maharashtra, India. Email: rbbhagat@iips.net

Gender Dimension of Migration in Urban India

Nishikant Singh, Kunal Keshri and R.B.Bhagat

1. INTRODUCTION

The gender dimension of migration is crucial as women have notably different migration intentions, motivations, patterns, options, and obstacles from men. Men and women tend to experience migration differently; the challenges of re-negotiating work and care in a new setting often lead to a 'feminization' of women's roles, as women find themselves taking up more traditional gender roles as wives and mothers (Ho 2006). In many cases, men make autonomous decisions while women migrate as part of family strategies where they are not in full control (Boyd 1989; Hugo 1995). The most common cause for female migration in India is considered to be marriage (Srivastava and Sasikumar 2003) and largely explained by the twin factors of marriage and dependency on the principal bread-winner (Premi 1980). Internal migration in India is highly differentiated, and women's involvement in geographic mobility is also highly variable, their tendencies to migrate and forms of migration depending on their social and economic positions at origin; cultural differences and prescriptions for female behavior; demands for female labor; and other social and economic factors (Palriwala and Uberoi 2008).

Gender specific migration is not much known in current discourse of migration studies even though women constitute an overwhelming preponderance of migrants in terms of 'marriage' and 'associational' migration in India (Banerjee and Raju 2008; Premi 1980; Shanthi 1991). Rural women were most mobile although urban women have picked up over the decades in form of gender-specific pattern of labour movement (Banerjee and Raju 2008; Gulati 1997). Changes in the rural economy also have contributed to this increased female migration. Increasing productivity in agriculture has been associated with decreasing opportunities for wage employment in agriculture for women as compared to that of men (Shanthi 2006). One of the biggest changes for gender roles in migration is the result of shift of the locus of work from the home to somewhere else (Davis 1984; Yabiku et al. 2010). There is no doubt that migration is gendered and it has been well established in the global migration literature (Hoang 2011) and gender matters in our consideration of migration and mobilities (Lutz 2010; Mahler and Pessar 2006). Nevertheless, issues pertaining to gender aspects are absent in much of the earlier migration literature in India, as of till now, migration is assumed to be mainly a movement dominated by men, with women either residual in the process or dependent followers (Bhatt 2009; Mazumdar et al. 2013). Migration of women is also validated by the fact that women are ready to work for any wage, and perceived as passive and docile, they are in great demand, contributing to feminization of labour migration (Shanthi 2006). Moreover, women migrate because there is an increasing educational level among them who do not like to be confined to household chores. On the other hand there is another group of women who migrate along with their husband and any other family member. There is a need to understand the characteristics of

different types of women who migrate and also emerging trends in their migratory processes. Therefore, present study attempts to explore the gender dimension of migration in urban India and mainly focuses on the changes in the process of migration with special focus on gender dimension and tries to identify the possible reasons for migration in urban India. In addition to this, the changes in influencing factors for women's migration over the time have also been focused in this study.

2. DATA AND ANALYTICAL STRATEGIES

In India, there are two major data sources of migration: decadal census and Indian National Sample Survey (NSS). Former provides the detailed information on trends and patterns of migration based on complete enumeration but it is not possible to analyze the interdependency of migration with age,sex, education, social status, economic status and locational characteristics using this (Kundu and Sarangi 2007). On the other hand, later can be utilized for this purpose. The present study, therefore, utilizes the unit level data from 55th and 64th rounds of the NSS. The 55th round of the NSS was conducted during July, 1999 to June, 2000. It collected data on migration particulars of the members of the sample households, as a part of the 'Employment - Unemployment' schedule (we have utilized the data of schedule 10 only). This survey covered a sample of 1,20,578 households (71,417 in rural and 49,161 in urban areas) (NSSO, 2001). On the other hand, the 64th round is also based on the survey of 'Employment & Unemployment and Migration Particulars' (Schedule 10.2) conducted during July, 2007 to June, 2008 which covered a sample of 1,25,578 households (79,091 in rural areas and 46,487 in urban areas) (NSSO, 2010).

