

**A STUDY OF DETERMINANTS OF THE LABOUR
MOBILITY IN THE MANUFACTURING
INDUSTRIES
(WITH REFERENCE TO PUNE)**

**A Thesis Submitted to
Tilak Maharashtra Vidyapeeth, Pune
For the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy (Ph.D)
In Economics
Under the board of Moral and Social Sciences
Submitted By
Rakesh Kumar Bhati**

**Under the Guidance of
Dr. Om Prakash Shukla**

April 2016

FORM 'B'
DECLARATION

I hereby declare that the thesis entitled “A Study of Determinants of the Labour Mobility in the Manufacturing Industries (With reference to Pune)” completed and written by me has not previously formed the basis for the award of any Degree or other similar title upon me of this or any other Vidyapeeth or examining body.

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This is to certify that the thesis entitled “A Study of Determinants of the Labour Mobility in the Manufacturing Industries (With reference to Pune)” which is being submitted herewith for the award of the Degree of Vidyavachaspati (Ph.D.) in Faculty of Moral and Social Sciences of Tilak Maharashtra Vidyapeeth, Pune is the result of original research work completed by Shri Rakesh Bhati under my supervision and guidance. To the best of my knowledge and belief the work incorporated in this thesis has not formed the basis for the award of any Degree or similar title of this or any other University or examining body upon him.

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(Rakesh Kumar Bhati)

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Over a period of time, the pattern of labor mobility has changed. The changes have taken place in terms of destination, nature and its determinants. The present study deals with the determinants of labour mobility.

In India people mainly migrated as worker to other places. This movement of people is not new in India. It is reflected in mixing of cultures throughout. Cassen (1978:119) stated that India is a country of tremendous movement; migration is constantly in progress from one rural area to another, from one urban area to another, from rural to urban and vice-versa. The movement is daily, seasonal and long term. The transportation carries endless streams of people across the country.

Rawat (1993:1) stated that early migration tended to be the movement of tribes, races and groups. In current era movement of families and of individual are seeking economic settlement in other places. Zimmer (1970:71) stated that it has long been known that cities are made up of migrants. Historically these cities have been dependent upon migration for growth or even maintenance of size. Mukherji (1982) stated that the massive movements of migrants were based on the presence of uneven spatial economic structure. People generally migrate from economically declining areas to the relatively developing areas. Furthermore, Gore (2000:258) suggested that the volume of migration has increased with the technical and economic progress, making it an important feature of both the developing as well as the developed societies. Stressing its importance, Rao (1986:19) said that the importance of migration in developing countries could not be over-estimated. Migration is an important component of the change in the size and distribution of labour in a country.

India gained independence from colonial rule and launched its programmes of economic and social development to improve the standard of living of its people. India's quest for industrial development started after Independence in 1947. The Industrial Policy Resolution of 1948 marked the beginning of evolution of Indian Industrial Policy. India has adopted the ideology of the welfare state into its Constitution. Its further objective was to provide security to the workers. Various laws were enacted to protect workers' claims to wages, bonus, retirement benefits, and social security measures etc. In the view of Premi (1986:39) this led to growth of

industries and development of infrastructure facilities on the one hand and rapid urbanization on the other. Therefore urbanization coupled with industrialisation has generated and geared up rates of urban migration. Even the rural development (or lack of it) has also resulted in considerable migration.

Individuals normally migrate to take advantage of better economic opportunities. In rural areas the increasing population growth putting a heavy pressure on lands forcing many to seek alternative employment elsewhere. Alan (1974) found that mostly landless agricultural labourers are virtually forced to leave rural areas and to take up any manual work that they can find in the towns and cities. Rawat (1993) suggested that imbalance in growth of rural and urban areas and open occupational structure of modern cities are also responsible for the movement of the people.

Dandekar (1986:225) stated that “one foot in the city and one in the village” were a necessity for many families that did not have enough assets to survive in their place of origin. The urban industrial centres had large occupational structure that was open and easily accessible to all and it provided the employment opportunities, better living conditions, educational facilities, and chances of upward mobility and escape from the poverty and hardships of rural life.

Mukherji (1982:3) found that a great majority lives perpetually in urban squalor and hope that someday they might accumulate sufficient money to buy land in the place of origin or find a decent living in their new place of settlement. In past internal migration was thought to be a desirable process. Through it, the surplus labour was gradually withdrawn from rural sector to provide needed manpower for urban industrial growth.

The global slowdown had made Indian industry to undergo a phase of transition and restructuring. These condition forced industries to reallocate the resources in all manners special consideration were given to human capital with approach of cost cutting. Thus the process of urbanization had become a predominant feature of developmental activities. Industrialization and urbanization have been going on side by side providing economy with ample scope for new employment.

It can be said that the migrants in India frequently end up from unemployment to underemployment or from green fields to dirty pavements. However numerous studies [e.g. Rawat (1993), Barnum and Sabot (1977), Rao (1974)] revealed the fact that throughout the developing countries the rates of migration continue to exceed the rates of urban job creation. The natural increase of population in the urban areas is

also quite high. It affects greatly the capacity of both industry and urban social services to absorb this labour effectively.

In the view of Lamba and Solanki (1992:iii) the tempo of urbanization in India has picked up so fast after independence that full coordination between various development programmes though considered desirable but could not be maintained in practice. As a consequence, a host of problems stresses and strains had cropped up. The process of urbanization with industrialization did not gather enough momentum to absorb a significant chunk of the migrated population.

Pandey (1993:7) stated that change due to migration process affect both the areas where the migrants have moved (place of destination) and upon the areas from which they have come (place of origin). In the past this continual circulation of labour has seen significant fluctuations in terms of volume and direction and it surely expects further fluctuations in the future. Collectively these migrants represent a powerful economic force. They influence conditions not only in the destination place but also in those they had moved out.

The term labour mobility in this study consists of any change in the location, occupation, industry, or other work status. In view of Gladys (1947:1) "If labour mobility is broadly defined to include entrance to and withdrawal from the labour market, changes from unemployment to employment and the reverse, and shifts of occupation, industry, and place of residence or work, it encompasses all the adjustments which workers make on account of their own needs or aspirations --- for a job, a 'better' job, more income, more social prestige, more leisure, or a more acceptable 'way of life' --- and on account of changes forced upon them by changes in the economy".

Zelinsky's (1971) definition of the term mobility is perhaps the most general concept in migration studies. It includes all kinds of territorial movements, both temporary and permanent, over various distances. But other scholars have treated migration in a much more restricted sense and it relates only to a permanent change of residence. The meaning of it is so broad that the term 'mobility' is usually prefixed with an adjective to denote the particular aspect of change. Broadly speaking there are two types of mobility.

1. Spatial or Geographical Mobility: It refers to change in physical location.
2. Job Mobility: The job mobility includes the occupational mobility (i.e. changes in occupation), employment mobility (i.e. changes in the

employment status), and industry mobility (i.e. changes in the industry of employment).

In the present research the term mobility is used to study both the geographical mobility and the job mobility.

The present study tries to investigate both types of labour mobility (i.e. geographical mobility and job mobility). Further, it also tries to look into various determinants of labour mobility. Labour mobility is the result of various factors. In other words, there are numerous determinants of mobility. For convenience, the determinants of the labour mobility may be divided into two major groups: first, Macro that consist of industrialization and urbanization in relation to work opportunity and second, Micro that consists of age, martial status, gender, caste etc

Various government institutions keep records of labour mobility. Censuses and Sample surveys have been the two principal sources of data for the study of internal migration and urbanization. Censuses are based on the primary sources of data. They are considered as the main source of information on migration. However, HansRaj (1988) pointed out that Census does not provide the sufficient information about the internal migration. Even not throw light on some of its determinants that influence the migration. Perhaps, due to it some determinants (e.g. working condition and social security) had remained relatively neglected. Insufficient database and uneven academic literature on the implementation and monitoring of them made it difficult to establish their impact on migration.

The purpose of this study is to explore and throw light on some of the neglected factors that may be important as determinants of the labour mobility and to test a selected number of assumptions and research questions put forward in the present study.

1.2 STATEMENT OF PROBLEM

The process of migration is very old. It has been a universal phenomenon that has been present in all stages of human history. Most of the works in the area of migration has been concerned with (i) The volume and direction of movement (ii) reasons for movement, and (iii) the demographic characteristics of migrants. Considering these aspects the data is analyzed in the previous studies for significance the migration to the receiving place. Graves and Clawson (1981:363) pointed out that “Why do people live, work, and play where they do? How much, why, and between what points do people migrate, both temporarily and permanently? These are rather simple questions, but the answers are much less clear and do not fall neatly into one field of human knowledge”.

Labour normally migrates (i) to take advantage of better economic opportunities, and /or (ii) to live in environment they consider being more pleasant. There are various factors that have been inducing mobility. With the changes of time, relative importance of one or the other factors has been changing. It is observed that significance of the determinants on mobility have changes vis-a-vis their impact on: (i) the volume and direction of movement, (ii) reasons for movement, and (iii) the demographic characteristics of migrants. Thus with the passage of time, the impact of the various determinants has changed. Those determinants, which use to be considered as important factors influencing migration have now, weaken. The present study tries to examine what roles are played currently by the selected determinants. These variations are notable in selected determinants:

1. **Age:** The age-groups of migrants that were found to be dominant earlier may differ in the recent period. Most of the pervious studies found that younger people tended to migrate more. The reasons included in it were the, for better education and for finding job, better opportunities. It is relevant in recent time that the people are giving higher priority to education. Recently, in the industries the educational requirement of labour had changed. They required workers with higher and appropriate education to meet the work requirement. Given consideration to both the changing priorities of individuals for education and educational requirement of industries people are trying to obtain higher educational qualifications before migrating for jobs. Thus, they trend to spend

some additional years for improving their educational qualifications. In the process, their age at which they actually migrate goes up. Consequently, there is an upward change/ increase in the age at which one migrates for the first time. Hence, we find that higher age group is dominating the mobility in recent times. Hence a positive correlation between age and employment is expected to be found in the present study.

2. **Gender:** In the previous studies on migration the male were found to be migrating predominantly due to economic reasons where as the females did so mainly due to social reason i.e. marriage. In the recent period there had been positive changes towards gender equality and growing social acceptance towards women's participation in labour market. Consequently, their rate of participation in labour market is increases. This is changing their employment behavior. Hence (instead of moving only due to social reason i.e. marriage) they are now moving due to economic reason i.e. employment. In pervious studies, it was found that the females mainly were migrating to shorter distance. In the recent period they have become economically independent and they are moving to distant destinations also.
3. **Education:** Educated individuals appear to share certain characteristics that make them more likely to move compared to their non-educated counterparts. Education thus acts as a selection factor for migration. It is probably the most important factor in determining the type of work and the earnings.
4. **Marital Status:** Many previous studies had found that married workers are less mobile. The main reason was the higher psychic costs. Hence, the unmarried male individuals dominate the mobility. But in the recent times females are becoming economically independent. Further, need of 'Double income' is becoming an important necessity. These changes had significant impact on the female mobility. It has influenced the mobility of couples. It may be possible that over a period of time, there is a growth in the migration of the married workers
5. **Networks:** The parallel networks had developed in recent period such as media, placement along with the kinship (friends and relatives). Even there is

improvement in communication technology. Hence the networks had broadened and have become faster and effective. It is expected that in recent period the role of network had broadened and has greater influences on labour mobility.

6. **Family Ties:** The importance of joint family system has considerably declined over a period of time. This breakdown has weakened family ties. Thus this breaking up of family ties has caused a decline in the psychic costs of mobility. This in turn may have a significant impact on the mobility of labour in the recent period.

7. **Infrastructure Development:** The development of the infrastructure is positively influencing the mobility. Any improvement in the infrastructure leads to development of transportation. The mobility involved the movement of people from one place to other. It includes two things i.e. time and money cost. In the recent period due to faster and better means of transportation travelling time had reduced. In the past, the distance that was considered to be too long now seems to be shorter. The monetary cost of transportation may or may not have reduced but it has certainly declined in terms of time (i.e. time required to travel). Hence the psychic costs of moving has declined. This enables /encourages labour to migrate to distant places/ destinations. Rapid and cheaper transportation and communications may cause another kind of pattern of migration, particularly with respect of the labour's mobility to short distances. It may enable one to take-up the job in 'nearby' outside places, without having to migrating out of his place of origin. Due to relatively short distance and /or availability of rapid transportation, it may be possible for one to travel between his hometown and his place of work within the same day. It may avoid for him the need of migrating to the place of work and he may continue to stay at his place of origin. In other words, it may not cause any displacement of labour. For example, there are many workers who continue to stay (or maintain their households) in Pune but work at Mumbai and other places. To recapitulate, one may say that due to faster/ cheaper transportation facilities two trends are emerging: (i) migration to distant destinations may be increasing and (ii) migration to shorter distances (as in case of Pune- Mumbai) may be decreasing.

8. Labour Welfare and Social Securities: Earlier the decisions to migrate were influenced mainly by the considerations of (i) better job-opportunities and (ii) opportunities of earning higher incomes. These two factors still continue to be dominant determinants influencing migration. But now workers are giving importance also to some additional factors such as: (i) Working Conditions, (ii) Social Securities, (iii) Labour welfare facilities. The changing trend (i.e. giving importance to additional factors like social securities, labour welfare etc) may be causing changes in the (i) Volume, and (ii) direction of migration. Due to improved provision of welfare facilities (coupled with better job and income opportunities), more and more labour may now decide to migrate. This may increase volume of migration. The places/ industries where there are better provisions of labour welfare may attract workers away from the places/ industries having lesser or no provisions of the same. This may cause a shift in the direction of labour mobility i.e. migration of workers mainly to and even away from places with less welfare provision to the places having better provisions of the same.

To sum up, it may be noted that with passage of time changes have taken place in terms of (i) migration's determinants themselves (ii) relative importance of roles played by these determinants. There have been significant changes also in the dimensions (i.e. volumes) and directions of migration. Hence it becomes important to study the determinants of the labour mobility in the present conditions. Even it will be useful to review these determinants and throw light on some of the neglected determinants.

1.3 CONTRIBUTION OF THE STUDY

Initiation of economic reforms led to increasing need for the movement of workers to non-agricultural occupations. Such movements were needed to achieve the national economic targets and to meet the industrial sector's labour requirement. According to Dovring (1964) this movement was essential also to solve problems confronting the agricultural sector which was creating large surpluses of unemployed or under-employed manpower. Thus, the mobility of the labour was thought to be a desirable process. Shameem and Parthasarty (2000:56) stated that the industry-wise picture on labour absorption adds its own share of policy concern. Various researches have examined whether this mobility is desirable or not. They have looked into what are the various factors that effect mobility of worker. What factors become the bases for the workers while considering migrating? The present study's main objective is not to prove or disprove any theory of migration rather it is (i) to distinguish the various components of the migratory movement to the manufacturing industries and (ii) highlight their effect on pattern of movement. This study will try (i) to explain occurrence of mobility, (ii) to determine that which factors have effect the most the labour mobility and (iii) whether migration is influenced by the working condition and social security provided to the lab. Theoretically, a number of variables influence an individual's decision to migrate. Broadly speaking, there are two types of variables/ factors influencing labour mobility. Firstly, macro variables consist of the differences in the place of destination and origin. It is both in economic and other conditions (such as natural amenities, industrial development, and urbanization) that contribute towards the labour mobility. Hence, the macro variables deal with the movements between the areas, which explain rate of migration to the industrial sector by identifying the factors, which make areas or industries attractive to the migrants. Thus, the employment opportunities available in at places have used to explain it. Secondly, the micro variables that are the differences in the characteristics of labour such as age, gender, martial status, education, religion, caste, monetary benefits, non-monetary benefits (i.e. working condition and social security), migrant network, person influencing the decision to migrate and others. Even relationships with the family become the variable that may influence their response to the mobility. In the study they used in analyzes the mobility of individuals and provides the theoretical and empirical frame for studying the labour mobility.

1.4 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

In the course of last decade more and more migrants from the rural places have flocked to cities every year. They are creating problems of shortage everywhere i.e. housing, various collective facilities, roads, water and so on. Movement of labour to city plays an important role in creating a whole range of social and economic problems. Hence, it becomes important to study the labour mobility. This migratory phenomenon is couched in a set of wider micro and macro-factors. This study has only one central concern that is to provide a basis for understanding the set factors that induces workers to move. The demographic characteristics of labour (e.g. age, marital status, education, religion, and caste) play significant role in labour mobility.

The main objective of the present study is to explore the various determinants of labour mobility that affect the patterns of labour movement. This study emphasizes the following main objectives:

1. To review both Indian and foreign models of mobility relevant to Indian context.
2. To identify the factors/ determinants of the mobility.
3. To examine the role- played by selected determinants in job mobility.
4. To examine the role-played by selected determinants in geographical mobility.
5. To identify the most important factors that influences decision making process of migrants.
6. To study the role-played by the hitherto ignored factors such as working condition in the job mobility.
7. To study the policy implications and to make recommendations this may help to solve problems arising in areas due to it.

1.5 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

In the present study an attempt has been made to study the various types of labour mobility (i.e. geographical mobility and job mobility). This study also tries to study effect of the selected determinants on labour mobility. Rather, the research questions formulated based on existing literature where a majority of the studies support particular views. The study emphasizes on the role-played by determinants in the labour mobility. For the study the research questions are:

- 1) Is there any relation between personal determinants such as age, education, marital status, religion and caste of migrants and labor mobility?

- 2) Is there any relation between number of people in families, number of minors, number of employed among them and labor mobility?
- 3) Is there any relation between determinants influenced respondent's decisions to migrate?
- 4) Is there any relation between reasons to move from previous place of residence?
- 5) Is there any relation between pre-migration information about the availability of employment and labor mobility?
- 6) Is there any relation between compositions of migrants network, financed sources for moving and labor mobility?
- 7) Is there any relation between reasons for leaving the previous job, duration of continuing job, work and working condition and labor mobility?
- 8) Is there any relation between migrants earning at the place and on job, remittance to home, frequency of sending remittance mode of send money to home and labor mobility?
- 9) Is there any relation between kind of positive effects of migration on migrant and his family?
- 10) Is there any relation between kinds of negative effects on migrants and his family?
- 11) Is there any relation between factors considered by respondents to move back to native place or willingness to stay permanently?
- 12) Is there any relation between personal determinants such as age, education, marital status, religion and caste of migrants and geographical mobility?
- 13) Is there any relation between personal determinants such as age, education, marital status, religion and caste of migrants and job mobility?
- 14) Is there any relation between personal determinants such as age, education, marital status, religion and caste of migrants and job & geographical mobility?
- 15) Is there any relation between migrant's network, person's influences migrant decision to move, reason for leaving the previous job and geographical mobility?
- 16) Is there any relation between determinants that make the job interesting, reason for leaving the previous job and geographical mobility?

1.6 SCOPE AND LIMITATION OF THE STUDY

The economy is generally divided into three sectors namely primary, secondary and tertiary sectors. The study has limited its scope to secondary sector. Hence, the other sectors are excluded. The secondary sector is further divided into mining, construction and manufacturing. This study has further limited its scope to manufacturing units.

In census, the population is classified into working and non-working population. The present study has limited its scope to the working population. These working populations are further categorized in census into wage earners, self-employed and unemployed. The wage earners from the selected manufacturing industries are selected for the purpose of study.

The labour consists of all types of the labours which can be classified into the skilled and unskilled, seasonal or contract workers. The mobility of labour is of various types: (i) geographical mobility of labour and (ii) job mobility. There are four kinds of geographical mobility: (a) rural to urban, (b) urban to rural, (c) rural to rural, and (d) urban to urban. The present study is limited only to the moving of labour into manufacturing industries. Hence, the movement of them to the other sector of the economy is excluded in present study.

It excludes the international movement of labour. The study is concerned with the internal movement of labour. By internal movement we mean movement of labour with in our own country. It may be a movement of worker from (a) One state to another state (inter-state movement), (b) within a given state (intra-state movement). The intra state movement may further be divided into (i) inter district movement and (ii) intra-district movement.

In the present study the labour mobility is motivated by employment considerations. To some extent this is possible those seeking new jobs with better income may also attempt to locate in areas offering better amenities or living conditions. The present study is only concern with the determinants of the mobility. In the determinants only the few selected ones in are geographical and job mobility in present period.

1.7 STRUCTURE OF STUDY

The present study is organized into five chapters. A summary outline of the study and of the thrust of each chapter is as follows:

Chapter first is the introductory chapter. It provided the essential background information about why it necessary to study the determinants of labour mobility. It consists of the objectives, hypothesis, contribution and scope of the present study.

The chapter second provides information about the methodology and research instruments. It consists of methodology used for the selection of study area, manufacturing units and respondents. The questionnaire constitutes the main research instrument of the study. This includes a full description of the data collection that is followed, the field questionnaire and the qualitative and the quantitative methods employed in the study.

The chapter third reviews the various determinants of labour mobility. It is followed with both Indian and foreign models of mobility relevant to Indian context as well as a conceptual framework of various models. A wide range of approaches are briefly reviewed particular attention is given for conceptual frameworks which may be hypothesized to hold particular relevance for analysis and determining a determinants of labour mobility.

Chapter fourth describes the characteristics i.e. gender, education, income etc. of the respondents of the survey. The purpose is to provide basic information to serve as a background for the understanding of the workers behavior towards mobility and the determinant that influence their decision. The data collected through questionnaire is presented in tabulation that analysed and comes up with a conclusion.

Finally, the chapter fifth is on the conclusions and policy implications of the research. It summarized the key findings and contributions to knowledge, as well as suggested areas for future research.

CHAPTER II

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

2.1 METHODOLOGY OF THE STUDY

This chapter deals with the research methodology adopted for present study. It describes and evaluates some of the concepts and methods that had used in the study. It also overview of the methodology adopted by the various researchers. It is found that there are variations in meanings attached to the concept of mobility itself. There are variations in the classes of workers studied, the sources of data on job histories, and the methods of measurement and analysis. Most of the studies have used survey method. Based on the analysis of data from selected samples, they have tried to generalize their findings to the large population. Hence, whenever some degree of generalization is desired the question of the representative sample arises. Given a consideration to the cost, time and labour involved the sampling is an effective way of assessing labour mobility. Hence survey method was used in the study.

The study is descriptive type on labor mobility a cross-sectional research design is adopted. The cross-sectional study (also known as a cross-sectional analysis, transversal study, prevalence study) is a type of observational study that involves the analysis of data collected from a population, or a representative subset, at one specific point in time—that is, cross-sectional data. The data collected through snap-shots by survey methods.

The sampling technique is used for obtaining factual information to observe the determinants of labour mobility. Based on the multistage sampling with relative distribution the sample was drawn for study. The random sampling is done at four levels, namely, Selection of State, Selection of Study area, Selection of Manufacturing Industries and Selection of Respondents.

2.1.1 SELECTION OF STATE. MAHARASHTRA

Maharashtra state has been selected for the study. In terms of population the State of Maharashtra is the second largest in India. As per the Census of India (2011) Maharashtra state has a population of 112.4 million that is 9.3% in the Indian total population. In terms of comparison with other state it is highly urbanized with 45.2 per cent of its people residing in urban areas.

Economic Survey of Maharashtra 2014-15 (2015) indicated that State Gross Domestic Product (GDP) at current prices for 2013-14 is about Rs. 15, 10,132 crore. Industry and Services sector both together contribute 88.7 per cent to the State GDP. India's HDI (Human Development Index) for the year 2011 is 0.467 whereas it is 0.572 for the State. As quoted in Economic Survey of Maharashtra 2014-15 (2015) "2.12 lakhs micro, small and medium enterprises (MSMEs) were functioning in the State with investment of Rs 50,637 crore and 26.9 lakh employment. As per the provisional results of Annual Survey of Industries (2012-13) released by Government of India, the State is at the top position in terms of gross value added, fixed capital and emoluments to employees".

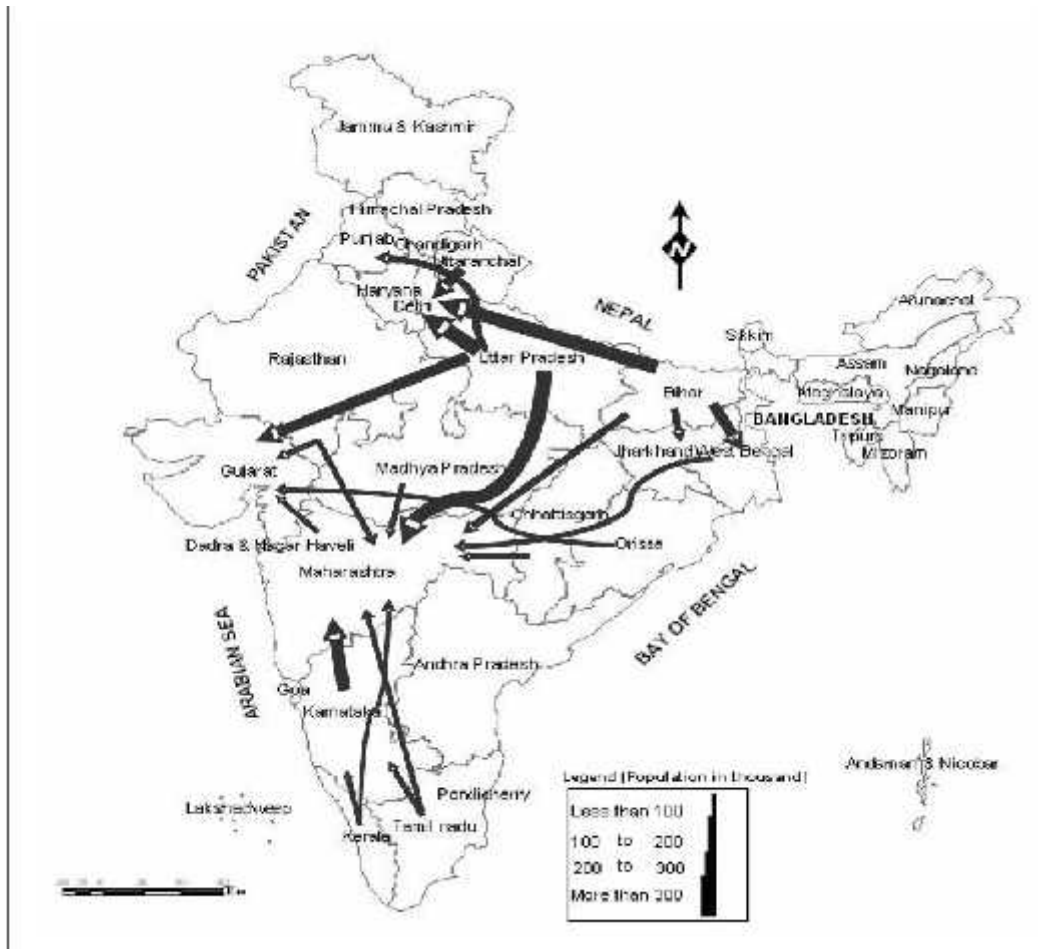
The Maharashtra industrial growth is result of comparative and competitive advantage of it with other state of India. It is encouraged and shaped by the appropriate policy initiatives by the state government for creation of positive industrial climate, sound infrastructure, availability of high quality human resources, and appropriate industrial policies. The MIDC (Maharashtra Industrial Development Corporation) efforts have ensured the required infrastructure to host industries and it is reflected in a sustained industrial growth in the state.

The socio- economic indicator compared to the country found to be higher in each aspect. Economic Survey of Maharashtra 2014-15 (2015) stated that the percentage of urban population of the Maharashtra is 45.22% as compared to entire country's urban population (i.e.31.14%). Literacy rate in the State (i.e. 82.34%) is higher by almost 10 percent than the all India (i.e. 72.98 %). In Maharashtra female WPR was 31.06% as compared to national female WPR (i.e. 25.51%). The power generation capacity as well the real earnings of the industrial workers is higher as compared to all India level.

(Micro, Small and Medium Enterprises) MSME during 2007 were 86,635 with investment of Rs 14,859 crore created employment for 10.95 lakh workers in Maharashtra. During 2014 it increased to 2,11,403 MSME units which generated the job for 26.95 lakh people in Maharashtra.

Economic Survey of Maharashtra 2014-15 (2015) stated that the state of Maharashtra still dominate the industrialized status in the manufacturing sector of the country. It has always remained in the forefront of economic development with the growth in industrial and services sectors as the driving force of the State's economy. Maharashtra has proactive investment friendly government policies.

To improve the industrial growth of the state various measures has taken up such as reducing the number of approvals for business, single window investor facilitation through MAITRI (Maharashtra Industry, Trade & Investment facilitation cell) and creation of e-platform for setting up of industries were take up by them. It has led to increase in the inflow of the labour in the state.



Source: R.B. Bhagat and S. Mohanty (2009): "Emerging Pattern of Urbanization and the Contribution of Migration in Urban Growth in India," Asian Population Studies, Vol. 5 No. 1: pp 5-20.

2.1.2 SELECTION OF STUDY AREA

The Pune district has been selected from the state of Maharashtra for the present study. The Pune district dominates the Maharashtra state in terms of geographical area (i.e.5.09%), literacy percentage (i.e. 88.15%), connectivity and establishment such as Defence & Research. Over period of time a noteworthy expansion of industrial and ancillary units had made the Pune an important industrial centre of Maharashtra. The results of industrial growth in Pune attract the movement of people from all over the places to grab the opportunities made available to them.

According to Census of India during 2011 the Pune District population constituted of 8.39 % of total State population in compare to 7.47% in 2001. As per 2011 census data the 60.99 % of people lives in urban regions of Pune district and Sex Ratio in urban region of Pune district is 904. Average literacy rate in Pune district as per census 2011 is 89.45 % of which males and females are 92.46 % and 86.12 % literates respectively. The Table 2.2 provides the information about Pune urban areas and the reasons for their expansions.

British rule in Pune results in establishment of cantonment, railway line, post office and educational institutes which assist the industrialization. The Poona Municipal Council was established in 1858 and Ammunition factory at Khadki in 1869. The major industrial development of Pune started with establishment of Kirloskar Oil Engines Ltd. in 1946. It results in rapid growth of industries especially along the Pune- Mumbai Road by 1950s. Industrial estates were set up by the Maharashtra Industrial Development Corporation (MIDC) at Bhosari, Pimpri and Chinchwad in 1962 which resulted in Pune becoming a prime industrial hub of the state. The industries established till 1980 were mostly manufacturing industries with a concentration on engineering products.

The growth of industrial units in Pune had increased the opportunities for workers. In the view of Diddee and Gupta (2000:255-275), as Pune expanded and the agricultural land around it became urbanized, the farmers either moved out or became labourers in the new factories. Unlike in the other metropolitan cities, it was not only single males who came here but whole families, as they were landless and impoverished in the villages. Lambert (1963:58) found that the in Pune industrial labour force having no links with the agricultural sector. The urban poor population (i.e. slum population) in Pune is 30-35% of the total population. The fast growth of slums in Pune is outcome of its job creation capacity. Growth of slum in Pune is

presented in Table 2.2. The density in slums of Pune is about 6 times that of the overall density prevailing indicates high health and social costs to the city.

The Table 2.3 reflects that the Pimpri - Chinchwad is the largest in terms of area. Selecting the industrial area is not only on the basis of area or population but it is well stabilized and developed areas. For the study required a mature area to stabilize linking with variables used for the purpose of analysis. The present study has focused on the labour in the industrial belt in Pune district. The Pune district is divided into several industrial belts. Hence, it became important to select an industrial belt to conduct the survey. The spatial distributions of the existing industrial areas in the region in different centres are providing in the Table 2.4.

The Table 2.7 provides an overview of the selected industrial area for the study i.e. Pimpri-Chinchwad. This overview is in terms of area expansion, population and in percentage of the decade variation along with the Pune City. It indicates that the percentage variation of Pimpri-Chinchwad population from 1991 to 2001 is 94.63%. If its compare to the expansion in the area (sq.km) it reveled other picture. The expansion of area (sq. km.) in percent to decade variation from 1991 to 2001 is 136.67%. It is much higher compare to percentage of decadal variation in population. In comparing the population of the Pimpri-Chinchwad with the Pune city its revels the picture that in year 2001 the percentage of decadal variation of population is much higher. This increase in the population is partly due to expansion of the area and partly due to immigration of workers. The area expansion is result of its requirement for setting- up of industrial and residential areas. The increased job opportunities in Pimpri-Chinchwad results in the increase of is population base. It has been attracting workers from other districts of Maharashtra and also from other states. These are few reasons to select this area for the survey. For survey the factories that are located in Chinchwad had been selected.

TABLE -2.1 PUNE DISTRICT AT A GLANCE

S1. No.	Particular	Year	Unit	Statistic
1.	Geographical			
(A)	i) Latitude	-	-	17.5° to 19.2°
	ii) Longitude	-	-	73.2° to 75.1°
	iii) Geographical Area	-	Sq. Kilometers	15643
	Administrative Units			
(B)	i) Sub divisions		Nos.	3
	ii) Tehsils		Nos.	14
	iii) Sub – Tehsils		Nos.	-
	iv) Patwar Circle		Nos.	Not available
	v) Panchayat Samiti		Nos.	13
	vi) Nagar Nigam (Mahapalika)		Nos.	2
	vii) Nagar Palika		Nos.	11
	viii) Gram Panchayat		Nos.	1407
	ix) Revenue village		Nos.	1866
	x) Assembly Area (cantorment)		Nos.	3
2.	Population			
	Sex – wise			
(A)	i) Male	2001	Nos.	37,69000
	ii) Female	2001	Nos.	34,64000
(B)	Rural Population	2001	Nos.	30,32000
3.	Agriculture			
	Land utilization			
(A)	i) Total Area	2010 – 11	Hectares	1562
	ii) Forest cover	2010 – 11	Hectares	172
	iii) Non Agriculture Land	2010 – 11	Hectares	64
	iv) Cultivable Barren land	2010 – 11	Hectares	104
4.	Forest			
	(i) Forest	2010 – 11	Hectares	172
5.	Livestock & Poultry			
	Cattle			
A	i) Cows	2007	Nos.	781000
	ii) Buffaloes	2007	Nos.	304000
	Other Livestock			
B.	i) Goats	2007	Nos.	532000
	ii) Pigs	2007	Nos.	118000
	iii) Dogs & Bitches/Horse	2007	Nos.	5000
C	Railways			
	i) Length of rail line	2010 – 11	Kms.	639
D	Roads			
	(a) National Highway	2010 – 11	Kms.	455
	(b) State Highway	2010 – 11	Kms.	1325
	(c) Main District Highway	2010 – 11	Kms.	5534
	(d) Other district & Rural Roads.	2010 – 11	Kms.	6698

	(e) Rural road/ Agriculture Marketing Board Road	2010 – 11	Kms.	N.A.
	(f) Kacha Road	2010 – 11	Kms.	N.A.
E	Communication			
	(a) Telephone connection	2010 – 11	Nos.	482240
	(b) Post offices	2010 – 11	Nos.	793
	(c) Telephone centre	2010 – 11	Nos.	310
	(d) Mobile	2010 – 11	Nos.	3222000 (Apprx.)
F	Public Health			
	(a) Allopathic Hospital	2010 – 11	Nos.	48
	(b) Beds in Allopathic hospitals	2010 – 11	Nos.	3500
	(c) Ayurvedic Hospital	2010 – 11	Nos.	3
	(d) Beds in Ayurvedic hospitals	2010 – 11	Nos.	300
	(e) Unani hospitals	2010 – 11	Nos.	2
	(f) Community Health Centre	2010 – 11	Nos.	-
	(g) Primary health centres.	2010 – 11	Nos.	96
	(h) Dispensaries	2010 – 11	Nos.	85
	(i) Sub Health Centres.	2010 – 11	Nos.	539
	(j) Private hospitals	2010 – 11	Nos.	6
G	Banking Commercial			Banks/Branc hes
	(a) Commercial Bank	2010 – 11	Nos.	62/750
	(b) Rural Bank Products	2010 – 11	Nos.	2/2
	(c) Co – Operative bank products	2010 – 11	Nos.	1/246
H	Education			
	(a) Primary	2010 – 11	Nos.	4641
	(b) Middle schools			
	(c) Secondary & senior secondary school	2010 – 11	Nos.	1727
	(d) Colleges (Degree)	2010 – 11	Nos.	80
	(e) Technical University	2010 – 11	Nos.	1

Table 2.2: Slum growth in Pune

Year	Total population	Slum population	Slum population (%)	Annual growth in city population (%)	Annual growth in slum population (%)
1961	606,777	92,101	15.18	2.19	9.63
1971	856,101	239,701	28.00	3.5	10.04
1981	1,203,363	377,000	31.33	3.46	4.63
1991	1,691,430	569,000	33.64	3.46	4.2
2001	2,538,473	1,025,000	40.38	4.1.4	6.06

Source: Census of India, 2001

Table 2.3 A Real Expansion-Pune City and Pune Urban Areas

Year	Area (Sq. km.)		Reason for expansion
	Pune City	Urban Area	
1817	5	-----	
1860	7.6	34.71	Formation of Pune Municipality, establishment of Pune and khadki cantonments.
1940	18.84	81.95	Establishment of Dehuroad cantonment
1950	125.75	188.86	Pune Municipal Corporation formed
1970	138.76	266.88	Pimpri-Chinchwad Municipal Council established
1982	146	314.11	Pimpri-Chinchwad Municipal Corporation formed
1997	440	700	Merging of 38 & 18 fringe villages in to Pune and Pimpri-Chinchwad Corporations respectively.

Source: Regional Plan for Poona

Table 2.6 Details of existing Micro & Small Enterprises and artisan units in the district.

NIC CODE NO.	Type Of Industry	Number Of Units	Investment (Lakh Rs.)	Employment
20	Agro based			
22	Soda Water	1409	19040	10866
23	Cotton textile			
24	Woolen, silk & artificial tread	62	1203	369
25	Jute & jute based	Nil	Nil	Nil
26	Ready-made garment & embroidery	487	4958	2459
27	Wood/wooden based	357	6242	2485
28	Paper & Paper products.	332	7226	2594
29	Leather based	454	5448	2532
31	Chemical/Chemical based.	835	11361	4401
30	Rubber, Plastic & petro	1398	21325	8272
32	Mineral based	802	17254	5684
33	Metal based (Steel Fab.)	1867	35248	12477
35	Engineering units	1320	44826	12641
36	Electrical machinery and	393	7926	2630
97	Repairing & servicing	571	3697	2531
01	Others	542	4266	2782

Sources: GOI Ministry of MSME (dcmsme.gov.in/dips/IPS%20Pune%20New.pdf)

Table 2.7 Area Expansion and Population Variation of Pune City and Pimpri-Chinchwad

Year	Area (sq. km)	Population	% of decade variation
Pune City			
1981	138.76	1203351	40.56
1991	138.76	1566651	30.19
2001	430.00	2540069	62.13
Pimpri-Chinchwad Area			
1981	64.81	220966	164.50
1991	87.04	517083	134.01
2001	206.00	1006417	94.63

Source: Maharashtra Chamber of Commerce, Industries and Agriculture (2002.G.36)

Table 2.4 Existing Status of Industrial Areas in the District Pune

Sl. No.	Name of Indl Area	Land acquired (in hectare)	Land developed (in hectare)	Prevailing Rate Per Sqm (In Rs.)	No. of plots	No. of allotted plots	No. of vacant plots
1.	Pimpri	1224.02	1224.02	3500	2570	2537	33
2.	Chakan	961.98	961.98	1200	185	185	0
3.	Talegaon	577.81	577.81	1200	28	27	1
4.	Ranjangaon	925.00	925.00	1200	470	331	142
5.	Jejuri	144.53	144.53	3050	224	212	12
6.	Baramat	752.48	752.48	150	1165	1131	34
7.	Bhicwan	379.94	379.94	25	8	8	0
8.	Pandhari	282.29	282.29	50	55	52	3
9.	Kurkumbh	473.22	473.22	200	177	172	5
10.	Indapur	406.54	406.54	100	68	30	38
	Total	6127.81	6127.81		4950	4685	268

Sources: GOI Ministry of MSME (dcmsme.gov.in/dps/IPS%20Pune%20New.pdf)

Table 2.5 YEAR WISE TREND OF UNITS REGISTERED

YEAR	Number Of Registered Units	Employment	Investment (Lakh Rs.)
1991 – 92	609	1827	2131
1992 – 93	965	2880	3377
1993 – 94	792	2380	2772
1994 – 95	1849	5552	6471
1995 – 96	1726	5182	6041
1996 – 97	4019	12060	14066
1997 – 98	3881	11645	13583
1998 – 99	3900	11702	13583
1999 – 2000	1083	3252	3615
2000 – 01	1466	4405	5131
2001 – 02	1115	3348	4460
2002 – 03	1390	4192	6950
2003 – 04	1406	4228	7030
2004 – 05	1917	5761	9585
2005 – 06	2364	7108	11820
2006 – 07	2381	7162	11905
2007 – 08	2273	10162	42553
2008 – 09	2654	12035	40128
2009 – 10	2291	10433	34648
2010 – 11	2842	25256	61930
2011 – 12	2835	34451	95245

Sources: GOI Ministry of MSME (dcmsme.gov.in/dps/IPS%20Pune%20New.pdf)

2.1.3 SELECTION OF MANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES

In the present study the manufacturing sector had been selected. It plays important role for the economic growth in economy. The few notable points are:

- i. It generates jobs and promotes more employment either directly or indirectly.
- ii. It promotes exports of manufactured goods by value addition.
- iii. It contributes considerably to fiscal growth of state and centre government.
- iv. The tax revenues are heavily dependent on manufacturing sector as central excise and customs duties contribute substantially to the exchequer.

