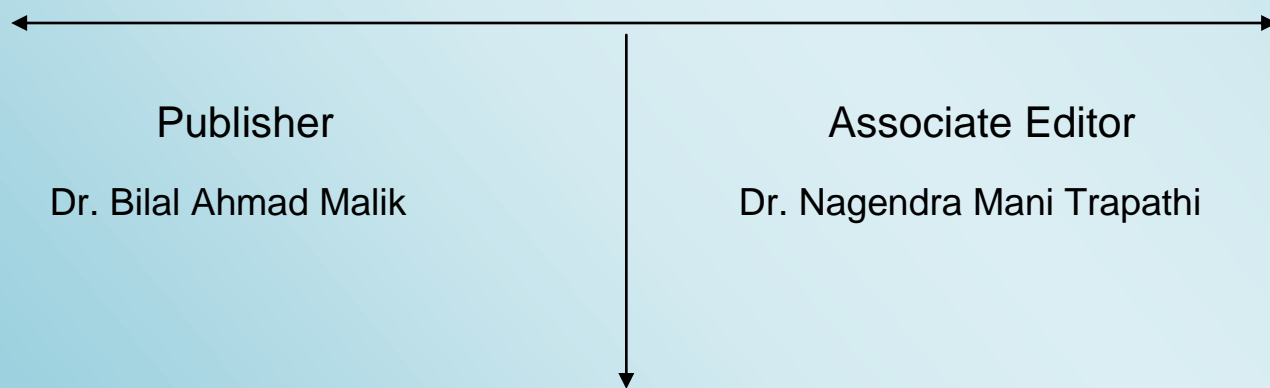


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AN OVERVIEW OF MIGRATION

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INTRODUCTION

Human civilization has always been accompanied by migration. Historically, migration may have been forced, as in the case of slavery, or related to colonization. However, in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries it was the extensive industrialization and urbanization in developing countries that gave rise to huge waves of international migration (Thapan 2005). In the economy of rural households of developing countries, temporary migration plays an important role, not only by securing household survival but also by providing income to household members. Households diversify their economic activities outside the traditional agricultural sector to secure alternative sources of income by sending out members to work in urban areas for a short duration (Deshingkar and Farrington, 2009a; Pham and Hill, 2008). For India the two most important sources of migration data are the decennial Census and the National Sample Survey. Although the census covers the entire population, it fails to provide information on short-term and temporary migration (Bhagat and Mohanty, 2009; Kundu, 2009; Skeldon, 2002).

Temporary migration, often used interchangeably with circular, season-al, short-term and spontaneous migration, has been a subject of much dis-course. It is a sort of mobility where the economic activity of a person is moved but not the usual residence (Bilsborrow *et al.*, 1984). In addition, census results show that labour mobility (migration due to employment or work) has also increased during the same period (Bhagat, 2010). Temporary and seasonal migration is an important form of labour mobility in a country with an increasing shift of labour force from agriculture to industry and the tertiary sector. The relationship between poverty and migration has long been a hotly debated issue. It is well recognized that the poorest people migrate for survival within the country and this mobility is generally in the form of short-term migration, even if the capacity to afford a move is lower among the poor (Kundu and Sarangi, 2007; Skeldon, 2002).

Migration is a dynamic process with various implications of its own and the reasons for which people migrate depends on the developmental attributes of the origin and destination regions. Migration can be either internal or international. Internal migration can be viewed as an economic survival strategy for the poor in the Asian countries which help in poverty reduction (Deshingkar, 2006).

In a country of India's size, the existence of significant regional disparities should not come as a surprise. The scale and growth of these disparities is, however, of concern. The ratio between the highest to lowest state per capita incomes, represented by Punjab and Bihar in the first period, and Maharashtra and Bihar in the second period, has increased from 2.6 in 1980–83 to 3.5 in 1997–00 (Srivastava, 2003).