it is relevant to consider demographic compositions, which reflect the household's exposure to risk and the household's ability to respond to risk while examining the gender dimension of internal migration and evaluating the migration decision in India,. From the neo-classical model, individual characteristics influence the migration decision in a number of ways. First, characteristics, such as education, experience, gender and age, may influence the income and employment opportunities at each location. Secondly, individual characteristics as well as social conditions and technologies may influence the cost of migration (Davis and Winters 2001; Massey et al. 1993). Moreover, gender differences in the economic determinants of migration become relevant if the causes and patterns of female migration are significantly different from male migration (Davis and Winters 2001).

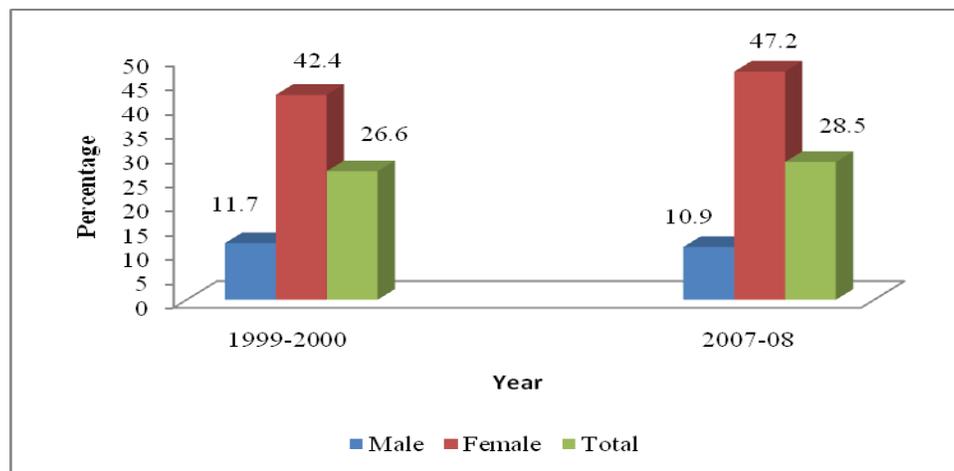
3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This section is divided into five sub-sections namely; temporal changes in migration in urban India, reasons for migration, socioeconomic status of migrants, work status of migrants and finally, factors influencing the migration in urban India excluding marriage as a reason for migration.

3.1 Temporal Changes in Migration

There has been marginal decline in male migrants during 2007-2008 as compared to 1999-2000, whereas this increase among female migrants was 5.7 per cent. On the other hand overall percentage of migrants has increased by about 2 per cent suggesting low migration in the Indian subcontinent (see Figure 1). Researchers have attributed this fact to the prevalence of the cast system, joint family, traditional values, the diversity of language and culture and the inadequate educational attainment (Bhagat 2010; Davis 1951).

Figure 1: Percentage of Migrants, India, 1999-2000 and 2007-2008



Source: Unit Level Data of National Sample Survey

Percent distribution of migrant population by age group of 15-59 and sex has been shown in Table 1. In each age-group there has been a decrease in the percentage of migrants from 1999-2000 to 2007-2008, except for 45-59 and 60+. Gender related results are not very different and in each age group the per cent of male migrants is slightly increased from 1999-2000 to 2007-2008, except for, age group of 0-14 and 45-49 years. Whereas, among female migrants, we find a negative relationship between age and migration as with increasing age between two successive rounds, except for, 45-59 years of age group, it has increased only 1.6 per cent. This might be due to social and political factors and also growth in transport facility (Hassan 2000) and increase in mean year age of marriage.

