

THE ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL IMPACTS OF DIFFERENT FORMS OF INTERNAL MIGRATION IN INDIA

Supriya Ray

Research Scholar

Department of Economics

Sunrise University, Alwar

Rajasthan

supriyaray68@gmail.com

Dr. Disha Sharma

Research Guide

Department of Economics

Sunrise University, Alwar

Rajasthan.

ABSTRACT

Particularly in developing nations, migration is a rather new phenomena. It has both advantages and disadvantages. The goal of the current article is to track internal migration in India. We'll also make an effort to concentrate on shifting migration trends and problems in India. When migration occurs, it causes a number of issues. It has been attempted to discuss migration in India in terms of the social and economic effects it has on both source and destination regions. The article also gathers some data on migration patterns starting in 1991. Census of India and NSSO are the sources of data for the current article.

KEY WORDS: *Mobility, NSSO, Pull and Push Factors, and Migration.*

INTRODUCTION

People move in developed and developing countries (Oyeniya, 2013). Weeks (1999) defines migrant as someone who moves and starts a new life. Yet, migration encompasses all types of human travel (Haider 2010, p. 309). UN (1993) defines migration as crossing administrative borders over time. Dang (2005) defines internal migration in India as moving inside the country. Migration disrupts job, education, social life, and other lifestyles (Adzei A. and E. K. Sakyi, 2014). Migration is a seasonal or yearly cycle of moving from one area to another. Humans have migrated throughout history to survive, adapt, and flourish. Previously, human movement was accompanied with expectancy, excitement, and terror, the splitting of long-standing social bonds, heartaches, tensions, and even violence between migrants and locals, and the pleasant or reluctant interchange of ideas, talents, and attitudes (Adler L. L., Gielen Uwe P., 2003). Nowadays, migration affects more individuals than ever. International migration affects practically every country, with over 160 million individuals residing abroad. Nowadays, more individuals live abroad than ever before. If they all lived together, international migrants would be the sixth most populated country (UNFPA). Rational people migrate to better economies. Just 25% of international migrants are considered to have relocated from non-OECD nations to OECD countries, yet developed countries have had the largest immigration increase.

Migration affects social and economic development in India. India's livelihood strategy is migration. The Indian labor market is characterized by rural and backward people moving to urban regions for work. This trend has marginalized workers socially, economically, and politically. It is particularly for untrained individuals who leave impoverished places to find work and a better life. Poor Indian families migrate most (Connell, 1976). India's population circulates between wadding and urbanized regions and rural and metropolitan areas, largely in the unorganized sector of the economy. People's motions suggest a slow decline. Two-thirds of Indian migrants move inside the district of record, over one-fifth within the state of listing, and the rest beyond state boundaries. India receives the most overseas remittances and has the second-largest local market. Migrants'

remittances have boosted National Disposable Income by 4% throughout India. State disposable incomes differ from state income measurements because remittances vary by state (Chinmay Tumble, 2013).

LITERATURE REVIEW

Michael Fix and Jeffrey S. Passel (1994) found that immigration had little effect on native employees. Native employees are just 1% displaced. Immigration does not seem to affect earnings. He also determined that immigration mainly benefits less skilled employees and often increases pay disparity. Undocumented immigration does not harm black employees or local workers.

Shamshul Haque (2014) revealed Kashmir Valley migration is not new. Kashmir has been inhabited from ancient times. The research covers Srinagar and Budgam districts, but it sheds light on migration and its effects beyond the valley. Workers mostly migrated from Bihar, UP, MP, West Bengal, and Punjab. These folks were pulled and pushed. The research found beneficial effects on in-migrants. It has raised their earnings, daily spending, kid enrollment, home building, and savings. Local laborers have fewer job possibilities and must relocate to other regions of the nation.