The manufacturing enterprises in the study have further classified into micro, small and medium enterprises based on their investments. The table 2.8 provides the classification of industries on the bases of investment where as the table 2.9 provide the industrial scenario of Pune during the year 2012 in terms of number of enterprise and employment generation and investment.

This reflects that on the basis of classification of industries (i.e. sector) total number of industries selected is 30 in the study. It is fifteen from the small sector, ten from the medium sector and five from the large sector.

Table 2.8 Classification of Industries

Class/Category	Manufacturing	Service
Micro Enterprises	Investment upto Rs.25 lakhs	Investment upto Rs.10 lakhs
Small Enterprises	Investment above Rs.25 lakh and upto Rs.5 crore	Investment above Rs.10 lakh and upto Rs.2 crore
Medium Enterprises	Investment above Rs.5 crore and upto Rs.10 crore	Investment above Rs.2 crore and upto Rs.5 crore

Source: MSME Development Act, 2006

Table 2.9 INDUSTRIAL SCENARIO OF PUNE DURING 2012

Category	Number of enterprises			Employment generation			Investment (P&M) (Rs.In lakh)		
	Mfg.	Service	Total	Mfg.	Service	Total	Mfg.	Service	Total
Micro	19907	1856	21763	78880	8389	87269	104977	6541	111518
Small	5045	773	5818	40322	8317	48639	210432	16012	226444
Medium	84	18	102	10010	2180	12190	57587	5686	63273
Total	25036	2647	27683	129212	18886	148098	372996	28239	401235
Large scale projects (production commenced)	639	0	639	91666	0	91666	9605	0	9605

Sources: GOI Ministry of MSME (dcmsme.gov.in/dips/IPS%20Pune%20New.pdf)

2.1.4 SELECTION OF RESPONDENTS

The final stage of sampling is the selection of required number of respondents. The respondents had been considered from the selected manufacturing sectors. The random sampling was done in the present study for selecting the migrant workers for the purpose of survey. The respondents of the survey are further classified in the presented study. It is on the basis of their place of origin (i.e. rural or urban for the purpose of geographical mobility) and on the basis of number of job changed by them (i.e. job mobility). The workers born in the Pimpri-Chinchwad (the area selected for our study) are excluded from survey.

For the selection of respondent migrants two stages were followed. In the first stage, purposive sampling method was adopted for the selection of the study area. In the second stage, for selecting the sample respondents, random sampling method was adopted. In order to meet the objective of this study the 450 respondents sample size of migrant workers was selected. The sample of 150 migrant respondents has selected randomly from each category of industries. The relationship between sample size and total population is illustrated through the Krejcie Robert V. & Daryle W. Morgan (1970). Table 2.10 provides the details information on the number of industries and the respective sample drawn from them.

Table 2.10 Classifications of Sampled Industries

Industry Type/ Sector	Sample Frame	Final selected Sample size
Small Sector	150	90
Medium Sector	150	120
Large Sector	150	120
Total	450	330

Source: Field work

2.2 SOURCE OF DATA

The source from which the data can be collected is of two types. It is as follows (i) first hand source of information, and (ii) secondary source of information. In study the first hand source of the information were collected from migrant workers through questionnaires. The secondary source of information has been collected from the various articles, journals, books and government publications. This study utilized both of the sources to overview the determinants of labor mobility.

2.2.1 PRIMARY SOURCE.

In the present study, primary source of data (i.e. micro-level data) is collected from the respondents through questionnaire. Questionnaire is the main research instrument that provides the main source of primary data. To call it simply a questionnaire is slightly a misnomer as it was administered face to face via a brief interview, usually lasting about 15 minutes. It becomes a single survey document drawn up for to make it feasible to renovate the biography of the people observed. It includes both factual questions requiring simple answers and more general questions the answers to which in simplified form bringing in more detailed and extensive information. A place was reserved for the examination of the opinions of questioned.

Other form of standard questionnaire distribution is postal, drop-and-collect was completely inappropriate for the target labour population in the present study. The postal, drop-and-collect methods of questionnaire data collection are not commonly used. The initial aim was to carry out 450 standardized interviews with the questionnaire for the purpose of studying the statistical relations between variables. It also ensures maximum validity and robustness of numbers for the numerical analysis. But finally 330 questionnaires are considered from the carried out survey.

The phase of fieldwork with the questionnaire lasted from January to March 2014. It is important to acknowledge here that the nature of the collection of the questionnaire sample rather rigidly defines the target group surveyed more or less by definition. Thus no problems were encountered in the survey, once respondent had understood the purpose of the survey (i.e. academic research for a university degree). The respondents were reassured about it that all information collected will be kept confidential and used for academic purpose only. Even then some refusals were encountered but they were few.

It is perhaps worth pointing out here that, all labour is quite comfortable when spoken in Hindi with them. Hence, making a questionnaire in Marathi was found irrelevant. The researcher had communicated with respondents using Hindi and bit of Marathi accent that had made the respondents more comfortable. Due to that they had elaborate their personnel information and experience more quickly and effectively.

In drafting the questions in the questionnaire the common-sense approach was used. These questions were drawn on concerning objectives of study. The questions were made relatively simple questions so that they can be readily understood by the respondents. The questionnaire consists of both the open-end and closed-end questions. The emphasis was given to closed-end questions. Due to following reasons (i) The closed-end questions are less time consuming, (ii) The more information can be get in the set time without any conflict with respondents, (iii) It even makes the data analysis more systematic. Hence, before drafting the closed-ended questions, those chapters relating to survey design especially the Bilborrow, Oberai and Standing (1984), Goldstein and Goldstein (1981:99) are referred.

The questionnaire is designed and tested before collecting data so that the hypothesis tested. The copy of questionnaire is made available at Appendix. The following main groups of questions are discussed below:

The questionnaire first sections consist of the question related to the background characteristics of respondents these are age, gender, education, marital status, religion, and caste.

The questionnaire second section consist of question related to respondents workers place of origin, reasons for migration, Person influence decision to move, consideration given to determinant's before opting for job.

The questionnaire third section of consist of the questions on current work status of the responded workers. It includes the work status, duration of joining current job, current income, and overall satisfaction level with work facilities.

The questionnaire fourth section consist of the related information of their future plans of the respondents workers.

2.2.2 SECONDARY (PAPER) SOURCES OF DATA.

The secondary source of data has been collected through the following sources.

- A. Government Reports:** The various government reports published by various departments and other relevant documents are utilized to collect the information about the migrant population, Workers Participation Rate and other relevant statistical data in this study.
- B. Articles:** The various published articles on the subject in various journals have been used for the literature review, critical analysis and better understanding of the labour mobility.
- C. Books and Magazines.** The various books had referred for the purpose of literature review on the models and determinants of labour mobility. It helps in improve the in-depth knowledge of the study.
- D. Dictionary and Encyclopedia.** The encyclopedia of economics, Dictionary of economics had been used for the definitions of the concepts used in the study.

2.3 ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA

This study is a multi-level analysis focused on worker who working in the manufacturing industries of the Chinchwad area. It is based on the conceptual frame work provide in the proceeding chapter. Herbert (1954:100) stated that one might be tempted to assume that the first is concerned with the personal determinants of mobility and the second with the institutional determinants but there is no valid basis for such a distinction. The variations in labor mobility as per their demographical characteristics may actually reflect the influence of the macro factors.

The collections of data help in the process of analysis the variables and interpretation can be drawn on the basis of them. It becomes important to organize the data in such a manner that it will be useful for reflecting/calculating the desired results. Therefore the systematic analysis approach has considered. The facts and figures are presented with consistent relationship in the study. The process of analysis and interpretation of data is useful for verification of the hypothesis. Chi-square test only helps to explain the existence of a relationship but not its strength. The strength relates to the degree or extent of a relationship between variables. A large value of Chi-square does not necessarily mean a strong relationship. The vigour of the

relationship between variables is described by correlation. Several methods are available to describe the relationship between a response variable Y and more than one explanatory variables, X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n . The most common procedure to explore the significance of each of the factors involved is multiple linear regressions. It provides an explanation of a relationship, which is not possible through simple correlation or bivariate analysis. To acquire appropriate results about the problem, it is necessary to analyze and interpret the data carefully. Thus without proper analysis the collected data has no utility and importance.

The general problems which faced by each researchers is (i) method of the depiction of the data (ii) the logical and scientific organizations of the data. Keeping in view the sample size and amount of information needed the pre-coded schedule is formed to the extent possible. Thus, the univariate table and multivariate tables for some important characteristics were generated to explain the various characteristics of labour mobility. Hence the best method to present the data for the study was found to be tabulation.

The collected data in the scheduled were tabulated and tables are prepared for the determinants of labour mobility in order to analyze the facts in details, the tables were represented and further processed according to different variables. The percentages in the tables had calculated on the basis of relevant totals. Hence, in the present study after questionnaire survey, the questionnaire data was entered in tabulation of all the variables, to cross-tabulation of selected variables and it is subsequently checked.

The tabulation is used in the study for the appropriate tests and for the comparative analysis of characteristics of migrants. These characteristics are (i) Demographic characteristics (i.e. age, gender, marital status, educational background, caste, religion) (ii) Economic characteristics group i.e. income (iii) Differential characteristics that effect on inter and intra-movement of labour mobility. Hence, the present study utilizes the general statistical method for the analysis of it data.

CHAPTER III

REVIEW OF LITERATURE: LABOUR MOBILITY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

It has been observed from the past studies that people migrate as labour to other parts of nation but as time advanced the patterns of movement has changed. The present chapter reviews the various determinants and models of labour mobility relevant to Indian context. A wide range of approaches is briefly reviewed. But particular attention is given to the conceptual frameworks that may have particular relevance for analysis and determining the determinants of labour mobility. Bose (1970) stated that over 30% of India's populations were born outside the town or village in which they resided in 1961. As per Ramachandran (1989:69) urbanization has entered a new and more important phase in the post- Independence period. Due to the industrial development there is high internal migration particularly in urban areas. The urbanization is increasing with the industrial and technological development in the modern society and increasing urbanization is an indicator of developed economy. In the view of Hoey (1968:15) machine technology is not a necessary condition for urban development, even through it is a factor of acceleration and probably instrumental in propelling a society to the highest levels of urbanization. Kosambi (2000) highlighted the role of urbanisation as a main cause of migration. But Premi (1986) has taken the urbanization along with industrialisation as a responsible factor for a cause for increase in internal migration. Therefore migration becomes most conspicuous under the twin process of industrialization and urbanization. Urbanization is a worldwide development that is far from complete.

Gosal and Krishan (1975) study and found that process of migration process of the rural to urban migration in India increased during British era. Using census data Zachariah (1964:262) stated that the extent of population redistribution in India during 1901-31 caused by internal migration was small compared to the experience of some western countries. Mobility of India's population gathered momentum only in the post- independence period. This gain in the momentum was due to implementation of five years plans, diversification of economy, improved means of transportation, educational progress, increasing pressure of population on agricultural land, emergence of

a new zeal for improving standard of living, etc. The studies of various scholars had correlated these different macro determinants of labour mobility in term of geographical perspective. Gosal (1961), Tadaro (1969), Alan (1974), Gosal and Krishan (1975) said that the geographic perspective is a major determinant to migration in terms of developed and underdeveloped areas. These include both the natural and man-made factors contributing to the development of areas. Thus it indicates that the Macro factors have a positive impact on the mobility of people but they are not solely responsible for it. The Micro determinants of the mobility also influence the decision of labour.

Thomas (1965), Lee (1961), Zachariah (1968), Oberai and Singh (1980) pointed out that younger people dominates the labour mobility highlighting the role of age as a determinant in general. Gould (1974), Nelson (1976), Abeysekera (1981) pointed out that gender is an important determinant to mobility and it is dominated by males. But some other scholars have different views. Ravenstein (1889), Elizaga (1965), Byerlee (1974), Singh (1978) stated that female dominate the labour mobility. Further, relating gender with distance. Joshi (1976), Singh (1984) pointed out that gender ratio of migrant becomes more male dominated in longer distance and at the same time decline with the shorter distance. It shows that the distance and gender have negative relationships with migration correlating distance and status of labor as a determinant to mobility. Rose (1958) stated that the person with higher status is prepared to move a much greater distance to achieve his ambitions.

The marriage is an important ritual of civilized society. In Indian society marriage has cultural importance in the individual's life (both for males and females). DaVanzo (1978) considers the marital status as a determinant to mobility; George (1970) stated that the married workers are less mobile than the single worker. It indicates that after marriage the preference for mobility decline compared to single workers. Mobility is denominated by unmarried/ single workers.

Caste occupies a very significant place in Indian society. Noel (1954) as reported by Khan (1986) found a higher propensity of migration among upper caste i.e. Brahmins. On the contrary, Prabhu (1969) stated that the lower castes are more migratory. Polacheck and Siebert (1993) consider the marginal

cost of moving as a determinant along with the earning. In view of them if marginal benefit to move is greater than the marginal costs of moving, then the migration will be high and vice-versa.

The educational status of the migrant is the key factor in migration. Highlighting the role of education, Connell et.al (1976), Cassen (1978), Lipton (1980) pointed out that it has a positive relationship. There seems to be positive relationship between the level of completed education and the propensity to migrate. Education becomes the tool in the hands of migrants that increases their confidence, work opportunity, and also the probability of getting job in the new place.

Highlighting the family size as a determinant, Caldwell (1968, 1969) had pointed out that there is positive correlation between the size of family and migration. The migration literature documents the importance of remittances in the process of economic development. Banerjee (1981), Oberai and Singh (1980) have provided the descriptive evidence and regression analysis of the remittance behavior of migrants. Stark and Lucas (1988), Lucas and Stark (1985) developed theories of remittances and tested its implications by using data from Botswana. Rawat (1993:107) stated that the remittances sent by the migrants have increased the purchasing power of the people living in the village. Correlating the migrant family ties with remittances. Duraisamy and Narasimhan (2000) stated that there is positive association between family ties and remittances.

Migrants network as determinant to mobility has been highlighted by various scholars such as Schwartz (1973), Banerjee (1983, 1984), Patel (1986), Taylor (1995), Zhao (1999). Information obtained through kinship, friends and return- migrants play crucial role in migration. It has a significant impact on migration in both developed and developing countries. Dandekar (1986:226) stated that the network in the city remains the dominant factor in the decision to migrate. Ishwaran (1965) had study kinship and distance patterns in rural areas.

Considering the attachment as determinant Davis (1951:107) found that the population of India was comparatively immobile and strongly attached to its native locale so does the tendency to return.

All the decisions in all aspect individual do not take individually. Considering the intra household factor as a determinant Stark (1991), Greenwood (1985) suggested that individuals do not make migration decisions on their own instead, intra household factors (such as the preferences of spouses and children) are taken into account while the decision is made to migrate.

There are numerous other factors associated with the mobility decision. Taking in accounts the demand and supply of labour as a determinant. The increasing pace of industrialization had increased the demand for the skilled labour. The supply side of the skilled labour consists of only the traditional skilled labour. The most of them were unskilled in terms of industrial requirement but to keep the machine running the unskilled and semi-skilled labour was absorbed. Hatton (1995) pointed out that migration should respond more to unemployment differentials than to wage differentials.

In the view of Rao (1974:7-13) the consequence of this large-scale migration of unskilled and semi-skilled workers to the cities, especially in metropolitan cities leads to development of slums. Still the expectations about the job opportunity had 'pulled' them to cities, as the expected marginal benefits were greater than marginal costs. The development in the industries and government policy lead to opening of the educational institutions to meet the requirement of skilled labour. It had further added to the pace of migration.

Highlighting the role of education, Barnum and Sabot (1977:109-26) stated that the growing rate of urbanization and industrialisation had made the urban migration highly selective of educated people. Singh (1992:74) stated that the migration of resourceful and well- educated people from rural zones to urban zones is favorable for urban development due to the work opportunities arise in the pace of urbanization and industrialization.

Bucovetsky (2003:2473) stated that everyone would gain from the reduction in barriers to mobility. Due to reduction in barriers, the labour mobility has increased considerably during the past few decades. However, the rate of migration is not uniform all over the country; it varies from region to region. It does depend upon the economic and social conditions. For instance, Bihar, Uttar Pradesh, TamilNadu and Rajasthan are the leading states of emigration followed by Gujarat and Punjab. HansRaj (1988:89) found that the

receiving states of these migrants are: Maharashtra, Bengal, Assam and Karnataka. Clark (1986:7) stated the migration has effects both on the society as well as on individual migrants. Berry, Conkling and Ray (1987:57) suggested that the selective process of migration effects the supplying and receiving regions as it frequently alters the age composition, gender ratios, literacy rates, and demographic profile of the affected areas; even create social and economic problems. In general movements are seen as having beneficial effects on the place receiving migrants and a negative effect on the places from which migrants come.

The central point of this introduction is to emphasize that labour mobility in India is not a recent process and it will be continuous. Further, it points out that there are various determinants, which (individually or in combination) influences the mobility of labour.

3.2 DISCIPLINARY APPROACHES

Disciplinary approaches in sociology, geography, and anthropology claim to explain the various determinants affect the decisions process of migrants. A summary of same is given below.

The study of migration has traditionally been more the domain of sociology than of any other discipline. Jackson (1986:4), Jansen (1969:60) stated that “migrants are social beings; migration is a social process, with effects on both the societies of origin and destination, and of course on the migrants themselves”. Schmitter (2000) was primarily concerned with the sociology of immigrant assimilation. Urry (2000) related globalization and migration. Sociological analysis has also examined the social class aspects of migration that includes the impact of migration on social and urban structures.

Sociologists have considered the various factors influence migration decisions of individual and household. These include demographic factors such as age, gender, education, household size and its composition. Secondly they have considered also the geographical factors such as distance. Third, the social-psychological factor that is desires fourth economic factors consist of income and occupation fifth attitudinal factor that is aspiration for improving the economic status and income. All of the above factors influence people’s

decisions about migrations and hence have relevance to a study of internal migration.

Geographers consider spatial patterns and directions of movement. A Ravenstein (1885) law of migration is foundation stones in theory of migration. Lewis (1982) stated that the traditionally geographers does not focus on who migrates or why, or on the consequences of migration, but on identifying spatial patterns and directions of movement. Boyle et al. (1998) stated that their migration model is based on economic determinants. The relative economic attractiveness of places is defined by wages, job opportunities, dynamic growth etc. The distance factor is inherent in geographic research. Dandekar (1986:226) stated that the migrants from the village usually moves to the nearest town and then to the next larger town as he acquires confidence and an ability to deal with the urban environment. Therefore migration between places is directly proportional to city size and inversely proportional to the distance between them.

Economists have concentrated on economic factors that influencing the migration. The main focus was on aggregate factors, such as wage, income, and unemployment levels. Economists like Sjaastad (1962) had focused on parameter of costs and benefits of migration. The individuals weigh the costs of moving against the benefit of moving while deciding to move to new place. The factors influencing individual migration decisions are micro-scale variables such as age, gender, education etc. In the view of Wood (1982: 312), migrants actively strive to achieve a fit between its consumption necessities, the labour power at its disposal, and alternatives for generating monetary income. Chiswick (2000:74) stated that human capital qualities like ambition, ability etc have positive influence on migration.

Anthropologists have paid some attention to the problems of migration. They have been dealing with the study of migration and its consequences on societies. They had rediscovered migration through their studies on peripheral societies. The main focused is on customs and believes, culture, community. In the view of Brettell (2000) anthropologists have played a leading role in the current academic discourse on transnational communities. They have paid much less attention on internal migration.

3.3 MODELS OF LABOUR MOBILITY

3.3.1 RAVENSTEIN'S LAWS OF MIGRATION: DISTANCE OR STEP MIGRATION

Ravenstein first proposed laws of migration in 1880. Ravenstein (1885:167-227; 1889:241-301) formulated the laws of migration partly in the context to international migration but it also covered other generic types of migration. He assumed that urban residents are less migratory than rural people. He further added that migration accelerates with expansion of trade and industry and lack of employment opportunities in certain regions. The main determinants of migration in model are development of manufactures, commerce and public work, lack of employment opportunities in certain regions and oppression and discrimination. The essential points of his models are:

1.Distance: Migrants move from areas of low opportunity to areas of high opportunity. The rate of migration between two points will be inversely related to the distance. Thus net migration will be less than the gross migration between these points.

2. Stage of migration: In terms of stage of migration they follow the step migration. In his opinion, the choice of destination is regulated by distance. Hence, they are (migrants) tending to move to nearby places. Then further eventually to far off cities that are growing rapidly.

3. Streams of Migration: Ravenstein observed that migration is usually from rural to urban areas but the counter- stream exists in terms of urban to rural areas. The other two streams of migration are from rural to rural and from urban to urban areas.

Ravenstein's basic laws were systematized, expanded and used by various researchers. The importance of the economic motive in the decision to migrate, the negative influence of distance, and the process of step-migration have been generally supported by empirical evidence in most of countries. Stouffer (1940:846) stated that the number of persons going a given distance is directly proportional to the number of opportunities at that distance and inversely proportional to the number of intervening opportunities.

As far as India is concerned, the Ravenstein's principles are applicable but evidence for the distance control and for step-migration is difficult to establish. Dandekar (1986:226) stated that the migrants from the village usually move to the nearest town and then to the next larger town as he acquires confidence and an ability to deal with the urban environment. The related literature on the Indian situation by Kosambi (2000), Rao (1986), Vaidyanathan (1971), Bose (1970) and others scholars had stated that migrants move from areas of low opportunity to places of better opportunity. But when labourers become older and retire they prefer to go back to their villages thus it result in a counter-stream of reverse migration.

3.3.2 LEE'S THEORY OF MIGRATION: PULL AND PUSH FACTOR

There are series of forces that encourage individual to leave one place (push) and attract him to another (pull). On the basis of Ravenstein's laws, Stouffer (1940:846) viewed that the number of persons going a given distance is directly proportional to the number of opportunities at that distance and inversely proportional to the number of intervening opportunities. Stouffer (1960:4-6) had further assumed that the migration depends on cost. Migration declines not only as the distance increase but also more probably as the cost of transport increase. The migration between two places is directly a function of the number of other migrants competing for opportunities in preferred area.

Lee (1966:49-51) had provided a variety of spatial movements that placed in terms of "pull", "push" and "neutral" factors. Hence, there are three sets of factors: the "plus", the "minus", and "zero" sets. The balance of these sets determines whether the net outcome is positive or negative for a place. The "negative" factors tend to force migrants to leave place of origin while the "positive" factors attracting migrants to destination place. If the condition for some persons at both the places is same with reference to some variables than these things may figure in the zero or "neutral" set. Further, the intervening obstacles (such as transport costs, restrictive laws, uncertainty and so on) have significant influence on migration. He formulated general hypotheses suggesting that factors associated with the place of origin would be more important than destination areas. The personal factors such as age, gender, education level, skill level etc. facilitate or retard migration.

Lowry has developed an econometric model of migration concerning push and pull factors. He had stated that people tend to migrate from low to high wage regions as well as from high unemployment to low unemployment regions. Thus, in the long run the migration flow can bring the equality in regional wage as well as in unemployment. The studies reflecting the Lee's approach are particularly sociological studies dealing with migrant selectivity in terms of push and pull factors. In case of India Lee's approach of push and pull factors is fully relevant. As historical record, both from statistics and literature, showed that push and pull factors had tended to increase the migration. Johri (1992:106), Sovani (1966) had viewed that migrants are pushed rather than pulled into urban area. The migration is selective process where the push and pull factors are contributing to the rate of migration. Hence, with out changing the basic meaning the propositions of Lee's approach are applicable in the study:

1. The migration process is positively related with the degree of diversity in the areas that is inversely related to intervening obstacles.
2. A stream that dominant the migration tends is rural to urban.
3. Migration is selective process that effected by the push and pull factors. The pull factors at the destination are industrialization, urbanization, work opportunity, labour education and others whereas push factors from the place of origin will be poverty, unemployment and lack of opportunity, job satisfaction etc.

3.3.3 LEWIS-FEI- RANIS MODEL: DUAL SECTOR

It is the first well-known economic models on rural-urban migration in developing countries. It had been strongly associated with the dual sector paradigm. Lewis originally articulates it in 1954 as a classical framework, later extended by Fei and Ranis in 1961. It is often referred as the Lewis-Fei-Ranis (LFR) model. It assumed that in agriculture sector some portion of the rural labour force was surplus and were having zero marginal productivity. The model considered migration as an equilibrating mechanism through the transfer of surplus labour to the labour deficit sector eventually brought about wage equality in the two sectors.

In the LFR model is based on the concept of a dual economy. It consists of two sectors: firstly a 'traditional' agricultural subsistence sector having surplus labour with zero marginal productivity; and the secondly, 'modern' urban industrial sector into which these surplus labours are gradually transferred. It results into increase in the industrial production as well as the capitalists' profit. This profit was assumed to be reinvested that further led to expansion of the sector. Due to high productivity, labour union pressures the wages in modern urban sector were much higher. This difference in wage rates, which Lewis assumed to be 30 percent higher than rural income, induced the worker to migrate from the subsistence to the industrial sector. However at this high urban wage, the supply of labour was considered to be perfectly elastic.

The LFR model is built on the historical experience of economic growth. However the model suffers from few shortcomings.

1. Low wages and underemployment are not solely responsible for migration from rural areas.
2. The assumption of zero marginal productivity of surplus labour in agriculture is unrealistic. [Dasgupta(1981:43-58)]
3. The assumption of expansion in employment through continuous investment of profit is insufficient to absorb the increasing supply of labour due to migration and population increases in the developing countries.
4. Reinvestment of profit by the capitalists in capital incentive technique leads to decline in the labour demand.

5. The assumption of migrants entering only the industrial sector is not applicable. The migrants take-up jobs in the informal sector (such as street-hawkers, construction workers, etc.) where entry is easy but remuneration is low and unstable.[Dasgupta (1981:43-58), Todaro (1976:23)]

However, relevance of this model in India is highly limited. The agricultural surpluses and labour must be transferred in tandem for industrial development to begin. The studies by Rao (1986), Upreti (1980), Sexena (1977) suggested that spatial development leads to rural–urban migration from the labour-surplus agricultural sector to the labour-deficit modern urban sector in India. It is difficult to say that all the migrated labour get absorbed in the urban sector. Thus, unemployment exists in urban areas. It raises the question whether the labours from other places are really migrating due to high-wages or there exist the other determinants, which motivate them to migrate.

3.3.4 SJAASTAD MODEL: MIGRATION AS HUMAN INVESTMENT

Sjaastad (1962) proposed a cost-return model of migration. This model treats migration as an investment decision. The model includes individual expected costs and returns over a period of time. The return consists of monetary and non-monetary components. The non-monetary includes the psychological benefit such as familiar surrounding or location preferences. Costs include each type of monetary and non-monetary costs. The monetary costs are the costs of transportation, foregone income and cost of skill development programs. The non-monetary costs include the psychological costs of separation from familiar surroundings. The psychological cost and benefits are difficult to measure and it varies for the individuals. Therefore the empirical tests of model become limited to the income and other theoretical variables.

The model's assumption is that the labour desires to maximize their net real income. It further assumes that they are able to compute it both for their present and the possible destination. These assumptions are unrealistic, as it is difficult to get the perfect information about the new place. Speare (1971:117-30) applied the cost- return equation in Taiwan. He found that the variables (i.e. cost and return) have empirical positive relationship with the migration.

In India, the migration is more often a survival strategy than an investment strategy. The migration is taking place due to uncertain future in agrarian system. The India agrarian system is often non- remunerative. It is overburdened by labour due to rapid population increase. There is extreme land fragmentation. All these factors lead to migration. Thus the resource crunch in the rural sector compels people to migrate into urban sector for their survival. They do not have the luxury of indulging in the calculation of cost-return.

3.3.5 TODARO MODEL: RURAL-URBAN MIGRATION

The Todaro model is based on the driving forces behind the rural-urban migration in developing countries. It is an extension of the human capital approach of Sjaastad and accommodates the some unrealistic assumptions of the L-F-R model. The model postulates that migration proceeds in response to urban-rural differences in 'expected' rather than the 'actual' earning. He opined that the rates of rural-urban migration continue to exceed the rates of job creation. Hence the capacity of both industry and urban social services is often inadequate to absorb this labour. Todaro (1976:2) stated that "migration today is being increasingly looked on as the major contributing factor to the ubiquitous phenomenon of urban surplus labour and as a force which continues to exacerbate already serious urban unemployment problems caused by growing economic and structural imbalances between urban and rural areas". Todaro (1976:31) stated that a migrant will move even if that migrant ends up by being unemployed or receives a lower wage than the rural wage. The migrant will move because unemployment or low wages are short-term phenomena. In long run it is expected that the migrants will earn higher wage in urban areas. With the passage of time, they are likely to broaden their contacts or network which in turn likely to lead them to access to employment and higher- paid jobs.

Harris and Todaro (1970:126-140) stated that the developing countries consist of relatively smaller modern sector and a much larger traditional sector. The most of urban in-migrants are seeking better employment opportunities in the 'modern' sector. While they are assume to be absorbed by the 'traditional' sector. The main assumptions of model are:

1. All potential migrants are homogenous in terms of their skill and attitudes.
2. They have sufficient information about the availability of jobs in the destination place.
3. The existence of full or near- full employment in traditional sector.
4. Once the migrant becomes the permanent resident of their initial destination, it is assumed that they generally do not migrate. In other words, it is assumed that the migrants ignore the possibility of further (say, second) migration.

The model is popular for its applicability to some types of movements' i.e. permanent rural-urban migration. It has considered mainly the economic factors (such as the income differentials) as the sole determinant of the decision to migrate. It has however, some limitations also. It fails to acknowledge the circulatory migration of labourers within rural areas and between rural and urban areas. It does not consider the non- economic variables that effect the decision and pattern of migration. The migration simply does not work the way Todaro says it does besides these criticisms the model is applicable in the most of studies. Due to underdevelopment and consequently limited job- opportunities, rural people do not get jobs or their dream job in the 'traditional' sector. Hence, they are obliged to migrate to urban areas in the hope of getting jobs in the 'modern' sector.

3.3.6 STARK MODEL: HOUSEHOLD MIGRATION

The individual approach of migration has limitations. Hence, economists have begun to treat migration as a household approach. It's a decision taken for the benefit of the family. Stark (1978) in his study had provided the empirically detailed formulation of the approach that further in 1991 theoretically elaborated the concept. It is simple extension of Lewis dual sector theory. But elaboration of segmentation leads to new theoretical positions. The studies by Stark (1991), Massey et al. (1998:21–28), Skeldon, (1997:22–23) suggested that migration must be seen as a family or group decision. It recognizes that the decision to migrate is often a joint one. It is a 'inter-temporal contractual arrangement' between the migrant and his family. Thus, migrant is sent to minimize risks and diversify resources for family rather than to maximize its income alone. Massey et al. (1998:21–22) stated

that the households can easily diversify their income by allocating various family members to different geographically discrete labour markets. Some of them undertake the productive activities in local economy while the others may work elsewhere in the distant urban area of country or abroad. Thus, decision of sending family member based on income maximization with risk aversion.

In case of India migration of workers has always been needed to fill the gap between the demand and supply of labour. In context, it may be noted that sending of a family member to other places acts not only a way of generating income but it also act as a mechanisms by which other household resources (such as crops, local work etc.) are balanced and insured against risk.

3.3.7 MABOGUNJE MODEL: ROLE OF SOCIAL NETWORKS IN MIGRATION

Mabogunje (1970) suggested a model to explain rural–urban migration in case of West Africa. It is set out in diagram and consists of a flow chart along which the migrant moves. Mabogunje (1970:16) viewed migration as circular, interdependent and progressively complex. It is self-modifying system in which there are several interrelated linkages. The model consists of five system components:

1. **Environment:** Due to economic development the environment in the migration system is one in which the rural communities are expecting a high wages and greater range of job opportunities.
2. **Migrant:** The potential migrants who is encouraged to leave the rural area by stimuli from the environment.
3. **Control Subsystems:** It consists of rural or urban sub system. The rural control sub system the nuclear and family/household relationships can act both positive and negative way in determining the volume of migration. It includes the reallocation of responsibilities of work and family. The migrant when leave or as well as expel migrants due to land fragmentation. The urban subsystems are social networks, locality, and availability of work.

4. **Adjustment mechanism:** There are various social, economic and political forces that are play significant roles in the process of a migrant transformation.
5. **Feedback mechanisms:** The feedback depends on the direction of positive i.e. increasing migration or negative i.e. causing migration to decline.

It provides additional and broader insight into the migration process. Thus, the effect of changes in one part can be traced through the whole system. The preceding work on migration had emphasized on social networks and social capital but most of the cases it becomes an overlapping concepts. These concepts were the chain migration and migration channels.

As far as its' applicability is concerned in case of India. To operate the model fully the wide range of data is required. It is difficult to collect sufficient types of data to operationally it fully. Thus, in the present study as well as in India the applicability of the model is perhaps partly.

3.3.8 HUGO: SURVIVAL MIGRATION

Sjaastad (1962) had explained the migration as an investment decision. Further, Todaro (1976) suggested an alternative model of individual approach. Despite its recognition it fails to explain the circulatory migration process. Thus, recognition of the limitations of the individual approach to migration Stark (1991) and others have begun to alter the unit of analysis to the family / household. In the view of Hugo (1998:139-146) the expansion of temporary mobility is based on circulation of labours in the developing countries. Hence, the individual mobility can be understood through the community perspective. The family influences the migrant decision to migrate. Hence, it maintains control on them and income that generated.

Hugo (1998, 1985, and 1982) had viewed the rural-urban migration is a survival strategy for the most of migrants. Through the families in rural areas distribute the family members for on-farm and off-farm works. In this way family maximizes its production and income and minimizes the risk. Minimizing the risk is vital to rural families in order to survive and to alleviate poverty. Thus, people are not migrating by choice but it is the economic necessity of them. Stark (1991) stated that no large group of migrants has ever remained permanently migratory. Hugo (1998) stated that "cost of allocating

one or two family members to work outside the village is likely to be less expensive than relocation of the whole family to the city”.

It is applicable in case of India. The growing number of educated people in rural areas indicated that more and more people are gaining education to explore the better opportunities in the urban labour market. Thus dependence on the agricultural sector is declining so do the employment in it. This is forcing migrant to urban areas where the work opportunities get available. The other various reasons (such as family debt, family size and land segmentation) have further added to the migration from rural areas. Dandekar (1986:225) stated that migration becomes the necessity for many, as they do not have sufficient assets to survive at the place of origin. Hence, for migrants more often it becomes a survival strategy than a mechanism for economic improvement. Mishra (2001:34) viewed that migration is an individual or family solution to poor living conditions. Thus tendencies to move to support the family are more of survival strategies than an investment.

3.4 CONCEPTUAL FRAME WORK OF MOBILITY MODELS

There are various models on the mobility as discussed above. From the reviews of these models in present study the various determinants of mobility had been selected and tried to study their relation to mobility of labour. Polachek and Siebert (1993:242-43) pointed out that not all (job) search takes place at a moment in time. The search continues throughout migrant life. The job and geographic mobility is outcome of people seldom view their job or location as a stepping stone for their further advancement. For the most migrants it becomes a continuing normal process for gather information. The individuals proceed to move only when it move are economically proficient. Thus, if the future benefits are greater than the investment costs, workers will migrate. The conceptual framework of mobility models considered explaining determinants of labour mobility. The prominence is on the individual decision whether or not to move. Its only views the determinants that can affect the decisions of migrants to move.

3.4.1 COST AND BENEFIT CALCULATION

There is always inter-personnel, inter-industry, inter –firm, inter-occupational and inter- area differentials in the wage rates. Pant (1965: 205) stated that the personnel differentials arise because of differences in the personnel

characteristics (age, gender, education etc) of the workers. When deciding whether to move to a new place, individuals weigh the costs of moving against the benefits of moving.

If individual has information about the wages paid by other employers or on other jobs. He compares its current wage to potential future wages in terms of actual pecuniary benefits or gain along with the monetary costs that associated with migrating. The individual will not migrate unless the marginal gain from moving exceeds the marginal benefit where other determinants remain constant. The estimation is obtained through a simple probability model applicable on both migrants and non-migrants. It is

$$\text{Probability (migration)}=f(Y, C)$$

Where as, the probability that an individual migration is a function of the expected change in income (Y) resulting from the migration and the associated costs of migration (C).

Hence, the model's prediction is that if the benefits are greater than the costs, labour mobility is high. This indicates that if the benefits from the old job are low than the possibility of mobility will be high and vice versa.

3.4.2 GEOGRAPHIC MOBILITY

The factors frequently identified /associated with the geographical mobility are regional wage differentials, regional differences in the unemployment rates and infrastructure. National Council of Applied Economic Research (1967:12) stated that it would appear that the level of per-capita value added in the different states comes very near to explaining the phenomenon of inter-state differentials. This means that the basic influence on wages is the level of economic development in the different states. In terms of locations in the present study they are classified into rural and urban. Further in terms of direction of the migration flows. The migration will flow from low earnings to high earnings. Thus, in the present study the location in terms of urban and rural areas is used to analyze their impact on the mobility of the workers.

3.4.3 INDUSTRY MOBILITY

The analysis of industry mobility is based on the push and pull factor. Comparing these factors shows that pull is stronger force then push factors. Thus, it indicates that push factors have weak empirical relationship to

mobility. In the pull factors earnings are most important. The higher income in the industry attracts more labour compared to the lower paid industry. On the other hand, the industry with the better worker benefits (i.e. working condition and social security) reduces the mobility from it but attract the workers for other industries.

Inter-industry mobility involves costs i.e. job search, psychic costs that yield future benefits such as higher income, better work environment. The workers always compare the present value of costs and benefits when deciding to change its job. Industry mobility also improves industry efficiency because of job matching i.e. fitting the best workers into best jobs otherwise labour move through life edging towards the dream job. In it the wage and mobility is negatively correlated. Hence, the low wage industries have higher quit rate.

3.4.4 PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS (MICRO VARIABLES) OF MIGRATING LABOUR

1. AGE: It is the most important determinant of migration. In fact, the studies on impact of age on migration are too numerous to refer. Universally mobility has been found to decline with advancing age. The increasing age is accompanied with the increase psychic costs such as stronger community or family ties.

Most of the researchers had viewed that there is an excess of adolescents and young adults among migrants, particularly migrants from rural areas to towns. Studies relating to both developed and developing countries of Zachariah (1968:79-107), Bogue (1969:761), Ejiogu (1968:324), Caldwell (1968:368), Thomas (1965:535), have uniformly corroborated the fact that migrants are generally concentrated at the ages 20- 35 years. The younger peoples are on the lookout for new opportunities and means to improve their situations in the economy.

2. GENDER: Studies dealing with gender in migration have shown considerable variations among different countries. It appears to be associated with economic aspects of the social structure in conjunction with the socio-cultural position of gender in society. It indicates that

cultural contrasts play a crucial role in variations in gender differentials in migration between different regions and countries. Abeysekera (1981), Nelson (1976), Gould (1974) stated that men heavily predominate migration. On the other hand, Byerlee (1974), Elizaga (1965) found that females are more migratory than males. Relating the gender with the distance. Ravenstein (1889:288) stated that the females appear to predominate among short journey, mainly rural to rural areas. Singh (1984:151) found that at the shorter distance, the gender gap is quite low, while at the longer distance it becomes masculine. Thus, gender ratio of migrant becomes more male dominated in longer distance. In the study migration of males is due to economic causes, while of female's due to social causes, particularly marriage.

3. MARTIAL STATUS: The social image of an individual in society greatly differs by marital status. But few studied migration differentials by marital status. DaVanzo (1978) stated that the spouse's work status also affected an individual mobility decision. George (1970) stated married people generally move together further if spouse also working then they search for higher-paying jobs as well as in that case involves the mobility of two individuals rather than of only one. Thus married workers are less mobile than the single worker. Its' indicates that after marriage the preference for mobility declines due to it single workers normally denominated the mobility. Hence marital status may influence the decision to migrate

4. EDUCATION: The role of education factor in respect of movement of individuals reflects their urge to secure better employment opportunities. Connell et al (1976) said that the people move to towns with a view to pursuing higher education after completing their schooling at village. Barnum and Sabot (1977) found that the person who moves to city are usually better educated. Lipton (1980) stated that poor-landless and illiterate peasants are predominantly 'pushed' into towns where as better-educated workers are likely to be 'pulled' into urban areas by attractive

economic opportunities. Cassen (1978:122) stated that migration also contributes to the educated unemployed. Often the educated migrants hired for a job for which they are over-qualified, thus creating problems of under-employment.

5. **FRIENDS /RELATIVES:** The information channel (based on friend / relatives) is better for the professional jobs. It is better for them also due to the recruitment and placement agencies. For other jobs, information is harder to acquire. The possibility for the mobility will increase to any distance if the friends/relatives are in destination.

3.4.5 REVERSE MIGRATION TO PLACE OF ORIGIN:

Initial migration may have been temporary with plans to return. The reasons for the return migration are:

First, if the job is not found as per the expectations.

Second, the psychic costs may be high.

Thirdly, the family incomes at place of origin may increase.

Fourth, retirement from jobs also leads to return back to place of origin.

Fifth, strong family and community ties also contribute towards reverse migration to the place of origin.