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Internal migration is defined as 'population movement across a political or administrative boundary, which entails a change of usual residence' (Bilsborrow, 1998). The migration literature provides a diverse range of related definitions based on three dimensions, which are explained by Kothari (2002). The first dimension entails the motives for migrations. The reasons to migrate are in many cases not just economic, social, political and cultural aspects also play its part. A migrant from an impoverished backward region may be attracted to more prosperous regions because of better public services, higher wages, more business opportunities, more employment opportunities etc. The second dimension is the geographical aspect of population movement. Migration flows form a certain spatial pattern, which depends on the distance the migrant's travel and the direction of their movements. The last dimension is time, which is for how long does the migrant stay in the destination area and how often does he or she travel between different destinations. The Indian Population Census classifies a person as a migrant if either (a) 'his/her place of birth was different from the place of enumeration' or (b) 'his/her place of last continuous residence was different from the place of enumeration'. Hence, the census provided data on both lifetime (birthplace) migration and last-move migration. The former definition is less practical because of the fact that it defines a person as a migrant even if he or she stays in the new destination area permanently. The Population Census of India collected information regarding internal migration flows at the levels of spatial aggregation, i.e., migration flows between Indian states (interstate migration), migration flows between districts (inter-district migration) and migration flows within a district (Intra-district). There are several cases where women participate in the migration streams along with male members of their households. It is usual in such cases for younger siblings and older children to accompany their parents and to work along with them. Family migration usually implies migration of the younger members of the family, leaving the elderly to cope with

additional responsibilities while at the same time fend for their subsistence and other basic requirements (Mosse et al, 1997). The proportion of male lifetime migrants is low in most poor states except Madhya Pradesh and high in most developed states. For inter-state migration, a similar trend is observed: developed states show high inter-state immigration while poor states, except Madhya Pradesh, show low rates of total and male immigration. Rates of interstate lifetime emigration are complementary to the above trends (Srivastava, 1998).

The Banaskantha Women's Rural Development Project set up by SEWA (Self Employed Women's Association) has played a key role in improving the economic position of women through dairy and handicraft activity projects in Banskantha district, western Gujarat. There has been a significant decline in seasonal migration from this area since the inception of this project. In the whole process, the role of moneylenders and middlemen has been eliminated. The domestic workload of women has been reduced by the installation of piped drinking water. Income generation has been closely linked with formation of cooperatives, trade unions, skill and management training (Sanbergen, 1995b). Research studies report that migration has had significant consequences on poverty levels. Zachariah *et al* (2002b) reports that migration has had a very significant impact on the proportion of population below the poverty line in Kerala during the 1990s. The study notes that the proportion has declined by over 3 percentage points as a result of remittances received by Kerala households from abroad. It is important to note that the largest decline has been in the case of the relatively economically backward sections of people belonging to the Muslim community, the decline being over 6 percentage points. Among the Asian countries, India has the highest internal migration. On one hand it constitutes of states which are extremely underdeveloped with very limited economic activity such as North-Eastern states, Bihar, Uttar Pradesh etc., while on the other hand there are regions and states making fast economic progress such as Maharashtra, Delhi, Gujarat etc. Migration can be seen as a process of mobility for achieving the goals of livelihood improvement, and the extent to which households succeed in achieving these goals depends on the destination and selectivity of migration (de Hass 2010). Most of recent literature claims that migration is a development- induced process thus, reflects uneven development of regions (McDowell and de Haan 1997).

It can also be viewed as a process of mobility which plays a positive role in improving livelihood of people; also it is associated with poverty reduction effect (de Haan 1999 and Skeldon 2002). The other aspect is that migration especially from the rural areas to the urban centers has historically been very crucial for urbanization process (Lall *et al*, 2006). The Census of India adopts the place of birth as the sole criterion for determining migration. The few National Sample Surveys, dealing with internal migration in India adopt the criterion of change of

residence from the native place. The NSS 13th round report says 34.9 per cent male urban population came from outside. This proportion increases with the size of the city (Bose,1973).

Rapid urbanization leads to a heightened sense of political awareness and politicization, enhanced aspirations and expectations. To Deutsch, urbanization is an integral part of his concept of social mobilization which essentially means physical and psychological uprooting of the people from traditional ways of living and think in (Deutsch, 1961).

Informal community bonds, traditions, and means of social control, "which have been in the making for thousands of years", are eroded and destroyed by the process of rapid urbanization. This leads to psychic strains on the people, especially the immigrants, loss of morals, anomie, delinquency, alcoholism, mass movements etc. (Weaver, 1960).