Immigration hurts native minorities and low-skilled employees, according to Borjas et al. (1997) and Camarota (1998). Borjas & Katz (2005) demonstrated how immigration affects natives. They say immigration favors high-skilled employees but hurts low-skilled ones. For every 10% increase in immigrant workers, Borjas (2003) found that competitive labor salaries fell by 3–4%. Borjas found that immigration "significantly harmed the labour market prospects encountered by many native employees" in this research (p. 1370).

OBJECTIVES

The present study is based on the following objectives:

- To examine the main streams of internal migration in India.
- To evaluate the main causes responsible for migration.
- To examine the impact of migration on the socio-economic life in both source and destination areas.

METHODOLOGY AND DATASOURCES

This research examines India's internal migration. Internal migration will also be examined. Migration patterns are covered. This research uses secondary data. Material comes from books, monthly journals, essays, periodicals, and national and state government reports. As the research is on internal migration in India, the data comes from two primary sources: the decennial population Census and the quinquennial migration surveys by the National Sample Survey Office (NSSO). The Indian Census collects data on migration, including causes, age and sex of migrants, reasons and length of travel, destination and origin, and industry and employment. NSS data was reviewed for migrant education, income, consumption, and other activities. It tracks migrant remittances.

INTERNAL MIGRATION TYPES AND PATTERNS IN INDIA

i Migration starts with people moving. Nowadays, products and factors—especially labor—are movable. Mobility occurs inside and across nations. A country's population typically moves around. People travel permanently, semi-permanently, voluntarily, involuntarily, and seasonally or circularly. Permanent migration is when someone moves and never returns. Temporary migration

is for seasonal work and limited in time. The migrant is forced to relocate (push factors). Forced migration is opposite voluntary migration. Four migratory streams dominate India:

- ii. Rural to Rural,
- iii. Rural to Urban,
- iv. Urban to Rural, and
- v. Urban to Urban.

Rural-to-rural and rural-to-urban migrations dominate these streams. According to Census statistics, 57% of movements are rural-rural, 22% rural-urban, 6% urban-rural, and 15% urban-urban (Office of the Registrar General and Census Commissioner, India 2005). From the 2007-08 NSSO study, the four migration streams are rural-rural (62%), rural-urban (19%), urban-rural (6%) and urban-urban (13%). (S Chandrasekhar, A Sharma, 2014).

India 2001 intra-state and inter-state migration by rural urban status (length of residency 0-9 years).

73.9 million of the 97.5 million migrants in the nation from 1991 to 2001 were rural, while 20.6 million were urban. 61.4 million of the 97.5 million migrants went to rural regions and 36.1 million to metropolitan areas. 53.3 million rural migrants and 20.5 million urban migrants make up the 73.9 million rural migrants. 6 million urban migrants moved to rural regions and 14.3 million to another urban area. According to census 2001, Maharashtra had 2.3 million net migrants, followed by Delhi with 1.7 million, Gujarat (0.68 million), and Haryana (0.67 million). Uttar Pradesh, with -2.6 million net migrants, and Bihar, with -1.7 million, had the most out migrants (<http://www.censusindia.gov.in>). The stream may also be intra-district, intra-state, or inter-state. As seen, most migrants travel within the state, either within the same districts or to different districts.

India's interstate migration is mostly from poor agricultural and industrial states. This included Orissa, Bihar, Eastern Uttar Pradesh, Bengal, and Telangana, Andhra Pradesh. Environmental suitability/preference also causes migration. Migration in India differs by industry and state. Migrant agricultural workers from Bihar and UP do better than construction workers from Orissa and Andhra Pradesh. Census 2011 shows a sex difference in long-distance interstate migration. Male rural-to-urban interstate movement accounts for 47%. Yet, 38% of women still relocate from rural to rural. Indian migration patterns varies as seen in the tables above.

Why does People Migrate or why does Migration Happen?