3.5 CONCLUSION

The oldest and important migration model is of Revenstein. It elaborates the migration streams into rural and urban these stages relate to the distance. Lee emphasized on why people should migrate rather than why they migrate. He opined that people migrate only after taking into account of push and pull factors and after considerations of net balances of the 'positive', 'negative' and 'neutral' factors.

Migration decisions also have aggregate proposition relating to incomes in the opted destination and at the origin. When deciding whether to move to a new place, individuals weigh the costs of moving against the benefits of moving. Many migration models focus on compare the income of migrants at the destination and their original residence. If the earning differential is positive he will migrate. Wage- gaps between areas tend to persist. The migration to cities tends to continue despite rising urban unemployment. The expansion of the manufacturing industries is enhancing absorption of the labour into urban sector. There are numerous other intervening factors, which will enter in the decision to migrate. These are economic, social and physiological factors as well as the cost relating to finding of job, accommodation and so on. Various models of migration become ineffective in explaining the migration, when individual decides to move due to personal reasons.

Individuals may move due to new or better jobs or due to considerations of better climate and pleasant environment. The communal decisions of persons to move have huge impact on the places. It on from where they move-out and on the places to which they move-in. Migration is driven by the differences in employment opportunities across regions and by the differences in industrial growth. The regional imbalances industrial growth is largely due to industrial policies of the government. The proceeding chapter fourth provides the information about linkages between the industrial policies and the industrial development.

CHAPTER IV

DATA ANALYSIS OF LABOR MOBILITY DETEREIMANTS

4.0 INTRODUCTION

The present chapter provides profile of migrants workers in the geographical and job mobility. Using survey data from study area, this chapter tries to examine the various determinants of labour mobility. The purpose is to provide a background for understanding the respondents' behavior that influences their decision. It includes the reasons and strategies behind their mobility decision. Hence, some information about their place of origin is also covered. It may help in analyzing the background characteristics of the respondent workers. The attention is also given to the role played by the hitherto ignored factors while making a decision to migrate for new work place.

This chapter discusses the analysis to following questions:

- i. What are the basic demographic, educational characteristics of migrant workers?
- ii. What determinant influences the geographical mobility?
- iii. Which determinants have an impact on labors decision to migrate?
- iv. Does the working conditions are considered in geographical mobility?
- v. Does the availability of social security at work place is considered by them before migrating?

This chapter provides answers to these questions and other selected research questions.

For this purpose the data (which were collected through questionnaires) is presented in the figures and univariate tables for the important characteristics/ determinants. These figures and tables try to explain the various determinants of labour mobility. Amongst the migrants' workers, 330 responded to our questionnaire. The information of respondent is presented in various sections. These serve as a background for the understanding of the respondents' behavior. It includes the micro,

meso and macro determinants that influence the mobility decision. The workers are considered as migrants as they had changed their place of origin or they had changed their job.

In this study, a movement out of workers' place of origin to a 'new' place for job seeking is defined as the geographical mobility. It involves change or movement of workers from one geographical location (often urban/ rural) to another. We are also studying another kind of mobility i.e. workers moving from one job to another job for better salaries etc. The workers are considered as migrants as they had changed their job. In this study, a movement out of workers' from one job to another job for better salaries etc this may or may not involve geographical mobility. To distinguish job mobility from geographical mobility let us take example. For example A worker of Chinchwad working in industry X. Take up a job from industry X to Y with in Chinchwad this type of movement is called the job mobility. In the present study the job mobility is classified into three sub-categories i.e. the existing first job of migrants, The single job mobility of migrants and the multiple job mobility of migrants. It had been for the purpose of analyzing the micro determinants in the job mobility.

4.1. SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILES OF THE MIGRANT WORKERS.

4.1.1 AGE- COMPOSITION OF MIGRANTS

Age is considered as a main determinant of the labour mobility. The present study examines the relation between age and mobility. For the purposes, the sampled migrant age- group is considered. A ten-year age interval class for age-group is considered for this study. The age distribution of migrants is further presented by their place of origin (i.e. rural or urban), job mobility and sector (i.e. Small, Medium and Large-scale industry).

The table 4.1.1 represents age-group distribution of migrants. In less than 20 years age-group migrants comprises of 0.60 per cent. It is 30.90 per cent and 55.15 per cent respectively in the 21-30 and 31-40 years age- group. The 41-50 year ages groups' accounts for 13.33 per cent of migrants. Thus the maximum migrants were found in the 31-40 years age group i.e. 55.15 per cent. The migrant in 21-30 years age group has the second highest concentration i.e. 30.90 per cent. In the age group less

than 20 years there was only **two** (i.e. 0.60 per cent) migrants. It found **nil** in the 51 and above age group. This signifies that mobility upto the age 20 is negligible. The critical age is found to be above 20 years. In other words, age 21 is the critical age at which mobility begins. In our sample, we did not find any migrant 51 & above age group. This may be a mere coincidence.

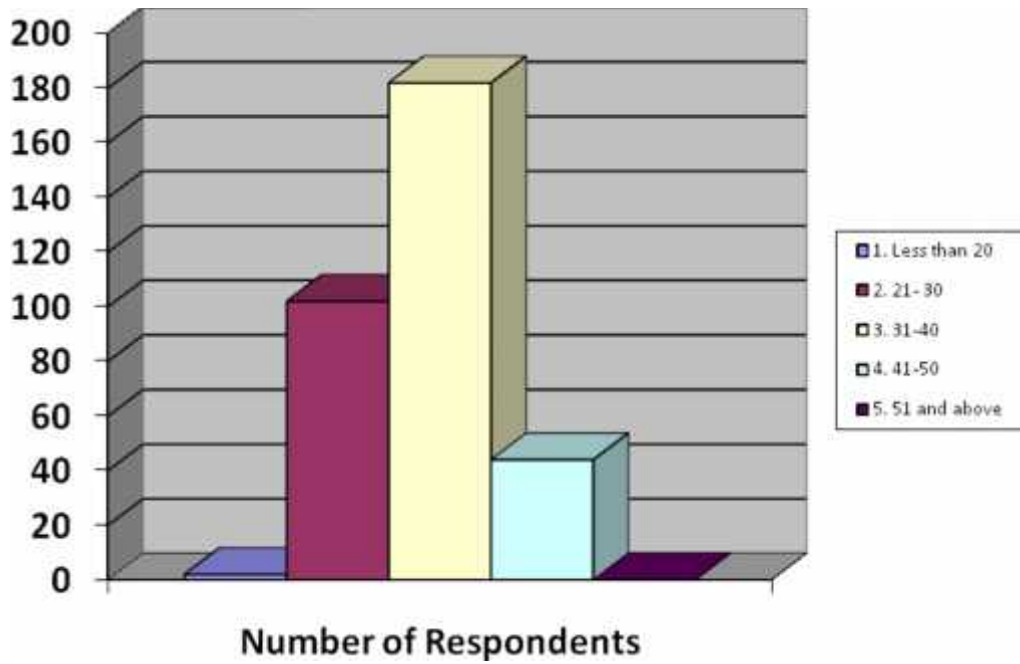


Figure 4.1.1 - Distribution of the respondents according to age groups

Table 4.1.1 Age Composition of Migrants

Age Group (in years)	Total
1. Less than 20	2 (0.60)
2. 21- 30	102 (30.90)
3. 31-40	182 (55.15)
4. 41-50	44 (13.33)
5. 51 and above	--
Total	330 (100)

Source: Field work

Note: Figures in Bracket are percentage to total

4.1.2 Education Status Composition of Migrants

The education is considered as an important determinant of labour mobility. The present study examines its relationship with the mobility. The education status is further analyzed on the basis of migrant place of origin and sector they are working in. Education in itself stimulates out-migration. The education level of individuals indicates their urge to secure better employment opportunities. It raises the level of aspiration and of unsatisfied needs in the labour market. The labour in rural areas has difficulty in finding positions corresponding to the high level of education attained by them. It makes them more prone to migrate. It is even in the case of labour from urban areas. They have the opportunities at the places but for better employment they are also prone to migrate. Besides, it is also expected that the better-educated persons have better information about the opportunities in the labour market. It is due to the use of both formal and informal channels of information. It does not mean that uneducated people do not migrate. Education is taken as a determinant in the previous studies on mobility. It is concluded that illiterate peasants are predominantly pushed into towns. The better-educated workers are likely to be pulled into urban areas by attractive economic opportunities.

The table 4.1.2 is on the education status composition of migrants. The education status (in terms of highest attained or completed) of migrants is divided into i.e. Illiterate, Upto 10th, Higher secondary, ITI (including diploma), and the University (Graduate and above). The migrants completed education level upto 10th comprises of 3.63 per cent. It is 14.54 per cent and 36.96 per cent respectively in the education level upto higher secondary and ITI. The migrants attained education level till university accounts for 44.84 per cent. Thus the maximum concentration is found in the migrants completed the university degree i.e. 44.84 per cent. The ITI has the second highest concentration i.e. 36.96 per cent. The minimum concentration is found in the migrants attaining the education level upto 10th i.e. 3.63 per cent. This fact again underlines the less competitiveness of these migrant workers in Pune's high-skilled job market and also puts them in a vulnerable position in employment relations.

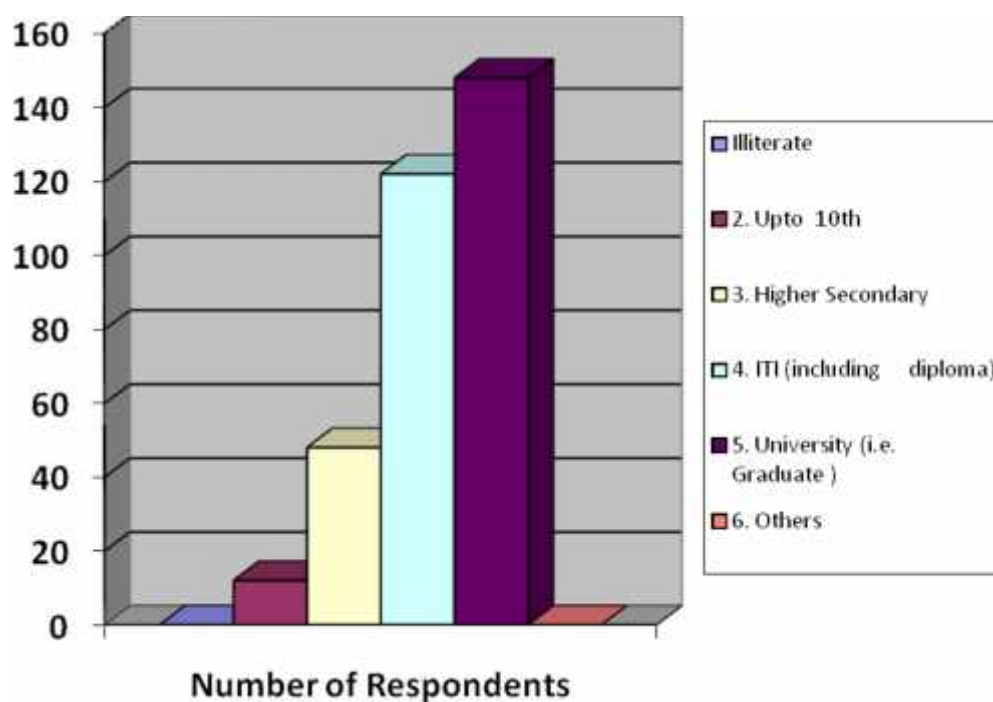


Figure 4.1.2 Educational Status Composition of Migrants

Table 4.1.2 Educational Status Compositions of Migrants

Education Status	Total
1. Illiterate	0 (0)
2. Upto 10 th	12 (3.63)
3. Higher Secondary	48 (14.54)
4. ITI (including diploma)	122 (36.96)
5. University (i.e. Graduate)	148 (44.84)
6. Others	0 (0)
Total	330 (100)

Source: Field work

Note: Figures in Bracket are percentage to total

4.1.3 Marital Status Composition of Migrants

Marital status is considered as a determinant of the labour mobility. The present study tries to examine the relation between marital status and mobility. The collected data does not explore, when the worker got married. It was before coming to the place or not. It is the current marital status of the migrants.

The social image of an individual in society greatly differs by its marital status. Marital status as a determinant in previous studies on mobility found that after marriage the preference for mobility declines. Due to it single workers normally dominated the labour mobility.

The table 4.1.3 is on marital status composition of migrants. The migrants' is covered under the two main headings i.e. single or married. The other figures such as divorce, widow are emerged with married. The single migrant comprises of 7.88 per cent. The married migrants accounts for 92.12 per cent. The age structure of the workers is positively correlated with the marital status of them. In the country married age for male as per law is 21 years and for female it is 18 years. The Figure 4.1.1 on the migrants' age indicates that they are in the above 20 years' age- group. Due to it the most of the migrants' are fall in the marriage age group. Hence the married migrants are highly concentrated in our survey data is only due to that they are numerically concentrated higher in the above 20 years age group.

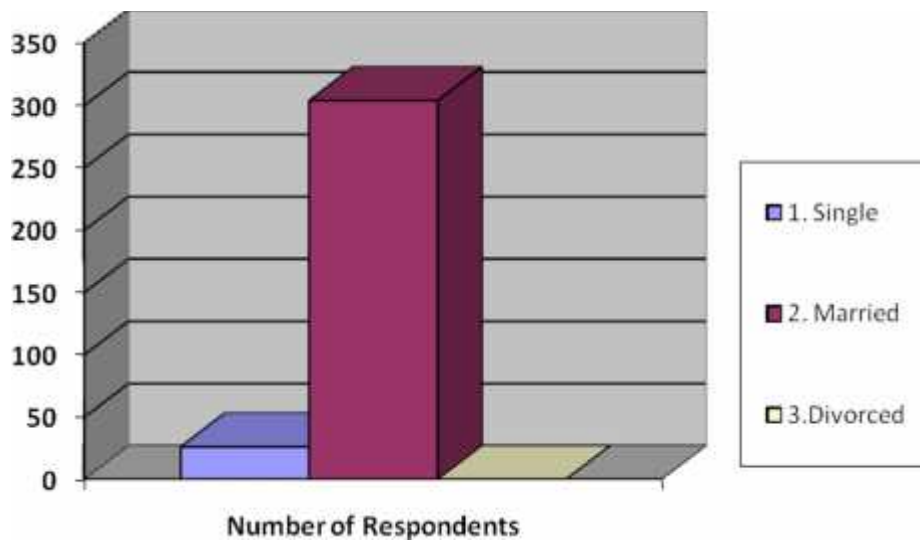


Figure 4.1.3 Marital Status Composition of Migrants by Place of Origin

Table 4.1.3 Marital Status Composition of Migrants by Place of Origin

Marital Status	Total
1. Single	26 (7.88)
2. Married	304 (92.12)
3. Divorced	0 (0)
Total	330 (100)

Source: Field work

Note: Figures in Bracket are percentage to total

4.1.4 Religion Composition of Migrants

The present study tries to examine its relation between religion and mobility hence religion is considered as a determinant of labour mobility. The major religious communities of India are grouped in Hindus, Muslims, Christians and others (i.e. Sikhs, Buddhists, Jains and Parsis). It further looks into the religion composition of migrants by their place of origin (rural and urban), job mobility and sector.

The table 4.1.4 is on the religion composition of migrants. It comprises of 79.40 per cent of Hindu migrants. It is 10.30 per cent and 6.67 per cent respectively in the Muslim and Christian migrants. It is followed by the other religion, which accounts for 3.63 per cent. The Hindu migrant comprises highest than migrants from other religions. The Hindu workers highly concentrated in the surveyed data only due to that they are numerically higher in the country population. Hence they are highest among the migrants too.

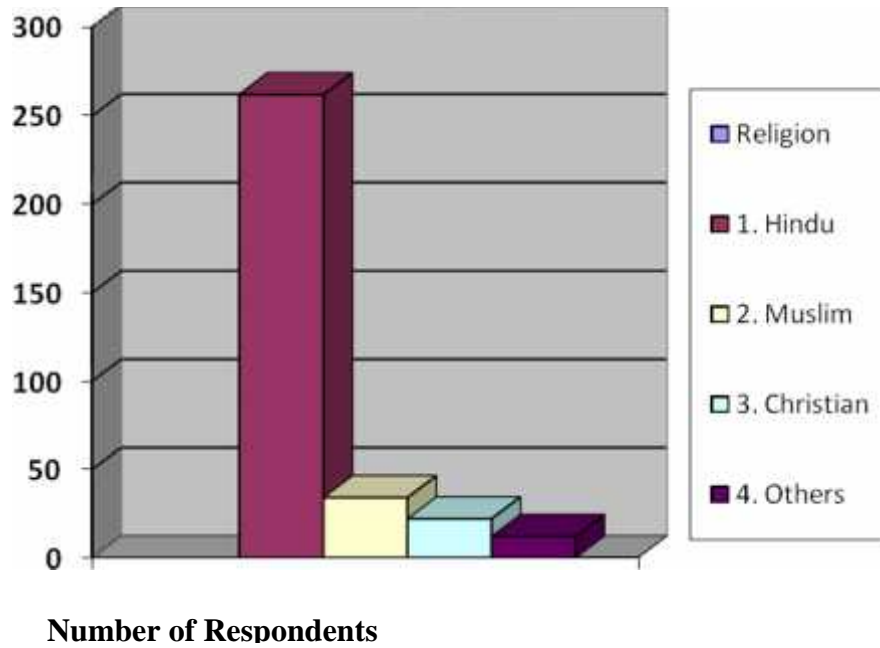


Figure 4.1.4 Religion Composition of migrants

Table 4.1.4 Religion Composition of migrants

Religion	Total
1. Hindu	262 (79.40)
2. Muslim	34 (10.30)
3. Christian	22 (6.67)
4. Others	12 (3.63)
Total	330 (100)

Source: Field work

Note: Figures in Bracket are percentage to total

4.1.5 Caste Composition of Migrant

Caste considered as a determinant of labour mobility. The present study examines the relation between caste and mobility. It further looks into the caste as a determinant by their place of origin and sector. Caste occupies a significant place in the Indian society. It is arranged into ritual hierarchy. By birth the individuals' life is governed by the caste norms. In spite of legal equality the caste continues to exist due to the socio- economic and political spheres in the country. It's an important demographic structure of communities.

The table 4.1.5 is on caste composition of migrant (i.e. Hindu migrants). The caste of the Hindu migrants is divided into i.e. Open, other backward caste (OBC), and Scheduled caste and Schedule tribes (SC/ST). The 44.27 per cent of respondent migrants are from OBC. It is 39.70 per cent and 16.03 per cent respectively in the open caste and SC/ST. Hence the highest concentration is found in the OBC migrants.

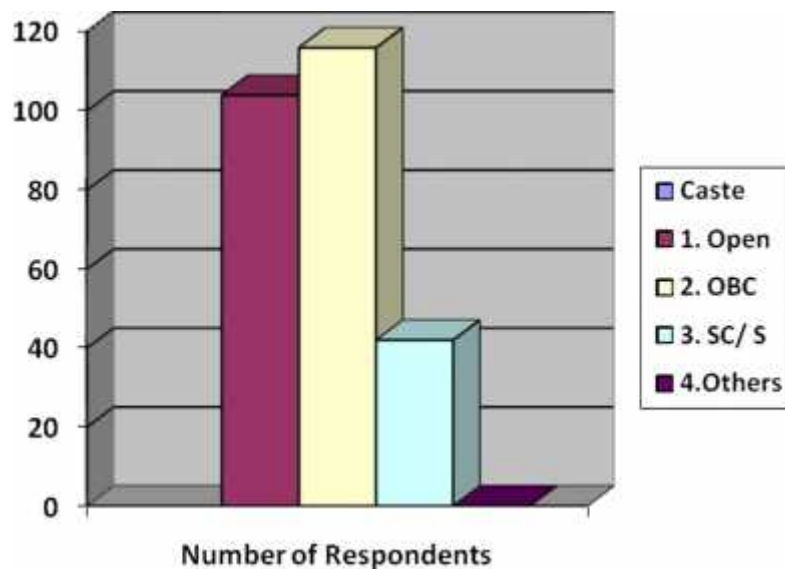


Figure 4.1.5 Caste Composition of Migrant

Table 4.1.5 Caste Composition of Migrant

Caste	Total
1. Open	104 (39.70)
2. OBC	116 (44.27)
3. SC/ ST	42 (16.03)
4.Others	0 (0)
Total	262 (100)

Source: Field work

Note: Figures in Bracket are percentage to total

4.1.6 Number of people in Respondents' families

Number of people in respondents' families considered as a determinant of labour mobility. The present study examines the relation between number of dependent and mobility

The table 4.1.6 is on number of people in respondents' families. The survey results showed that most of the migrants come from big families with 5 members. The survey found that 27 per cent of respondents have 5 members in his family. 19.3 per cent and 16 per cent of the respondent had 6 and 7 members in his family. 8 per cent and 1.2 per cent of the respondents had 8 and 9 members in his family. 17 per cent of the respondents had 4 members in his family. Only 2.7 per cent and 4.8 per cent respondents come from families with 2 and 3 members respectively. At the same time the share of respondents who have 10 or more members in the family make up 4 per cent.

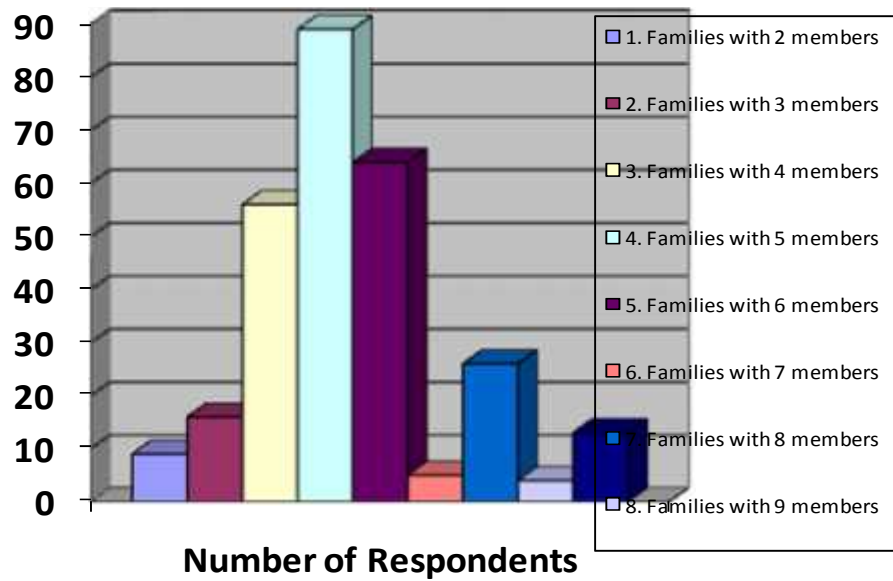


Figure 4.1.6 - Number of people in Respondents' families

Table 4.1.6 - Number of people in Respondents families

Number of people in respondents' families	Total
1. Families with 2 members	9 (2.7)
2. Families with 3 members	16 (4.8)
3. Families with 4 members	56 (17)
4. Families with 5 members	89 (27)
5. Families with 6 members	64 (19.3)
6. Families with 7 members	53 (16)
7. Families with 8 members	26 (8)
8. Families with 9 members	4 (1.2)
9. Families with 10 members or more members	13 (4)
Total	330 (100)

Source: Field work

Note: Figures in Bracket are percentage to total

4.1.7 – Number of minors in respondents' families

Number of people of minors in respondents' families considered as a determinant of labour mobility. The present study examines the relation between of dependent and mobility

The table 4.1.7 is on number of minors in respondents' families 31.8 per cent of the working migrants who took part in the survey declared that they do not have minors in their families, while 21.8 per cent and 38.7 per cent of them have one and two underage children in the families respectively. Only 5.7 per cent, 1.2 per cent and 0.7 per cent of the migrant respondents point out that they are having 3, 4 and 5 minor members in his family.

During the survey it was very important to find out if the working migrants are the main earners for their families or if there are some other members in their families who have monthly income, as this provides an idea about what would be the economic situation of the family without a migrant member.

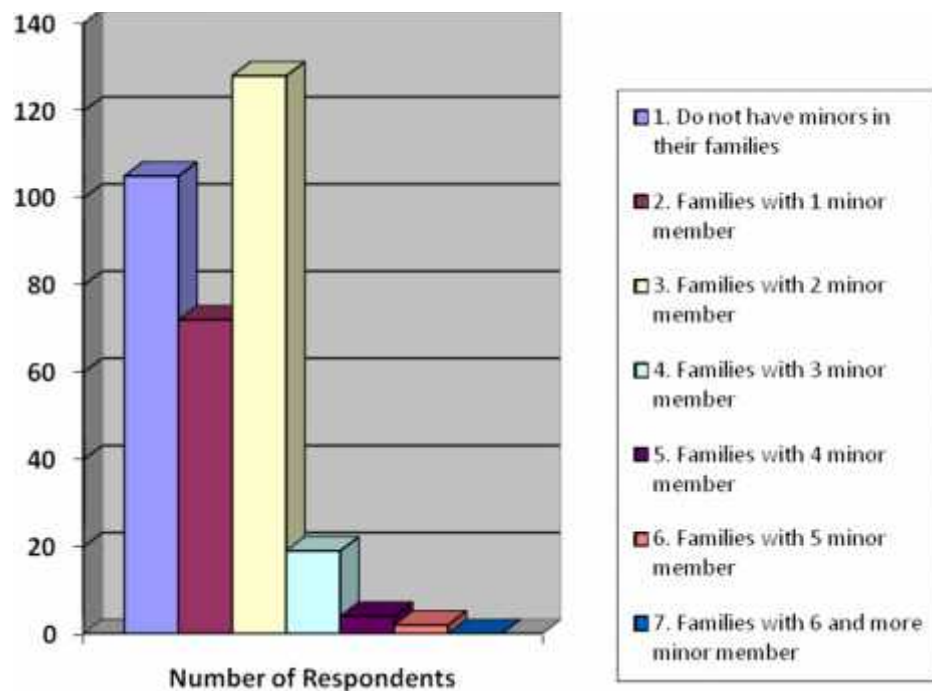


Figure 4.1.7 – Number of minors in respondents' families

Table 4.1.7 – Number of minors in respondents' families

Number of minors in respondents' families	Total
1. Do not have minors in their families	105 (31.8)
2. Families with 1 minor member	72 (21.8)
3. Families with 2 minor member	128 (38.7)
4. Families with 3 minor member	19 (5.7)
5. Families with 4 minor member	4 (1.2)
6. Families with 5 minor member	2 (0.6)
7. Families with 6 and more minor member	0 (0)
Total	330 (100)

Source: Field work

Note: Figures in Bracket are percentage to total

4.1.8 - Number of people in respondents' families who are employed.

The table 4.1.8 is on number of people in respondents' families who are employed. Analysis of the results shows that 36 per cent of these migrants have one more family member is working which means that the financial burden of their family is shared with someone else. In case the migrant loses their job, becomes ill or injured, or dies the family will not be left without any sources of income and fall under poverty line. Besides this, in the families of 19.3 per cent and 13.3 per cent of the respondents have 2 and 3 members who are working and earning members of the family. At the same time, 2.1 per cent of the surveyed migrant responded that in their families there are additional 4 and above persons working and earning members besides them.

Unfortunately, 29 per cent of the working migrants declared to be the only source of income for their families, which shows the highly vulnerable position of their families in front of any unexpected situation.

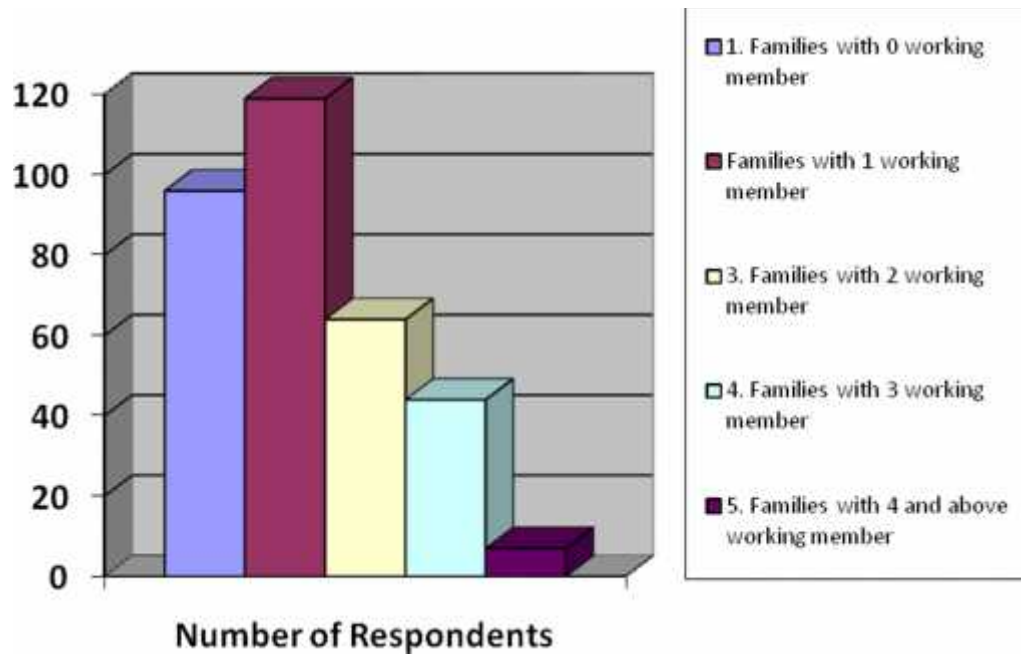


Figure 4.1.8 - Number of people in respondents' families who are employed

Table 4.1.8 - Number of people in respondents' families who are employed

Number of people in respondents' families who are employed	Total
1. Families with 0 working member	96 (29)
2. Families with 1 working member	119 (36)
3. Families with 2 working member	64 (19.3)
4. Families with 3 working member	44 (13.3)
5. Families with 4 and above working member	7 (2.1)
Total	330 (100)

Source: Field work

Note: Figures in Bracket are percentage to total

4.2. PRE- MIGRATION PHASE (PULL AND PUSH DETERMINANTS WHICH INFLUENCE PEOPLE TO MIGRATE)

Identification of the main pull and push factors which stimulate people to migrate was one of the main goals of this survey. Analysis of their answers provided by respondents gives interesting picture in relation to the migration decisions.

4.2.1 - PULL AND PUSH DETERMINANTS INFLUENCE DECISION TO MOVE

The questions had been designed in such a way that most of the determinants should get covered among the multiple choices provided in the questionnaire. The accumulate money for family events (like wedding) was chosen by 58.7 per cent of the respondents. To accumulate money for purchase of durable consumer goods was indicated as one of the decision making factors by 51.2 per cent of survey respondents. To accumulate money to purchase or construct of house was indicated by 45.1 per cent migrants.

The push factors that dominate the labor migration in around the world are unemployment and better job opportunities. The survey confirmed the same as 37.8 per cent migrated due to unemployment and 28.4 per cent migrated due to better job opportunities respectively. The survey revealed the fact that for the migrants working in Pune wasn't a way to survive but it is a way to collect money for the purposes like weddings, purchase of a durable consumer goods or a house. It means that prevalence of pull factors over push factors like higher wages in taking the mobility decision by migrants. The 10 per cent of the respondent's migrants took decision to migrate having a hope to save money for start-up capital for their future entrepreneurship activity.

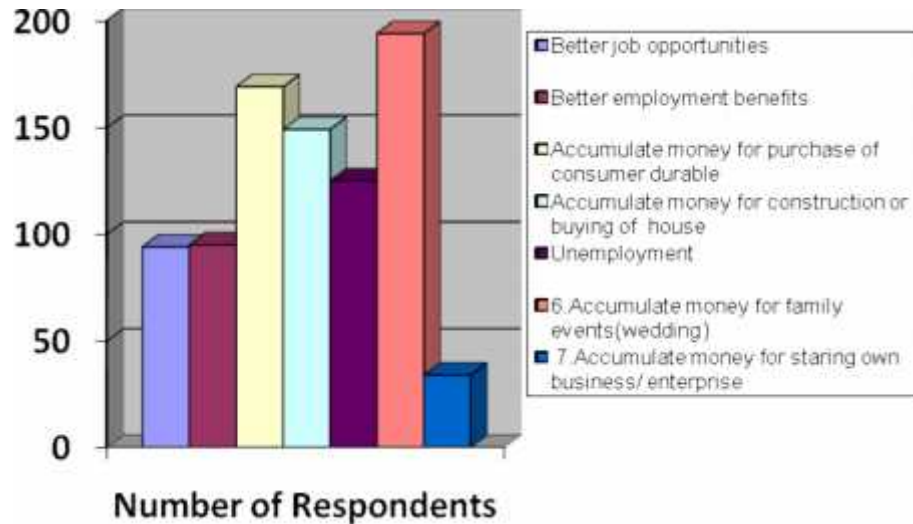


Figure 4.2.1 – Determinants influenced respondent’s decision to migrate

Table 4.2.1 - Determinants influenced respondent’s decision to migrate

Pull and Push determinants of labor mobility	Total
1. Better job opportunities	94 (28.4)
2. Better employment benefits	95 (28.7)
3. Accumulate money for purchase of consumer durable	169 (51.2)
4. Accumulate money for construction or buying of house	149 (45.1)
5. Unemployment	125 (37.8)
6. Accumulate money for family events(wedding)	194 (58.7)
7. Accumulate money for starting own business/ enterprise	34 (10)
8. Others	17 (5.1)

Source: Field work

Note: Figures in Bracket are percentage to total

4.2.2 Reason for respondents to move from your previous place of residence.

The study analyzes the determinants of migrant respondents to migrate from their place of origin to Pune. 59 percent of the respondents gave the reason that lack of job opportunity at the previous place was the major factor for them to move from previous location. 50.9 percent of the respondents indicated that fewer employment benefits were the reason for them to move whereas 43.3 percent of the respondents stated that the income which they were earning at their pervious location was insufficient to meet their personal and their family needs. A poor economic condition at the previous location was the reason stated by 23.9 percent of respondents for their mobility their previous location.

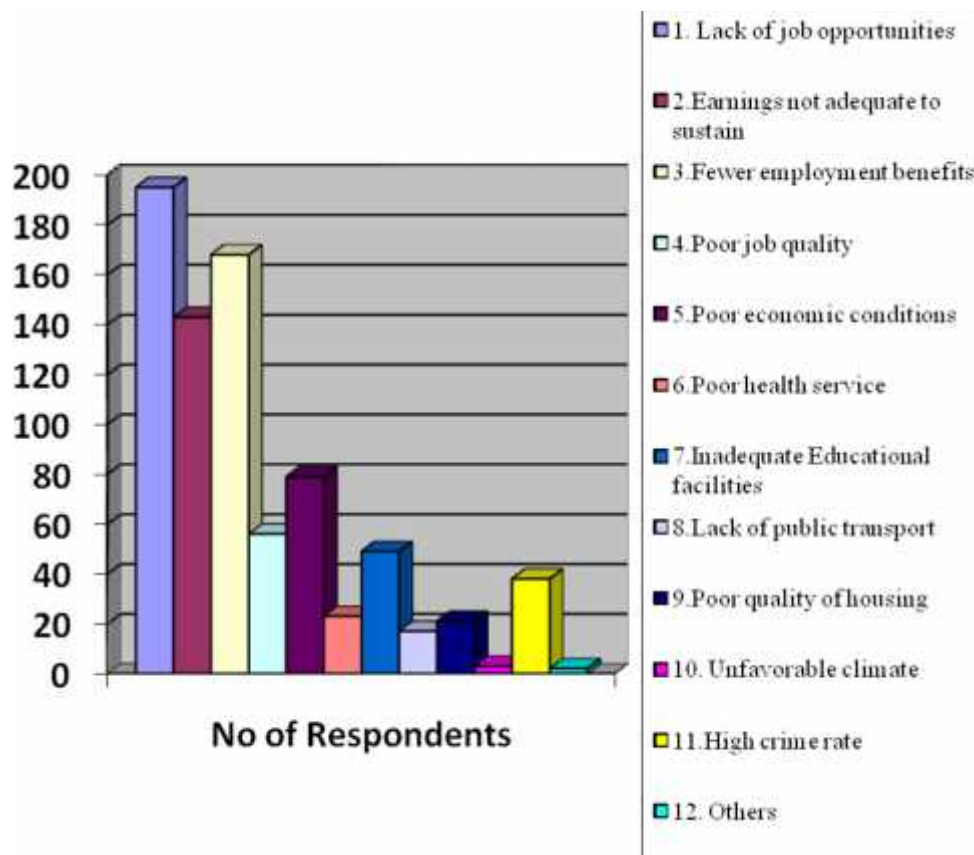


Figure 4.2.2 Reasons to move from previous place of residence.

Table 4.2.2 Reason to move from previous place of residence

Respondents reasons to move from the previous place of residence	Total
1. Lack of job opportunities	195 (59)
2.Earnings not adequate to sustain	143 (43.3)
3.Fewer employment benefits	168 (50.9)
4.Poor job quality	56 (16.9)
5.Poor economic conditions	79 (23.9)
6.Poor health service	23 (6.9)
7.Inadequate Educational facilities	49 (14.8)
8.Lack of public transport	17 (5.1)
9.Poor quality of housing	21 (6.3)
10. Unfavorable climate	3 (0.9)
11.High crime rate	38 (11.5)
12. Others	2 (0.6)

Source: Field work

Note: Figures in Bracket are percentage to total

4.2.3 Migrants have any information in context to employment

According to survey results only 39.3 per cent of the migrants had knowledge where they would be working before arriving in Pune i.e. they had an arranged work placement. 27.5 per cent of them replied that they had some information about their future work placement but didn't have an exact idea. At the same time, almost one third of all respondents confirmed that they hadn't known what they would be doing when they will arrive in Pune. It means that they were in a risk group which could be cheated, exploited or left without any job after their arrival to Pune.

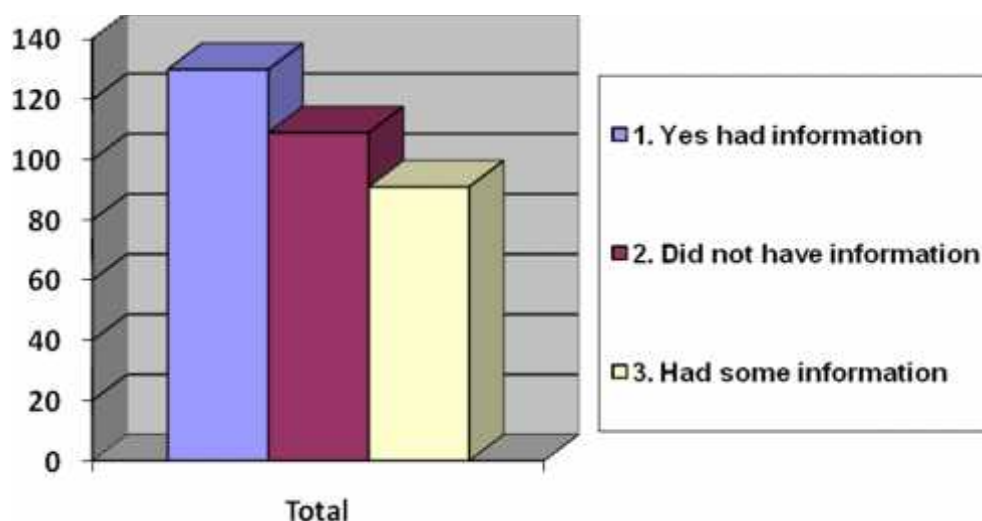


Figure 4.2.3 Pre-migration information about the availability of employment

Table 4.2.3 Pre-migration information about the availability of employment

Pre-migration information about the availability of employment.	Total
1. Yes had information	130 (39.3)
2. Did not have information	109 (33.0)
3. Had some information	91 (27.5)
Total	330 (100)

Source: Field work

Note: Figures in Bracket are percentage to total

4.2.4 How was travel to Pune is financed

Different research on mobility states that the very poor do not migrate as they cannot afford the travel costs. In case their travel expenses are covered by the intermediaries their risk become victims of slavery. The survey results confirmed that big shares of migrants are in the middle income range. 66.3 per cent of migrants indicated that their travel to Pune is financed by own (family) means where as 22.7 per cent of migrants borrowed the money for the ticket and other expenses from relatives. The 10 per cent of migrants borrowed money from friends. One per cent of the migrants indicated other sources as a main means for financing their travel expenses.

The respondents also confirmed that of course there are a considerable number of very poor people who travel to Pune from their place in search of work. This only becomes possible for them due to agreements with labour contractors whom they have to pay back by working but at last most of these people end up in getting less pay.