Migration puts an enormous strain on the already inadequate municipal and other facilities like transport, water, sanitation, housing, etc. The visible eyesores of slums produce the "coarsening of the human fibre." All these exacerbate frustration (bulsara, 1971).

Earlier studies have shown that poor households participate extensively in migration (Connell *et al*, 1976). More recent studies have reconfirmed that migration is a significant livelihood strategy for poor households in several regions of India (PRAXIS, 2002; Mosse *et al*, 2002; Hirway *et al*, 2002; Haberfeld *et al*, 1999; Rogaly *et al*, 2001; Srivastava, 1998 and forthcoming).

The essay is organized as follows. We begin with an overview of conventional Marxist and marginalist explanations of migration, and question their pervasive economism and links to modernization theory. We then evaluate some recent literature on migration by geographers and anthropologists that critique these conventional accounts from feminist, postcolonial, and post development perspectives. These new approaches to migration stress the need to reassess migration as a "cultural event" (McHugh 2000), organized by practical consciousness, that transforms migrant subjectivities and notions of "place" in gendered, raced, and classed ways (Halfacree and Boyle 1993; White and Jackson 1995; Silvey and Lawson 1999; Lawson 2000).

CONCEPT AND MEANING OF MIGRATION

CLARKE, J.I. (1965, 123p.) said, 'unanimity over the meaning of migration' thought many consider it is as movement in involving a change of residence of substantial duration. On the basis of this definition one should exclude the constant movement of pastoral nomads, the temporary movement of tourists and the daily movement of commuters, but there is little justification for their exclusive merely because we have no satisfaction term, which encompasses the numerous spatial movement of populations. Clark was of the opinion that migration cannot be defined perfectly as it involves a wide range of elements. Therefore, definition of human migration remains inconclusive.

TREWARTHA, G.T. (1969, 136p.) placed emphasis on distance, human will change in permanent residence in migration. He described that the term 'migration' has various shades of meaning. Most commonly migration involve a movement of some distance, which result in a change in permanent residence. But, according to him, this restrictive definition would exclude other types of mobility, including the daily trek of commuters between a city center and its peripheral area, the seasonal shifts of migrant workers, the temporary and irregular movements of tourists, and the wandering s of pastoral nomads. Hence the usual definition of migration is stretched so that it may include a wide range of population mobility, even though space may not permit a meaningful discussion of all forms.

According to DEMKO, G.K.-Ross, H.M-SCHNEL, G.A. (1970, 286 p.) definition of migration or typology is generally based on change in residence, journey to work, types of boundaries crossed, and many others. LEE, E.S. (1970, 290 P.) in his theory of migration made an attempt to provide a theoretical background for the spatial movement of populations. In his words 'migration is defined broadly as a permanent or semi-permanent change of residence'. In his opinion, no restriction is placed upon the distance of the move or upon the voluntary or involuntary nature of the act and no distance is made between external and internal migration. According to him, not all kinds of spatial mobility are included in migration. For example, a move from one apartment to another, continual movements of nomads and migratory workers, a move from plain to mountain are not migration.

EISENSTADS, S.N. (1953, pp. 167-180) define migration as the physical transition of an individual or a group from one society to another. This transition normally involves abandoning one social setting and entering another, and different one. His emphasis is mainly on leaving a whole set of social life of a person's previous residential region and establishing a new set of social life in a latter or new region where he migrated and decided to live.

ZELINSKY, W. (1971, pp. 219-255) define 'migration as the perceptible and simultaneous shifts in both spatial and social locus...'. He put stress on territorial movements and stated that not all form of spatial mobility may be regarded as migration. Migration implies a permanent or semi-permanent change of residence and therefore excludes, e.g. commuters, holidaymakers and student moving temporary between family home and college. These form of mobility are often designated as circulation. According to him a true definition of migration requires several dimension or criteria.

MISHRA. S.K. (1981, pp. 227-228) define migration as an inflow or outflow of population from a define region to another region for a permanent or semi -permanent settlement. His approach of defining migration does not cover other relevant criteria and seems unsound.