If predicted advantages outweigh expected expenses, people move. Religious, political, and economic concerns have driven migration to and from the area. Indian migration patterns vary, as do their causes. NCRL (1991) found that migration is strongly impacted by development, whereas Mosse et al. (2002) found that it is affected by social structure. The National Commission on Rural Workers found that unequal development drives seasonal migration. Inter-regional inequalities, socio-economic class distinctions, and post-independence government development programs may also generate seasonal migration. Due to encroachment, deforestation, settlement pattern, and relocation, indigenous communities have also migrated seasonally. Marriage drives internal migration in India, particularly among women (Abbas R. and Varma D., 2014). Migration literature separates push and pull variables, which are typically combined. When they can't find work or don't expect to, they relocate. People may define betterment as greater opportunity, money, environment, family, and living conditions.

Several sociologists study migration using the pull-push approach. Pull and push factors form the model. Push factors motivate individuals to go, whereas pull forces draw them there. Push forces come from migrant sending regions, whereas pull factors come from receiving areas. Push forces are negative and pull factors are positive in the receiving zones. Because of local rivalry, migrants must consider both considerations while migrating to make the transfer profitable and have many surplus advantages.

Push Factors:-

There are a number of push factors responsible for the movement of people from one place to another. Some of these are given below

- ☞ Lack of jobs and poverty often compel people to move from one place to another.
- ☞ Civil conflict, political and religious discrimination such as Pandit migration from Kashmir to Jammu.
- ☞ Environmental problems to cope with.
- ☞ Primitive conditions such as basic necessities of life including poor medical care, transport and water facilities, basic education, standard of life, etc.
- ☞ Frequent occurrence of natural disasters such as floods, earthquakes, etc.
- ☞ Fear of slavery due to presence of dominant classes.
- ☞ Lack of social and political freedom.
- ☞ Desertification and pollution.
- ☞ Loss of wealth and death threats.
- ☞ Condemned housing (radon gas, etc.)

Pull Factors:-

The following are some of the pull factors that result in migration:

- Expectation of getting higher wages or at least higher standards of living.
- Labour demand providing chance of a better job.
- Political and religious freedom
- Superior medical care, education and other facilities.
- Presence of family links or a personal fondness of a certain place.
- Social security, peace, and safety.
- Attractive climates.
- Better chances of marrying.

THE IMPACT OF MIGRATION

Migration impacts development. It impacts both transmitting and receiving societies. Each have pros and cons. Migration affects both migrants and their families. Examine these effects.

On migrants and their families:-

The following are some of the important impacts of migration on migrants and their families:

- Migrants suffer several hardships owing to their little possessions. They live in squalor.
- They typically lack sanitation and potable water and live in open places (Rani and Shylendra, 2001).
- Crowded labor marketplaces lower their earnings to practically starvation levels. They seldom indulge.

- Diseases and accidents are common when employers ignore safety procedures. They seldom have free public health care. Sunstroke, bodily discomfort, and other health issues plague brick kiln and related factory workers (NCRL, 1991).
- Migrants work risky, filthy labor.
- Rogaly et al., 2001 and 2002, also highlights other key migratory issues such schooling deprivation for migrant pupils.
- Men move more. The elderly, women, and children left behind are financially and mentally insecure. This has also burdened women and forced them and their children to labor under harsh circumstances (Rogaly et al, 2001; 2002). Source Area Effects
- Migration and remittances may boost economic development, earnings, health, and education in sending countries. Migration affects supply regions via labor market, incomes, property, and spending and investment changes. Migration's main effects on source locations include
 - Tightening of the labour market.
 - Push up in the acceptable level of wages.
 - Balancing the employment structure for the year (seasonal out-migration).
 - High degree of changes in the present worker relations (return migrants are expected to be more skilled).
 - Reduction of internal dependencies may eliminate the causes of debt (Abdihet al. 2009, IMF 2010, Ratha et al. 2010).
 - Accelerates labour mobility and reduces unemployment.
 - Helps in the alleviation the poverty in their native areas, at least in the short term (Adams 1991, Lachaud 1999).
 - Gaining of new ideas from returned migrants and mitigating brain drain (Dustmann et al., 2010).