Figure 4.2.4 how was travel to Pune is financed

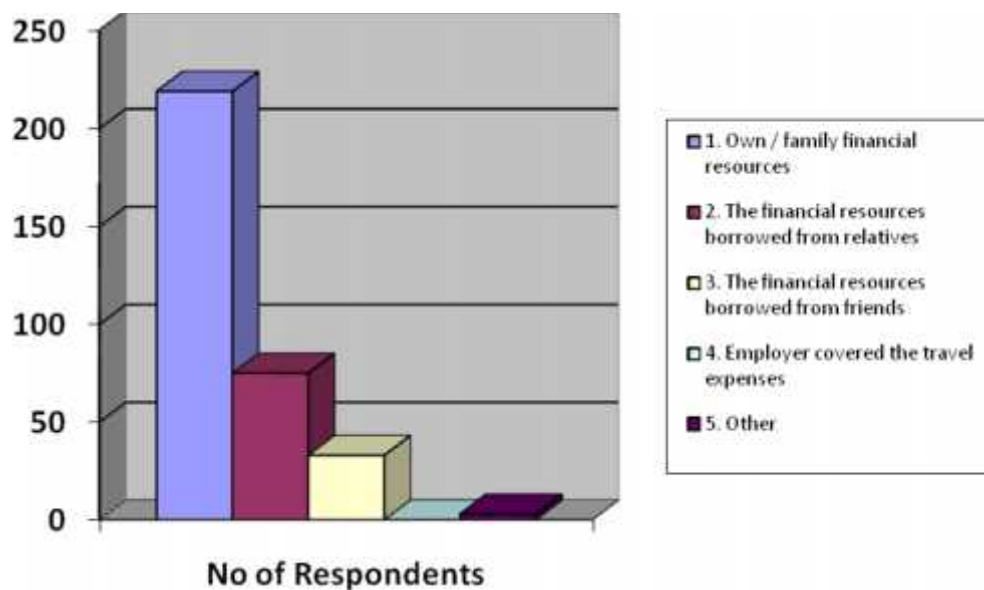


Table 4.2.4 how was travel to Pune is financed

How was travel to Pune is financed	Total
1. Own / family financial resources	219 (66.3)
2. The financial resources borrowed from relatives	75 (22.7)
3. The financial resources borrowed from friends	33 (10)
4. Employer covered the travel expenses	0 (0)
5. Other	3 (1)
Total	330 (100)

Source: Field work

Note: Figures in Bracket are percentage to total

4.2.5 MIGRANT NETWORK

Migrant network is considered as a main determinant of the labour mobility. This network means the access to job information. The present study examines the relationship between migrant networks and mobility. It helps in reducing the psychic costs. As characteristics it has been an important determinant to the labour mobility. In determining its effect on the migration the additional insights will be gained.

The following four categories of sources of information had been considered in the study i.e. relatives, friends, media, and job contractor. The current job held by the workers surely by their own efforts. The important thing was from where they had received the information and not from where their sources received it.

The Table 4.2.5 is on composition of migrant network by their place of origin. The total respondents comprise of 74.54 per cent of rural origin (i.e. RO) and 25.46 per cent of urban origin (i.e. UO). The migrants attained the information of job from relatives comprises of 24.24 per cent. It is 55.15 per cent and 13.93 per cent respectively from the friends and media. It is followed by job contractors, which account for 6.66 per cent. It indicates those current jobs held by the migrants are through their friends and relatives i.e. almost 80 per cent. Thus, the friends and relatives play an important role in migrant network.

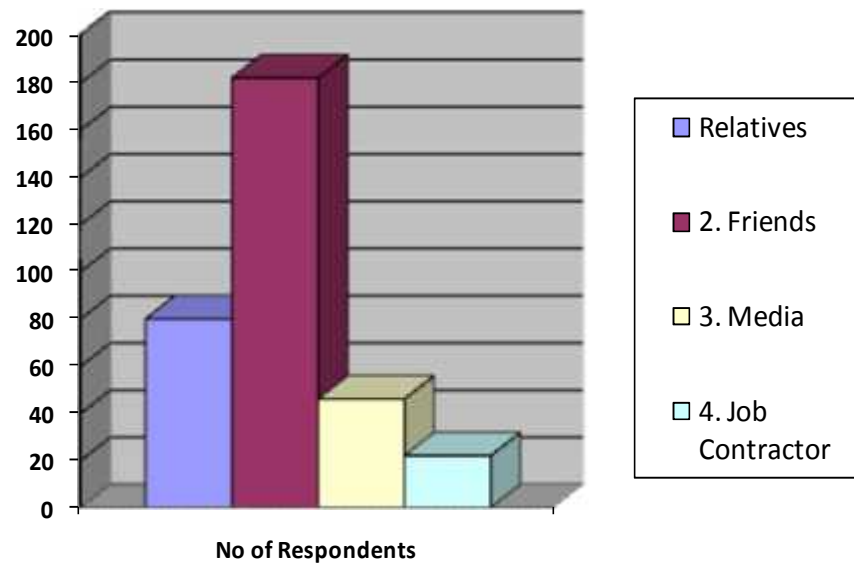


Figure 4.2.5 Composition of Migrants Network

Table 4.2.5 Composition of Migrants Network

Access to Job Information	Total
1. Relatives	80 (24.24)
2. Friends	182 (55.15)
3. Media	46 (13.93)
4. Job Contractor	22 (6.66)
Total	330 (100)

Source: Field work

Note: Figures in Bracket are percentage to total

4.2.6 Reason for leaving the previous job

In the present study the reason for leaving the previous job is considered and relates it with the geographical mobility. It examines that what make the migrants leave their previous job. The following four categories of reasons had been consider in the study i.e. inadequate payment, casual employment (unstable job), bad working condition and others. The others reason includes all the factors that make the job uninteresting. These are repetitive job, relation with the boss (bad boss), shift work, inadequate Social Security's Provision, family problems etc. These factors have individually or combined effect on job mobility decision. It is found that it even difficult for migrant to locate the exact cause for leaving the previous job. To simplify it they were asked to provide only the one main reason for leaving the previous job. These factors are further distributed by migrants place of origin and by sector. The study had limited its scope to the previous job and not to kind of job. It was not asked what their previous jobs were where it was in the same place or in the manufacturing unit or not.

The Table 4.2.6 is on main reasons for leaving previous job and by migrants. The formulated tabulation tries to answer the question why migrants opt for job mobility? The inadequate payment as a reason for job mobility comprises of 56.16 per cent. It is 25.34 per cent and 7.53 per cent respectively in the casual employment and inadequate working condition. The other reasons comprise of 10.95 per cent. The maximum concentration is found in the inadequate payment i.e. 56.16 per cent as a main reason for the job mobility.

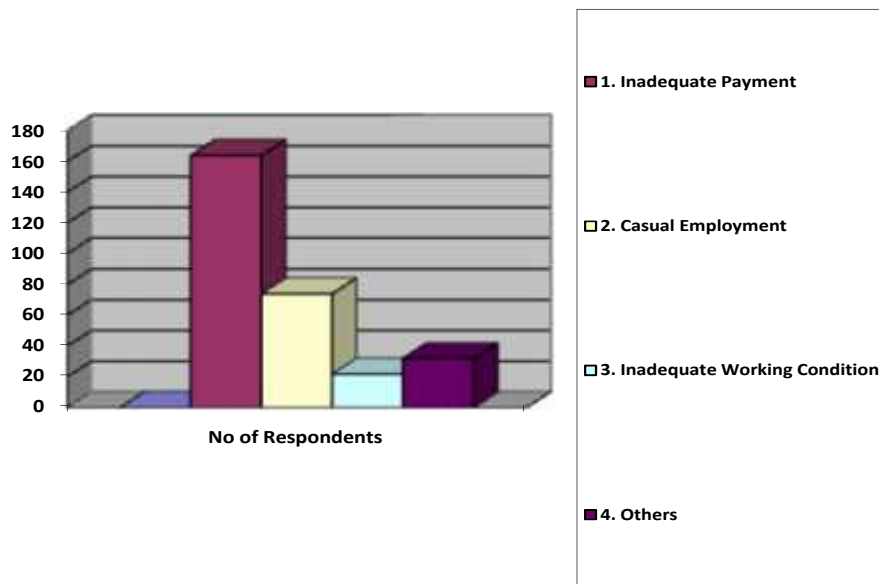


Figure 4.2.6 Reason for leaving the previous job by migrants' place of origin

Table 4.2.6 Reason for leaving the previous job by migrants' place of origin

Reasons for Leaving Previous Jobs	Total
1. Inadequate Payment	164 (56.16)
2. Casual Employment	74 (25.34)
3. Inadequate Working Condition	22 (7.53)
4. Others	32 (10.95)
Total	292 (100)

Source: Field work

Note: Figures in Bracket are percentage to total

4.3 INFORMATION ABOUT CURRENT WORK PLACE & WORKING CONDITIONS

4.3.1 - How long the respondents have been working in Pune

The survey results showed that most of the migrant respondents have been working in Pune since long duration. 48.1 per cent of them have been working for more than 5 years, while 45.7 per cent of them have been in Pune from about one to five years. Only 6 per cent of the working migrants declared that they have been in Pune since less than one year.

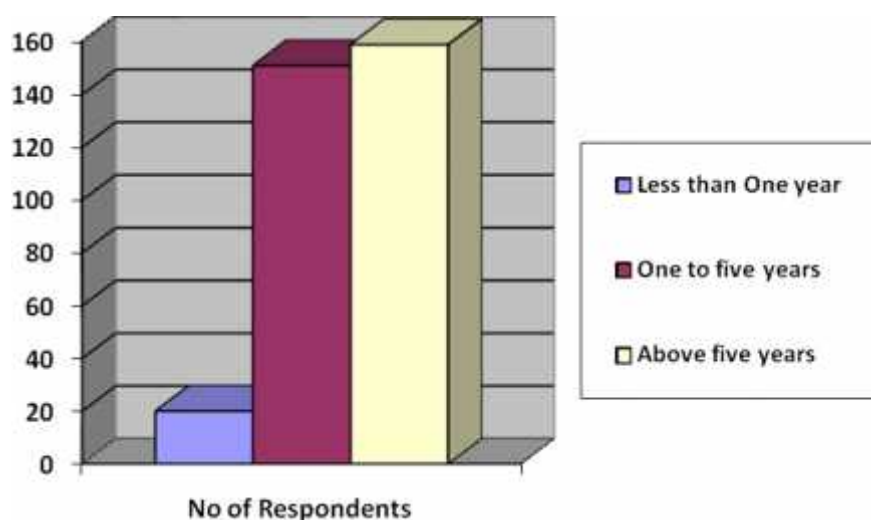


Figure 4.3.1 - How long the respondents have been working in Pune

Table 4.3.1 – How long the respondents have been working in Pune

How long the respondents have been working in Pune	Total
1. Less than One year	20 (6)
2. One to five years	151 (45.7)
3. Above five years	159 (48.1)
Total	330 (100)

Source: Field work

Note: Figures in Bracket are percentage to total

4.3.2- Work and working conditions of the respondents.

The work migrants do and the conditions they work in Pune often leave much to be desired. While in most cases this hard work and difficult working conditions of the migrant workers are associated with their irregular position in the place. In some cases, migrants themselves agree to work under any conditions and stay as long as needed at work in order to earn more money. 18.1 per cent of the respondents described their work and working conditions to be very hard. 34 per cent of respondents accepted that, notwithstanding the hard work, the conditions they work under are good. The 20 per cent of the sampled respondents indicated that their working conditions to be hard while the work they do is easy. The share of lucky migrants whose work are easy and working condition are good were 27.5 per cent.

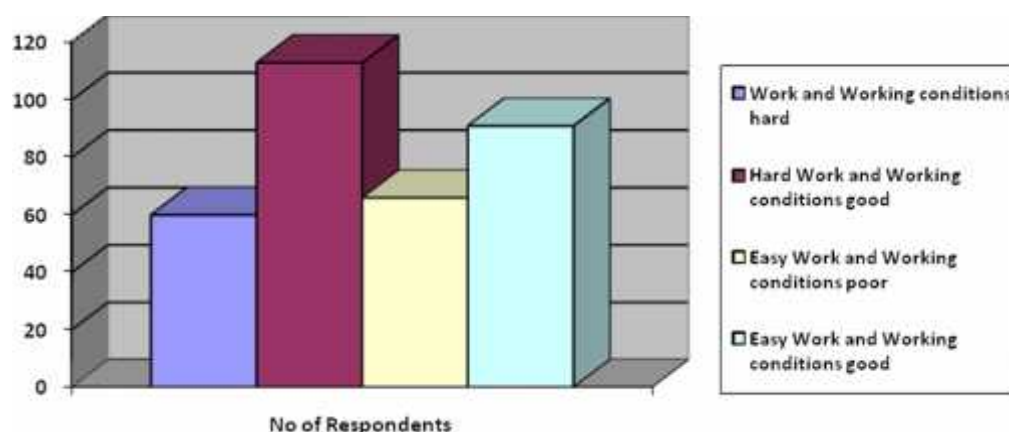


Figure 4.2.6 - Work and working conditions of the respondents

Table 4.2.6- Work and working conditions of the respondents

Work and working conditions of the respondents.	Total
1. Work and Working conditions hard	60 (18.1)
2. Hard Work and Working conditions good	113 (34.2)
3. Easy Work and Working conditions poor	66 (20)
4. Easy Work and Working conditions good	91 (27.5)
Total	330 (100)

Source: Field work

Note: Figures in Bracket are percentage to total

4.3.3 Migrants earning with respect to meet their needs

The question has profound implications for labor mobility and for policy makers. It is a challenge to answer with precision because though seemingly simple it is actually quite complex. In the study a simple question had been drawn so that general conclusion on it as a deterrent can be drawn otherwise it is a subject question as family budgets set a higher consumption bar than the thresholds.

The question was framed to understand how well does income earned here meet the respondents daily needs such as housing, food, clothing, and other necessities. The main concern in migration is survivability. 56.9 per cent responded that the income earned by them is sufficient to meet their expenses whereas the only 5.4 per cent felt that whatever is earned here is insufficient for them to meet the expected requirement. The 37.5 per cent of respondent where happy to be in place and on job as they get earn more the enough here.

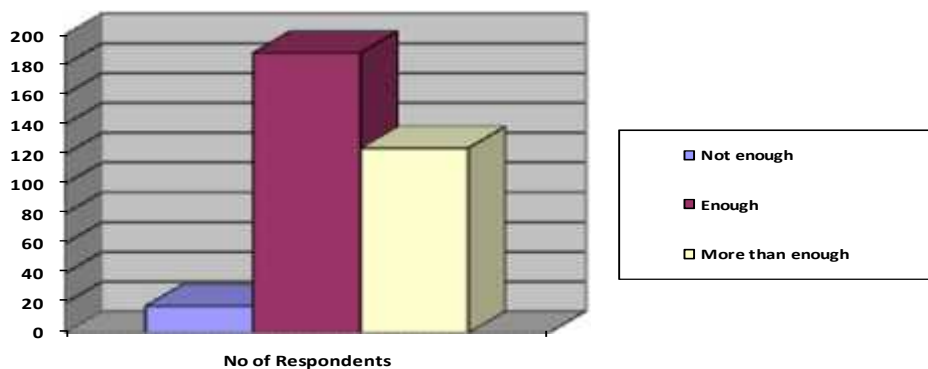


Figure 4.2.3 Migrants earning with respect to meet their needs

Table 4.2.3 Migrants earning with respect to meet their needs

Migrants earning at the place and on job	Total
1. Not enough	18 (5.4)
2. Enough	188 (56.9)
3. More than enough	124 (37.5)
Total	330 (100)

Source: Field work

Note: Figures in Bracket are percentage to total

4.3.4 Analysis of migrant's remittance

The most of the researchers had indicated that positive impact of labor mobility to origin communities comes through remittances, new skills, technology transfers. The majority of labor migrants in survey are working in low skilled jobs therefore any discussion about new skills or technologies which could be applied further in development of localities of migrants originated from cannot be stated. 97 per cent of our respondents stated that they send money home, where 86 per cent are regular senders. Only 3 per cent of migrants stated that they do not send money to their families. The informal discussion with the migrants had indicated that the status of the family had improved through their remittances.

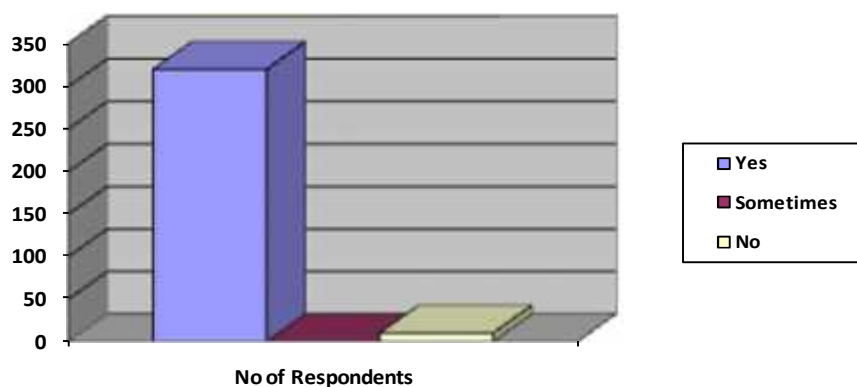


Figure 4.3.4 – Migrants respondent's remittance at home

Table 4.3.4 –Migrants respondent remittance at home

migrants respondents remittance at home	Total
1. Yes	320 (97)
2. Sometimes	0 (0)
3. No	10 (3)
Total	330 (100)

Source: Field work

Note: Figures in Bracket are percentage to total

4.3.5 Migrants frequency of sending remittance at home

This study analysis the frequency of sending remittance to home that indicated that 76.8 per cent migrants send it on a monthly basis. As informed by the migrants they send money each month as soon as they get their salary. They even mentioned that keeping money with themselves is risky due to various reasons as mentioned by them. As soon they get the payments they just keep a decent amount for their living and rest send to home. 21.8 per cent of them send money every three months while only 1.2 per cent sends six months and above

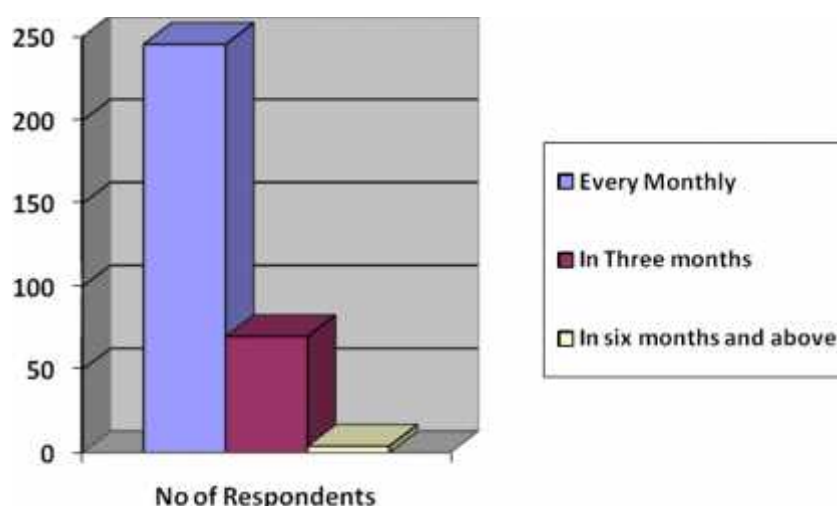


Figure 4.3.5 Migrants frequency of sending remittance at home

Table 4.3.5 Migrants frequency of sending remittance at home

migrants frequency of sending remittance at home	Total
1. Every Monthly	246 (76.8)
2. In Three months	70 (21.8)
3. In six months and above	4 (1.2)
Total	320 (100)

Source: Field work

Note: Figures in Bracket are percentage to total

4.3.6 Mode used for send money home by respondents

This study confirms that migrants just keep a decent amount for their living and send home the rest money. 76.6 per cent respondent send money through the people going back home. 56.6 per cent of respondents stated that they send money as soon as they get their salary. The mode of sending money is through banks, post office. The 68.2 per cent respondent collect the money and take with themselves while going back home.

Figure 4.3.6 Mode used for send money home by respondents

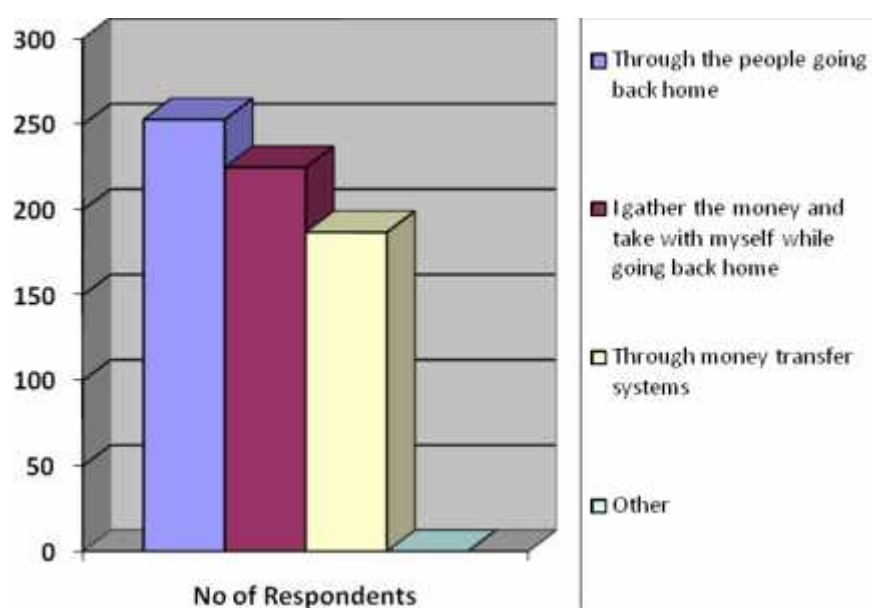


Table 4.3.6 Mode used for send money home by respondents

How do respondents send money home	Total
1. Through the people going back home	253 (76.6)
2. I gather the money and take with myself while going back home	225 (68.2)
3. Through money transfer systems	187 (56.6)
4. Other	

Source: Field work

Note: Figures in Bracket are percentage to total

4.3.7 - Kinds of positive effects has your working in Pune had on you and your family?

The study tries to analyze what kind of impacts has labor mobility on people and sending localities, through labor migrants' opinions and personal evolutions on this impact. 83 per cent of migrant workers who took part in the survey confirmed that thanks to their work their financial situation has improved considerably, as well as 70 per cent of them were happy that their wellbeing was raised and living conditions improved. 43 per cent declared that they already managed to purchase or construct a house, while 31.8 per cent purchased a consumer durable goods.

Working in Pune and the remittances they sent also helped 34.2 per cent of the respondents to raise their position in the society. The opportunity of spending more on health was indicated by 33 per cent of the migrants, while 16.9 per cent also indicated the opportunity to provide better education to the children. 38 per cent of the respondents also managed to save a considerable amount of money, while only 6 per cent invested in establishing small business or beginning entrepreneurship activity. There was also very interesting result that 21.2 per cent of our respondents declared that they acquired new profession and skills, which is in fact a very good positive outcome.

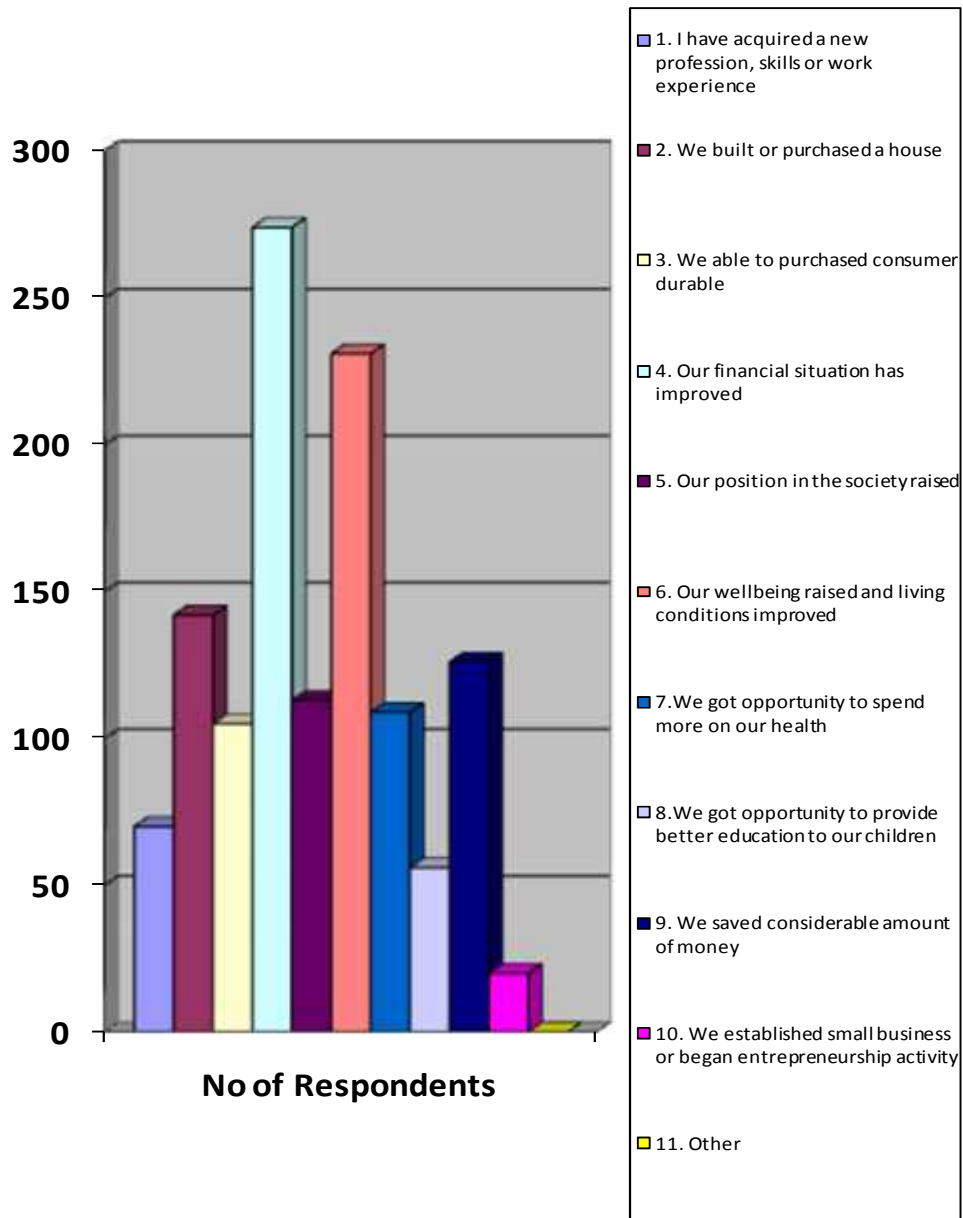


Figure 4.3.7 - Kinds of positive effects has your working in Pune had on you and your family

Table 4.3.7 - Kinds of positive effects has your working in Pune had on you and your family?

Positive effects has your working in Pune had on you and your family	Total
1. I have acquired a new profession, skills or work experience	70 (21.2)
2. We built or purchased a house	142 (43)
3. We able to purchased consumer durable	105 (31.8)
4. Our financial situation has improved	274 (83)
5. Our position in the society raised	113 (34.2)
6. Our wellbeing raised and living conditions improved	231 (70)
7. We got opportunity to spend more on our health	109 (33)
8. We got opportunity to provide better education to our children	56 (16.9)
9. We saved considerable amount of money	126 (38.1)
10. We established small business or began entrepreneurship activity	20 (6)
11. Other	0 (0)

Source: Field work

Note: Figures in Bracket are percentage to total

4.3.8 - Negative effect on respondents while working in Pune

When asked about the negative effects on the respondents as reflected in table 4.3.8 the 47.2 per cent responded that working in Pune doesn't have any negative effects however others accept that migration is causing negative physiological effects on them.

As per the table 4.3.9 unfortunately, 14.3 per cent of our respondents complained that during their stay health worsened in Pune. 3.4 per cent of them accused their work in Pune has worsening of their relations with spouses. 2.2 per cent of migrants indicated that the migration leads to degradation of moral and cultural values in them so do it's been observed by them in their families. 10.9 per cent even indicated that living away from my family and society had negative psychological effect on them. The News-media frequently report about migrants attacked by different local groups. Before our survey we were sure that these kinds of groups and attacks may be creating problems and fear among migrants however the results of the survey draw a totally different picture. There are also several other potential risk sources which were indicated by our respondents like – dishonest employers and mediators and others, however these risks are indicated by a comparatively smaller share of our respondents

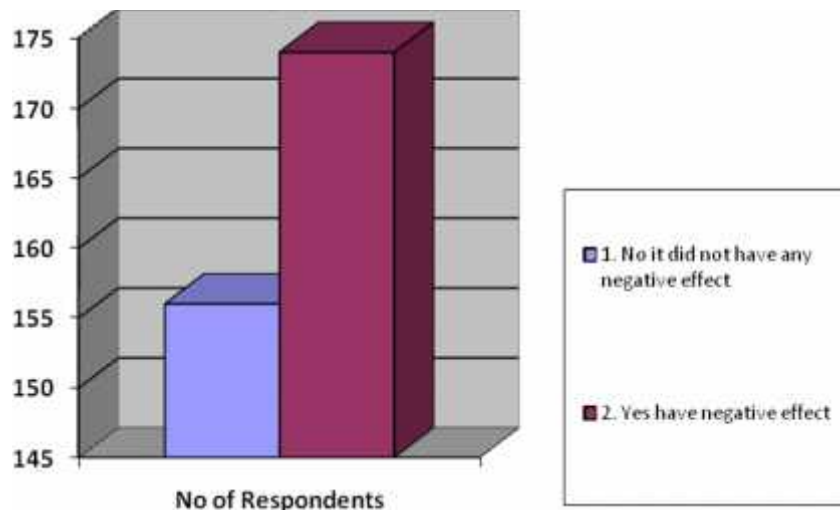


Figure 4.3.8 - Negative effect on migrants while working in Pune

Table 4.3.8 - Negative effect on migrants while working in Pune

Negative effects on migrants working in Pune	Total
1. No it did not have any negative effect	156 (47.2)
2. Yes have negative effect	174 (52.7)
Total	330 (100)

Source: Field work

Note: Figures in Bracket are percentage to total

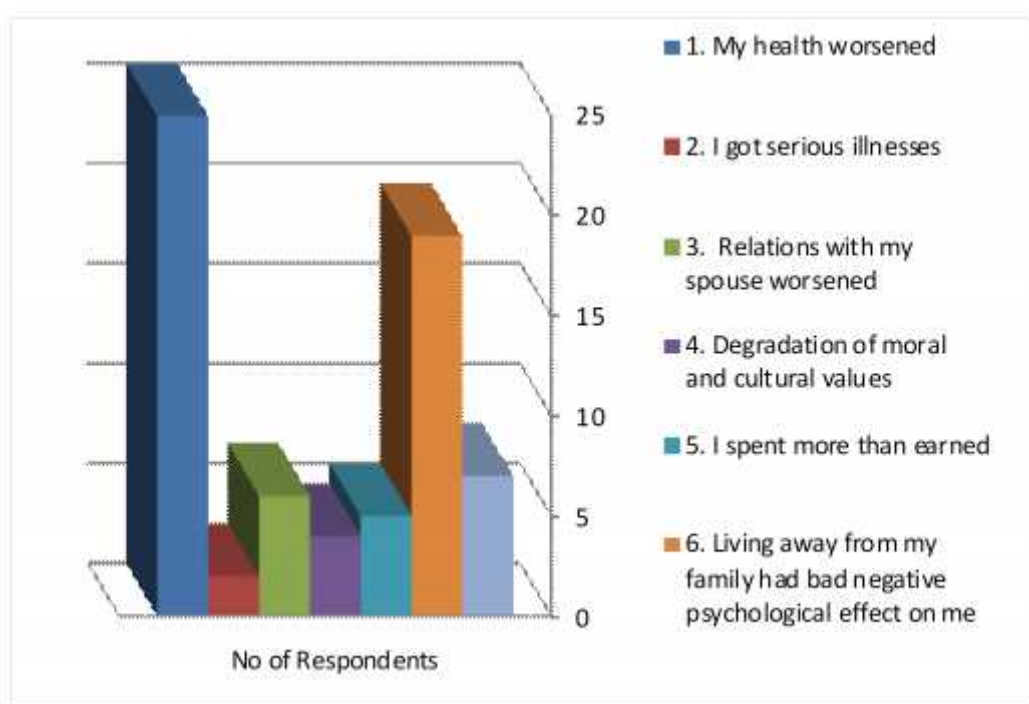


Figure 4.3.9 - Kind of negative effects on respondent working in Pune

Table 4.3.9 - Kind of negative effects on respondent working in Pune

Negative effects on migrants working in Pune	Total
1. My health worsened	25 (14.3)
2. I got serious illnesses	2 (1.1)
3. Relations with my spouse worsened	6 (3.4)
4. Degradation of moral and cultural values	4 (2.2)
5. I spent more than earned	5 (2.8)
6. Living away from my family had bad negative psychological effect on me	19 (10.9)
7. Others	7 (4)

Source: Field work

Note: Figures in Bracket are percentage to total

4.3.10 - Negative effect on migrant's family while working in Pune

The survey data presented in table 4.3.10 indicated that 60 per cent of respondents don't have any negative effects on them and their family while they are working in Pune however remaining respondents accepted that their migration is related with awful negative physiological effects on them.

Figure 4.3.10 - Negative effects on family of migrants working in Pune

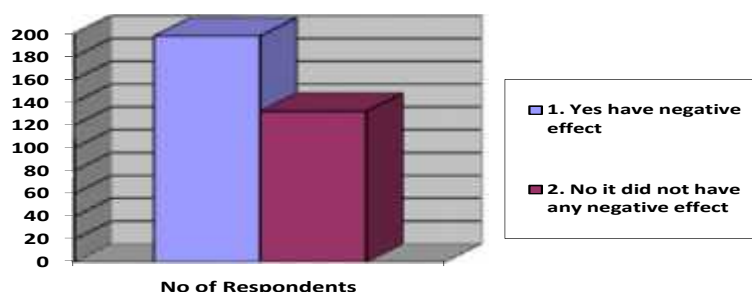


Table 4.3.10 - Negative effects on family of migrants working in Pune

Negative effects on family of migrants working in Pune	Total
1. Yes have negative effect	198 (60)
2. No it did not have any negative effect	132 (40)
Total	330 (100)

Source: Field work

Note: Figures in Bracket are percentage to total

4.3.11 - Kinds of negative effect on migrant's family while working in Pune

The table 4.3.11 present the various kind of negative effect on migrant's family while their working in Pune had leads to. The 28.7 per cent of respondents complain that during their stay their spouse or children became sick and had physiological effects on them. The 14.6 per cent of respondents accused that their work in Pune has worsening their relations with spouses. 23.2 per cent of migrants pointed out that the migration had leads to worsen the upbringing of their children. 27.2 per cent of respondent even pointed out that living away from their family and society had negative psychological effect on them. The school results of their children had worsens without a control over them as they are busy in earning only live hood. The most of respondents even pointed out that living standard to sustain in this city is such higher in spite of earning higher than in their place the saving is not in portion to their income. The psychological pressure to prove them is bringing the negative physiological effect that is worsening their relations with the family. As indicated by few respondents that they are looking for alternatives for source of earning to sustain as the wage rate have not changed over the period of time in manufacturing sector in response to rise in price level.

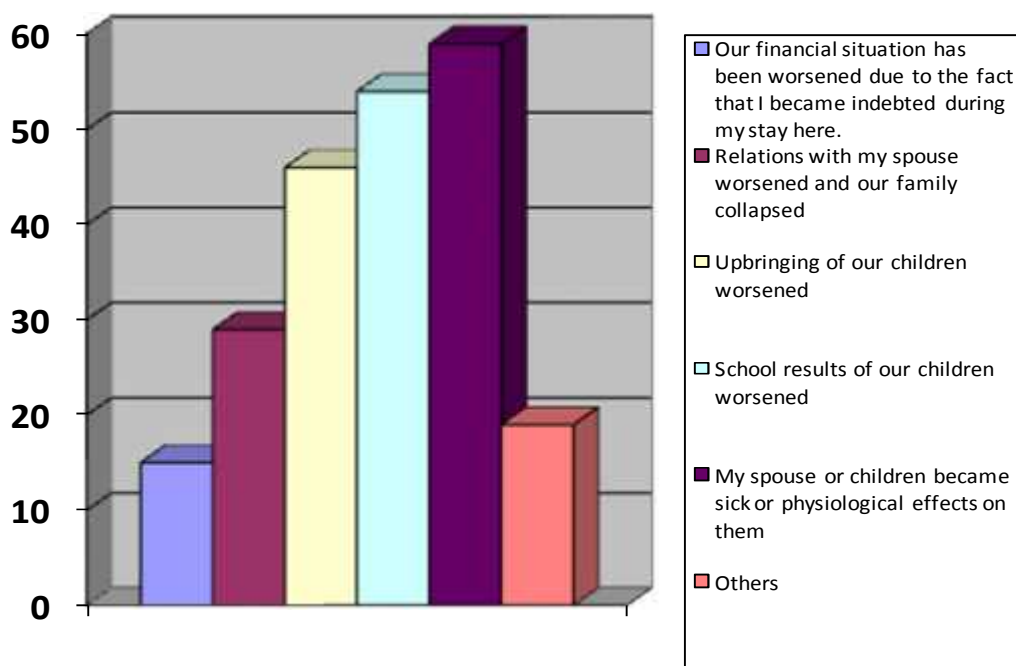


Figure 4.3.11 - Kinds of negative effect on migrants family while working in Pune

Table 4.3.11 – Kinds of negative effect on migrant’s family while working in Pune

Negative effect on migrants family while working in Pune	Total
1. Our financial situation has been worsened due to the fact that I became indebted during my stay here.	15 (7.5)
2. Relations with my spouse worsened and our family collapsed	29 (14.6)
3. Upbringing of our children worsened	46 (23.2)
4. School results of our children worsened	54 (27.2)
5. My spouse or children became sick or physiological effects on them	59 (28.7)
6. Others	19 (10.9)

Source: Field work

Note: Figures in Bracket are percentage to total

4.4 PLANS FOR FUTURE

The study even taken the respondents future plans as a determinant. The objective of seeking this response was to understand the overall satisfaction among the migrant with respect to experiences at place & work place, working condition and social environment. The study want to point out that does the labour mobility from their place of origin was due to various push or pull factors leads to permanent mobility of them to this place.

4.4.1 Respondents willingness to stay in Pune permanently

The table 4.4.1 indicated that 15.1 per cent of respondents indicated that they do not have any plans on migration in the coming period i.e. they have not yet decided whether they will be staying here or will be going back to the place of origin. 22 per cent of respondents had decided to go back as they were sure that they will earn enough money that will be sufficient for them to sustain in their village or place of origin. The few respondents said that they don't want to detach from their roots. These respondent want to keep touch with place of origin as it is helpful to maintain their social status as well as needed at the time of marriage of their children's.

64.8 percent of respondents have shown the willingness to stay permanently as the place provides regular employment for sustaining themselves as well as provides better living standard for the family. Some of the respondents even said that they prefer to settle here permanently as they find this pace better for their children future, the environment is good and the educational opportunities are more in Pune as compared to their native place.

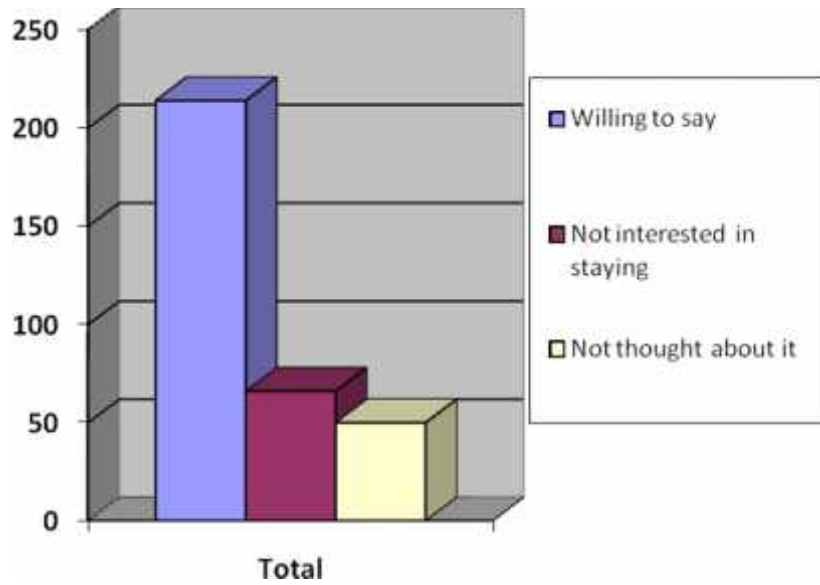


Figure – 4.4.1 Respondents willingness to stay in Pune permanently

Table – 4.4.1 Respondents willingness to stay in Pune permanently

Respondents willingness to stay in Pune permanently	Total
1. Willing to say	214 (64.8)
2. Not interested in staying	66 (22.0)
3. Not thought about it	50 (15.1)
Total	330 (100)

Source: Field work

Note: Figures in Bracket are percentage to total

4.4.2. Factors considered by respondents to move back to native place.

The study even tries to find out the determinants which can influence migrant to move back to native place. It is observed from table 4.4.2 that 69.9 per cent of the respondents informed that the opportunities at native place had improved hence the respondents opted to move back. 65.1 per cent of migrant responded that over the period of the time there is an improvement in their economic conditions. 60.6 percent and 54.5 per cent responded that they have been able to make provision for good housing and provision of public transport has improved hence wish to migrate to their native place.