Table 1: Distribution of Migrants in Urban India by Age-Group, 1999-2000 and 2007-2008

Age-Group	Male		Female		Total	
	1999-2000	2007-2008	1999-2000	2007-2008	1999-2000	2007-2008
0-14	13.5	12.9	6.9	6.3	9.5	8.7
15-24	18.5	18.6	15.6	14.2	16.7	15.8
25-34	19.7	20.8	25.9	24.2	23.5	23.0
35-44	19.5	17.8	22.1	20.8	21.1	19.7
45-59	19.9	19.8	18.7	22.9	19.2	21.8
60+	8.9	10.1	10.9	11.7	10.1	11.1
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: Same as for Figure 1

It is also imperative to observe the gender mobility by streams of migration, which reflects the role of economic and social factors in migratory process. In India the phenomena of migration is significantly dominated by rural to urban migration and the net rural-to-urban migration is one of the key components of urbanization. Table 2 illustrates the streams of migration by sex during 1999-2000 and 2007-2008. The rural-to-rural stream of migration shared 32 per cent among male migrants in 1999-2000 against 27 per cent in 2007-2008 while distribution of women migrants remains more or less the same. In contrast, among men, rural to urban stream of migration is dominant in both the rounds. There is five per cent increase in men migration during 1999-2000 and 2007-2008, whereas women migration has increased marginally. In case of urban to rural stream there is a decrease in migrants' distribution for both men and women in 2007-2008 compared to 1999-2000. On the other hand urban to urban migration has increased for both men and women during 2007-2008 compared to earlier round..

Table 2: Distribution of Migrants in India by Streams of Migration, 1999-2000 and 2007-2008

Stream	Male		Female	
	1999-2000	2007-2008	1999-2000	2007-2008
Rural to Rural	32.3	27.1	70.3	70.0
Rural to Urban	34.3	39.0	14.4	14.8
Urban to Rural	10.7	8.9	5.2	4.9
Urban to Urban	22.6	24.8	10.1	10.3
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: Same as for Figure 1

3.2 Reasons for Migration

The decisions on whether to move, how, and where to move, are complex and could involve a variety of actors in different ways. Moreover, reasons for migration varied significantly between

males and females. Table 3 provides details on the reasons for migration in urban India. Employment appeared as the main reason for males to migrate, whereas marriage seemed to be the main driver of female migration in urban India. This shows that employment related female migration is much lower than that of males, which led to a reversal of the declining gender ratio of migrants in recent times. This suggests that males in the recent past may have benefited more than women from the growing prosperity and employment opportunities (Bhagat 2010). Furthermore, results suggest a decline in employment related migration from 1999-2000 to 2007-2008 among men as well as women.

Table 3: Distribution of Migrants in Urban India by Reasons for Migration, 1999-2000 and 2007-2008

Reasons for Migration	Male		Female		Total	
	1999-2000	2007-2008	1999-2000	2007-2008	1999-2000	2007-2008
Employment ¹	58.0	55.9	4.2	2.6	25.8	22.9
Marriage	1.6	1.4	58.5	61.2	35.5	38.4
Studies	4.1	6.8	1.4	2.2	2.5	4
Others	36.3	35.9	35.8	33.9	36	34.7
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: Same as for Figure 1

Note: ¹Employment related reasons: In search of employment, in search of better employment, business, to take up employment/better employment, transfer of service/contract, proximity of work.

3.3 Socioeconomic Status of Migrants

Migration in India is mostly influenced by social structure and patterns of development. In order to assess the role of social status in influencing migration we have calculated the percentage of migrants in urban India by social groups. Table 4 suggests that there is not much difference among men, whereas, women show the considerable differences by their social status. Among women migrants, the other category of social groups constituted 43 and 48 per cent of all urban migrants in 1999-2000 and 2007-2008 respectively and the highest increase in migration is observed by others category of social group followed by scheduled castes, other backward classes and scheduled tribes. Results that the migration of women who belong to scheduled tribes and other social are migrating more compared to remaining caste groups.

Several migration studies have found a positive relationship between education and migration, particularly, in urban areas (Todaro 1997). Education, though qualitatively is a very significant social factor and the wide ranging impact of education is possibly the most important matter to be considered in inducing rural-urban migration (Caldwell 1969). However, the linkage between migration and education is very context specific (Harttgen and Klasen 2011). It not only helps people to migrate for better job opportunities, it can also improve access to education and

educational outcomes in urban areas. Table 5 suggests that, at macro level the propensity of migration is increasing with rising level of education. Illiterate women have higher propensity to migrate as compared to their men counterpart.