Aijaz Ahmad Turrey

- Creates imbalance of gender in population structures (males have higher mobility than females).
- Loneliness and increasing burden of family responsibilities.
- Reduction in pressure on land.
- Reduction in the number of highly educated and qualified workers in the labour market (brain drain).
- Migrants bring remittances which form their major source of livelihood (remit or bring homesavings) (World Bank 2006, Yang and Choi 2007, Mohapatra et al. 2010).
- Migration from rural areas affects the existing production links (Standing, ibid).

Impact on Destination Areas:-

Immigration boosts employment, productivity, and GDP, according to economists. Migrant labor is unlimited in destination locations. Local labor shortages may explain this (Singh and Iyer, 1985). Most research suggests that wage-cost reduction and labor control programs favor immigrant employment. Immigrants often have negative effects on these nations. Migration has significant effects on receiving regions.

The labour of migrants can be controlled easily and can be put to hard conditions.

- Migrant labour force fills in positions which citizens might regard derogatory (Massey et al., 2002).
- Migrants can be used for long working hours and can be flexibly decreased or increased when needed (Ortega and Peri 2009).
- The wages of the migrants are provided on the basis of suiting minimum wage laws which are often lower than the local wages (Dustmann et al., 2007).
- Migration reduces labour cost to employers.
- The entrepreneurs are always in favour of the labour immigrants shifting their load and risk upon them.
- Migrants help the economy making a net fiscal contribution (Gott and Johnston, 2002).
- Poor neighbouring countries bear the heaviest burden.
- Unemployment in host country in a recession (Blanchflower et al., 2007).
- Immigrants occupy natives' jobs (Papademetriou et al., 2009).
- Costs of Housing Asylum Seekers.
- Halt rural depopulation and ageing populations.
- Cultural enrichment or destruction.
- Rural-urban migration creates ghettos in cities.
- Pressure on resources.

MIGRATION TRENDS IN INDIA

From the start, migration has increased globally. International migrants, or persons living in a country other than their natal country, rose linearly from 76 million in 1965 to 188 million in 2005. (IOM, 2005). Internal migrants are four times greater than global migrants since the majority of people relocate inside their own country (UNDP, 2009). Internal migration in India is fascinating. The economy has considerable income and population variability in practically all regions (Cashin, P and R. Sahay, 1996).

The 2001 Census estimated 309 million internal migrants (NSSO 2007-08, 26.1 percent of rural and 35.4 percent of urban populations are migrants), 70.7 percent of whom were women (NSSO 2007-08, women make up 80% of all internal migrants). Since 1991 (226 million), migration has increased 36.7%. (309 million). 32.8 percent of migrants were urban, nearly % rural. Over 53.2 percent of urban migrants are male, while 24.5 percent are female. Intra-district migration was about 52% male and 70% female. Census and NSSO migration data in India are identical. Their migratory trend data differs. Data shows a 37% increase in immigration between 1991 and 2001. (Ravi Srivastava, UNESCO, 2011).

Stream-wise internal migration in India (percent) and change over time, 1981–2001