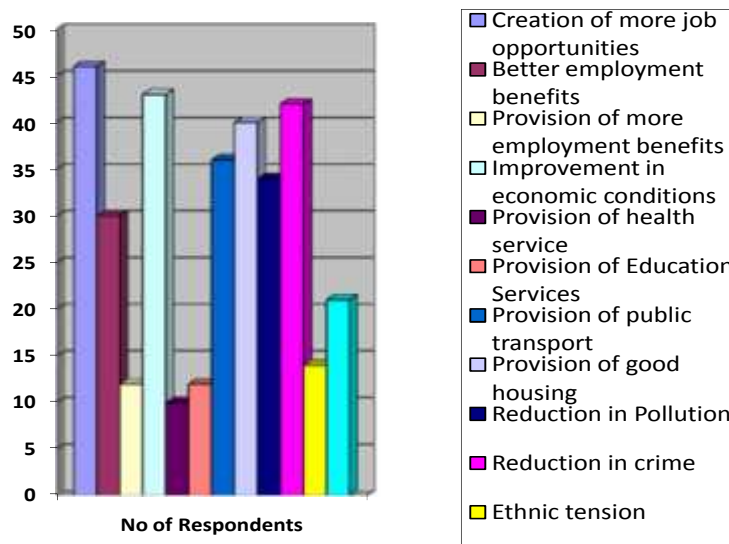


Figure – 4.4.2 Factors considered by respondents to move back to native place

Table – 4.4.2. Factors considered by respondents to move back to native place

Factors considered by respondents to move back to native place	Total
1. Creation of more job opportunities	46 (69.6)
2. Better employment benefits	30 (45.4)
3. Provision of more employment benefits	12 (18.1)
4. Improvement in economic conditions	43 (65.1)
5. Provision of health service	10 (15.1)
6. Provision of Education Services	12 (18.1)
7. Provision of public transport	36 (54.5)
8. Provision of good housing	40 (60.6)
9. Reduction in Pollution	34 (51.1)
10. Reduction in crime	42 (63.6)
11. Ethnic tension	14 (21.2)
12. Others	21 (31.8)
Total	66 (100)

Source: Field work

Note: Figures in Bracket are percentage to total

4.5 SELECTED DETERMINANTS AND GEOGRAPHICAL MOBILITY

This section presents the single determinants of mobility in the tabulation by migrant's place of origin i.e. rural or urban. Its help in understanding and drawing conclusion on role played by these selected single determinants in mobility in recent period.

4.5.1 Place of Origin and Geographical mobility

The present study examines the relationship between place of origin and mobility. For the purposes, the sampled migrant's place of origin is considered and divided into rural and urban. We have further classified the migrants into three sub-categories:

Migrants from outside Chinchwad but from within Pune district (i.e. Intra district mobility)

Migrants from outside Pune district but from within the Maharashtra state (i.e. Intra state mobility)

Migrants from out of Maharashtra but from other states (i.e. Interstate mobility)

The previous studies on mobility had found that geographical mobility is higher from the under developed to developed areas. The area selected for the present study (i.e. Chinchwad) is a developed area both in terms of industrialization and urbanization. There is a concentration of establishes industries and also continuing expansion of manufacturing industries. This caused inflow of migrants into Chinchwad from both developed and under- developed areas.

The Table 4.5.1 is about the distribution of migrants by their place of origin i.e. on the rural- urban. It indicates that the 74.54 per cent of migrants have rural origin (i.e. RO) whereas 25.46 per cent have urban origin (i.e. UO). The largest sources of the migrants' inflow have been found from the rural areas (i.e. RO) as the RO migrant comprise of three-fourth of total respondents.

The further composition of migrants from RO and UO is presented in inter and intra- district/ state movement (i.e. from within district, within the state, and from other state). Our survey reveals that 40 per cent of total respondents are intra district

migrants (i.e. migrants from within district). There were 34 per cent of total respondents were from intra-state (i.e. from within Maharashtra state excluding Pune). The remaining 26 per cent of respondents are inter-state migrants as they are originally from other state (i.e. from outside Maharashtra but within India). Thus we find that an intra-district migrant (i.e. 40 per cent) is the most dominant among the migrants. Similarly an intra-state migrant (i.e. 34 per cent) is second most dominant group of migrants. If taken together intra- district and intra-state migrants, it reveals that migrants comprises of 74 per cent (i.e. little less than three- fourth of total migrants). Hence, we may say that migration is dominated by the inter district and interstate geographical mobility.

Now let us look at the place of origins (i.e. rural and urban) of migrants'. Among the intra- district migrants 27.27 per cent migrants have the RO. In case of intra-state migration, there are 28 per cent with RO. In case of inter-state there are 18.78 per cent migrants from RO. Thus the highest concentration of RO migrants is found from intra- state i.e. 28.48 per cent. Among the intra- district migrants 12.72 per cent migrants have the UO. In case of intra-state migration, there are 5.45 per cent with UO. In case of inter-state there are 7.27 per cent migrants from UO. Thus the highest concentration of UO migrants is found from intra- district i.e. 12.72 per cent.

In comparing the RO and UO the conjecture can be made as follow

1. The migrants' from intra-district dominate the urban to urban geographical mobility.
2. The migrants' from intra-state dominate the rural to urban geographical mobility.
3. The migrants' from inter-state dominate the urban to urban geographical mobility.

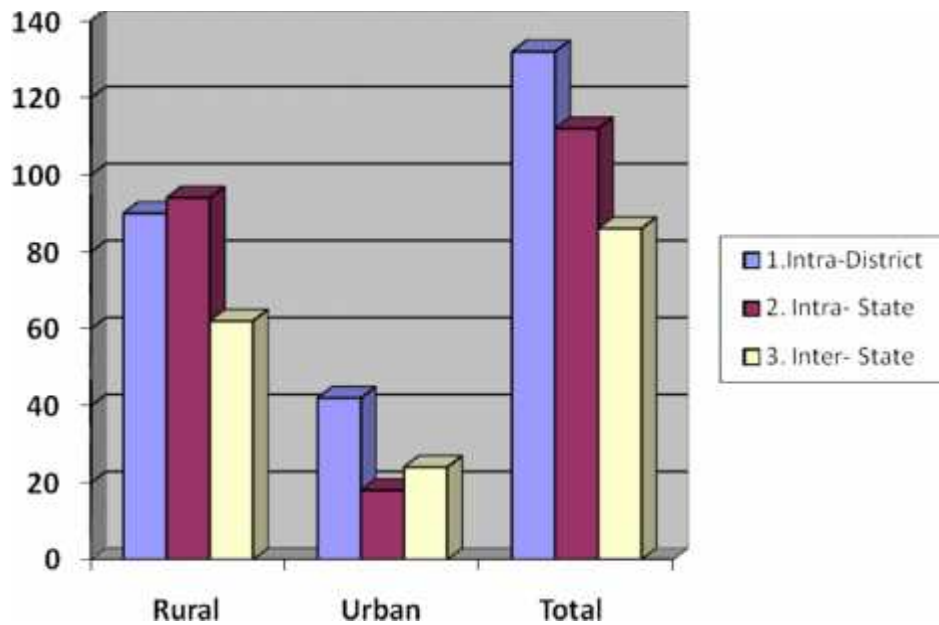


Figure 4.5.1 Composition of Migrants by Place of Origin

Table 4.5.1 Composition of Migrants by Place of Origin

Place of origin	Rural	Urban	Total
1. Intra-District	90 (27.27)	42 (12.72)	132 (40.00)
2. Intra- State	94 (28.48)	18 (5.45)	112 (34.00)
3. Inter- State	62 (18.78)	24 (7.27)	86 (26.00)
Total	246 (74.54)	84 (25.46)	330 (100)

Source: Field work

Note: Figures in Bracket are percentage to total

4.5.2 Age- Composition of Migrants by Geographical Mobility

The Table 4.5.2 further examines the migrants' age and its relationship with the geographical mobility. The total respondents comprise of 74.54 per cent of rural origin (i.e. RO) and 25.46 per cent of urban origin (i.e. UO). The RO migrant comprises of three –fourth of total respondents. It indicates that geographical mobility is still dominated by the RO migrants. The present study found a similar trend prevailing with respect to previous studies on migration about the higher rate of geographical mobility i.e. from rural to urban areas.

The migrants from RO in less than 20 years age group comprises of 0.60 per cent. It is 20 per cent and 43.03 per cent respectively in the 21-30 and 31-40 year age group. The 41-50 years age groups' accounts for 10.90 per cent. Thus, the highest concentration of RO migrant is found in 31-40 years age group i.e. 43.03 per cent. The migrants in 21-30 year age groups have the second highest concentration i.e. 20 per cent. In comparing the migrants from RO it is found that there is steady growth in the mobility upto 40 years and it drastic decline after 40-year age. The geographical mobility of migrants from RO highly concentrated in the 31-40 years age group.

Now let us look at the migrants from UO. The migrants from UO in 21-30 years age group comprise of 10.90 per cent. It is 12.12 per cent and 2.42 per cent respectively in the 31-40 and 41-50 years age group. Thus, the highest concentration of migrants from UO is found in the age-group 31-40 years i.e. 12.12 per cent. The 21-30 years age group has the second highest concentration i.e. 10.90 per cent. In comparing the migrants from UO it is found that there is steady growth in mobility between the age group 21-30 and 31- 40 years and it drastic decline after 40-year age. The geographical mobility of migrants from UO highly concentrated in the 31-40 years age group.

The literature reviews have uniformly corroborated the fact that migrants are generally concentrated at the ages 20- 30 years shows more spatial mobility. The migrants of 20-30 years age group constantly keep on seeking new opportunities ways of improving their situations. In the study it is found that the migrants in both i.e. RO and UO are highly concentrated in the 31-40 years age group i.e.55.15 per cent.

Comparing the migrants from RO and UO the conjecture can be made that the geographical mobility of migrants from RO decrease at a little higher age than that of UO migrants.

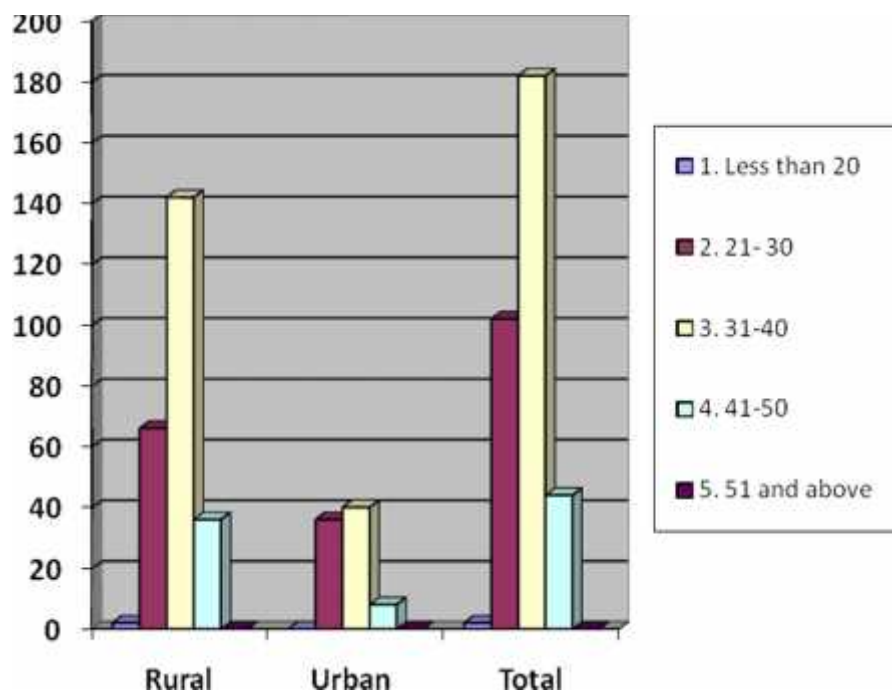


Figure 4.5.2 Age Composition of Migrants by Place of Origin

Table 4.5.2 Age Composition of Migrants by Place of Origin

Age Group (in years)	Rural	Urban	Total
1. Less than 20	2 (0.60)	--	2 (0.60)
2. 21- 30	66 (20)	36 (10.90)	102 (30.90)
3. 31-40	142 (43.03)	40 (12.12)	182 (55.15)
4. 41-50	36 (10.90)	8 (2.42)	44 (13.33)
5. 51 and above	--	--	--
Total	246 (74.54)	84 (25.46)	330 (100)

Source: Field work

Note: Figures in Bracket are percentage to total

4.5.3 Marital Status Composition of Migrants by Geographical Mobility

The Table 4.5.3 further looks into the migrant's marital status composition on their place of origin (i.e. rural and urban). It indicates that 69.69 per cent of migrants from RO are married where as 4.84 per cent of them are single. The married migrants from UO are 22.42 per cent and 3.03 per cent of them are single. It is observed from the table that rural to urban and urban to urban mobility is dominated by the married migrants. The 92.12 per cent of total migrants are married where as 7.8 per cent of them respectively is single. It indicates that the married migrants are more than the single.

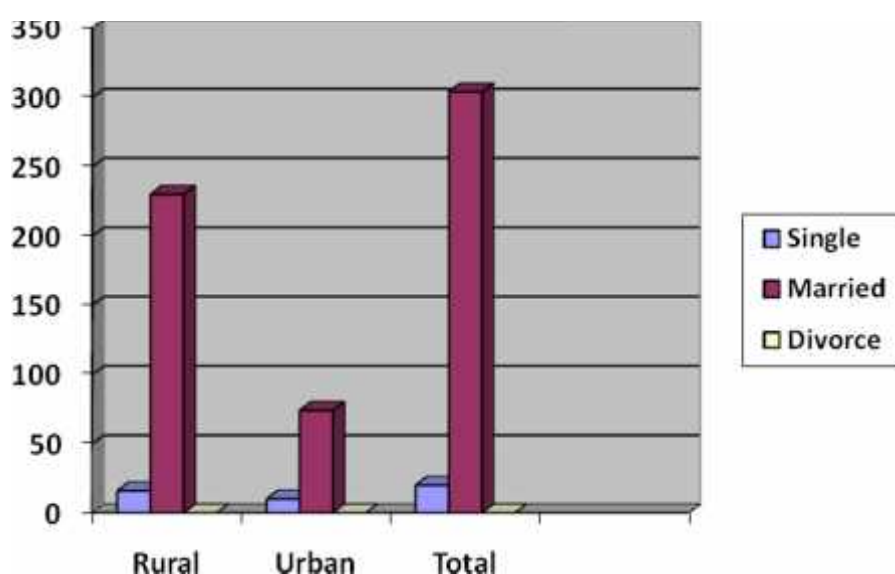


Figure 4.5.3 Marital Status Composition of Migrants by Place of Origin

Table 4.5.3 Marital Status Composition of Migrants by Place of Origin

Marital Status	Place of Origin		
	Rural	Urban	Total
1. Single	16 (4.84)	10 (3.03)	26 (7.88)
2. Married	230 (69.69)	74 (22.42)	304 (92.12)
3. Divorce	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
Total	246 (74.54)	84 (25.45)	330 (100)

Source: Field work

Note: Figures in Bracket are percentage to total

4.5.4 Education Status Composition of Migrants by Geographical Mobility

The Table 4.5.4 further looks into the migrant education status and its relationship with the geographical mobility. The migrants from RO attained the education upto 10th comprises of 3.03 per cent. It is 10.30 per cent and 29.69 per cent respectively in the education level upto higher secondary and ITI. The migrants' attained the university degree accounts for 31.51 per cent. Thus migrants from RO the maximum concentrated in education status is of those completed university degree i.e. 31.51 per cent. The ITI has the second highest concentration i.e. 10.30 per cent. The minimum concentrated is found in the migrants attaining the education level upto 10th i.e. 3.03 per cent.

Now let us look at the migrants from UO. In the migrants from UO, 0.60 per cent attained the education upto 10th. It is 4.24 per cent and 7.27 per cent respectively in the education level upto higher secondary and ITI. The migrants attained the university degree accounts for 13.33 per cent. Thus in education status of migrants from UO the maximum concentrated is found of those completed university degree i.e. 13.33 per cent. The ITI has the second highest concentration i.e. 7.27 per cent. The minimum concentrated is found in the migrants attaining the education level upto 10th i.e. 0.60 per cent.

Education level of the respondents found to be on the higher side. It is found that geographical mobility of migrants from rural to urban or urban to urban is highly concentrated in highly educated groups i.e. ITI and university. It jointly (i.e. of university and ITI) represent 81.8 per cent of the total respondents. It is found that migrants' completed education level upto higher secondary (i.e. total of upto 10th and higher secondary) is lowest in both, from rural to urban (i.e.13.33 per cent) and from urban to urban (i.e. 4.84 per cent) geographical mobility.

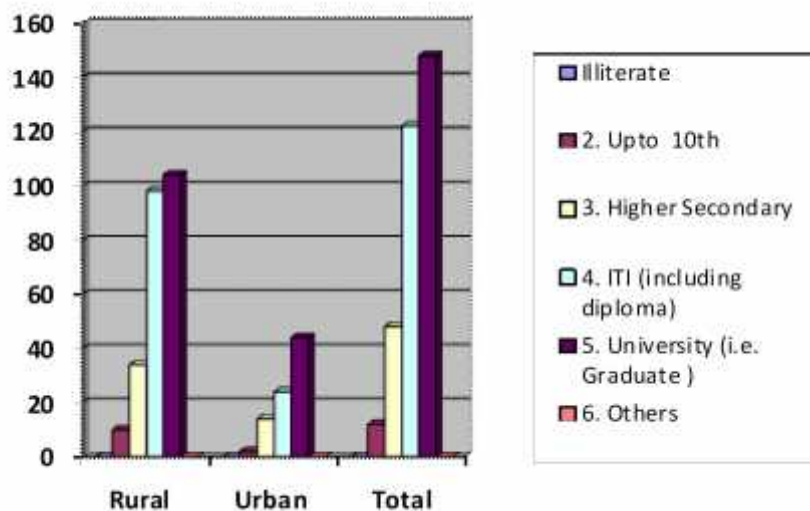


Figure 4.5.4 Educational Status Composition of Migrants by Place of Origin

Table 4.5.4 Educational Status Composition of Migrants by Place of Origin

Education Status	Place of Origin		
	Rural	Urban	Total
1. Illiterate	0	0	0
2. Upto 10 th	10 (3.03)	2 (0.60)	12 (3.63)
3. Higher Secondary	34 (10.30)	14 (4.24)	48 (14.54)
4. ITI (including diploma)	98 (29.69)	24 (7.27)	122 (36.96)
5. University (i.e. Graduate)	104 (31.51)	44 (13.33)	148 (44.84)
6. Others	0	0	0
Total	246 (74.54)	84 (25.45)	330 (100)

Source: Field work

Note: Figures in Bracket are percentage to total

4.5.5 Religion Composition of migrants by Geographical Mobility

Let us further look into the religion composition of migrants by their place of origin (i.e. rural and urban). In the rural origin (i.e. RO) migrants Hindu comprises of 61.81 per cent. It is 6.66 per cent and 3.63 per cent respectively in the Muslim and Christian migrants. It is followed by the other religion, which accounts for 2.42 per cent.

In the urban origin (i.e. UO) migrants Hindu comprises of 17.57 per cent. It is 3.63 per cent and 3.03 per cent respectively in the Muslim and Christian migrants. It is followed by the other religion, which accounts for 1.21 per cent. It reveals that Hindu workers are highly concentrated from both RO i.e. 61.81 per cent and from UO i.e. 17.57 per cent.

The conjecture is made that the Hindu and Muslim migrants dominated the rural to urban geographical mobility. The Christian migrants dominate the urban to urban mobility.

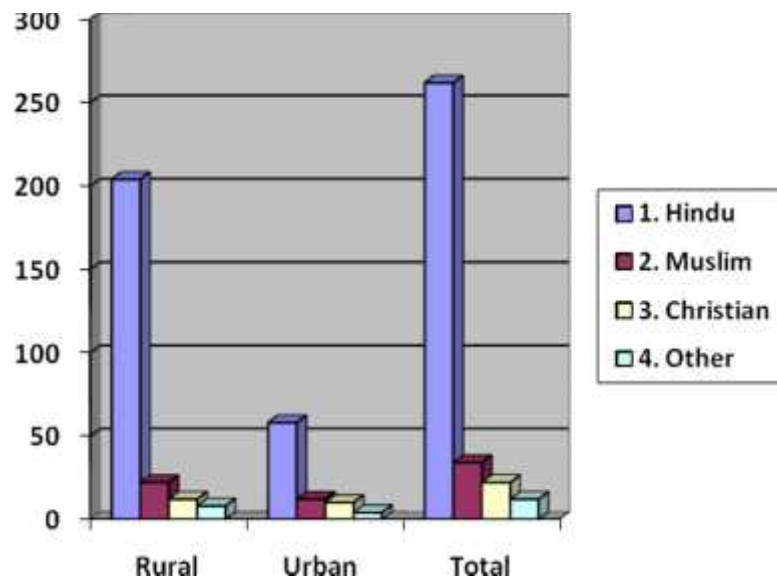


Figure 4.5.5 Distribution of Migrants Religion and by their Place of Origin

Table 4.5.5 Distribution of Migrants Religion and by their Place of Origin

Religion	Place of Origin		
	Rural	Urban	Total
1. Hindu	204 (61.81)	58 (17.57)	262 (79.40)
2. Muslim	22 (6.66)	12 (3.63)	34 (10.30)
3. Christian	12 (3.63)	10 (3.03)	22 (6.67)
4. Other	8 (2.42)	4 (1.21)	12 (3.63)
Total	246 (74.54)	84 (25.45)	330 (100)

Source: Field work

Note: Figures in Bracket are percentage to total

4.5.6 Caste Composition of migrants by Geographical Mobility

Now let us look at the caste composition of migrants from rural origin (i.e. RO). In the migrants from RO the open caste comprises of 29.77 per cent. It is 36.64 per cent and 11.45 per cent respectively in the OBC and SC/ST. In the migrants from RO, the maximum concentration is found in the OBC i.e. 36.64 per cent.

Let us look at the caste composition of migrants from urban origin (i.e. UO). In the migrants from UO the open caste comprises of 9.92 per cent. It is 7.63 per cent and 4.58 per cent respectively in the OBC and SC/ST. Thus in the migrants from UO the higher mobility is from open caste i.e. 9.92 per cent.

The conjecture can be made that the migrants from OBC dominate geographical mobility from rural to urban. The migrants from open caste and SC/ST dominate the urban to urban mobility.

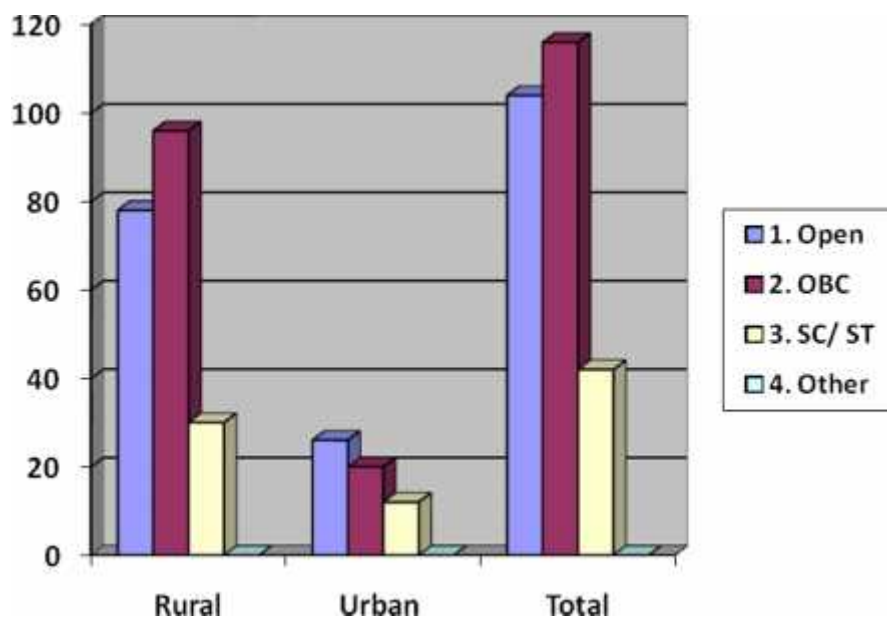


Figure 4.5.6 Composition of Migrants Caste by their Place of Origin

Table 4.5.6 Composition of Migrants Caste by their Place of Origin

Caste	Place Of Origin		
	Rural	Urban	Total
1. Open	78 (29.77)	26 (9.92)	104 (39.70)
2. OBC	96 (36.64)	20 (7.63)	116 (44.27)
3. SC/ ST	30 (11.45)	12 (4.58)	42 (16.03)
4. Other	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
Total	204 (77.86)	58 (22.13)	262 (100)

Source: Field work

Note: Figures in Bracket are percentage to total

4.5.7 Migrant Network Composition of Migrants by Geographical Mobility

Migrant network is considered as a main determinant of the labour mobility. This network means the access to job information. The present study examines the relationship between migrant networks and mobility. Migrant networks play an important role in labour migration in both developed and developing economy. This role is particularly prominent in situations where migration involves large informational. It helps in reducing the psychic costs of migrants. It evens important when labour moving to a completely different culture or environment.

The migrant networks play the role in reducing the cost of labour mobility. It can reduce information costs by providing specific job information to potential migrants. It reduces psychological costs by providing supportive relationship to migrants in destinations. It reduces the probability of unemployment by providing direct job search assistance. The important sources of information to potential migrant in the previous studies consist of friends and relatives, special trips, employer representatives, other methods, newspaper advertisements, private employment agencies, unions and state employment agencies. It is very much clear that some of these involve more cost compare to others. Even not all sources of information are available to all individuals.

The existing empirical studies on the determinants of labour migration using individual level data in India have largely ignored the issue of migrant networks. As characteristics it has been an important determinant to the labour mobility. In determining it effect on the migration the additional insights will be gained.

The following four categories of sources of information had been considered in the study i.e. relatives, friends, media, and job contractor. The current job held by the workers surely by their own efforts. The important thing was from where they had received the information and not from where their sources received it.

The Table 4.5.7 is on composition of migrant network by their place of origin. The total respondents comprise of 74.54 per cent of rural origin (i.e. RO) and 25.46 per cent of urban origin (i.e. UO). The migrants attained the information of job from relatives comprises of 24.24 per cent. It is 55.15 per cent and 13.93 per cent respectively from the friends and media. It is followed by job contractors, which

account for 6.66 per cent. It indicates those current jobs held by the migrants are through their friends and relatives i.e. almost 80 per cent. Thus, the friends and relatives play an important role in migrant network.

Now let us look at the migrant network from RO. The relatives comprise of 18.78 per cent in network from RO. It is 44.24 per cent and 7.27 per cent respectively in the friends and media. Job contractor follows it, which account for 4.24 per cent. In migrant networks the maximum concentration is found in friends i.e. 44.24 per cent. It is found least in the sources of information from job contractor i.e. 4.24 per cent.

In the UO migrants network the relatives comprise of 5.45 per cent. It is 10.90 per cent and 6.66 per cent respectively in the friends and media. Job contractor follows it, which account for 2.42 per cent. In the migrant networks, maximum concentration is found in friends' i.e. 10.90 per cent. The job contractors are at least in the migrants' network i.e. 2.42 per cent.

Friends network play important role in geographical mobility. The role of media is much higher in the urban to urban mobility than in rural to urban mobility.

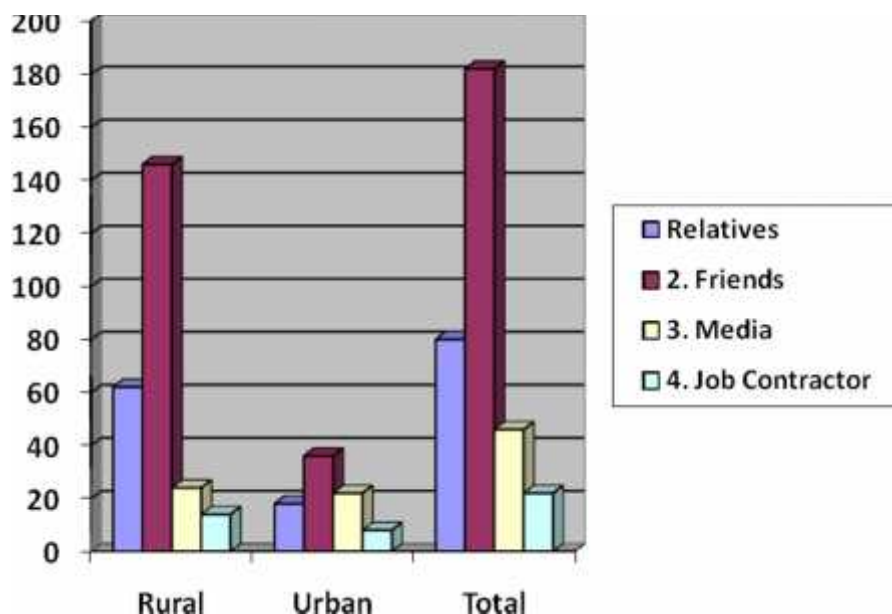


Figure 4.5.7 Composition of Migrants Network and by their Place of origin

Table 4.5.7 Composition of Migrants Network and by their Place of origin

Access to Job Information	Place Of Origin		
	Rural	Urban	Total
2. Relatives	62 (18.78)	18 (5.45)	80 (24.24)
2. Friends	146 (44.24)	36 (10.90)	182 (55.15)
3. Media	24 (7.27)	22 (6.66)	46 (13.93)
4. Job Contractor	14 (4.24)	8 (2.42)	22 (6.66)
Total	246 (74.54)	84 (25.46)	330 (100)

Source: Field work

Note: Figures in Bracket are percentage to total

4.5.8 Persons Influences Migrant Decision to Move by Geographical Mobility

The influence of person on migrants is considered as a determinant of mobility. It examines that who influences the migrant decision to move. The following four categories of persons had been consider in the study i.e. migrant friends, parents, spouse and others (i.e. relatives, children and himself). In the study the respondents were asked to specify only (i.e. one) main person influences their decision to move. The influence migrants are further presented on their place of origin (i.e. rural and urban) and sector. Before moving to the place the migrant is normally concert with someone. It may influences their decisions to move of not to move to the place.

The Table 4.5.8 is on distribution of person's influences and by migrant's place of origin. The formulated tabulation tries to answer that who influences the migrant decision to move. Friends' influences the decision to move comprises of 44.24 per cent. It is 24.24 per cent and 18.20 per cent respectively in the parents and spouse. It is followed by others (i.e. relatives' etc) which account for 13.33 per cent. The maximum concentration in found in the friends' i.e. 44.24 per cent as person influences the decision to move.

Now let us look at the migrants from rural origin (i.e. RO). Friends' influences the decision to move comprises of 33.93 per cent. It is 17.57 per cent and 12.72 per cent respectively in the parents and spouse. It is followed by others (i.e. relatives' etc) which account for 10.30 per cent. The maximum concentration in found in the friends' i.e. 33.93 per cent as person influences the decision to move.

Now let us look at the migrants from urban origin (i.e. UO). Friends' influences the decision to move comprises of 10.30 per cent. It is 6.66 per cent and 5.45 per cent respectively in the parents and spouse. It is followed by others (i.e. relatives' etc) which account for 3.03 per cent. The maximum concentration in found in the friends' i.e. 10.30 per cent as person influences the decision to move.

The conjecture can be made that still friends play an important role in the migrant's decision to move.

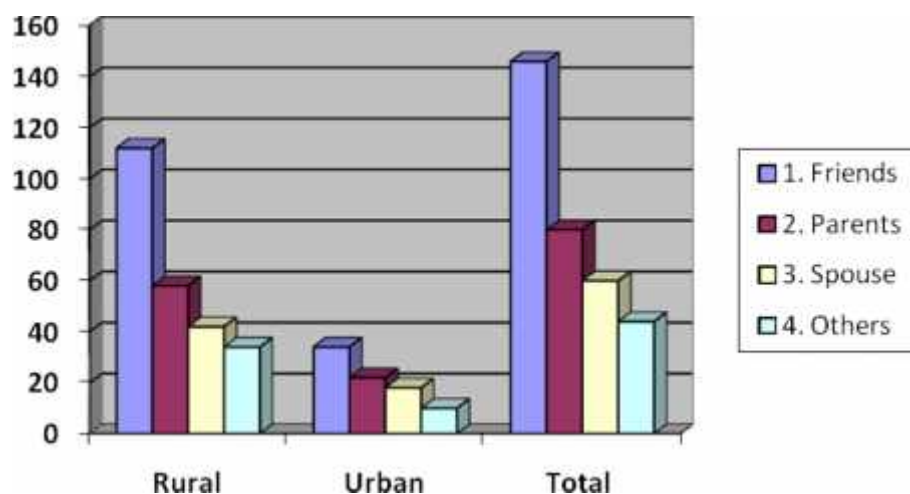


Figure 4.5.8 Composition of Persons Influences Migrant Decision to Move and by Migrant Place of Origin

Table 4.5.8 Composition of Persons Influences Migrant Decision to Move and by Migrant Place of Origin

Persons	Place of Origin		
	Rural	Urban	Total
1. Self	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
2. Friends	112 (33.93)	34 (10.30)	146 (44.24)
3. Parents	58 (17.57)	22 (6.66)	80 (24.24)
4. Spouse	42 (12.72)	18 (5.45)	60 (18.20)
5. Others	34 (10.30)	10 (3.03)	44 (13.33)
Total	246 (74.54)	84 (25.46)	330 (100)

Source: Field work

Note: Figures in Bracket are percentage to total

4.5.9 Reason for leaving the previous job by Geographical Mobility

In the present study the reason for leaving the previous job is considered and relates it with the geographical mobility. It examines that what make the migrants leave their previous job. The study had limited its scope to the previous job and not to kind of job. It was not asked what was respondent's previous job, where it was in the same place or in the manufacturing unit or not. The Table 4.5.10 is on main reasons for leaving previous job and by migrants' place of origin i.e. rural and urban. The formulated tabulation tries to answer the question why migrants opt for job mobility? The inadequate payment as a reason for job mobility comprises of 56.16 per cent. It is 25.34 per cent and 7.53 per cent respectively in the casual employment and inadequate working condition. The other reasons comprise of 10.95 per cent. The maximum concentration is found in the inadequate payment i.e. 56.16 per cent as a main reason for the job mobility.

Now let us look at the migrants from rural origin (i.e. RO). The inadequate payment as a reason for job mobility the RO migrants' comprises of 43.15 per cent. It is 17.80 per cent and 4.79 per cent respectively in the casual employment and inadequate working condition. The other reasons comprise of 8.90 per cent. The maximum concentration is found of RO migrants in the inadequate payment i.e. 43.15 per cent as a main reason for the job mobility.

Now let us look at the migrants from urban origin (i.e. UO). The inadequate payment as a reason for job mobility the UO migrants' comprises of 13.01 per cent. It is 8.90 per cent and 2.73 per cent respectively in the casual employment and inadequate working condition. The other reasons comprise of 2.05 per cent. The maximum concentration is found of UO migrants in the inadequate payment i.e. 13.01 per cent as a main reason for the job mobility.

The conjecture can be made that among the main reasons for job mobility is still dominated by the monetary benefits.

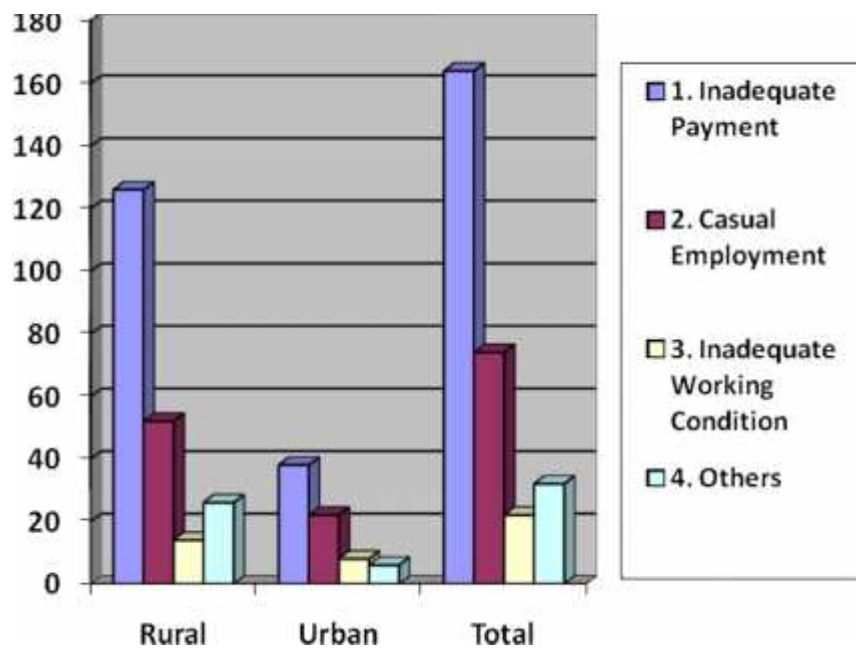


Figure 4.5.9 Reason for leaving the previous job by migrants' place of origin

Table 4.5.9 Reason for leaving the previous job by migrants' place of origin

Reasons for Leaving Previous Jobs	Place of Origin		
	Rural	Urban	Total
1. Inadequate Payment	126 (43.15)	38 (13.01)	164 (56.16)
2. Casual Employment	52 (17.80)	22 (8.90)	74 (25.34)
3. Inadequate Working Condition	14 (4.79)	8 (2.73)	22 (7.53)
4. Others	26 (8.90)	6 (2.05)	32 (10.95)
Total	218 (74.65)	74 (25.34)	292 (100)

Source: Field work

Note: Figures in Bracket are percentage to total

4.5.10 Determinants that make the job interesting for the migrants by Place of Origin

The factor/ determinants that make the job interesting for the migrants had been considered. The present study examines its relationship with the mobility. The following four categories of determinants had been considered. These are payment (i.e. monetary benefit), social security and working condition (i.e. non-monetary benefits) and the others (i.e. job stability, promotions, work itself, and so on). In other words the other factors include those factors that make the job interesting for the migrant. Before joining the new job labour gives consideration to the various factors. However, it is indeed difficult to assess and quantify the extent of determinant.

In most of the previous studies on migration, the monetary factors are considered as the main determinant of labour mobility. They are the important factors and surely influence the decision to move. But when stronger factors overshadow the other factors (non-monetary) that are equally important. To correlate the working condition and social security as a determinant to the labour mobility the question was framed. It was in such a way that at least the respondents give the consideration at the time of response to it.

The Table 4.5.10 is on distribution of factors that make the job interesting for migrants and by place of origin i.e. rural and urban. The migrants given a consideration to payment as a factor (i.e. monetary benefit from the job) comprise of 84.24 per cent. It is 72.12 per cent and 50.90 per cent respectively in the working condition and social security (i.e. non-monetary benefits). The other factor considered by migrants comprises of 71.51 per cent. The maximum concentration of migrant is found in the payment i.e. 84.24 per cent and lowest in the social security i.e. 50.90 per cent.

Thus, the conjecture can be made that monetary benefits are still the important determinant in the job mobility. In the non-monetary benefits the working condition is considered more by the migrants than the social security at the job.

Now let us look at the migrants from rural origin (i.e. RO). Payment as a determinant is considered by 84.55 per cent of RO migrants. It is 71.54 per cent and 46.34 per cent respectively in the working condition and social security (i.e. non-

monetary benefits). The other factor considered by migrants comprises of 75.60 per cent. The maximum concentration of RO migrant is found in the payment i.e. 84.55 per cent and lowest in the social security i.e. 46.34 per cent.

Now let us look at the migrants from urban origin (i.e. UO). Payment as a determinant is considered by 83.33 per cent of UO migrants. It is 73.80 per cent and 64.28 per cent respectively in the working condition and social security (i.e. non-monetary benefits). The other factor considered by migrants comprises of 59.52 per cent. The maximum concentration of UO migrant is found in the payment i.e. 83.33 per cent and lowest in the others factors i.e. 59.52 per cent.

Thus, the conjecture can be made that monetary benefits are still the important determinant in the geographical mobility i.e. Rural to urban and urban to urban. In the non-monetary benefits the working condition is considered more by the migrants than the social security at the job in both the geographical mobility i.e. rural to urban and urban to urban mobility. But the social security is considered more by the UO migrants (i.e. urban to urban mobility) then those from RO (i.e. in rural to urban mobility).

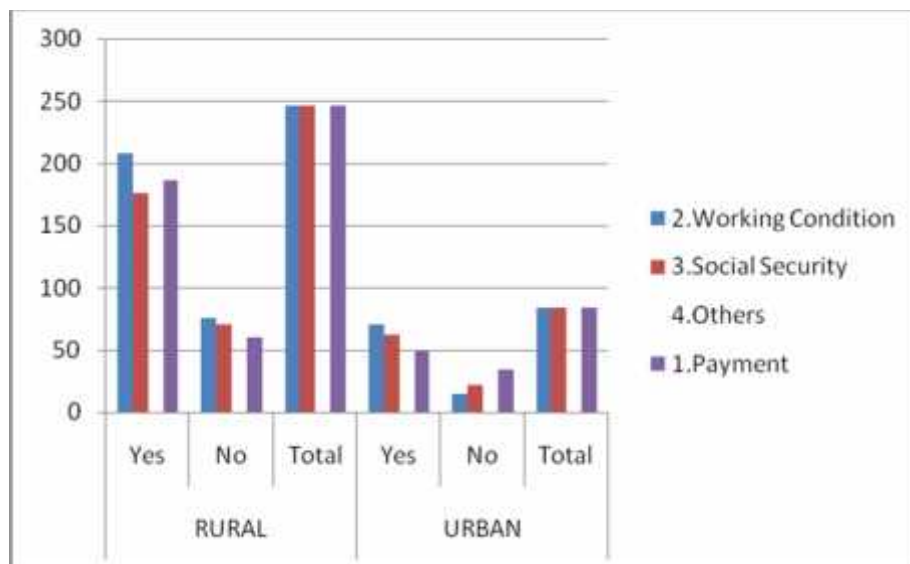


Figure 4.5.10 Determinants that make the job interesting for the migrants by Place of Origin

Table 4.5.10 Determinants that make the job interesting for the migrants by Place of Origin

Factors		1.Payment		2.Working Condition		3.Social Security		4.Others	
Rural	Yes	208	(84.55)	176	(71.54)	114	(46.34)	186	(75.6)
	No	76	(15.45)	70	(28.46)	132	(53.66)	60	(24.4)
	Total	246	(100)	246	(100)	246	(100)	246	(100)
Urban	Yes	70	(83.33)	62	(73.8)	54	(64.28)	50	(59.52)
	No	14	(16.67)	22	(26.2)	30	(35.72)	34	(40.48)
	Total	84	(100)	84	(100)	84	(100)	84	(100)
Grand Total	Yes	278	(84.24)	238	(72.12)	168	(50.9)	236	(71.51)
	No	52	(15.76)	92	(27.88)	162	(49.1)	94	(28.49)
	Total	330	(100)	330	(100)	330	(100)	330	(100)

Source: Field work.