The United Nations (1970, No. 47) recommendation an intended duration of stay of more than one year with a purpose of job for a permanent migration and one year or less than one for temporary migration provides he/she receives pay from sources within the country he/she enters. Similarly, if a person remains in another country with no legal identity for a period of one year or less is called refugee, or displaced person or transferred person. This approach of classification does not provide us clear picture of the type of job obtained and the mode of payment followed. Secondly, this is mainly applicable for international migration. For internal migration most countries follow 'place of birth' at the time of enumeration region as a criteria in measuring migration.

NEWMAN, J.L.-MATZE, G.E. (1984, pp. 159-162) have critically analyzed the concept of migration. According to them, "most definition focus on notion of a permanent or semi-permanent change of residence in order to distinguish migration from circulation. The latter does not involve a change of residence and includes such daily movement as commuting to and from work, shopping trips, and vacation. Both migration and circulation are included under the broader heading of population mobility".

MIGRATION STUDIES

Migration and Destabilization of Economy

Internal migration at macro level studies the relationship between aggregate migration flows and the presence of spatial heterogeneity among the different locations. The geographical differentials in terms of economic growth and development, is the main determinant of internal migration. The Gravity Model is the most common theoretical framework used in empirical analysis to study the spatial determinants of migrations. It argues that

migration is directly correlated with population size and inversely correlated with the distance between the origin and the destination regions. Distance is a key variable, the proxy for all the migration costs, both psychological and monetary, that is spatially related to the sending and destination region. The population size is the sign of the rate of urbanization or the growth of urban sector (Greenwood, 1985; Greenwood and Hunt, 2003; Larson and Mundlack, 1995).

The role of the natural environment in migration is central, although in a fairly implicit way, to Ratzel's (1882) *Anthropogeographie*, 1 which, as noted by Durkheim at the time, lays the foundations for a general theory of migration (Durkheim 1899).

Migration, Population Growth and Youth

The rate of population growth and the proportion of youth in the population influences both international migration and development. Falling mortality and high fertility maintain a high rate of population growth that, in many countries, often throws into disarray the very delicate balance between population and resources in the short run while the rising revolution of expectations gallops ahead, fuelled by education and better awareness of living conditions in the North with a helping hand from globalization. According to Demeny, between the mid-1980s and the end of the century, the 20-40 age group, which supplies most of the economic migrants, will increase by 19 million in the North - less than a third of that of the 20 preceding years (as quoted by Swami, 1984:27). In the next two decades, according to the ILO

(International Labour Office), the labor force of the developed world will grow by 40%. This would mean 700 million new job seekers added to the labor force of 2.4 billion (as quoted by OECD, 1993:5). This is when the youth unemployment rate in certain countries of the South is already up to 40%.

Migration and Gender

Moreover, migration plays a significant role in spurring new opportunities for women to improve their lives and transform oppressive gender relations. It may be a critical source of income for migrant women, thereby promoting increased self-confidence and greater autonomy, and instigating upward social mobility. Nonetheless, migration is a complex movement in which traditional roles and disparities may still be embedded, creating new vulnerabilities for women in terms of a precarious or even non-existent legal status. Moreover, women migrants have to confront biased procedures and corrupt agents, while new social stigmas and discrimination also occur at

each level of the migration cycle (Jolly and Reeves 2005). This underlines the importance of reflecting the differential experiences of male and female migrants in a gendered world.

Women are no longer viewed as the passive followers of the migrating (male) household head. As daughters are sent to towns to work as domestic servants, girls are becoming economically independent from an early age. They live in the cities on their own and send remittances home, thus promoting 'autonomous female migration' (Fawcett et al. 1984).

The larger picture shows that many young Asian women have now been encouraged to join the migration streams, either in groups or with their families, to cash in on the increased demand for female labour in the context of new, more liberalised, economic policies in India.² While this may not portend well for women's development, it enables them to contribute to family survival, while allowing the men sufficient time to find a suitable job or improve their skills (Shanthi 1993).

Changing labour markets globally have increased both opportunities and pressures for women and men to migrate internationally in larger numbers. Their labour market positioning and experiences have to be analysed in relation to gender segregated labour markets in the countries of origin as well as destination. In addition, the rising number of independently migrating women in these streams has been referred to as 'feminisation' of migration. This 'feminisation' is sometimes characterized by an over-representation of women migrants in extremely vulnerable positions (ILO 2003) and to a large extent linked to the 'feminisation of poverty'.