Table 4: Percentage of Migrants in Urban India by Social Groups, 1999-2000 and 2007-2008

Social Group	Male		Female	
	1999-2000	2007-2008	1999-2000	2007-2008
Scheduled Tribes	28.2	28.8	41.1	43.0
Scheduled Caste	22.5	23.5	39.3	44.7
Other Backward Castes	23.7	23.0	41.7	43.8
Others	27.6	29.0	42.6	47.7
Total	25.7	25.9	41.8	45.6

Source: Same as for Figure 1

Table 5: Percentage of Migrants in Urban India by Education Level, 1999-2000 and 2007-2008

Educational Level	Male		Female	
	1999-2000	2007-2008	1999-2000	2007-2008
Illiterate	16.7	16.7	43.7	47.2
Literate but below middle	21.5	20.6	32.5	35.2
Middle but below secondary	26.5	26.9	44.0	47.8
Secondary or higher secondary	33.7	31.9	48.5	47.8
Graduate and above	39.3	37.8	52.9	55.4
Total	25.7	25.9	41.8	45.6

Source: Same as for Figure 1

In order to assess the role of economic factors in influencing migration, Table 6 presents information on migrants by monthly consumer expenditure of the households in urban India which provides quite closer view of economic conditions of the households in the absence of income data in the sample surveys (Keshri and Bhagat 2010; 2013). Results show that there is a clear gender gap in migration by income in urban areas. Among men the per cent distribution of migrants increases with rising economic status whereas, it decreases among women migrants. This situation holds true for both the rounds of survey with corresponding income categories. It is also possible that in some migrant households, income level improves after migration, but for the majority of them, this is a very unlikely scenario (Bhagat 2010). However, overall analysis revealed that the migration of women is largely determined by sociocultural factors, not only by economic factors.

Table 6: Percentage of Migrants in Urban India by MPCE, 1999-2000 and 2007-2008

MPCE	Male		Female	
	1999-2000	2007-2008	1999-2000	2007-2008
Lowest	26.9	23.6	73.1	76.4
Lower	33.7	29.5	66.3	70.5
Medium	38.1	36.9	38.2	63.1
Higher	44.5	42.5	44.5	57.5
Highest	49.4	47.9	49.4	52.1
Total	41.0	38.0	40.2	62.0

Source: Same as for Figure 1

3.4 Work Status of Migrants

In economic parlance, migration takes place when a person is engaged or likely to engage in a remunerative activity in a place which he or she is not a native or national. Therefore, it is imperative and rational to study the current work status of migrants after migration.

Table 7 (a): Percentage of Male Migrants in India by MPCE according to Current Work Status, 1999-2000 and 2007-2008

MPCE	1999-2000				2007-2008			
	Self-Employed	Regular Salaried	Casual Labour	Non-Working	Self-Employed	Regular Salaried	Casual Labour	Non-Working
Lowest	25.8	16.8	22.6	34.8	29.4	18.8	19.4	32.5
Lower	25.5	28.1	16.5	30.0	26.4	28.4	16.2	29.1
Medium	24.6	34.2	11.1	30.1	22.8	36.1	10.2	30.9
Higher	21.6	41.6	7.2	29.6	21.2	44.1	7.1	27.6
Highest	17.7	48.7	3.0	30.6	19.8	46.4	2.1	31.8
Total	21.8	38.3	9.4	30.5	22.4	39.0	8.3	30.3

Source: Same as for Figure 1

The current work status of migrants by their income level in urban India is presented in Table 7 (a) and 7 (b) for male and female migrants respectively. Overall, urban migrants recorded about 69.5 per cent and 18.7 per cent of men and women as current working status respectively in 1999-2000 whereas, 69.7 per cent and 14.3 per cent in 2007-2008. In addition to this, the per cent distribution of men migrants in self employed and casual labour category decreases with rising income status, while among regular salaried men it increases with rising income status in both the rounds of the NSS. Interestingly, women migrants also present the similar trend regarding work status as found among men. In a nutshell, the working women migrants (i.e. self employed, regular salaried and casual labour) are decreased with about 19 per cent in 1999-2000

to 14 per cent in 2007-2008 and non working women migrants are increased with 81.3 per cent to 85.7 per cent. Undoubtedly, working status of migrants is highly gendered as huge disparity exists between men and women migrants in their current work status.