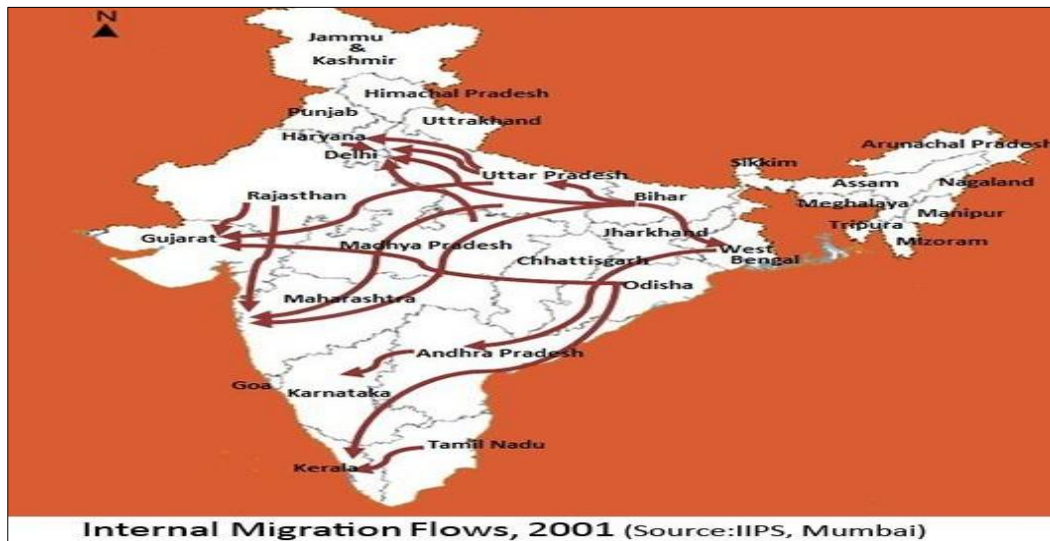
Census Year	Rural-Rural	Urban-Rural	Unclassified-Rural	Total Rural	Rural-Urban	Urban-Urban	Unclassified-Urban	Total Urban	Total
1981	65.03	6.11	0.08	71.22	16.59	12.1	0.1	28.79	100
1991	64.21	5.97	0.29	70.47	17.67	11.7	0.16	29.53	100
2001	55.51	4.2	7.45	67.16	16.71	11.82	4.32	32.85	100

Uttar Pradesh and Bihar, with poor social

and financial development indices, have the most migrants. Nonetheless, fresh openings like Orissa, Rajasthan, Madhya Pradesh, and the North East have become blue-collar labor sending locations. Instead, internal migrants go to Kolkata, Mumbai, and Delhi (Abbas R. and Varma D., 2014).

The map below shows the major migratory routes in the nation where labor migration is high. Construction employs almost forty million migrant workers, followed by domestic/home work, textile, brick kiln, transport, and agricultural.

Major net Internal Migration Flows in India, 2001 Aijaz Ahmad Turrey



LIVING CONDITIONS OF MIGRANTWORKERS

Most informal sector migrant laborers live in poor circumstances. They live in open areas or makeshift shelters, have inadequate sanitation, and lack clean drinking water (Rani and Shylendra, 2001). While the Contract Work Act provides housing and other rights, laborers nevertheless live in subhuman conditions. Aside from roaming labor, workers who relocate to metropolitan regions for employment subsist in sidewalks and parks, while slum inhabitants, primarily migrants, live in terrible conditions with inadequate water and poor drainage. Migrant laborers cannot use the PDS since they are not officially registered. Seasonal laborers have poor working conditions. Salaries, working hours, safety regulations, and innovations have no minimal requirement. Most labor laws, even those for them, are against them (Sangappa S. R. and Shanta. B. A., 2015). The 1979 Inter-State Migrant Workers Act protects migrant employees. It is antiquated and seldom enforced. Lack of solid seasonal migration data hinders policymaking. NSS and Census cannot track seasonal and cyclical migration. BPL surveys also neglect migrants. Migrants also cannot vote and cannot participate in the official election system (Aajeevika Bureau, 2014).

CONCLUSION

This research examines internal migration in India, notably in the informal sector. Internal migration in India may boost human capital investment, especially for the poor. Private transfers assist young adolescents more in Indian internal migration. Poor and low-caste families face movement hurdles between states. Such concerns may also influence future poverty-reduction efforts (Mueller V., Shariff A., 2009). Development includes internal migration. The considerations above drove impoverished individuals to the city to earn more money for their families. Internal migration in India is extensive and varied, as are its hardships. A fundamental analysis of internal migration in India indicates that migration is difficult and that migrant social safeguards are still limited despite their huge economic contribution. After adopting a new economic strategy in 1991, people's movement in the nation increased. Rural-to-rural migration leads since agriculture is the country's major economic pillar. Marriage for women and economic employment for men were the main motivations for migration (Manju Singh, Seema Shandilya, 2012).

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