Place within the labour market and type of job is also linked to mode of entry and immigration policies. In Europe, North America, Australia and New Zealand, migrating under the family reunification category is still clearly dominated by women, and there is evidence of women encountering difficulties finding work commensurate with their qualifications once they entered as 'dependent spouses'. However, in the EU as elsewhere, increasingly more and more women are entering in search of jobs. The 'traditional settler' countries are experiencing a new trend toward admitting increasingly numbers of temporary skilled/business migrants, and this category is clearly dominated by male migrants (and in Australia, men from English speaking countries) (Khoo et al. 2005).

Migration, Education and Training

Education holds the key to development as well as to international migration. The U.S. Commission for the Study of International Migration and Co-operative Economic Development observes: "Raising educational levels is essential to Socio-economic development and reduction of migratory pressures. An educated Population is key to raising productivity. Increasing education is correlated to declining fertility and improved nutritional standards" (U.S. Commission for the Study of International Migration and Co-operative Economic Development, 1990: xxx.) While one could agree with most of the assertions above, it is doubtful whether one could claim that higher educational levels reduce migratory pressures in the short run. The evidence is largely to the contrary (*Globalization, Migration and Development*)

For instance, the state of Kerala in India with the highest literacy rate of 70.4% for the population of 15 and over, has a high migration rate as well (United Nations, 1992: 15).

Migration and Employment

Many countries of the Global South are plagued with the problem of chronic unemployment. A dominant factor that controls migration is the job market. Lack of employment, poor wages and no prospects of advancement motivate labor force participants to seek opportunities elsewhere. In this era of economic globalization and liberalization, internationalization of firms attract skilled migrants from the South in the direction of investments, with the promise of satisfactory employment (Iredale, 2000:885). To create employment for its growing population, some countries of the South have initiated specific programs. There are a few developing countries with free trade zones and foreign manufacturing facilities for export. Mexico has "maquiladora" (assembly) operations for foreign companies that earned U.S. \$3 billion in foreign exchange in the year 1989 and employ 15% of those who work in manufacturing jobs (U.S. Commission for the Study of International Migration and Co-operative Economic Development, 1990: xxIV). However, the employment created is inadequate when compared to the needs of the population.

Migration, Communication and Transportation

The advancement of communication and transportation has influenced the process of migration and development. The print and electronic media increase awareness and provide information to access the better life opportunities in a different country. Social networks created by earlier emigrants from one's own community further facilitate

such movements. Gone are the days of communicating using a confusing smoke signal on the top of a hill. The telephone, the computer, the electronic mail and the fax machine have revolutionized communication. To quote the defense expert Albert Wohlstetter, "The fax shall make you free" (as quoted in *The Wall Street Journal*, 1993:10).

Migration and Urbanization

Urbanization and development often go hand in hand. Urban-centered development processes encourage migration to the urban areas. Urban migration is often the initial step followed by a proportion of international migrants. Those who have moved once are likely to move again. At times, urban movers exert pressure on existing urban dwellers to move abroad in search of better opportunities. Urbanization is continuing at a rapid pace in many Southern countries despite overcrowding in the cities. Bombay, Cairo, Chengdu, Hong Kong, Ho Chi Min City, Jakarta, Lagos, Shanghai and Tianjin had densities in excess of 80,000 persons per square mile in the early eighties (U.S. Immigration and Naturalization Service, 1986: 28). Providing required facilities in smaller urban centres or rural areas, with incentives to stay, would reduce the pressure to migrate to larger centres and from there to other countries. Local development programs could favor small and medium-size cities with enhanced leisure infrastructure along with business ventures owned and operated by young people. "The existence of more attractive working and living conditions (in rural areas, small and medium towns) is a factor likely to reduce the propensity to emigrate" (Kasmi, 1993:17).