Table 7 (b): Percentage of Female Migrants in India by MPCE according to Current Work Status, 1999-2000 and 2007-2008

MPCE	1999-2000				2007-2008			
	Self-Employed	Regular Salaried	Casual Labour	Non-Working	Self-Employed	Regular Salaried	Casual Labour	Non-Working
Lowest	13.3	3.4	10.7	72.7	7.8	4	7.7	80.4
Lower	11.5	4.5	5.4	78.7	7.1	4.4	4.4	84.0
Medium	9.3	3.9	3.9	82.9	4.7	4.3	2.6	88.4
Higher	6.6	5.3	2.4	85.7	3.9	5.5	1.1	89.5
Highest	4.6	10	0.5	84.9	3.6	10.5	0.4	85.4
Total	8.8	5.9	4.3	81.3	5.3	5.9	3.0	85.7

Source: Same as for Figure 1

After analyzing current working status of migrants it is also important to understand the changes in work status between pre-migration to post-migration periods after entering in urban areas, which explicitly focuses on those whose status continued to be that of workers prior to and after migration as well as current work status of migrants (i.e. after migration work status) in 1999-2000 and 2007-2008 (Table 8). In 1999-2000, out of total working male migrants, 90.8 per cent are those who had worked prior to migration as well as after migration whereas, about 9 per cent migrants loosed their job after entering in urban India. The similar scenario again prevails in 2007-2008 in case of male migrants for their working status. In contrast, out of total non working male migrants, about half of the migrants continued their job and half of them slack their job after migration in 1999-2000 while it is 53.4 and 46.6 per cent respectively in 2007-2008. On the other hand among women, out of total working women, 61.1 per cent women sustained their working status whereas, 38.9 per cent lose it after migration during 1999-2000. Furthermore, 55.7 per cent women continued their work after migration while 44.7 per cent lose their jobs after migration in 2007-2008. Contrastingly, out of total non working women, only 14.7 per cent women started working after entering in urban India, while a large proportion of women migrants (85.3 per cent) remain as non working. The situation is more worsened in 2007-2008 as only 10.7 per cent women engaged in work force after migration and 89.3 per cent remained non working after migration.

Table 8: Changes in Work Status of Migrants in Pre and Post Migration Period in Urban India, 1999-2000 and 2007-2008

Before Migration	After Migration							
	Male				Female			
	1999-2000		2007-2008		1999-2000		2007-2008	
	Working	Non working	Working	Non working	Working	Non working	Working	Non working
Working	90.8	9.2	90.5	9.5	61.1	38.9	55.7	44.3
Non working	51.0	49.0	53.4	46.6	14.7	85.3	10.7	89.3
Total	69.5	30.5	70.9	29.1	18.7	81.4	14.4	85.6

Source: Same as for Figure 1

A comparison with earlier round shows that the working status of male migrants is more or less same but among women migrants it is reduced in 2007-2008 compared to 1999-2000. Probably, this can be attributed to increasing levels of education in rural areas, as a result migrants especially females are engaged in studies rather than work. A Recent study on employment trend in India suggests that the improvement in the employment situation is also confirmed by the unemployment estimates which remain high for men in but has declined considerably for females in rural as well as in urban areas. Moreover, the rebound of the agrarian economy and the consequent increase in wages would imply that females, children and the elderly would have withdrawn from the labour market (Himanshu 2011).