Note: Figures in Bracket are percentage to total.

4.6 SINGLE DETERMINANTS AND JOB MOBILITY

This section presents the single determinants of migration in the tabulation by job mobility. Its help in understanding and drawing conclusion on role played by these selected single determinants in job mobility in recent period.

4.6.1 Place of Origin Composition of Migrants by Job mobility

The Table 4.6.1 is on the place of origin composition of migrants by job mobility. It examines the relationship between the place of origin with the job mobility. Let us now look at the migrants' job mobility by their place of origin. Our survey reveals that the existing first job of migrants from intra-district comprises of 6.06 per cent. It is 4.24 per cent and 1.21 per cent respectively in the migrants' from intra-state and inter- state. Thus we find that migrants' from intra-district (i.e. 6.06 per cent) is the most dominants among the migrants' existing first job. The single job mobility of migrants from intra-district comprises of 22.42 per cent. It is 20 per cent and 11.51 per cent respectively in the migrants' from intra-state and inter- state. Thus

we find that migrants' from intra-district (i.e. 22.42 per cent) is the most dominants among the migrants' single job mobility. The multiple job mobility of migrants from intra-district comprises of 11.51 per cent. It is 9.69 per cent and 13.33 per cent respectively in the migrants' from intra-state and inter- state. Thus it found that the multiple job mobility is most dominants among the migrants' from inter- state i.e. 13.33 per cent.

Let us now look at the job mobility of migrants in each place of origin. In the existing first job of migrants from intra-district comprises of 6.06 per cent. It is 22.42 per cent and 11.51 per cent respectively in the single and multiple job mobility. Thus, the maximum concentration is found in the single job mobility among the migrants from intra-district i.e. 17.57 per cent. In the existing first job of migrants from intra-state comprises of 4.24 per cent. It is 20 per cent and 9.69 per cent respectively in the single and multiple job mobility. Thus, the maximum concentration is found in the single job mobility among the migrants from intra-state i.e. 17.57 per cent. In the existing first job of migrants from inter-state comprises of 1.21 per cent. It is 11.51 per cent and 13.33 per cent respectively in the single and multiple job mobility. Thus, the maximum concentration is found in the multiple job mobility among the migrants from inter-state i.e. 17.57 per cent.

The conjecture can be made that the available job at the place is first searched and after it only the migrants plan to migrate as it found in the study that migrants from intra-district dominate the existing first job. The inter-state migrants dominate the multiple job mobility.

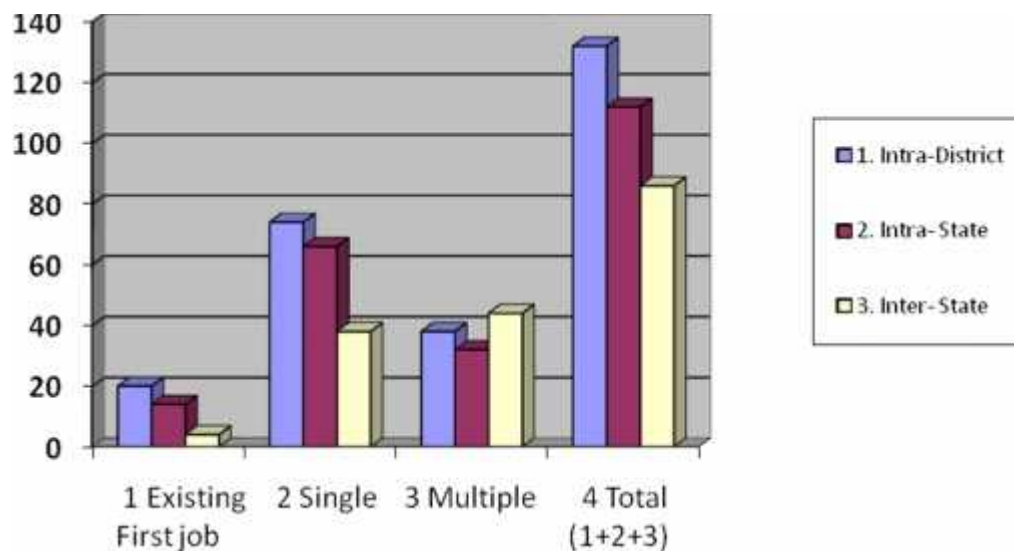


Figure 4.6.1 Place of Origin Composition of Migrants by Job mobility

Table 4.6.1 Place of Origin Composition of Migrants by Job mobility

Place of origin	Job Mobility			
	1 Existing First job	2 Single	3 Multiple	4 Total (1+2+3)
1. Intra-District	20 (6.06)	74 (22.42)	38 (11.51)	132 (40.00)
2. Intra- State	14 (4.24)	66 (20.00)	32 (9.69)	112 (34.00)
3. Inter- State	4 (1.21)	38 (11.51)	44 (13.33)	86 (26.00)
Total	38 (11.51)	178 (53.93)	114 (34.54)	330 (100)

Source: Field work

Note: Figures in Bracket are percentage to total

Here 1 = Existing first job, 2 = Single job mobility, 3 = Multiple job mobility

4.6.2 AGE- COMPOSITION OF MIGRANTS BY JOB MOBILITY

The data in Table 4.6.2 is on the age- composition of migrants by job mobility. Let us now look at the job mobility of migrants in different age group. The existing first job of migrants in age group less than 20 years comprises of 0.60 per cent. It is 6.66 per cent and 4.24 per cent respectively in the 21-30 and 31-40 years age group. It is found **nil** in the 41-50 and 51& above years' age groups. Thus, the maximum concentration is found in the 21-30 years age group i.e.6.66 per cent. The single jobs mobility of migrants in age group less than 20 years comprises of **nil**. It is 17.57 per cent and 31.51 per cent respectively in the 21-30 and 31-40 years age group. The 41-50 years age groups' accounts for 4.84 per cent. Thus, the maximum concentration is found in the 31-40 years age group i.e. 31.51 per cent. The multiple job mobility of migrants in age groups less than 20 years comprises of **nil**. It is 6.66 per cent and 19.39 per cent respectively in the 21-30 and 31-40 years age group. The 41-50 years age groups' accounts for 8.48 per cent. Thus, the maximum concentration is found in the 31-40 years age group i.e. 19.39 per cent.

Let us now look at the job mobility of migrants in each age group. The existing first job of migrants in age group less than 20 years comprises of 0.60 per cent. It is found **nil** in single and multiple job mobility. In the existing first job of migrants in age group 21-30 years comprises of 6.66 per cent. It is 17.57 per cent and 6.66 per cent respectively in the single and multiple job mobility. Thus, the maximum concentration is found in the single job mobility i.e. 17.57 per cent. In the existing first job of migrants in age group 31-40 years comprises of 4.24 per cent. It is 31.51 per cent and 19.39 per cent respectively in the single and multiple job mobility. Thus, the maximum concentration is found in the single job mobility i.e. 31.51 per cent. In the existing first job of RO migrants in age group 41-50 years comprises of **nil**. It is 4.84 per cent and 8.48 per cent respectively in the single and multiple job mobility. Thus, the maximum concentration is found in the multiple job mobility i.e. 8.48 per cent.

The conjecture can be made that mid age group opt for job mobility.

Figure 4.6.2 Age- group Composition of Migrants by Job Mobility

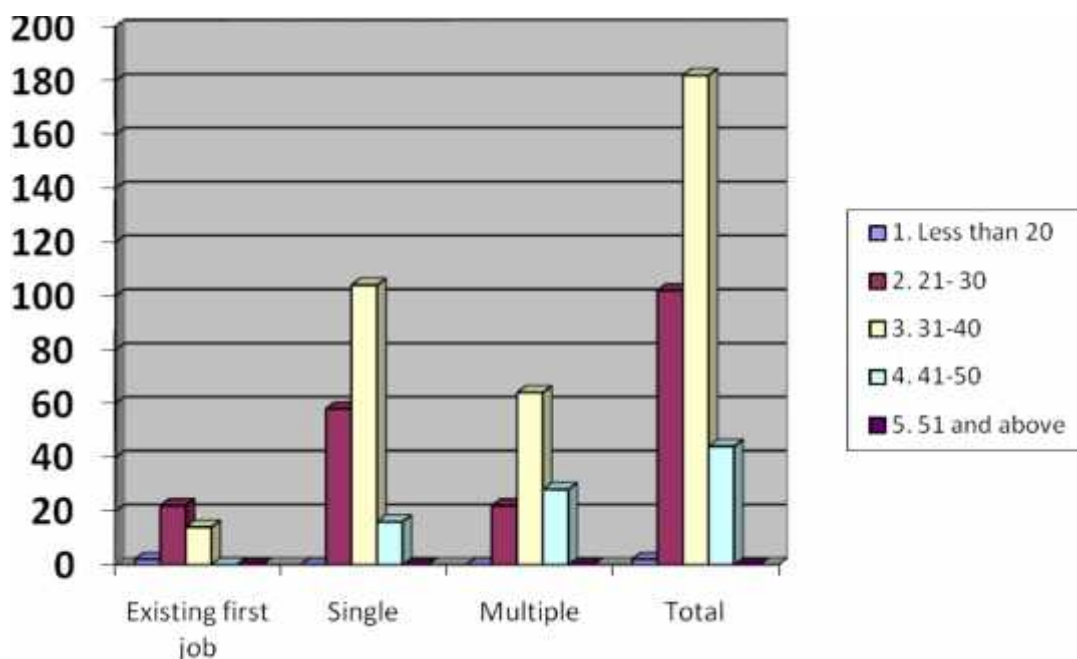


Table 4.6.2 Age- group Composition of Migrants by Job Mobility

Age Group	Job Mobility			
	Existing first job	Single	Multiple	Total
1. Less than 20	2 (0.60)	--	--	2 (0.60)
2. 21- 30	22 (6.66)	58 (17.57)	22 (6.66)	102 (30.90)
3. 31-40	14 (4.24)	104 (31.51)	64 (19.39)	182 (55.15)
4. 41-50	--	16 (4.84)	28 (8.48)	44 (13.33)
5. 51 and above	--	--	--	--
Total	38 (11.51)	178 (53.93)	114 (34.54)	330 (100)

Source: Field work

Note: Figures in Bracket are percentage to total

4.6.3 MARITAL STATUS COMPOSITION OF MIGRANTS BY JOB MOBILITY

The Table 4.6.3 is on the marital status composition of migrants by job mobility. Let us now look at the job mobility of migrants in each marital status. The existing first job in single marital status of migrants comprises of 1.81 per cent. It is 3.03 per cent and 3.03 per cent respectively in the single and multiple job mobility. Thus, the maximum concentration is found in both multiple and single job mobility i.e. 3.03 per cent. The existing first job in married marital status of migrants comprises of 9.69 per cent. It is 50.90 per cent and 31.51 per cent respectively in the single and multiple job mobility. Thus, the maximum concentration is found in the single job mobility i.e. 50.90 per cent.

The conjecture can be made that after marriage the possibility of job mobility decline. It may be due to that the person gets married after getting settled in job.

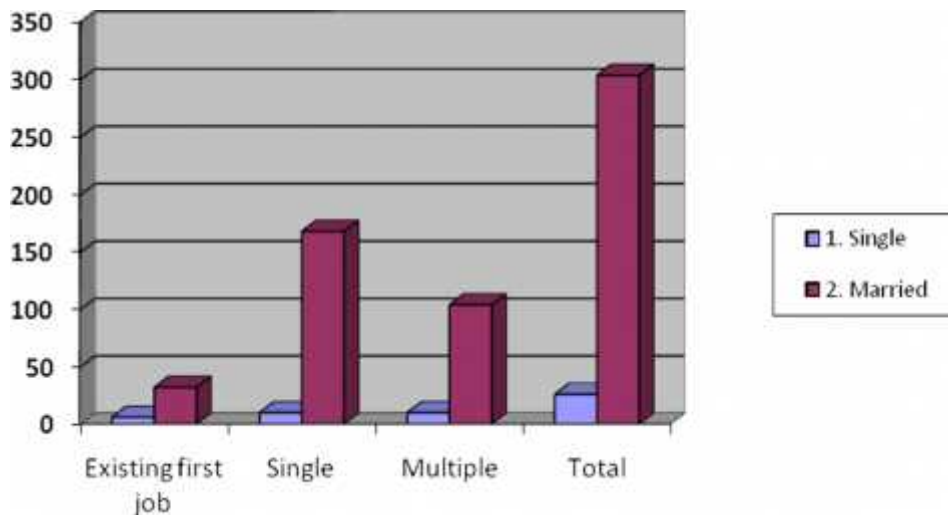


Figure 4.6.3 Marital Status Composition of Migrants by Job mobility

Table 4.6.3 Marital Status Composition of Migrants by Job mobility

Marital Status	Job Mobility			Total
	Existing first job	Single	Multiple	
1. Single	6 (1.81)	10 (3.03)	10 (3.03)	26 (7.88)
2. Married	32 (9.69)	168 (50.90)	104 (31.51)	304 (92.12)
Total	38 (11.51)	178 (53.93)	114 (34.54)	330 (100)

Source: Field work

Note: Figures in Bracket are percentage to total

4.6.4 EDUCATION STATUS COMPOSITION OF MIGRANTS' BY JOB MOBILITY

The Table 4.6.4 is on the education status composition of migrants' by job mobility. In the existing first job the migrants attained the education status upto 10th comprises of **nil**. It is 1.21 per cent and 6.06 per cent respectively in the higher secondary and ITI. The migrants attained university degree accounts for 4.24 per cent. Thus, the maximum concentration is found in migrants attained the ITI education i.e. 6.06 per cent. The migrants with single job mobility attained the education level upto 10th comprises of 1.21 per cent. It is 4.24 per cent and 24.84 per cent respectively in the higher secondary and ITI. The migrant's attained education till university comprises of 23.64 per cent. Thus, the maximum concentration is found in migrants attained the ITI education i.e. 24.84 per cent. The migrants with multiple job mobility attained the education level up to 10th comprises of 2.42 per cent. It is 9.09 per cent and 6.06 per cent respectively in the higher secondary and ITI. It is 16.96 per cent in the migrants' attained education till university. Thus, the maximum concentration is found in migrants attained the university degree i.e.16.96 per cent.

Now let us look at the job mobility of migrants in each education status. The migrants attained the education up to 10th comprises of **nil** in the existing first job. It is 1.21 per cent and 2.42 per cent respectively in the single and multiple job mobility. Thus, the maximum concentration is found in multiple job mobility i.e. 2.42 per cent

in the migrants attained the education status upto 10th. The migrants attained the education status upto higher secondary comprises of 1.21 per cent in the existing first job. It is 4.24 per cent and 9.09 per cent respectively in the single and multiple job mobility. Thus, the maximum concentration is found in the multiple job mobility i.e.9.09 per cent. The migrants attained the ITI education comprises of 6.06 per cent in the existing first job. It is 24.84 per cent and 6.06 per cent respectively in the single and multiple job mobility. Thus, maximum concentration of migrants with ITI education is found in single job mobility i.e. 24.84 per cent. The migrants attained the university degree comprises of 4.24 per cent in the existing first job. It is 23.64 per cent and 16.96 per cent respectively in the single and multiple job mobility. Thus, the maximum concentration is found in the single job mobility i.e. 19.39 per cent.

The conjecture can be made that the migrants with lower education qualification i.e. Upto 10th and 12th have the higher job mobility compare to those with ITI and University degree. It may be due to nature of employment or in hope of better job and income opportunity make them change of job frequently.

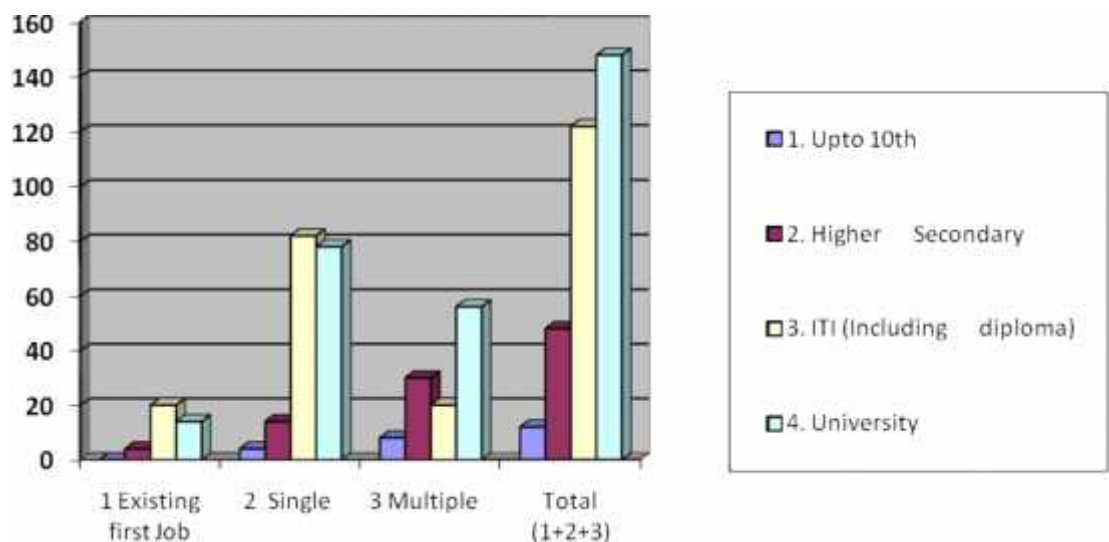


Figure 4.6.4 Education status Composition of Migrants by Job Mobility

Table 4.6.4 Education status Composition of Migrants by Job Mobility

Education Status	Job Mobility			
	1 Existing first Job	2 Single	3 Multiple	4 Total (1+2+3)
1. Upto 10 th	--	4 (1.21)	8 (2.42)	12 (3.63)
2. Higher Secondary	4 (1.21)	14 (4.24)	30 (9.09)	48 (14.54)
3. ITI (Including diploma)	20 (6.06)	82 (24.84)	20 (6.06)	122 (36.96)
4. University	14 (4.24)	78 (23.64)	56 (16.96)	148 (44.84)
Total	38 (11.51)	178 (53.93)	114 (34.54)	330 (100)

Source: Field work

Note: Figures in Bracket are percentage to total

4.6.5 Religion Composition of Migrants by Job Mobility

The Table 4.6.5 examines the migrant religion and its relationship with the job mobility. In the existing first job the Hindu migrants comprises of 7.87 per cent. It is 1.81 per cent and 1.21 per cent respectively in the Muslim and Christian. It is followed by the other religions, which accounts for 0.60 per cent. Thus, in existing first job the maximum concentration is found of Hindu migrants i.e. 7.87 per cent. The Hindu migrants with single job mobility comprise of 45.45 per cent. It is 4.24 per cent and 2.42 per cent respectively in the Muslim and Christian. It is followed by the other religions, which accounts for 1.81 per cent. Thus, in single job mobility the maximum concentration is found of Hindu migrants i.e. 45.45 per cent. The Hindu migrants with multiple job mobility comprise of 26.06 per cent. It is 4.24 per cent and 3.03 per cent respectively in the Muslim and Christian. It is followed by the other religions, which accounts for 1.21 per cent. Thus, in multiple job mobility the maximum concentration is found of Hindu migrants i.e. 26.06 per cent.

Now let us look at the job mobility of migrants in each religion. The Hindu migrants comprise of 7.87 per cent in the existing first job. It is 45.45 per cent and 26.06 per cent respectively in the single and multiple job mobility. Thus, the maximum concentration is found in the single job mobility i.e. 45.45 per cent of the Hindu migrants. The Muslim migrants comprise of 1.81 per cent in the existing first

job. It is 4.24 per cent respectively in each i.e. in single and multiple job mobility. Thus, the maximum concentration of Muslim migrants is found in both the job mobility i.e. single and multiple. The Christian migrants comprise of 1.21 per cent in the existing first job. It is 2.42 per cent and 3.03 per cent respectively in the single and multiple job mobility. Thus, the maximum concentration is found in the multiple job mobility i.e. 3.03 per cent of Christian migrants. The other religion migrants comprise of 0.60 per cent in the existing first job. It is 1.81 per cent and 1.21 per cent respectively in the single and multiple job mobility. Thus, the maximum concentration is found in the single job mobility i.e. 1.81 per cent of the other religions migrants.

The conjecture can be made that Muslim and Christian migrants dominate the multiple job mobility.

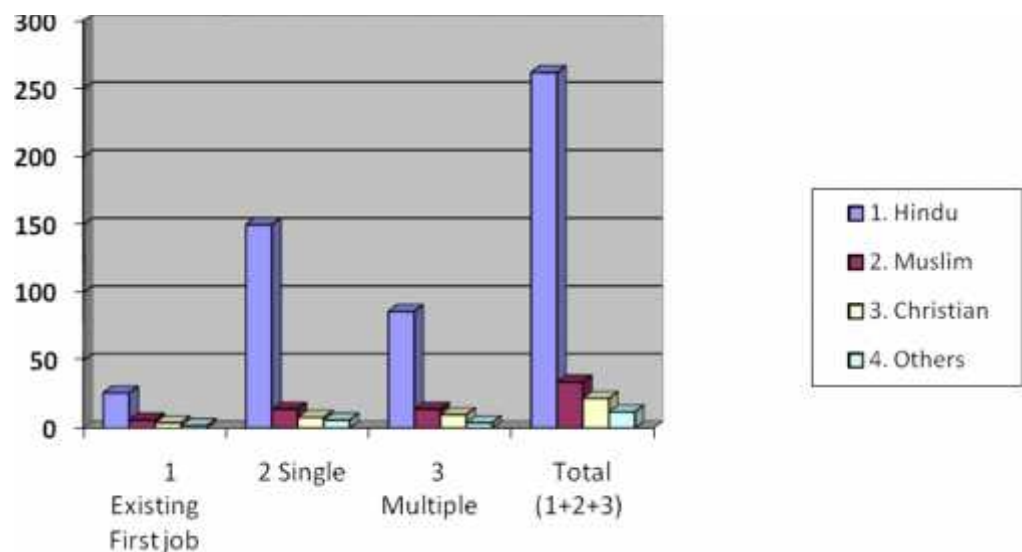


Figure 4.6.5 Religion Composition of Migrants by Job Mobility

Table 4.6.5 Religion Composition of Migrants by Job Mobility

Religion	Job Mobility			4 Total (1+2+3)
	1 Existing First job	2 Single	3 Multiple	
1. Hindu	26 (7.87)	150 (45.45)	86 (26.06)	262 (79.40)
2. Muslim	6 (1.81)	14 (4.24)	14 (4.24)	34 (10.30)
3. Christian	4 (1.21)	8 (2.42)	10 (3.03)	22 (6.67)
4. Others	2 (0.60)	6 (1.81)	4 (1.21)	12 (3.63)
Total	38 (11.51)	178 (53.93)	114 (34.54)	330 (100)

Source: Field work

Note: Figures in Bracket are percentage to total

4.6.6 Caste Composition of Migrants by Job Mobility

The Table 4.6.6 is on the caste composition of Hindu migrants by job mobility. It examines the relationship between the caste and the job mobility of migrants'. Let us now look at the Hindu migrants' job mobility by their caste. Our survey reveals that the existing first job of Hindu migrants' from open caste comprises of 3.81 per cent. It is 4.58 per cent and 1.52 per cent respectively in the migrants' from OBC and SC/ST. Thus it found that migrants' from OBC (i.e. 4.58 per cent) is the most dominants among the migrants' existing first job. The single job mobility of Hindu migrants' from open caste comprises of 24.42 per cent. It is 27.48 per cent and 5.34 per cent respectively in the migrants' from OBC and SC/ST. Thus it found that migrants' from OBC (i.e. 27.48 per cent) is the most dominants among the migrants' single job mobility.

Let us now look at the job mobility in each caste of Hindu migrants. The migrant from open caste comprises of 3.81 per cent in the existing first job. It is 24.42 per cent and 11.45 per cent respectively in the single and multiple job mobility. Thus the maximum concentration of open caste migrants is found in the single job mobility i.e. 24.42 per cent. The migrant from OBC comprises of 4.58 per cent in the existing

first job. It is 27.48 per cent and 12.21 per cent respectively in the single and multiple job mobility. Thus the maximum concentration of OBC migrants is found in the single job mobility i.e. 27.48 per cent. The migrant from SC/ST comprises of 1.52 per cent in the existing first job. It is 5.34 per cent and 9.16 per cent respectively in the single and multiple job mobility. Thus the maximum concentration of SC/ST migrants is found in the multiple job mobility i.e. 9.16 per cent.

The conjecture can be made that the single job mobility is dominated among the migrants from open caste. Similarly the single job mobility is dominated among the migrants from OBC. The multiple job mobility is dominated among the migrants from SC/ST.

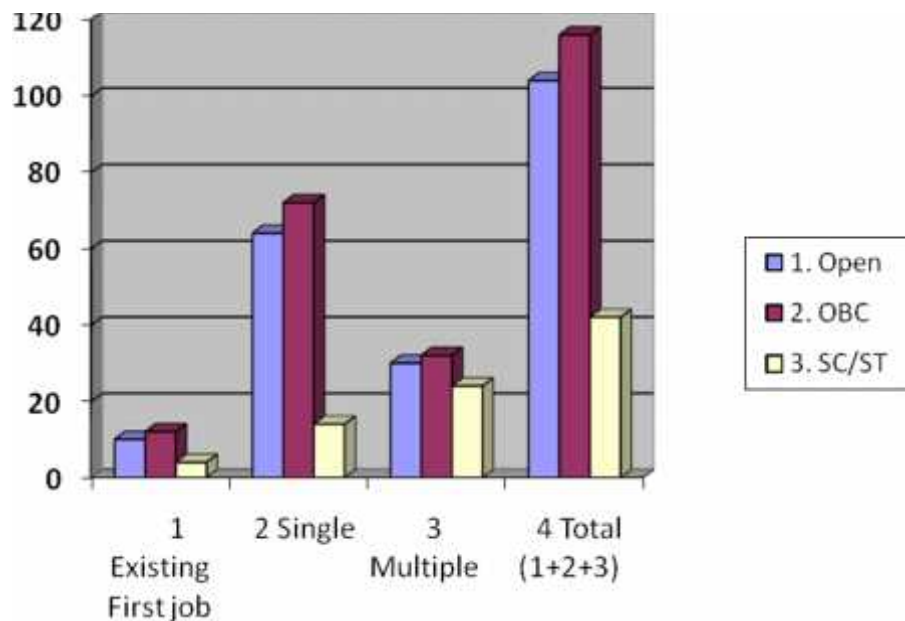


Figure 4.6.6 Caste Composition of Migrants by Job Mobility

Table 4.6.6 Caste Composition of Migrants by Job Mobility

Caste	Job Mobility			Total
	Existing First job	Single	Multiple	
1. Open	10 (3.81)	64 (24.42)	30 (11.45)	104 (39.70)
2. OBC	12 (4.58)	72 (27.48)	32 (12.21)	116 (44.27)
3. SC/ST	4 (1.52)	14 (5.34)	24 (9.16)	42 (16.03)
Total	26 (9.12)	150 (57.25)	86 (32.82)	262 (100)

Source: Field work

Note: Figures in Bracket are percentage to total

4.7 MULTIVARIATE ANALYSIS OF DETERMINANTS

This section presents the single determinants of mobility in the tabulation of geographical and jobs mobility. Its help in understanding and drawing conclusion on role played by these selected single determinants in geographical and job mobility in recent period.

4.7.1 Composition of Migrants by their Place of Origin and by their Job Mobility.

The Table 4.7.1 examines the migrant place of origin and its relationship with the job mobility. Now let us look at the place of origin of RO migrants and by their job mobility. In the existing first job the RO migrants from within district comprises of 3.63 per cent. It is 3.03 per cent and 1.21 per cent respectively in the migrants from with in state and from other state. Thus, the maximum concentration is found in RO migrants from within district i.e. 3.63 per cent. In the single job mobility the RO migrants from within district comprises of 17.57 per cent. It is 18.18 per cent and 16.36 per cent respectively in the migrants from with in state and from other state. Thus, the maximum concentration is found in RO migrants from within state i.e. 18.18 per cent. In the multiple jobs mobility the RO migrants from within district comprises of 6.06 per cent. It is 7.27 per cent and 9.09 per cent respectively in the

migrants from within state and from other state. Thus, the maximum concentration is found in RO migrants from other state i.e. 3.63 per cent.

Now let us look at the job mobility of RO migrants in each place of origin. The RO migrants from within district comprise of 3.63 per cent in the existing first job. It is 17.57 per cent and 6.06 per cent respectively in the single and multiple job mobility. Thus, the maximum concentration is found in the single job mobility i.e. 17.57 per cent in the RO migrants from within district. The RO migrants from within state comprise of 3.03 per cent in the existing first job. It is 18.18 per cent and 7.27 per cent respectively in the single and multiple job mobility. Thus, the maximum concentration is found in the single job mobility i.e. 18.18 per cent in the RO migrants from within state. The RO migrants from other state comprise of 1.21 per cent in the existing first job. It is 16.36 per cent and 9.09 per cent respectively in the single and multiple job mobility. Thus, the maximum concentration is found in the single job mobility i.e. 16.36 per cent in the RO migrants from other state.

Now let us look at the place of origin of UO migrants and by their job mobility. In the existing first job the UO migrants from within district comprises of 2.42 per cent. It is 1.21 per cent respectively in the migrants from within state. It is followed by migrant from other state, which account for nil. Thus, the maximum concentration is found in UO migrants from within district i.e. 2.42 per cent. In the single job mobility the UO migrants from within district comprises of 4.84 per cent. It is 1.81 per cent and 3.03 per cent respectively in the migrants from within state and from other state. Thus, the maximum concentration is found in UO migrants from within district i.e. 4.84 per cent. In the multiple jobs mobility the UO migrants from within district comprises of 5.45 per cent. It is 2.42 per cent and 4.24 per cent respectively in the migrants from within state and from other state. Thus, the maximum concentration is found in UO migrants from within district i.e. 3.63 per cent

Now let us look at the job mobility of UO migrants in each place of origin. The UO migrants from within district comprise of 2.42 per cent in the existing first job. It is 4.84 per cent and 5.45 per cent respectively in the single and multiple job mobility. Thus, the maximum concentration is found in the multiple job mobility i.e.

5.45 per cent in the UO migrants from within district. The UO migrants from within state comprise of 1.21 per cent in the existing first job. It is 1.81 per cent and 2.42 per cent respectively in the single and multiple job mobility. Thus, the maximum concentration is found in the multiple job mobility i.e. 2.42 per cent in the UO migrants from within state. The UO migrants from other state comprise of nil in the existing first job. It is 3.03 per cent and 4.24 per cent respectively in the single and multiple job mobility. Thus, the maximum concentration is found in the multiple job mobility i.e. 4.24 per cent in the UO migrants from other state.

The conjecture can be made that migrants from RO dominate the single job mobility whereas the UO migrants dominate the multiple job mobility. The better job opportunity at the urban place and work experiences of migrants make them more mobile for seeking various opportunities.

Figure 4.7.1 Composition of Migrants by their Place of Origin and by their Job Mobility.

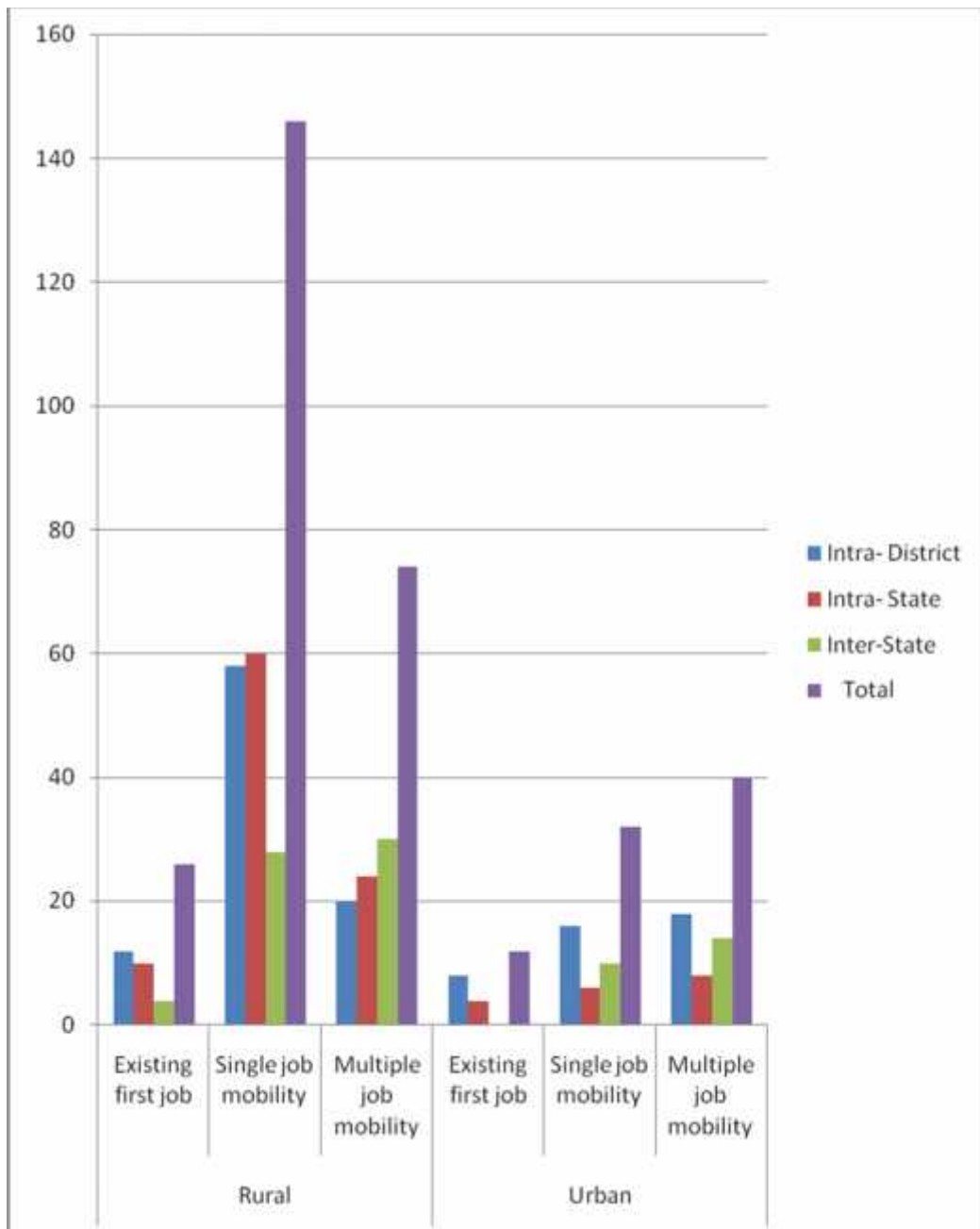


Table 4.7.1 Composition of Migrants by their Place of Origin and by their Job Mobility

Place of origin	Rural				Urban				9 Grand- Total (4+8)
	1	2	3	4 Sub-Total (1+ 2+3)	5	6	7	8 Sub-Total (5+ 6+7)	
Intra-District	12 (3.63)	58 (17.57)	20 (6.06)	90 (27.27)	8 (2.42)	16 (4.84)	18 (5.45)	42 (12.72)	132 (40.00)
Intra- State	10 (3.03)	60 (18.18)	24 (7.27)	94 (28.48)	4 (1.21)	6 (1.81)	8 (2.42)	18 (5.45)	112 (34.00)
Inter-State	4 (1.21)	28 (16.36)	30 (9.09)	62 (18.78)	--	10 (3.03)	14 (4.24)	24 (7.27)	86 (26.00)
Total	26 (7.87)	146 (44.24)	74 (22.42)	246 (74.54)	12 (3.63)	32 (9.69)	40 (12.12)	84 (25.46)	330 (100)

Source: Field work

Note: Figures in Bracket are percentage to total

Here 1&5 = Existing first job, 2 &6 = Single job mobility, 3&7 = Multiple job mobility

4.7.2 Age group Composition by Migrants Place of Origin and Job Mobility

The Table 4.7.2 examines the migrant age and its relationship with the job mobility. Let us now look at the job mobility of RO migrants in different age group. The existing first job of RO migrants in age group less than 20 years comprises of 0.60 per cent. It is 4.24 per cent and 3.03 per cent respectively in the 21-30 and 31-40 years age group. It is found nil in the 41-50 years age group. Thus, the maximum concentration of RO migrants' in existing first job is found in the 21-30 years age groups i.e.4.24 per cent. The single jobs mobility of RO migrants in age group less than 20 years comprises of nil. It is 12.72 per cent and 27.27 per cent respectively in the 21-30 and 31-40 years age group. The 41-50 years age groups' accounts for 4.24 per cent. Thus, the maximum concentration is found in the 31-40 years age group i.e. 27.27 per cent. The multiple job mobility of RO migrants in age groups less than 20 years comprises of nil. It is 3.03 per cent and 12.72 per cent respectively in the 21-30 and 31-40 years age group. The 41-50 years age groups' accounts for 6.66 per cent. Thus, the maximum concentration is found in the 31-40 years age group i.e. 12.72 per cent.

Let us now look at the job mobility of RO migrants in each age group. The existing first job of RO migrants in age group less than 20 years comprises of 0.60 per cent. It is found nil in single and multiple job mobility. In the existing first job of RO migrants in age group 21-30 years comprises of 4.24 per cent. It is 12.72 per cent and 3.03 per cent respectively in the single and multiple job mobility. Thus, the maximum concentration is found in the single job mobility i.e. 12.74 per cent. In the existing first job of RO migrants in age group 31-40 years comprises of 3.03 per cent. It is 27.27 per cent and 12.72 per cent respectively in the single and multiple job mobility. Thus, the maximum concentration is found in the single job mobility i.e. 27.27 per cent. In existing first job, the RO migrants in 41-50 years age groups' comprises of nil. It is 4.24 per cent and 6.66 per cent respectively in the single and multiple job mobility. Thus, the maximum concentration is found in the multiple job mobility i.e. 12.74 per cent.

Let us now look at the job mobility of UO migrants in different age group. The existing first job of UO migrants in age group less than 20 years comprises of nil. It is

2.42 per cent and 1.21 per cent respectively in the 21-30 and 31-40 years age group. It is found **nil** in the 41-50 years age group. Thus, the maximum concentration is found in the 21-30 years age group i.e. 2.42 per cent. The single jobs mobility of UO migrants in age group less than 20 years comprises of **nil**. It is 4.84 per cent and 4.24 per cent respectively in the 21-30 and 31-40 years age group. The 41-50 years age groups' accounts for 0.60 per cent. Thus, the maximum concentration is found in the 31-40 years age group i.e. 4.24 per cent. The multiple job mobility of UO migrants in age groups less than 20 years comprises of **nil**. It is 3.63 per cent and 6.66 per cent respectively in the 21-30 and 31-40 years age group. It is 1.81 per cent in the 41-50 years age groups. Thus, the maximum concentration is found in the 31-40 years age group i.e. 6.66 per cent.

Let us now look at the job mobility of UO migrants in each age group. The UO migrants in age group less than 20 years comprises of **nil**. In the existing first job of UO migrants in age group 21-30 years comprises of 2.42 per cent. It is 4.84 per cent and 3.63 per cent respectively in the single and multiple job mobility. Thus, the maximum concentration is found in the single job mobility i.e. 4.84 per cent. In the existing first job of UO migrants in age group 31-40 years comprises of 1.21 per cent. It is 4.24 per cent and 6.66 per cent respectively in the single and multiple job mobility. Thus, the maximum concentration is found in the multiple job mobility i.e. 6.66 per cent. In the existing first job of RO migrants in age group 41-50 years comprises of **nil**. It is 0.60 per cent and 1.81 per cent respectively in the single and multiple job mobility. Thus, the maximum concentration is found in the multiple job mobility i.e. 1.81 per cent.

The conjecture is made that in the age group 21-30 and 31-40 years the single job mobility is dominated by the RO migrants (i.e. rural to urban mobility), where as the multiple mobility is dominated by 31-40 age groups UO migrants (i.e. urban to urban mobility).