Migration, Political Freedom and Human Rights

Political freedom and human rights protection are closely associated with migration and influences development. Pressures of population growth and no or little improvement in per capita incomes, tend to spawn political instability and trigger ethnic and religious tensions leading to human rights abuses and refugee movements. Constraints on political freedom and the prevalence of dictatorial regimes that trample on human rights have been a most important motivator for migration. "Lack of democratic rule, good governance and respect for human rights often coupled with excessive military expenditures are among the root causes for refugee movements" (OECD, 1991:16.) In 1998, the number of officially recognized refugees and asylum-seekers living outside their home countries peaked at 13.6 million. That year, 5.7 million refugees lived in the Middle East, 2.9 million in Africa and 2 million in Europe (Gelbard, Haub and Kent, 1999: 16).

Ethnic and religious issues, simmering or boiling over, have caused migration for some time. Examples include ethnic tensions in Lebanon, where 36% of the country's population was outside Lebanon in 1992, Sri Lanka (for which the percentage was nine) and former Yugoslavia, (The Economist, 1993:40) and fundamentalism in Iran and Algeria. It is obvious that lack of political freedom and human rights violations combined with the absence of economic growth and prosperity led to the arrival of large numbers of refugee claimants in Europe and North America. According to an estimate, Western European nations spend \$8 billion annually (equivalent to one-sixth of Official Development Assistance, to sort out and deport economic refugees' vis-à-vis political refugees (Martin, 1992: 1002).

The connection between governance and migration was first made by Rowlands (1999) who discussed the link between economic development and emigration from the viewpoint of migrant sending countries. It was in fact international organizations and donor agencies that revived their interest in the connection between the quality of public administration and economic development largely down to the influential World Bank 1989 report with focus on Africa (Rowlands 1999). A broader interpretation of governance, however, goes beyond the economic sphere to include political dimensions such as democracy and human rights. In this sense, "since aspects of governance presumably affect the welfare of individuals, both materially and in terms of social relations, strong reasons exist for presuming that there is also a direct connection between governance and migration" (Rowlands, 1999:11-12). In the context of migration, governance issues point to the importance of relative standards of living as key determinants of out-migration and thus to countries of origin.

Migration and Culture

Recent studies of migration by geographers and anthropologists have sought to expose the ideological moorings of the social categories that organize developmentalist understandings of time and space within modernization theory, its colonial antecedents, and its post-Fordist cognates. Contrary to the behavioralism of marginalist theories of migration and the structuralism of Marxist theories, new migration scholars have sought to restore agency to migrants by showing, through biographical and ethnographic research, how migrants apprehend, negotiate, and transform the social structures that impinge on their lives (Halfacree and Boyle 1993; Lowe 1996; Stack 1996; Mills 1999; Lawson 2000; McHugh 2000).

More recently, there has been a renewed interest in the cultural aspects of migration. One major concern has been with the ways through which contemporary migration flows have re-shaped the cultural maps of the world,

creating new cultural formations from the consolidation of communities of immigrants and their descendants around the world. These processes have been analysed through concepts such as multiculturalism, hybridity, diaspora and ambivalence. They are in many ways indebted to a stream of classical studies of the 'stranger', the archetypal social character often associated with immigrants (Park 1967; Schutz 1964; Siu 1991).

Migration and Environmental Hazard

Another principal dimension of research on environmental hazards and migration is how acute (e.g., Hurricane Katrina) and chronic (e.g., prolonged drought or sea level rise) environmental hazards influence patterns of outmigration and return migration shortly after the event and also in the long term (McLeman and Smit 2006; Fussell, Sastry, and VanLandingham 2009; Gutmann and Field 2009).

According to Hunter's (2005) review of the literature on migration and environmental hazards, there are two principal relationships: The first views hazards as a part of the amenity package of the area, thus affecting how desirable or undesirable a place is perceived, which in turn affects to what degree economic wages or opportunities can mitigate or enhance the local amenity level. Second, migration is seen as a mechanism that either increases or decreases social vulnerabilities through the size and composition of the migration flow. Net positive migration into an area, particularly one with perceived high amenity levels, increases population density and thus the number of people exposed to possible hazards. Migration also increases or decreases levels of social vulnerability by changing the demographic and economic composition of the local population. For example, in an area with large amounts of net outmigration, generally dominated by the young, the local population grows older, increasing levels of social vulnerability (McLeman 2009).

Stephen Castles has argued that environmental factors are part of a complex pattern of multiple causality, in which natural and environmental factors are closely linked to economic, social and political ones; and that this complexity needs to be better understood, both on empirical and conceptual levels (Castles 2002: 5).