3.5 Factors Associated with Migration in Urban India in the Age Group of 15-59 (Excluding Marriage as a Reason for Migration)

Results of multivariate analysis are presented in Table 9 to examine the association of key socio-economic factors with migration in Urban India. Since migration of women is highly dominated in the form of post nuptial migration, hence we have excluded those persons who migrate because of marriage.. Results suggests that among male migrants person who belong to highest MPCE quintile are about five times more likely to migrate in urban India as compared to lowest MPCE quintile (OR: 5.35, $p < 0.001$) whereas, medium and higher quintiles of MPCE have respectively two times and three times more likely to migrate compared to lowest quintile of MPCE in 1999-2000. Similarly, in 2007-2008, men who belong to highest, higher and medium MPCE quintile are six times, four times and two times more likely to migrate respectively as compared to lowest quintile (OR: 6.53, 4.18 and 2.44, $p < 0.001$). On the other hand among women, probability of migration increases with rising income in both rounds of the survey, though the odds for women migration

Table 9: Odds Ratios of Factors Influencing the Migration in Urban India for Age Group of 15-59 (Excluding Marriage as a Reason for Migration), based on Binary Logistic Regression Analysis, 1999-2000 and 2007-2008

Background Characteristics	Male		Female	
	1999-2000	2007-2008	1999-2000	2007-2008
<i>MPCE Quintiles</i>				
Lowest®				
Lower	1.51***	1.60***	1.24***	1.09**
Medium	2.12***	2.44***	1.51***	1.43***
Higher	3.31***	4.18***	2.05***	2.05***
Highest	5.35***	6.53***	3.08***	3.00***
<i>Educational Attainment</i>				
Illiterate®				
Literate but below middle	0.90***	0.93*	0.72***	0.65***
Middle but below secondary	0.69***	0.69***	0.65***	0.49***
Secondary or higher secondary	0.68***	0.57***	0.61***	0.47***
Graduate and above	0.61***	0.50***	0.53***	0.40***
<i>Social Status</i>				
Scheduled Tribe®				
Scheduled Caste	1.27***	1.35***	1.76***	1.55***
Other Backward Class	1.31***	1.25***	1.86***	1.50***
Others	1.34***	1.30***	2.03***	1.68***
<i>Religion</i>				
Hindu®				
Muslim	0.55***	0.59***	0.39***	0.42***
Others	0.68***	0.61***	0.79***	0.72***
<i>Marital Status</i>				
Single®				
Married	1.60***	1.73***	1.58***	1.92***
<i>Age</i>				
15-24®				
25-34	1.12***	1.18***	1.68***	1.55***
35-44	1.19***	1.17***	1.87***	1.62***
45-59	1.27***	0.91**	1.90***	1.29***
No. of observations	73132	64869	44239	40809
Log Likelihood	-40236.94	-36450.21	-23389.57	-22971.38
Pseudo R ²	0.0687	0.0735	0.0837	0.0902

Notes: * $p < 0.10$, ** $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.001$, ® = Reference category

Source: Same as for Figure 1

are relatively low as compared to men. In case of educational attainment, results show that both among men and women the odds for educational attainment decrease with increasing level of education. Migrants belongs to scheduled castes are less likely to migrate compared to other social groups. Moreover, in case of women migration the values of odds for social group categories are high in 1999-2000 as compared to 2007-2008, suggesting that women belong to higher social status have higher probability to migrate compared to earlier round. Among male migrants, the probability of migration increases with increasing age except in age-group of 45-59 years in 2007-2008. On the other hand in case of women migration, the likelihood of migration is increasing with rising age except in the age group of 45-59 during 2007-2008.

4. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

Migration is the hallmark of modern times along with its intrinsic aspects for development. In recent times, women have been the pioneers in migration not only through marriage to different towns and cities but also in search of better livelihood for themselves and their families (Thapan et al. 2014). However, women's migration brings issues of restricted movement, vigilance and control (Klugman and Marton 2013; Cresswell & Uteng 2008). These restrictions, vigilance and control act as obstacles on women's migration especially in Indian society. The present study aims to enhance the understanding of migratory process with special focus on gender dimension between two migration related rounds (55th and 64th) of the NSS. Starting with, an illustration of changes in migration at macro level reveals that migration of men is lower than that of women. There has been increase in women's migration with increasing age. The difference however, between the levels of migration during the period of 1999-2000 to 2007-2008 is not so high. Migration from rural to urban is more dominating than urban to urban streams, which is also the main reason of urbanization. One significant finding that emerges from this study is that, factors such as low income and low literacy are the common determinants of migration for both sexes but low level of social status is found to be associated significantly only for men's migration. On the contrary, marriage is not only the most critical factor for women migration but also high income, high literacy and higher social status are found as some major pull factors associated with women's migration in urban India. Migrant men's participation in work remained stable while women's participation has decreased after migration and entering in urban India. It reflects the phenomena of defeminization of female work force in recent times. However, a considerable quantum of women migrate due to economic reasons, this fact suggest that women are not only dependent followers of men in terms of their migration, consequently, the policy regarding the job opportunities of migrants should be such that there should not exist any kind of bias at work place regarding gender preferences i.e. women migrants must also be given equal and fair chance as their men counterparts and proper trust should be maintained over them. Since migration and work experiences are often quite different for men and women therefore, policy should not be gender biased. Hence, there is a need to change our mindset to appreciate that the

women migration is a positive process and they have also right to migrate. Along with male migration, women's migration has also affirmative impact on key aspects of development and growth and they can enrich the multi-dimensional fabric of the Indian society.

REFERENCES

- Banerjee, A. and Raju, S. 2009. 'Gendered Mobility: Women Migrants and Work in Urban India', *Economic and Political Weekly*, 54(28): 115-123.
- Bhagat, R. B. 2010. 'Internal Migration in India: Are the Underprivileged Class Migrating More?', *Asia-Pacific Population Journal*, 25(1): 27-45.
- Bhatt, Wasudha. 2009. 'The Gender Dimension of Migration in India: The Politics of Contemporary Space in Orissa and Rajasthan', *Development in Practice*, 19(1): 87-93.
- Boyd, Monica. 1989. 'Family and Personal Networks in International Migration: Recent Developments and New Agenda', *International Migration Review*, 23(3): 638-670.
- Caldwell, J. C. 1969. *African Rural-Urban Migration: The Movement to Ghana's Towns*. Australian National University Press.
- Cresswell, T. and Uteng, T. P. 2008. 'Gendered Mobilities: Towards a Holistic Understanding', in Uteng, T. P. and Cresswell, T. (eds.), *Gendered Mobilities*, pp. 1-14. Ashgate: Aldershot.
- Davis, B. and Winters, P. 2001. 'Gender, Networks and Mexico-US Migration', *The Journal of Development Studies*, 38(2): 1-26.
- Davis, Kingsley. 1984. 'Wives and Work: the Sex Role Revolution and its Consequences', *Population and Development Review*, 10(3): 397-417.
- Davis, Kingsley. 1951. *The Population of India and Pakistan*, Princeton, New Jersey: Princeton University Press.
- Gulati, Leela. 1997. 'Asian Women in International Migration with Special Reference to Domestic Work and Entertainment', *Economic and Political Weekly*, XXXII(47): 3029-3035.
- Harttgen, K. and Klasen, S. 2011. 'A Human Development Index by Internal Migrational Status' *Journal of Human Development and Capabilities*, 12 (3):293-424.
- Hassan, M. I. 2000. *Population Geography*, New Delhi: Rawat Publication.