Figure 4.7.2 Age group Composition by Migrants Place of Origin and Job Mobility

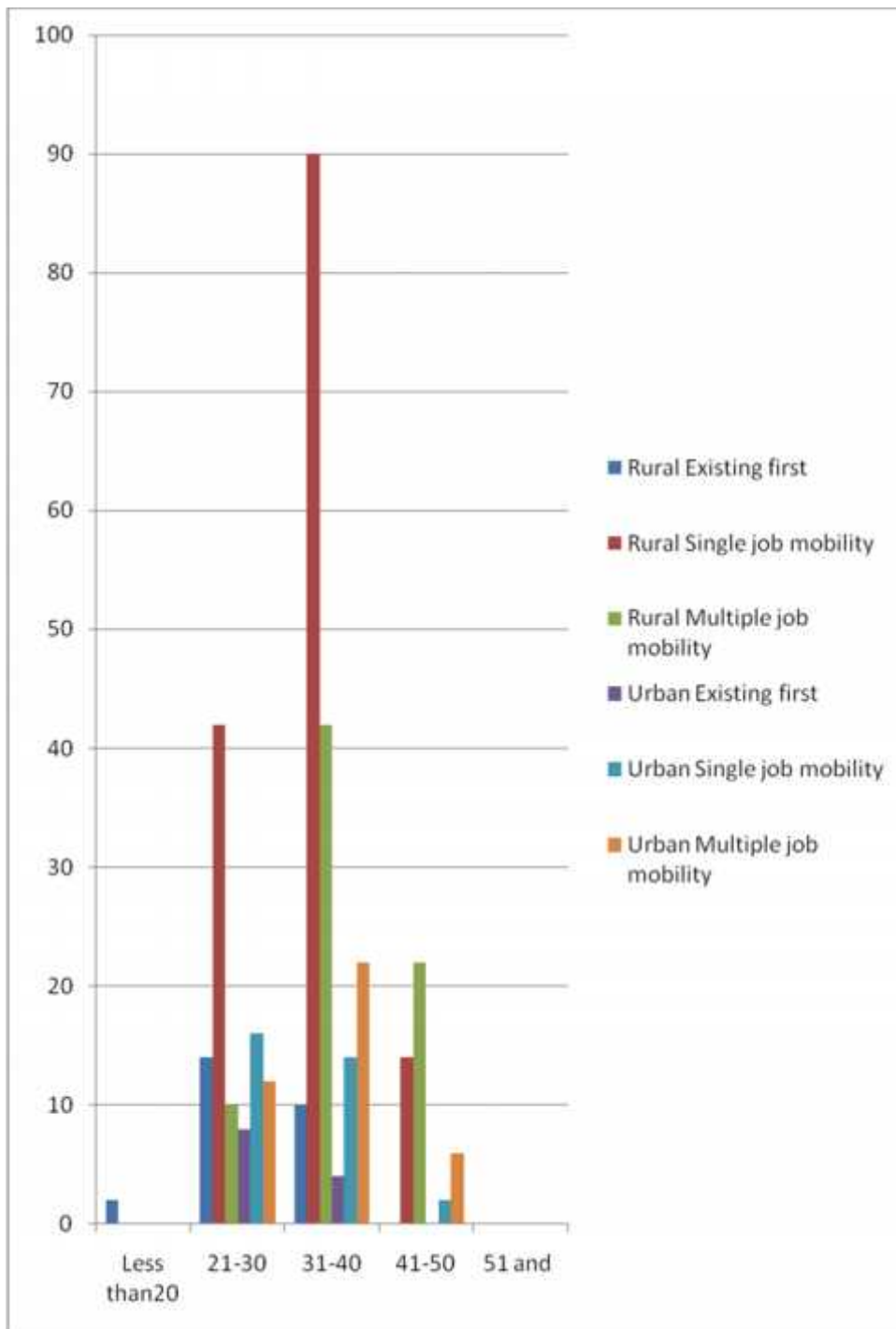


Table 4.7.2 Age group Composition by Migrants Place of Origin and Job Mobility

Age Group (in years)	Rural				Urban				9 Grand- Total (4+8)
	1	2	3	4 Sub-Total (1+ 2+3)	5	6	7	8 Sub-Total (5+6+7)	
Less than 20	2 (0.60)	--	--	2 (0.60)	--	--	--	--	2 (0.60)
21-30	14 (4.24)	42 (12.72)	10 (3.03)	66 (20.00)	8 (2.42)	16 (4.84)	12 (3.63)	36 (10.90)	102 (30.90)
31-40	10 (3.03)	90 (27.27)	42 (12.72)	142 (43.03)	4 (1.21)	14 (4.24)	22 (6.66)	40 (12.12)	182 (55.15)
41-50	--	14 (4.24)	22 (6.66)	36 (10.90)	--	2 (0.60)	6 (1.81)	8 (2.42)	44 (13.33)
51 and above	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
Total	26 (7.87)	146 (44.24)	74 (22.42)	246 (74.54)	12 (3.63)	32 (9.69)	40 (12.12)	84 (25.46)	330 (100)

Source: Field work

Note: 1. Figures in Bracket are percentage to total

2. 1&5= Existing first job, 2 &6 = Single job mobility, 3&7 = Multiple job mobility

4.7.3 Marital Status Composition by Migrants Place of Origin and Job Mobility

The Table 4.7.3 examines the marital status of migrants and its relationship with the geographical and job mobility. Let us now look at the job mobility of RO migrants in each marital status. In the existing first job of RO migrants in single Marital status comprises of 0.60 per cent. It is 2.42 per cent and 1.81 per cent respectively in the single and multiple job mobility. Thus, the maximum concentration is found in the single job mobility i.e. 2.42 per cent. In the existing first job of RO migrants in married marital status comprises of 7.27 per cent. It is 41.82 per cent and 20.60 per cent respectively in the single and multiple job mobility. Thus, the maximum concentration is found in the single job mobility i.e. 41.82 per cent.

Let us now look at the job mobility of UO migrants in each marital status. In the existing first job of UO migrants in single marital status comprises of 1.21 per cent. It is 0.60 per cent and 1.21 per cent respectively in the single and multiple job mobility. In the existing first job of UO migrants in married marital status comprises of 2.42 per cent. It is 9.09 per cent and 10.90 per cent respectively in the single and multiple job mobility. Thus, the maximum concentration is found in the multiple job mobility i.e. 10.90 per cent.

The conjecture can be made that the single marital status migrants dominate the single job mobility in rural to urban mobility where as so do the married marital status migrants. In the urban to urban mobility the married migrants dominate the multiple job.

Figure 4.7.3 Marital Status Composition by Migrants Place of Origin and Job Mobility

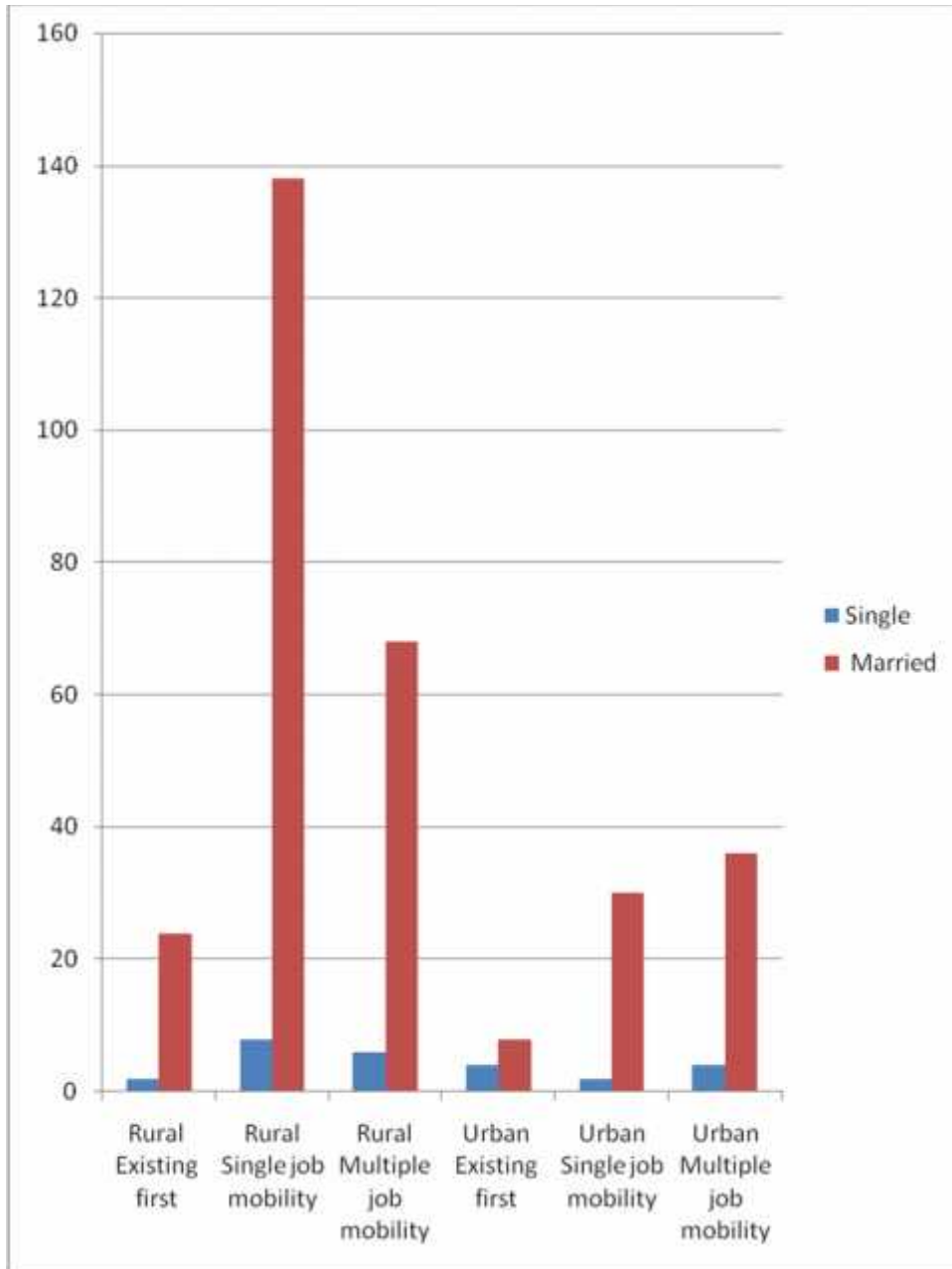


Table 4.7.3 Marital Status Composition by Migrants Place of Origin and Job Mobility

Marital Status	Rural				Urban				9 Grand Total (4+8)
	1	2	3	4 Sub-Total (1+2+3)	5	6	7	8 Sub-Total (5+6+7)	
Single	2 (0.60)	8 (2.42)	6 (1.81)	16 (4.84)	4 (1.21)	2 (0.60)	4 (1.21)	10 (3.03)	26 (7.88)
Married	24 (7.27)	138 (41.82)	68 (20.60)	230 (69.69)	8 (2.42)	30 (9.09)	36 (10.90)	74 (22.42)	304 (92.12)
Total	26 (7.87)	146 (44.24)	74 (22.42)	246 (74.54)	12 (3.63)	32 (9.69)	40 (12.12)	84 (25.45)	330 (100)

Source: Field work

Note: 1. Figures in Bracket are percentage to total

2. 1&5= Existing first job, 2 &6 = Single job mobility, 3&7 = Multiple job mobility

4.7.4 Education Status Composition by Migrants Place of Origin and Job

Mobility

The Table 4.7.4 examines the migrant education status and its relationship with the geographical and job mobility. Now let us look at the education status of RO migrants in job mobility. In the existing first job the RO migrants attained the education status upto 10th comprises of **nil**. It is 0.60 per cent and 4.24 per cent respectively in the higher secondary and ITI. The migrants attained university degree accounts for 3.03 per cent. Thus, the maximum concentration is found in the RO migrants attained the ITI education level i.e. 4.24 per cent. The RO migrants with single job mobility attained the education level upto 10th comprises of 1.21 per cent. It is 1.81 per cent and 21.81 per cent respectively in the higher secondary and ITI. The migrants' attained university degree accounts for 19.39 per cent. Thus, the maximum concentration is found in the RO migrants attained the ITI education level i.e. 21.81 per cent. The RO migrants with multiple job mobility attained the education level upto 10th comprises of 1.81 per cent. It is 7.87 per cent and 3.63 per cent respectively in the higher secondary and ITI. The migrants attained education till university level accounts for 9.09 per cent. Thus, the maximum concentration is found in the RO migrants attained the university degree i.e.9.09 per cent.

Now let us look at the job mobility of RO migrants in each education status. The RO migrants attained the education status upto 10th comprises of **nil** in the existing first job. It is 1.21 per cent and 1.81 per cent respectively in the single and multiple job mobility. Thus, the maximum concentration is found in the multiple job mobility i.e. 1.81 per cent in the RO migrants attained the education status upto 10th. The RO migrants attained the education status upto higher secondary comprises of 0.60 per cent in the existing first job. It is 1.81 per cent and 7.87 per cent respectively in the single and multiple job mobility. Thus, the maximum concentration is found in the multiple job mobility i.e. 7.87 per cent. The RO migrants attained the ITI education status comprises of 4.24 per cent in the existing first job. It is 21.81 per cent and 3.63 per cent respectively in the single and multiple job mobility. Thus, in RO migrants maximum concentration is found in single job mobility i.e. 21.81 per cent that attained the ITI education status. The RO migrants attained the university education status comprises of 3.03 per cent in the existing first job. It is 19.39 per cent

and 9.09 per cent respectively in the single and multiple job mobility. Thus, the maximum concentration is found in the single job mobility i.e. 19.39 per cent.

Now let us look at the education status of UO migrant and its relationship with job mobility. In the existing first job the UO migrants attained the education status upto 10th comprises of **nil**. It is 0.60 per cent and 1.81 per cent respectively in the higher secondary and ITI. The UO migrants attained education till university level accounts for 1.81 per cent. Thus, the maximum concentration found in the UO migrants attained the university and ITI education levels i.e. 1.81 per cent. The UO migrants with single job mobility attained the education level upto 10th comprises of **nil**. It is 2.42 per cent and 3.03 per cent respectively in the higher secondary and ITI. The UO migrants attained university education level accounts for 4.24 per cent. Thus, the maximum concentration of UO migrants in single job mobility is found in those attained the university degree i.e. 4.84 per cent. The UO migrants with multiple job mobility attained the education level upto 10th comprises of 0.60 per cent. It is 1.21 per cent and 2.42 per cent respectively in the higher secondary and ITI. It is 7.27 per cent in the UO migrants attained the university degree. Thus, the maximum concentration in multiple job mobility of UO migrants is found in those attained the university degree i.e. 9.09 per cent.

Now let us look at the job mobility of UO migrants in each education status. The UO migrants attained the education status upto 10th comprises of **nil** in the existing first job and single job mobility. It is 0.60 per cent respectively in the multiple job mobility. The UO migrants attained the education status upto higher secondary comprises of 0.60 per cent in the existing first job. It is 2.42 per cent and 1.21 per cent respectively in the single and multiple job mobility. Thus, the maximum concentration is found in the single job mobility i.e. 2.42 per cent. The UO migrants attained the ITI education status comprises of 1.81 per cent in the existing first job. It is 3.03 per cent and 2.42 per cent respectively in the single and multiple job mobility. Thus, in UO migrants with ITI education status maximum concentration is found in single job mobility i.e. 3.03 per cent. The UO migrants attained the university education status comprises of 1.81 per cent in the existing first job. It is 4.24 per cent and 7.27 per cent respectively in the single and multiple job mobility. Thus, their maximum concentration is found in the multiple job mobility i.e. 7.27 per cent.

The conjecture can be made that the migrants with lower education qualification i.e. Upto 10th and 12th from the rural origin have the higher job mobility compare to those with ITI and university degree. The similar trend is seen in the migrants from the urban origin.

It even found in the migrants from the urban origin with the university degree dominates the multiple job mobility. It may be due to nature of employment or in hope of better status job or higher income make them change their job frequently.

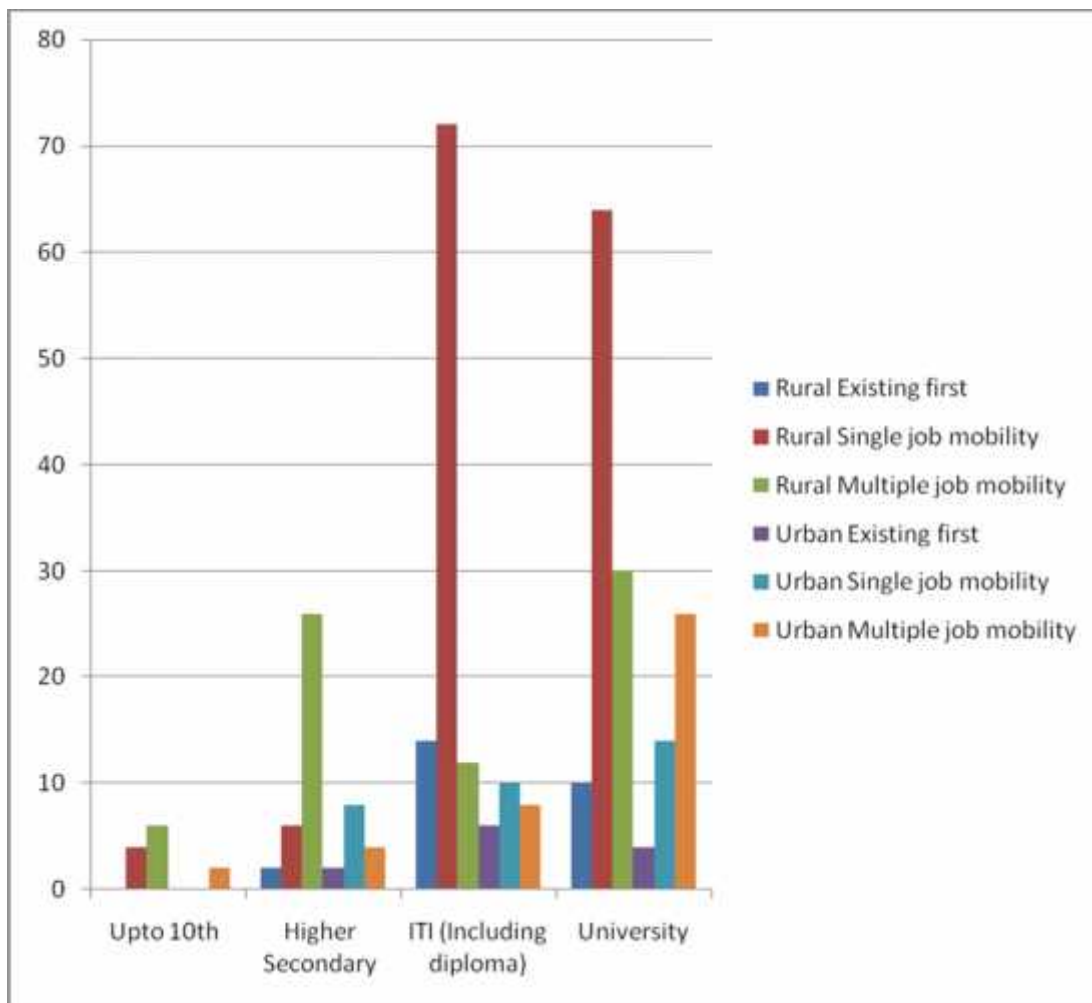


Figure 4.7.4 Education Level Composition of Migrants by Place of Origin and Job Mobility.

Table 4.7.4 Education Level Composition of Migrants by Place of Origin and Job Mobility

Education level	Rural				Urban				9 Grand-Total (4+8)
	1	2	3	4 Sub-Total (1+ 2+3)	5	6	7	8 Sub-Total (5+ 6+7)	
Upto 10th	--	4 (1.21)	6 (1.81)	10 (3.03)	--	--	2 (0.60)	2 (0.60)	(3.63)
Higher Secondary	2 (0.60)	6 (1.81)	26 (7.87)	34 (10.30)	2 (0.60)	8 (2.42)	4 (1.21)	14 (4.24)	48 (14.54)
ITI (Including diploma)	14 (4.24)	72 (21.81)	12 (3.63)	98 (29.69)	6 (1.81)	10 (3.03)	8 (2.42)	24 (7.27)	122 (36.96)
University	10 (3.03)	64 (19.39)	30 (9.09)	104 (31.51)	4 (1.21)	14 (4.24)	26 (7.87)	44 (13.33)	148 (44.84)
Total	26 (7.87)	146 (44.24)	74 (22.42)	246 (74.54)	12 (3.63)	32 (9.69)	40 (12.12)	84 (25.46)	330 (100)

Source: Field work

Note: Figures in Bracket are percentage to total

Here 1&5 = Existing first job, 2 &6 = Single job mobility, 3&7 = Multiple job mobility

4.7.5 Religion Composition by Migrants Place of Origin and Job Mobility

The Table 4.7.5 examines the migrant religion and its relationship with the geographical and job mobility. Now let us look at the religion of RO migrants in the job mobility. In the existing first job the RO migrants from Hindu comprises of 5.45 per cent. It is 1.21 per cent and 0.60 per cent respectively in the Muslim and Christian. It is followed by the other religions, which accounts for 0.60 per cent. Thus, the maximum concentration is found in the Hindu RO migrants i.e. 5.45 per cent. The Hindu RO migrants with single job mobility comprise of 38.78 per cent. It is 2.42 per cent and 1.81 per cent respectively in the Muslim and Christian. It is followed by the other religions, which accounts for 1.21 per cent. Thus, the maximum concentration is found in the Hindu RO migrants i.e. 38.78 per cent. The Hindu RO migrants with multiple job mobility comprise of 17.57 per cent. It is 3.03 per cent and 1.21 per cent respectively in the Muslim and Christian. It is followed by the other religions, which accounts for 0.60 per cent. Thus, the maximum concentration is found in the Hindu RO migrants i.e. 17.57 per cent.

Now let us look at the job mobility of RO migrants in each religion. The Hindu RO migrants comprise of 5.45 per cent in the existing first job. It is 38.78 per cent and 17.57 per cent respectively in the single and multiple job mobility. Thus, the maximum concentration is found in the single job mobility i.e. 38.78 per cent in the Hindu RO migrants. The Muslim RO migrants comprise of 1.21 per cent in the existing first job. It is 2.42 per cent and 3.03 per cent respectively in the single and multiple job mobility. Thus, the maximum concentration of Muslim RO migrants is found in the multiple job mobility i.e. 3.03 per cent. The Christian RO migrants comprise of 0.60 per cent in the existing first job. It is 1.81 per cent and 1.21 per cent respectively in the single and multiple job mobility. Thus, the maximum concentration is found in the single job mobility i.e. 1.81 per cent in the Christian RO migrants. The other religion RO migrants comprise of 0.60 per cent in the existing first job. It is 1.21 per cent and 0.60 per cent respectively in the single and multiple job mobility. Thus, the maximum concentration is found in the single job mobility i.e. 1.21 per cent in the other religions RO migrants.

Now let us look at the religion of UO migrants in the job mobility. In the existing first job the UO migrants from Hindu comprises of 2.42 per cent. It is 0.60

per cent and 0.60 per cent respectively in the Muslim and Christian. It is followed by the other religions, which accounts for nil. Thus, the maximum concentration is found in the Hindu UO migrants i.e. 2.42 per cent. The Hindu UO migrants with single job mobility comprise of 6.66 per cent. It is 1.81 per cent and 0.60 per cent respectively in the Muslim and Christian. It is followed by the other religions, which accounts for 0.60 per cent. Thus, the maximum concentration is found in the Hindu UO migrants i.e. 6.66 per cent. The Hindu UO migrants with multiple job mobility comprise of 8.48 per cent. It is 1.21 per cent and 1.81 per cent respectively in the Muslim and Christian. It is followed by the other religions, which accounts for 0.60 per cent. Thus, the maximum concentration is found in the Hindu UO migrants i.e. 8.48 per cent.

Now let us look at the job mobility of UO migrants in each religion. The Hindu UO migrants comprise of 2.42 per cent in the existing first job. It is 6.66 per cent and 8.48 per cent respectively in the single and multiple job mobility. Thus, the maximum concentration is found in the multiple job mobility i.e. 8.48 per cent in the Hindu UO migrants. The Muslim UO migrants comprise of 0.60 per cent in the existing first job. It is 1.81 per cent and 1.21 per cent respectively in the single and multiple job mobility. Thus, the maximum concentration of Muslim UO migrants is found in the single job mobility i.e. 1.81 per cent. The Christian UO migrants comprise of 0.60 per cent in the existing first job. It is 0.60 per cent and 1.81 per cent respectively in the single and multiple job mobility. Thus, the maximum concentration is found in the multiple job mobility i.e. 1.81 per cent in the Christian RO migrants. The other religion UO migrants comprise of nil in the existing first job. It is 0.60 per cent and 0.60 per cent respectively in the single and multiple job mobility. Thus, the maximum concentration is found in the both single and multiple job mobility i.e. 0.60 per cent in the other religions UO migrants.

It is found in the study that the Hindu migrants from rural origin dominate the single job mobility but on the other hand the Hindu migrants from urban origin dominate the multiple job mobility. The Muslim migrants from rural origin dominate the multiple job mobility but on the other hand the Muslim migrants from urban origin dominate the single job mobility. The same trend had been seen in the Christian migrants. The conjecture can be made that the Muslim migrants from the rural origin

opt for multiple job mobility. But in migrants from urban origin multiple job mobility is opt by Hindu and Christian migrants.

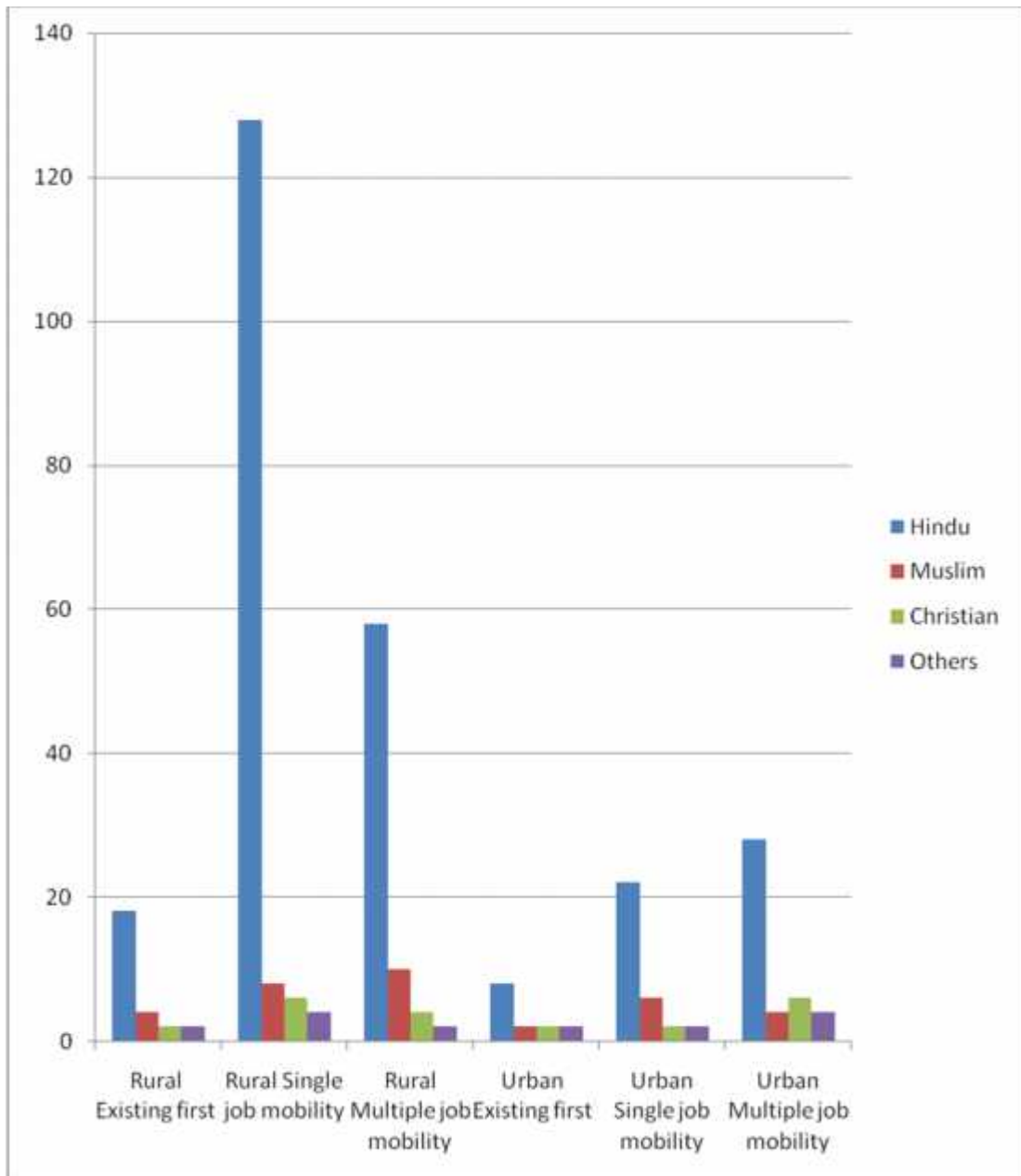


Figure 4.7.5 Religion Composition of Migrants by Place of Origin and by their Job Mobility

Table 4.7.5 Religion Composition of Migrants by Place of Origin and by their Job Mobility.

Religion	Rural				Urban				
	1	2	3	4 Sub-Total (1+ 2+3)	5	6	7	8 Sub-Total (5+ 6+7)	9 Grand-Total (4+8)
Hindu	18 (5.45)	128 (38.78)	58 (17.57)	204 (61.81)	8 (2.42)	22 (6.66)	28 (8.48)	58 (17.57)	262 (79.40)
Muslim	4 (1.21)	8 (2.42)	10 (3.03)	22 (6.66)	2 (0.60)	6 (1.81)	4 (1.21)	12 (3.63)	34 (10.30)
Christian	2 (0.60)	6 (1.81)	4 (1.21)	12 (3.63)	2 (0.60)	2 (0.60)	6 (1.81)	10 (3.03)	22 (6.67)
Others	2 (0.60)	4 (1.21)	2 (0.60)	8 (2.42)	--	2 (0.60)	2 (0.60)	4 (1.21)	12 (3.63)
Total	26 (7.87)	146 (44.24)	74 (22.42)	246 (74.54)	12 (3.63)	32 (9.69)	40 (12.12)	84 (25.46)	330 (100)

Source: Field work

Note: Figures in Bracket are percentage to total

Here 1&5 = Existing first job, 2 &6 = Single job mobility, 3&7 = Multiple job mobility

4.7.6 Caste Composition by Migrants Place of Origin and Job Mobility

The Table 4.7.6 examines the migrant caste and its relationship with the geographical and job mobility. Now let us look at the caste composition of migrants from rural origin (i.e. RO) in the job mobility. In the migrants from RO the open caste comprises of 29.77 per cent. It is 36.64 per cent and 11.45 per cent respectively in the OBC and SC/ST. In the migrants from RO, the maximum concentration is found in the OBC i.e. 36.64 per cent. Our survey reveals that the existing first job of RO migrants' from open caste comprises of 2.29 per cent. It is 3.81 per cent and 0.76 per cent respectively in the migrants' from OBC and SC/ST. Thus, the maximum concentration is found in the existing first job i.e. 3.81 per cent in the OBC RO migrants. The single job mobility of RO migrants' from open caste comprises of 21.37 per cent. It is 23.66 per cent and 3.81 per cent respectively in the RO migrants' from OBC and SC/ST caste. Thus, the maximum concentration is found in the single job mobility i.e. 23.66 per cent in the OBC RO migrants. The multiple job mobility of RO migrants' from open caste comprises of 6.10 per cent. It is 9.16 per cent and 6.87 per cent respectively in the RO migrants' from OBC and SC/ST caste. Thus, the maximum concentration is found in the multiple job mobility i.e. 9.16 per cent in the OBC RO migrants.

Let us now look at the job mobility in each caste of Hindu RO migrants. The migrant from open caste comprises of 2.29 per cent in the existing first job. It is 21.37 per cent and 6.10 per cent respectively in the single and multiple job mobility. Thus the maximum concentration of open caste migrants is found in the single job mobility i.e. 21.37 per cent. The migrant from OBC comprises of 3.81 per cent in the existing first job. It is 23.66 per cent and 9.16 per cent respectively in the single and multiple job mobility. Thus the maximum concentration of OBC migrants is found in the single job mobility i.e. 23.66 per cent. The migrant from SC/ST comprises of 0.76 per cent in the existing first job. It is 3.81 per cent and 6.87 per cent respectively in the single and multiple job mobility. Thus the maximum concentration of SC/ST migrants is found in the multiple job mobility i.e. 6.87 per cent.

Let us look at the caste composition of migrants from urban origin (i.e. UO). In the migrants from UO the open caste comprises of 9.92 per cent. It is 7.63 per cent and 4.58 per cent respectively in the OBC and SC/ST. Thus in the migrants from UO

the higher mobility is from open caste i.e. 9.92 per cent. The existing first job of UO migrants' from open caste comprises of 1.52 per cent. It is 0.76 per cent respectively in the both of UO migrants' from OBC and SC/ST. Thus, the maximum concentration of migrants is found in the existing first job i.e. 1.52 per cent in the open caste UO migrants. The single job mobility of UO migrants' from open caste comprises of 3.05 per cent. It is 3.81 per cent and 1.52 per cent respectively in the UO migrants' from OBC and SC/ST caste. Thus, the maximum concentration is found in the single job mobility i.e. 3.81 per cent in the OBC UO migrants. The multiple job mobility of UO migrants' from open caste comprises of 5.34 per cent. It is 3.05 per cent and 2.29 per cent respectively in the UO migrants' from OBC and SC/ST caste. Thus, the maximum concentration is found in the multiple job mobility i.e. 5.34 per cent in the open caste UO migrants.

Let us now look at the job mobility in each caste of Hindu UO migrants. The migrant from open caste comprises of 1.52 per cent in the existing first job. It is 3.05 per cent and 5.34 per cent respectively in the single and multiple job mobility. Thus the maximum concentration of UO open caste migrants is found in the multiple job mobility i.e. 5.34 per cent. The migrant from OBC comprises of 0.76 per cent in the existing first job. It is 3.81 per cent and 3.05 per cent respectively in the single and multiple job mobility. Thus the maximum concentration of OBC migrants is found in the single job mobility i.e. 3.81 per cent. The migrant from SC/ST comprises of 0.76 per cent in the existing first job. It is 1.52 per cent and 2.29 per cent respectively in the single and multiple job mobility. Thus the maximum concentration of UO SC/ST migrants is found in the multiple job mobility i.e. 2.29 per cent.

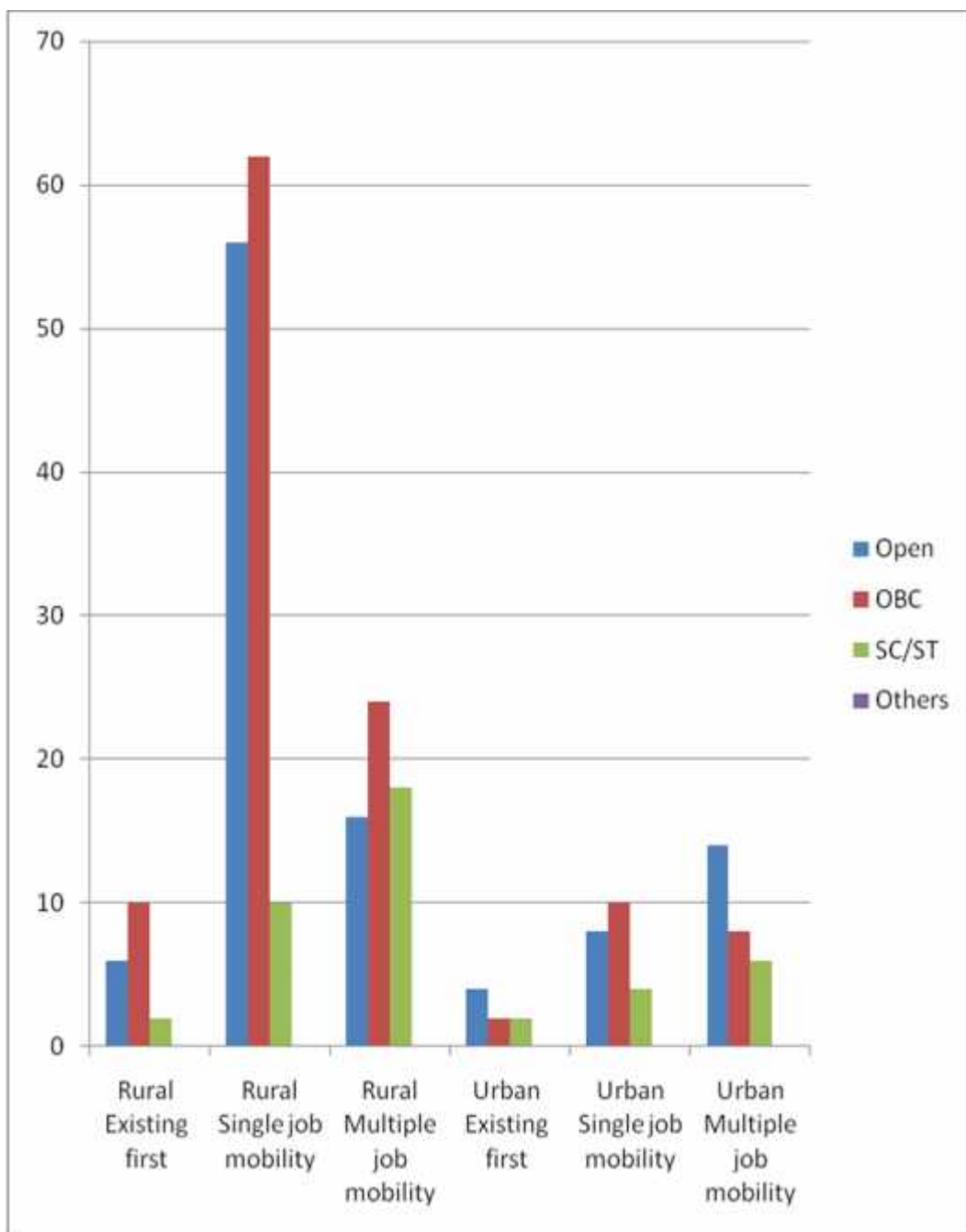


Figure 4.7.6 Caste Composition of Migrants by Place of Origin and by their Job Mobility

Table 4.7.6 Caste Composition of Migrants by Place of Origin and by their Job Mobility

Caste	Rural				Urban				9 Grand-Total (4+8)
	1	2	3	4 Sub-Total (1+ 2+3)	5	6	7	8 Sub-Total (5+ 6+7)	
Open	6 (2.29)	56 (21.37)	16 (6.10)	78 (29.77)	4 (1.52)	8 (3.05)	14 (5.34)	26 (9.92)	104 (39.70)
OBC	10 (3.81)	62 (23.66)	24 (9.16)	96 (36.64)	2 (0.76)	10 (3.81)	8 (3.05)	20 (7.63)	116 (44.27)
SC/ST	2 (0.76)	10 (3.81)	18 (6.87)	30 (11.45)	2 (0.76)	4 (1.52)	6 (2.29)	12 (4.58)	42 (16.03)
Others	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
Total	18 (6.87)	128 (48.85)	58 (22.13)	204 (77.86)	8 (3.05)	22 (8.39)	28 (10.68)	58 (22.13)	262 (100)

Source: Field work

Note: Figures in Bracket are percentage to total

Here 1&5 = Existing first job, 2 &6 = Single job mobility, 3&7 = Multiple job mobility.

CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTION

5. INTRODUCTION

The study of migration and population movements is vast and multifaceted discipline. Migrations of labor included virtually in all aspects of the social sciences. It is providing a gateway to history, sociology, economics, and anthropology. Every aspect of human culture, society, and history is inter-linked with movement and labor mobility. For the labor migrants its inescapable fact that who they are and from where they had come to the place. So they always think about social status of them that make them rooted with their society. A jobseeker and an employer are complementary to each others. The migrants seek better employment whereas the employer seeks the better employee. The individuals get attracted to the various regions to improve their prospects. These decisions of migrants are motivated by economic consideration. Migration is voluntary and planned activity of some migrant. In case of others its can be unplanned activity. The forces that make them move are political and social factors, crop failures. For these migrants the mobility from the place remains the only option to sustain themselves. The migration has impacts on the places of origin and the destination place opted by them. The shortage of labor at one place and surplus of labor at other influence the economic activities at both places. For the policy makers the study of labor mobility is need at micro and macro level for policies formation. It helps them to design better economical and social policies. The impact of mobility remained the main concern for the various association related to government at all level to bring the economy on track of growth.

The various studies on migration provided various determinants of labor mobility that are the leading factors in their decision making. The Figure 5.1 depicts the framework of various determinants of labor mobility that make the migrants to migrate. It tries to sum up them as complete pictures for the determinants.

Study classified the determinants into following levels:

- a) The micro-level concerned with individual determinants of migrants.
- b) A macro-level theory focuses on aggregate mobility pattern and explains these movements with macro-level parameters.

- c) The meso-level theory is outcome of micro level and macro level determinants. These theories explain both the causes and the protraction of migrants.

At the micro-level variation in earnings and scarcity of resources are push and pull factors. The select determinants of labour mobility were: age, marital status, higher education level, caste. At the meso level the determinants such as labor contractor, networks were considered. In the place where the existing migrant's network had developed the potential migrants prefer to migrate to those places only. At the macro-level the determinants such as labour market and infrastructure at place are considered to influences the migrants decision to move.

Finally, migration has multi-facet effects that in turn also influence the decision-making process of future migrants. A migration leads to change in potential pull and pull factors. These decisions are based on cost benefits principles of individual migrants. The very few individuals are isolated actors that may take decisions in a social vacuum. The individual's reasons at personal and social level make this question 'why people migrate' alive forever. However, the economical and social factors will always govern the migrants for years to come.