Migration and Policy

Illegal or undocumented migration is part of migration as well. Even if initially it may not have been a problem, after sometime it may snowball especially if the country has a vast land border such as between the US and Mexico. The problem may be less intense in islands such as Australia and Japan. Addressing the US-Mexico illegal flow (involving millions), Weintraub has argued that "even major changes in economic policy are unlikely

to double job creation, which would be necessary to make a radical alternation in present emigration processes” (Appleyard, 1987: 17).

As Castles has argued, immigration policy is much too often concerned with short term issues (1995: 306). In cases where temporary illegal or semi-legal immigration is either encouraged or merely tolerated, there is little concern for the marginal status of these immigrants. And, at any rate, attempts to prevent permanent settlement are rarely effective. The problem becomes one of dealing with the temporal contingency of much of international migration, which, in turn, raises the issue of more flexible, post-national forms of membership to those collectivities that we call (nation-) states. A highly pluralist response would be to frame the new temporal determinations of the migrant experience in a highly flexible form of *ius domicili*, combined with a differentiation of citizenship rights and the existence of far more porous borders than the present international system will allow (Castles and Davidson 2000: 25).

IMPACT OF MIGRATION

Migration has become an integral part of the current global economy. In 2010, 214 million people were living outside their countries of birth. In 2010, an estimated US\$440 billion was remitted worldwide by international migrants (World Bank 2011b: 19). The number of people who move within national borders is much higher than international migrants. It has been estimated that the number of internal migrants is nearly four times the number of international migrants (UNDP 2009). Both internal and international migrations can have major development implications for origin and destination areas. UN bodies involved in migration policy, research and governance generally uphold that migration can reduce poverty and stimulate economic and social development if conducive policies are operational at global, regional and national levels, reflecting the interest of both origin and destination areas. Evidence is emerging on the linkages between migration and development at both global and national levels. However, conclusive evidence is yet to emerge on the links between migration and poverty.

Nonetheless, evidence on the impact of migration on income and employment is context specific. In South Africa, internal migrants are more likely to be without an income and more likely to rely on informal, survivalist livelihood strategies, as well as more likely to experience food insecurity (Vearey *et al.* 2010).

A range of literature is available on the economic impact of migration on migrant households and extended families, in both Asia and Africa. There is a general consensus that migrant remittances constitute a valuable

input to family income. Take the case of South Africa, where remittances of internal migrants constitute a significant 32 per cent of the total income of rural households (Rwelamira and Kirsten 2003). In the four districts of Bangladesh, remittances by international contract migrants constituted 55 per cent of the overall migrant household income (Siddiqui and Abrar 2003), whereas the IOM Household Remittance Survey of Bangladesh (2009) found that 20 per cent of migrant households experienced a rise in their household income due to remittances. In Java, remittances accounted for 60 per cent of the average commuter's household income and nearly 50 per cent of the total income of the average circular migrant's household. This could be classified as off farm income. Dang *et al.* (2010) showed that households with migrant family members in Vietnam tend to earn more and have higher savings than households that do not have migrant members. In Ghana, remittances were found to help minimise the effects of economic shocks on household welfare (Kwankye and Anarfi 2011). Remittance receiving households in Ethiopia used their cash reserves in order to avoid having to sell their livestock during times of drought (Mohapatra *et al.* 2009). Recent evidence from Mali also confirms that a substantial part of remittances are being saved for unexpected events. Migrants, thus, often serve as insurers for their households (Ponsot and Obegi 2010).

CONCLUSION

From the above study we have find that Human civilization has always been accompanied by migration. Historically, migration may have been forced, as in the case of slavery, or related to colonization in the economy of rural households of developing countries. Temporary migration plays an important role, not only by securing household survival but also by providing income to household members, The ratio between the highest to lowest state per capita incomes, represented by Punjab and Bihar in the first period, and Maharashtra and Bihar in the second period, has increased from 2.6 in 1980–83 to 3.5 in 1997–00 (Srivastava, 2003). Migration puts an enormous strain on the already inadequate municipal and other facilities like transport, water, sanitation, housing, etc. The visible eyesores of slums produce the "coarsening of the human fibre." All these exacerbate frustration (bulsara, 1971).

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