- Himanshu. 2011. 'Employment Trends in India: A Re-examination', *Economic and Political Weekly*, XLVL(37):43-59.
- Ho, Christina 2006. 'Migration as Feminisation? Chinese Women's Experiences of Work and Family in Australia', *Journal of Ethnic and Migration Studies*, 32(3): 97-514.
- Hoang, L. A. 2011. 'Gendered Networks and Migration Decision-Making in Northern Vietnam', *Social & Cultural Geography*, 12(5): 419-434.
- Hugo, Graeme. 1995. 'International Labour Migration and the Family: Some Observations from Indonesia', *Asian Pacific Migration Journal*, 4(2/3): 273-301.
- Keshri, K. and Bhagat, R. B. 2010. 'Temporary and Seasonal Migration in India', *Genus*, 64(3): 25-45.
- Keshri, K. and Bhagat, R. B. 2013. 'Socioeconomic Determinants of Temporary Labour Migration in India', *Asian Population Studies*, 9(2): 175-195.
- Klugman, J. and Morton, M. 2013. 'Support versus Transformation in Development Financing: What Works to Close Gender Gaps?', *Journal of International Affairs*, 67 (1): 123-145
- Kundu, A. and Sarangi, N. 2007. 'Migration, Employment Status and Poverty: An Analysis across Urban Centres', *Economic and Political Weekly*, XLII (4): 299-306.
- Lutz, Helma. 2010. 'Gender in the Migratory Process', *Journal of Ethnic and Migration Studies*, 36(10): 647-1663.
- Mahler, S. J. and Pessar, P. R. 2006. 'Gender Matters: Ethnographers bring Gender from the Periphery toward the Core of Migration Studies', *International Migration Review* 40(1): 27-63.
- Massey, D. S., Arango, J., Hugo, G., Kouaouci, A., Pellegrino, A. and Taylor, J. E. 1993. 'Theories of International Migration: A Review and Appraisal', *Population and Development Review*, 19(3): 431-66.
- Mazumdar, I., Neetha, N. and Agnihotri, I. 2013. 'Migration and Gender in India', *Economic and Political Weekly*, 68(10): 54-64.
- NSSO. 2001. 'Migration in India', Report No. 470 (55/108), 1999-2000, National Sample Survey Organisation, New Delhi, Ministry of Statistics and Programme Implementation, Government of India, http://www.mospi.gov.in/mospi_nss_report_pubn.htm. (accessed: 20 March 2011).

- NSSO. 2010. 'Migration in India', Report No. 533 (64/10.2/2), 2007-2008, National Sample Survey Organisation, New Delhi, Ministry of Statistics and Programme Implementation, Government of India, http://www.mospi.gov.in/mospi_nssso_report_pubn.htm. (accessed: 20 March 2011).
- Palriwala, R and Uberoi, P. 2008. 'Exploring the Links: Gender Issues in Marriage and Migration', in Palriwala, R and Uberoi, P. (eds), *Marriage, Migration and Gender*, pp. 23-60. New Delhi: Sage Publications.
- Premi, M. K. 1980. 'Aspects of Female Migration in India', *Economic and Political Weekly*, 15(15): 714-720.
- Shanthi, K. 2006. 'Female Labour Migration in India: Insights from NSSO Data' *Working Paper*, No. 4/2006, Madras School of Economics, Chennai, India.
- Shanthi, K. 1991. 'Issues Relating to Economic Migration of Females', *The Indian Journal of Labour Economics*, 34(4): 335-346.
- Srivastava, R. and Sasikumar, S. K. 2003. 'An Overview of Migration in India, its Impact and Key Issues', Paper Presented at the Regional Conference on Migration, Development and Pro-Poor Policy Choices in Asia, Dhaka, Bangladesh, 22-24 June, 2003.
- Thapan, M., Singh, A. and Sreekumar, N. 2014. 'Women's mobility and migration: Muslim women migrants in Jamia Nagar, Delhi', *Economic and Political Weekly*, 49(23): 96-104.
- Todaro, M. (1997) 'Urbanization, unemployment and migration in Africa: Theory and policy' *Working Paper*, No. 104, Policy Research Division, Population Council, New York.
- Yabiku, S. T., Agadjanian, V. and Sevoyan, A. 2010. 'Husbands Labour Migration and Wives' Autonomy, Mozambique 2000-2006', *Population Studies*, 64(3): 293-306.