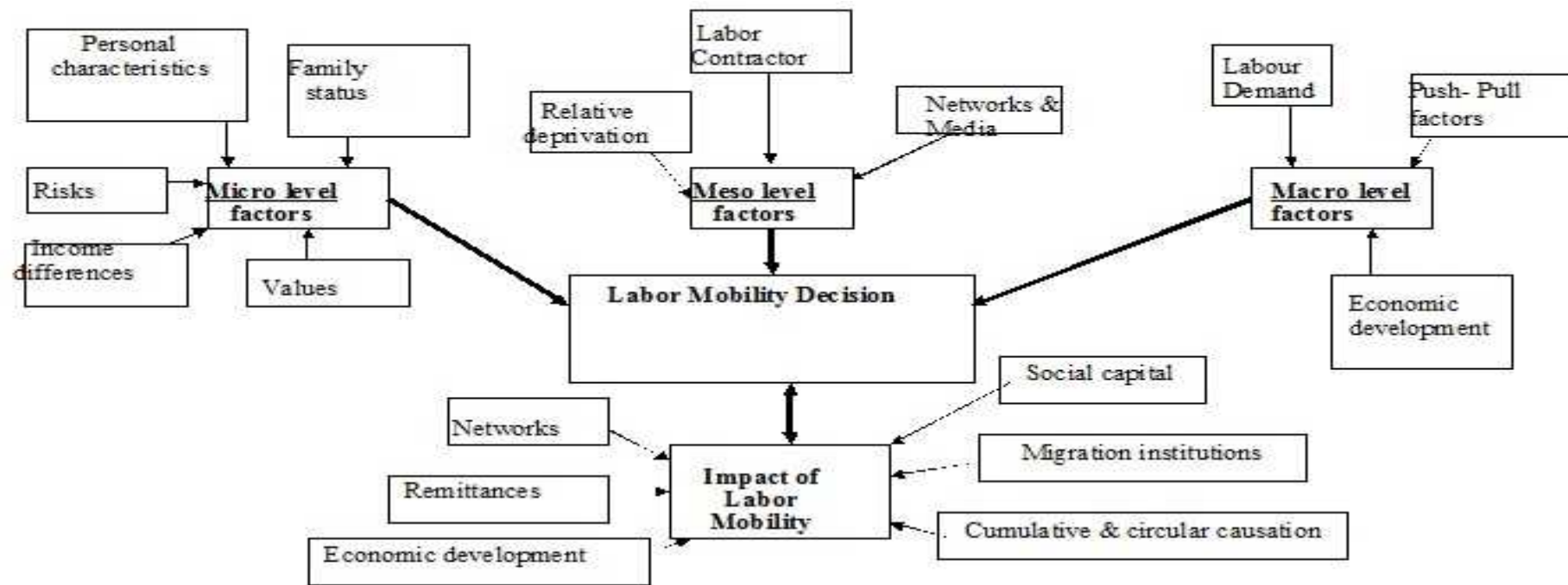


Figure 5.1.1: A general framework of migration decision making

Source: Own representation.

5.1 SELECTIVITY AND THE DECISION TO MIGRATE

The previously mentioned economic models and push and pull frameworks in the review of these models become the base for recent migration theories. The various characteristics of individual influence the decision to migrate. They even are the factors that decide who and why he will migrate. The changes in them over a period of time will add new views to the study of migration. As stated by Lee (1966) and Todaro (1980) that migrants do not represent a random sample of the residents it is important to identify what (groups of) individuals select into migration.

5.1.1 Migrants seem to share certain characteristics that make them more likely to move. The various works of researchers emphasized on selectivity of people. Kuznets & Thomas (1957) analysis was on the inter-state movements of people in the United States during the period of 1870 and 1950. The outcome of them was that migrants are probably preselected. Even they pointed out that migration differentials is by personal determinants such as sex, age, race, family status, education, health and various social and demographic characteristics. It can be stated that the migrants are more risk inclined and adjusting themselves better in the new environment. The each migrant are unique. It means that their skills and interests vary from others. To be specific the personal characteristics of migrants suggest that is differing in each stage. The study answers the formulated research questions which were:

- a) Is there any relation between personal determinants such as age, education, marital status, religion and caste of migrants and labor mobility?
 - b) Is there any relation between personal determinants such as age, education, marital status, religion and caste of migrants and geographical mobility?
 - c) Is there any relation between personal determinants such as age, education, marital status, religion and caste of migrants and job mobility?
 - d) Is there any relation between personal determinants such as age, education, marital status, religion and caste of migrants and job & geographical mobility?
- i. GENDER DIFFERENCES:** The gender differences are important determinant in migration patterns and in case of labor market it is selective by gender. Familial roles and gender relations within the household may affect the decision to move.

In India there seems to be stronger parental control over daughters than over sons. In India males rather than females are often characterized as the household head and the main decision maker of the household. The migrant family prefers to send male rather than female to earn income for the family. It is expected from them that they should earn and save money. These remittances sent by the migrants are consisting of larger part of their earning. Although it is not entirely clear through this study whether females or males are more probable to migrate. In general the migration decision is evidently influenced by gender differences.

- ii. DISTANCE:** Intra state migrants are found more in the study than those from interstate migrants. The migrants with rural origin (i.e. MRO) are 74.54% whereas 25.46% are migrants with urban origin (i.e. MUO). The largest sources of the migrants' inflow have been found from the rural areas (i.e. RO) as the MRO comprise of three-fourth of total respondents. The further migrants by their place of origins (RO and UO) are classified in terms of (a) Intra-district migration, (b) Inter-district migration, and (c) Inter-State migration. Our survey reveals that (a) 40% of total respondents are intra district migrants (i.e. migrants from within district). (b) 33.94% of total respondents were from inter-district (i.e. from within Maharashtra state excluding district of Pune), and (c) the remaining 26.06% of respondents are inter-state migrants as they are originally from other states of India (i.e. from outside Maharashtra state). We find that intra-state migrants (i.e. intra- district and inter-district migrants) comprise of 74% of total migrants (i.e. little less than three- fourth of total migrants). Hence, we may say that inter-state migrants' dominated the geographical mobility. The highest concentration of RO migrants is found from inter- district i.e. 28.49%. The highest concentration of UO migrants is found from intra- district i.e. 12.73%. In comparing the RO and UO the conjecture can be made as follow: (i) Intra-district geographical mobility is highest among Urban to Urban migrants. (ii) Rural to Urban geographical mobility is highest in case of inter-district migration. (iii) Urban to Urban geographical mobility is higher amongst the inter-state migrants. Our survey reveals that migrants from intra-district (i.e. 6.06%) are the highest among the workers with zero job mobility. The

migrants from intra-district (i.e. 22.42%) are the highest among the workers with single job mobility. In multiple job mobility it is migrant workers from inter- state i.e. 13.33%. The conjecture can be made that the available job at the place is first searched and after it only the migrant workers plan to migrate. It found in the present study that the migrant workers from intra-district are highest in the zero job mobility. The inter-state migrant workers are found to be highest in the multiple job mobility. Examine the migrants on basis of migrant place of origin with the job mobility. The maximum concentration in zero job-mobility is of MRO from intra-district i.e. 3.64%. In the single job mobility the maximum concentration is found in MRO from inter-state i.e.8.18%. The maximum concentration in multiple job mobility is found of MRO from inter- state i.e. 9.09%. In zero job mobility the maximum concentration was found in MUO from intra- district i.e. 2.42%. In the single job mobility maximum concentration is found MUO from intra-district i.e. 4.85%. In the multiple jobs mobility the maximum concentration was originate in MUO from intra- district i.e. 3.63%. The following conjecture can be made that: (i) Migrant workers from RO dominate the single job mobility. It may be results of limited job opportunity at the rural place make them less mobile for job opportunity. (ii)The UO migrant workers dominate the multiple job mobility. It better prospects of job in the urban place and work experiences make migrants more mobile.

- iii. AGE:** The previous studies on migration found that it an activity primarily for young. Selection into migration is related to different stages of the human life cycle. The effect of age as a determinant of migration shows that in recent years the individuals move more than the prime age workers, which is the reference group in previous studies. Age as a determinant that determine who will migrate. In less than 20 years age group only **two** migrants (i.e. 0.61%) were found and **nil** in the 51 and above age group. This signifies that migration upto the age 20 is negligible. The critical age is found to be above 20 years. In other words, age 21 is the critical age at which migration begins. This may be a mere coincidence that in our sample, we did not find any migrant 51& above age group. According to present study, 64.25% of migrant workers with rural origin (MRO) were in the 21-30 years age group. In

comparing the migrants from UO it is found that there is steady growth in mobility between the age group 21-30 and 31-40 years and it drastic decline after 40 year age. The geographical mobility of migrants from UO highly concentrated in the 31-40 years age group. The geographical mobility of migrants from RO decreases at a little higher age than that of UO migrant workers. The migrant age is further analyzed in context to job mobility. The maximum concentration of zero job mobility is found in the 21-30 years age group i.e. 9.10%. The migrant workers with single job mobility in less than 20 years and above 40 years age group comprises of **nil**. The multiple job mobility is found higher in the 31-40 years age group. The multi-analyses of age in context to geographical and job mobility reveals that the RO migrants in the 21-30 age group are found higher in the zero job mobility i.e. 6.06%. In the single job mobility RO migrants found higher in the 31-40 years age group i.e. 6.06%. In the multiple job mobility maximum concentration of RO migrant workers is found in the 21-30 years age group i.e. 20.00%. The similar trend of job mobility had been found in the UO migrants. The UO migrant worker in age group 41 and above years comprises of **nil** in any type of job mobility. In comparing the RO and UO migrant worker in the age-group of 21-30 years reveals that the UO migrants opt more for the multiple job mobility. The following conjecture are made that: The migrant workers with zero job mobility is found highest from UO (i.e. urban to urban geographical mobility) in the age group 21-30 years. The migrant workers with single job mobility from RO (i.e. Rural to Urban geographical mobility) are found highest from the 21-30 years age group. The migrant worker with single job mobility from UO (i.e. Urban to Urban geographical mobility) is found highest from the 31-40 years age group. The migrant worker with multiple job mobility from RO (i.e. Rural to Urban geographical mobility) is found highest from the 21-30 years age group. The migrant worker with multiple job mobility from UO (i.e. Urban to Urban geographical mobility) is found highest from the 31-40 years age group.

- iv. MARITAL STATUS:** The previous studies on migration found that after marriage the preference for mobility decline. It is mainly due to First, the

potential costs of migrating multiple as family size increases. Second, the spouse's employment inhibits family migration. Third the numbers minors in family reduce the possibility to migrate. Hence the unmarried migrants dominate the mobility. The migrant workers are covered under the two main headings i.e. single or married. The other figures such as divorce, widow are emerged with married. The single migrant comprises of 38.18%. The married migrant accounts for 61.82%. In the country married age for male as per law in 21 years and for female it is 18 years. 48.49% of migrants from RO are married where as unmarried count for 26.06%. The married migrants from UO are 13.33% and 12.12% of migrants were single. The following conjecture made that: (i) Migrants with marital status 'married' are higher from the RO then that from UO. The maximum concentration of migrant workers with single marital status was established in single job mobility i.e. 18.79%. The maximum concentration of married migrants is found in the single job mobility i.e. 35.15%. The following conjecture can be made that: (i) the single migrant workers found higher in zero job mobility. The marital status of migrants with context of geographical and job mobility revealed that the maximum concentration of RO migrant with single marital status found in the single job mobility i.e. 14.54%. The married RO migrant's maximum concentration is found in the single job mobility i.e. 29.70%. The maximum concentration of single UO migrant workers is found in the multiple job mobility i.e. 5.45%. The maximum concentration of married UO migrant workers is found in the multiple job mobility i.e. 6.67%. The following conjecture can be made that: (i) the single marital status migrants dominate the single job mobility in rural to urban mobility. (ii) In the urban to urban mobility the married migrants dominate the multiple jobs.

- v. **EDUCATION:** The higher educational attainment leads one to migrate. This mainly due to first, information and network developed in labor markets. Second, the wide disparities of pay provide more opportunity to move. Evidence exist that mobility trend to increase with increased education. Education provides the individuals awareness of their environment and opportunities. It also provides individuals with tools for planning and making important decisions. The education status (in terms of highest attaining or

completed) of migrants in the present study is divided into i.e. Upto 10th, Higher secondary, ITI (including diploma), and the University (Graduate and above). In migrant workers with RO maximum concentrated in education status is of those completed university degree i.e. 31.52%. In migrant workers with UO the maximum concentrated is found of those completed university degree i.e. 13.33%. The most of the migrant workers had been completed some or other education level. Hence, survey results confirm the higher education level of migrant workers. It jointly (i.e. of university and ITI) represent 81.81% of total migrants. The respondents completed education level upto higher secondary (i.e. total of upto 10th and higher secondary) is lowest in both, from rural to urban (i.e.13.33%) and from urban to urban (i.e. 4.84%) geographical mobility. The education status composition of migrant workers by job mobility. In zero job mobility of migrant workers attained the education status upto 10th comprises of **nil**. The maximum concentration in zero job mobility is found in migrant attained the ITI education i.e. 6.06%. The maximum concentration in single job mobility is found in migrants attained the ITI education i.e. 24.85%. The maximum concentration in multiple job mobility is found in migrants attained the university degree i.e.16.97%. The following conjecture can be made that the migrants with lower education qualification i.e. Upto 10th and 12th have the higher job mobility compare to those with ITI and University degree. It may be due to nature of employment or in hope of better job and income opportunity make them change of job frequently. The study further examines the migrants' education status relationship with the geographical and job mobility. In single job mobility the maximum concentration is found in the RO migrants attained the ITI education level i.e. 21.82%. In multiple job mobility the maximum concentration is found of RO migrants attained the university degree i.e.9.09%. In the zero jobs mobility the maximum concentration found of UO migrants attained the ITI education levels i.e. 1.81%. The maximum concentration of UO migrants in single job mobility is found of those attained the university degree i.e. 4.84%. The maximum concentration in multiple job mobility of UO migrants in found of those attained the university degree i.e. 7.88%. The following conjecture can be made that: (i) Respondents with

education qualification till 10th and 12th from the rural origin have the higher job mobility compare to those with ITI and university degree. The similar trend is seen in the migrants from the urban origin. (ii) It even found in the migrants from the urban origin with the university degree dominates the multiple job mobility. It may be due to nature of employment or in hope of better status job or higher income make them change their job frequently. Overall, more educated individuals have higher chances to obtain a job at the migration destination and are more likely to obtain a higher income after moving. Furthermore, the individual's tendency to migrate is positively linked with the acquisition of various skills. It even linked with the increased social network obtained through time spent on education.

- vi. RELIGION:** The religion is considered as a determinant of labour mobility. As the population of Hindu is higher in our country therefore numerically they form high percentage of surveyed migrants in this study. It is found that the Hindu and Muslim migrants dominated the rural to urban geographical mobility. In case of urban to urban mobility it is dominated by Christian migrants. The major religious communities of India are grouped in Hindus, Muslims, Christians and others (i.e. Sikhs, Buddhists, Jains and Parsis). It further looks into the religion composition of migrants by their place of origin (rural and urban). Hindu migrant workers comprise of 79.38 %. The study found the Hindu migrants are highly concerted among surveyed data. It may be they are numerically higher in the population. In the study no specific reason was there to select them. It is found that the Rural to Urban geographical mobility is highest in case of Hindu and Muslim migrants. In case of urban to urban mobility is higher amongst the Christian migrants. The study further examines the relationship between religion and job mobility. Hindu migrants were found high with the single job mobility. The maximum concentration of the Christian migrants is found in the multiple job mobility i.e. 3.03%. The maximum concentration of the other religions migrant workers is found in the single job mobility i.e. 1.82 %. The following conjecture can be made that: (i) Muslim and Christian migrant workers dominate the multiple job mobility. (ii) The Hindu migrant workers dominate the single job mobility. It further examines the migrant religion and its relationship with the

geographical and job mobility. The maximum concentration of Muslim RO migrants is found in the multiple job mobility i.e. 3.03%. The maximum concentration of Christian RO migrants is found in the single job mobility i.e. 1.81%. The maximum concentration of the other religion RO migrants is found in the single job mobility i.e. 1.21%. The maximum concentration of Hindu UO migrants is found in the multiple job mobility i.e. 8.48%. The maximum concentration of Muslim UO migrants is found in the single job mobility i.e. 1.81%. The maximum concentration of Christian UO migrants is found in the multiple job mobility i.e. 1.81%. The other religion UO migrants comprise of **nil** in the existing first job. The following conjecture can be made that: (i) The Hindu migrants from rural origin dominate the single job mobility but among the Hindu from urban origin dominate the multiple job mobility. (ii) Muslim migrants from the rural origin opt for multiple job mobility. (iii) Migrants with urban origin the multiple job mobility is opt by Hindu and Christian migrants.

- vii. CASTE:** It is found in the study that the OBC (other backward class) migrants dominate rural to urban geographical mobility. In case of urban to urban mobility it is dominated by the upper caste migrants. Caste is considered as a determinant of labour mobility. In the country in spite of legal equality the caste continues to exist due to the socio-economic and political spheres. The caste of the Hindu migrants is dividing into i.e. upper caste, other backward caste (OBC), and Scheduled caste and Schedule tribes (SC/ST). The OBC migrant workers were found highest among survey i.e.44.27%. In the migrants from RO, the maximum concentration is found in the OBC i.e. 36.64%. The migrants with UO are found higher from the upper caste i.e. 9.93%. The following conjecture can be made that: (i) the single job mobility is dominated among the migrants from upper caste. Similarly OBC migrants dominate the single job mobility. (ii) The multiple job mobility is dominated among the migrants from SC/ST. The study further examines the migrant caste relationship with the geographical and job mobility. The maximum concentration of upper caste RO migrants is found in the single job mobility i.e. 21.37%. The maximum concentration of OBC RO migrants is found in the single job mobility i.e. 23.66%. The maximum concentration of SC/ST RO

migrants is found in the multiple job mobility i.e. 6.87%. The maximum concentration of upper caste UO migrants is found in the multiple job mobility i.e. 5.34%. The maximum concentration of OBC migrants is found in the single job mobility i.e. 3.81%. The maximum concentration of SC/ST UO migrants is found in the multiple job mobility i.e. 2.29%.

- 5.1.2** The study answers the formulate research question which is: Is there any relation between number of people in families, number of minors, number of employed among them and labor mobility?

The present study examines the relation between number of dependent and mobility. The table 4.1.6 is on number of people in respondents' families. The survey results showed that most of the migrants come from big families with 5 members. The survey found that 27 per cent of respondents have 5 members in his family. Number of people of minors in respondents' families considered as a determinant of labour mobility. The present study examines the relation between of dependent and mobility. 31.8 per cent migrants that surveyed informed that minors in their families are nil. On the other had the 21.8 per cent and 38.7 per cent of respondent migrants in their family they have one and two underage children. The analysis of results of respondent's families other employed person revels that 36 per cent of them have additional member is working. It means those family financial requirements are shared among the additional working member. In case the migrant loses their job, becomes ill or injured, or dies the family will not be left without any sources of income and fall under poverty line. 29 per cent migrants declared that they are the only source of income for their families. It means that they have highly vulnerable position in its families and its results in mental pressure of unexpected situation always in front of them.

- 5.1.3** The study answers the formulated research question which is: Is there any relation between determinants influenced respondent's decisions to migrate? The various researches on labor mobility had identified the push factors which are unemployment and job opportunities. The survey confirmed the same as 37.8 per cent migrated due to unemployment and 28.4 per cent opted migration for grabbing better job opportunities. The survey revealed some interesting facts that labor migrant that opted to work in manufacturing sector of Pune was not for the

survival. It was pointed out by migrants labour that it safer way of collecting money. The various purposes were pointed out by them such as weddings, consumer goods. It means that prevalence of pull factors over push factors like higher wages in taking the mobility decision by migrants. The interesting fact pointed out by this study is that the 10 per cent of migrant labour took decision to migrate only to save money by working here for collecting capital for their entrepreneurship desired to be fulfilled.

5.1.4 The study answers the formulated research question which is: Is there any relation between migrant's network, person's influences migrant decision to move, reason for leaving the previous job and geographical mobility? The person is always influence by someone before considered to migrate. The results confirmed that friends influence the decision to move of migrants in both of (i.e. rural to urban / urban to urban) geographical mobility. It means access to job information. The study only measured the source from which migrant received the information. It excludes sources received the information. The labour seeks specific help before opting for migration. The current jobs information by three-fourth migrants received from their sources i.e. friends and relatives. In RO migrant networks the maximum concentration is found in friends i.e. 44.24%. It is found least in the sources of information from job contractor i.e. 4.24%. In UO migrant networks, dominated by friends' i.e. 10.90%. The job contractors are at least in the migrants' network i.e. 2.43%. It examines that what make the migrants leave their place of origin. The study divided the factors into four categories i.e. seeking (better) opportunity of work, earning not adequate, inadequate infrastructure facilities, and others reason. There may be one or more reasons associated with the mobility decision. In the study the respondents were asked to specify only (i.e. one) main reason to migrate. The MRO maximum concentration is found in the determinant i.e. earning not adequate that comprises of 33.94%. The MUO maximum concentration is found in the determinant i.e. earning not adequate that comprises of 13.33%. The structural difference still exists in the geographically divided dual sector of economy into rural and urban areas. The rural–urban labour transfer is yet an equilibrating mechanism for the wage difference. Hence, these sectors are functionally and spatially apart yet connected by the migration. The study also focuses on the determinant of the job mobility. The results were found similar to

the previous studies on the migration. The wage difference/ income are the main determinant for the job mobility. It is followed by the casual nature of employment as a next determinant for the job mobility. The following conjecture can be made that: (i) among the main reasons for the rural to urban and urban to urban job mobility is still dominated by the monetary benefits. (ii) Till the date the working conditions as a determinants does not lead too much of labour mobility in both of geographical mobility. The study also focuses on the determinate of the job mobility. The main emphasis was on considering the working condition as a determinant of job mobility. It is even viewed in the geographical mobility too. The results were found similar to the previous studies on the migration. The wage difference/ income are the main determinant for the job mobility even in geographical mobility. It is followed by the casual nature of employment as a next determinant for the job mobility. In the present study role of working condition were found negligible.

5.1.5 The study answers the formulated research question which is: Is there any relation between reasons to move from previous place of residence? The study analyzed the push and pull determinants that migrant opted to migrate from place of origin to Pune manufacturing sector. 59 percent of the respondents gave the reason that lack of job opportunity at the previous place was the major factor for them to move from previous location. 50.9 percent of the respondents indicated that fewer employment benefits were the reason for them to move whereas 43.3 percent of the respondents stated that the income which they were earning at their pervious location was insufficient to meet their personal and their family needs. A poor economic condition at the previous location was the reason stated by 23.9 percent of respondents for their mobility their previous location.

5.1.6 The study answers the formulated research question which is: Is there any relation between pre-migration information about the availability of employment and labor mobility? The survey results confirm that only 39.3 per cent migrants had pre-migration information about where could be working before reaching to Pune i.e. they had an arranged work placement. 27.5per cent migrants said they have some idea about their work but did not have an exact idea of what they will be doing. At the same time, almost one third of respondents informed they had not known what the availability of job in Pune. It means that they were in a risk group which could

be cheated, exploited or left without any job after their arrival to Pune.

- 5.1.7** The study answers the formulated research question which is: Is there any relation between compositions of migrant's network, financed sources for moving and labor mobility? Different research on mobility states that the very poor do not migrate as they cannot afford the travel costs. Most of the studies had pointed out that if travel expenses of labour through intermediaries leads to victims of slavery. The survey results confirmed that these migrants belong to group of middle income range. 66.3 per cent of migrants indicated that their travel to Pune is financed by own (family) means where as 22.7 per cent of migrants borrowed the money for the ticket and other expenses from relatives.
- 5.1.8** The study answers the formulated research question which is: Is there any relation between reasons for leaving the previous job, duration of continuing job, work and working condition and labor mobility? Study reveals the reason for leaving the previous job is considered and relates it with the geographical mobility. It examines that what make the migrants leave their previous job. These factors have individually or combined effect on job mobility decision. It is found that it even difficult for migrant to locate the exact cause for leaving the previous job. To simplify it they were asked to provide only the one main reason for leaving the previous job. The inadequate payment as a reason for job mobility comprises of 56.16 per cent were as 25.34 per cent and 7.53 per cent opted the reason of casual employment and inadequate working condition. The survey confirmed it that migrants are working in Pune form long time. 48.1 per cent of them have been working for more than 5 years. The work migrants do and the conditions they work in Pune often leave much to be desired. While in most cases this hard work and difficult working conditions of the migrant workers are associated with their irregular position in the place. In some cases, migrants themselves agree to work under any conditions and stay as long as needed at work in order to earn more money. Among the migrant labour, 18.1 per cent describe their work and working conditions to be very hard. The study does not found any relation of labour mobility and working condition in the manufacturing sector of Pune.
- 5.1.9** The study answers the formulated research question which is: Is there any relation between migrants earning at the place and on job, remittance to home, frequency of sending remittance mode of send money to home and labor mobility? It is a

challenge to answer with precision for these questions. As when it is asked to labour though seems to be simple. In reality these questions are actually quite complex as responses varies. These type questions are subjective as when asked for the family budgets each response are expected to be of higher consumption bar than the actual. These questions were need to understand the outcome of migration opted by migrants. The earning made by them in the manufacturing sectors is sufficient to meet their daily needs i.e. housing, food, clothing, and other necessities. The main concern in migration is survivability. 56.9 per cent responded that the income earned by them is sufficient to meet their expenses whereas the only 5.4 per cent felt that whatever is earned here is insufficient for them to meet the expected requirement. The 37.5 per cent of respondent where happy to be in place and on job as they get earn more the enough here. The most of the researchers had indicated that positive impact of labor mobility to origin communities comes through remittances, new skills, technology transfers. The majority of labor migrants in survey are working in low skilled jobs therefore any discussion about new skills or technologies which could be applied further in development of localities of migrants originated from cannot be stated. 97 per cent of our respondents stated that they send money home, where 86 per cent are regular senders. The informal discussion with the migrants had indicated that the status of the family had improved through their remittances. The study analysis the regularity in sending remittance to home. It was found that 76.8 per cent migrants send it on a monthly basis. As informed by the migrants they send money each month as soon as they get their salary. They even mentioned that keeping money with themselves is risky due to various reasons as mentioned by them. As soon they get the payments they just keep a decent amount for their living and rest send to home. 76.6 per cent respondent send money through the people going back home. 56.6 per cent of respondents stated that they send money as soon as they get their salary. The mode of sending money is through banks, post office. The 68.2 per cent respondent collect the money and take with themselves while going back home.

5.1.10 The study answers the formulated research question which is: Is there any relation between kind of positive effects of migration on migrant and his family? The study tries to analyze what kind of impacts has labor mobility on people and

sending localities, through labor migrants' opinions and personal evolutions on this impact. 83 per cent of migrant workers who took part in the survey confirmed that thanks to their work their financial situation has improved considerably, as well as 70 per cent of them were happy that their wellbeing was raised and living conditions improved. 43 per cent declared that they already managed to purchase or construct a house, while 31.8 per cent purchased a consumer durable goods. Working in Pune and the remittances they sent also helped 34.2 per cent of the respondents to raise their position in the society. The opportunity of spending more on health was indicated by 33 per cent of the migrants, while 16.9 per cent also indicated the opportunity to provide better education to the children. 38 per cent of the respondents also managed to save a considerable amount of money, while only 6 per cent invested in establishing small business or beginning entrepreneurship activity. There was also very interesting result that 21.2 per cent of our respondents declared that they acquired new profession and skills, which is in fact a very good positive outcome.

5.1.11 The study answers the formulated research question which is: Is there any relation between kinds of negative effects on migrants and his family? The 47.2 per cent responded that working in Pune doesn't have any negative effects however others accept that migration is causing negative physiological effects on them. Unfortunately, 14.3 per cent of our respondents complained that during their stay health worsened in Pune. 3.4 per cent of them accused their work in Pune has worsening of their relations with spouses. 2.2 per cent of migrants indicated that the migration leads to degradation of moral and cultural values in them so do it's been observed by them in their families. 10.9 per cent even indicated that living away from my family and society had negative psychological effect on them. The News-media frequently report about migrants attacked by different local groups. Before our survey we were sure that these kinds of groups and attacks may be creating problems and fear among migrants however the results of the survey draw a totally different picture. There are also several other potential risk sources which were indicated by our respondents like – dishonest employers and mediators and others, however these risks are indicated by a comparatively smaller share of our respondents. The various kind of negative effect on migrant's family while their working in Pune had leads to. The 28.7 per cent of respondents

complain that during their stay their spouse or children became sick and had physiological effects on them. The 14.6 per cent of respondents accused that their work in Pune has worsening their relations with spouses. 23.2 per cent of migrants pointed out that the migration had leads to worsen the upbringing of their children. 27.2 per cent of respondent even pointed out that living away from their family and society had negative psychological effect on them. The school results of their children had worsens without a control over them as they are busy in earning only live hood. The most of respondents even pointed out that living standard to sustain in this city is such higher in spite of earning higher than in their place the saving is not in portion to their income. The psychological pressure to prove them is bringing the negative physiological effect that is worsening their relations with the family. As indicated by few respondents that they are looking for alternatives for source of earning to sustain as the wage rate have not changed over the period of time in manufacturing sector in response to rise in price level.

5.1.12 The study answers the formulated research question which is: Is there any relation between factors considered by respondents to move back to native place or willingness to stay permanently? The 15.1 per cent responded as they have no plans on migration in the coming period. Its means they have not yet decided whether they will be staying here or will be going back to the native place. 22 per cent of respondents are sure to go back. They were sure that in coming years they will earn enough money which will be an adequate amount of for them to sustain in their village. An attachment from their roots is also pointed out by few respondents as a reason to move back to their roots. They even pointed out the reason keep in touch with roots will be helpful in maintain family social status which will be needed at the time of children marriage. 64.8 percent of respondents have shown the willingness to stay permanently as the place provides regular employment for sustaining themselves as well as provides better living standard for the family. Some of the respondents even said that they prefer to settle here permanently as they find this pace better for their children future, the environment is good and the educational opportunities are more in Pune as compared to their native place. The study pointed the determinants which are main factors for migrant been considered in reverse migration. The 69.9 per cent labor migrants were agreeing to the fact that opportunities at native place are improving. 65. 1 per

cent labor migrants were agreeing to the fact that over a period of time working in Pune had added to improve economic conditions at home. 60.6 percent and 54.5 per cent responded pointed out those facts that their provision for good housing and provision of public transport has improved. These determinants are adding to reverse migration of labor in the recent years.

5.2. IMPACTS OF PUSH AND PULL DETERINMANTS OF LABOR MOBILITY ON MIGRANTS

The changing migration patterns in recent years is due to economic factors, push- and pull theories along with the cultural, environmental and political factors. Differences in the various determinants of individual migrant (i.e. at both places at origin and of destination) are considered by various researchers as factors that motivate migrate. These factors can be divided into push factors (i.e. negative factors of the place of origin) and pull factors (i.e. attract factors of individuals to another area).

Ravenstein 'Laws of migration' (1885) serves as a starting point of the push- and pull theories. As pointed out that migration occurs in a series of different stages. The migrant move to urban place due to it creates gaps in rural-urban migrants which filled from people of more distant place. The rural-urban differences among labour migrants for earning or economic factor remain topic of interest to researchers in developing countries. The rapid urbanization increases considerably next to economic development in these countries.

Lee (1966) extends the basic push- and pull framework of Ravenstein (1885). It was with a view of intervening factors that make migration from one place to another more difficult. The barriers are physical barriers i.e. travelling costs, climate condition as well as invisible barriers i.e. language

Individuality of migrants and perceives of the migrants are more important determinant at place of origin and place of destination. For example, younger individuals are more flexible in general and therefore better able to travel large distances and overcome language barriers. Lee (1966) does not provide any empirical evidence for the same but viewed certain (individual) threshold to migration.

It is revealed from the study that the push and pull determinants that leads the respondents to opt for mobility. The survey confirmed the driven push factors were lower wages and inadequate employment. The pull factors opted by respondents are comparatively high wages and employ opportunities. The respondents indicate that they do not have enough income at their place. The labor that's migrating to the Pune manufacturing sector provides them an option for sufficient income to finance their different needs. For these migrants the push factor such as low wages and inadequate job becomes the guiding force to migrate. One favorable and unfavorable impacts of labor mobility on migrant individuals, their families was assessed. The graphical model for each level show the social status and expansion of social network are having positive impact. The labor mobility graphical model is developed to provide an overview about the increased in migrants income and remittances impact at various levels.

The results of survey confirmed the positive impact of remittances as it sent to families to sustain them. It even expressed by many respondents that the earned income when sent to families had improved their economical situation as well as social well being. In the figure 5.2.1 a graphic model of the main positive impacts of labor mobility for migrants clearly shows that remittances create a diversified income source for families and increase their disposable income. Apart from financial and economic benefits migrants' remittances bring positive psychological and social outcomes such as higher self-esteem and self-confidence of the members of remittance receiving families, and improved social status of the members of those families within community. The finding from survey also pointed out that working and the remittance sent home helped the labor migrant to raise his and family position in the eyes of society.

Figure 5.2.2 indicate that due to mobility the psychological and emotional difficulties of separation faced by them becomes an negative outcomes of mobility which in some cases have its negative outcome in the form of destructed families or worsened behavior of children left without one or both parents for long time. Pitable living and working conditions worsen the health of migrants. As stated by few migrants that in some industries there are no safety measure followed results in disability or death of migrant's worker had occurred due to accidents at workplace.

The perturbing trend in current scenario is that migrants get infectious diseases due to their poor living, sanitary conditions and absence of basic knowledge about infectious diseases. Infected migrants have a high risk of transmitting the infection. In recent years the increased cases of localities clashes with migrants appeared in news. The migrants also stated that fears do exist in them in this regard.

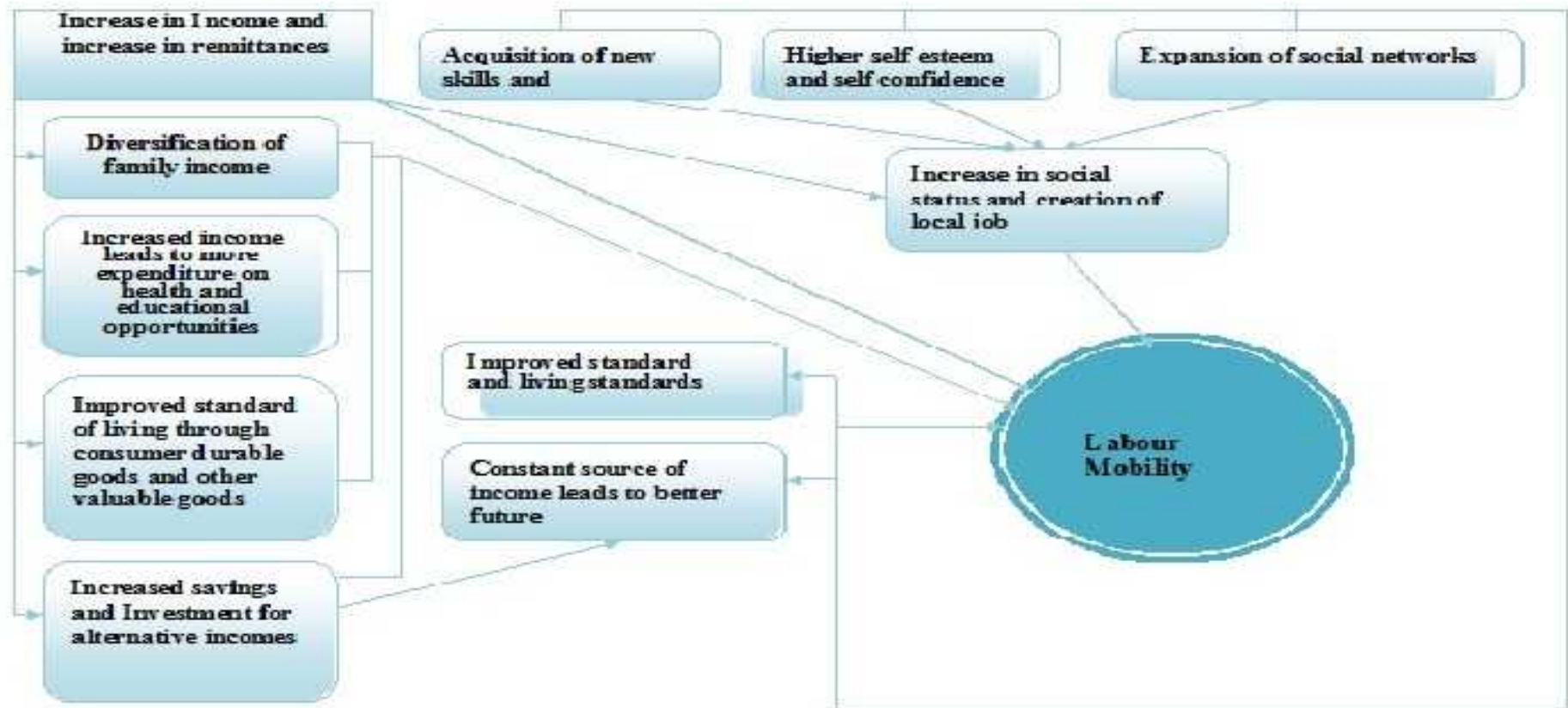


Figure 5.2.1 – Graphic Model Of Pull Determinants Of Labor Mobility On Migrants

Source: Own representation.

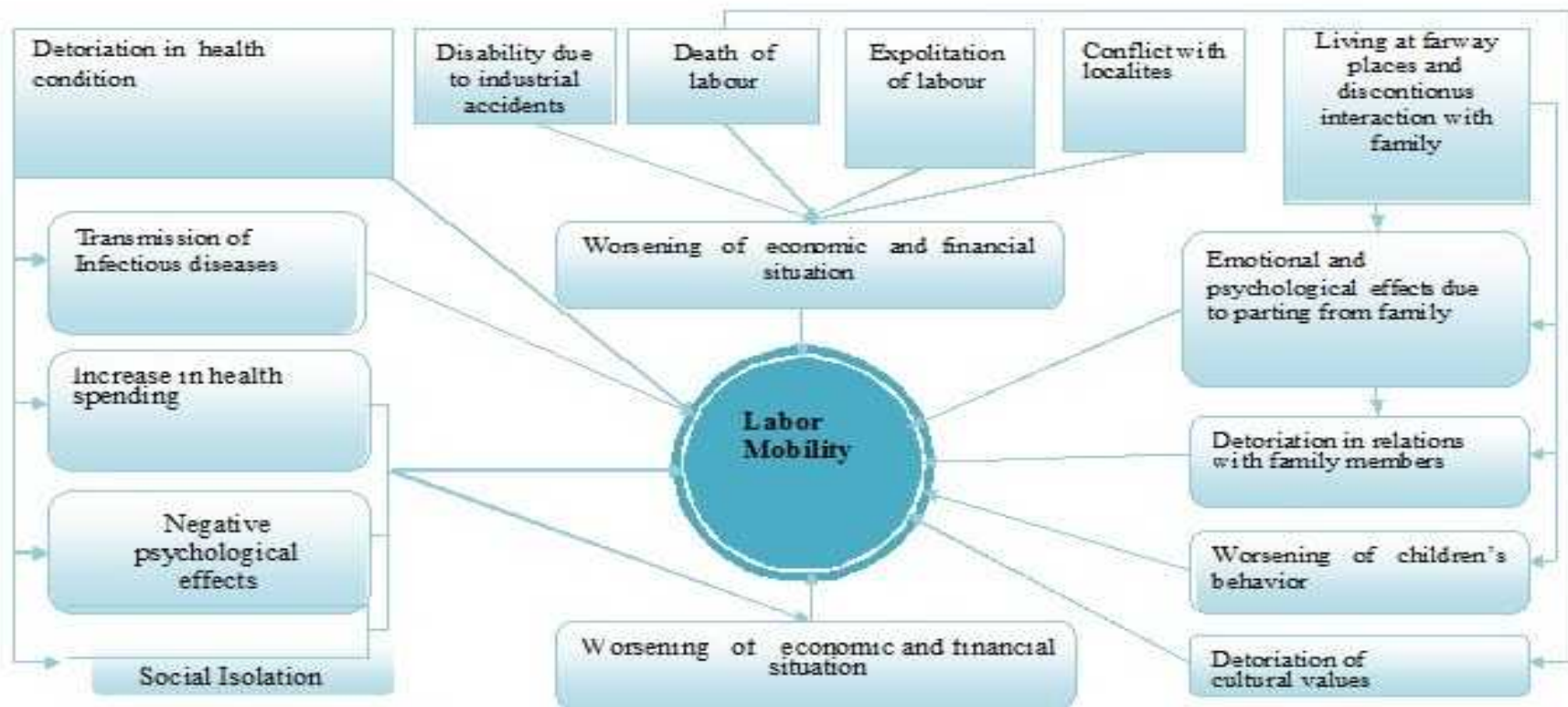


Figure 5.2.2 – Graphic Model Push Determinants Of Labor Mobility On Migrants

Source: Own representation.

5.3. IMPACT OF PUSH AND PULL DETERMINANTS OF LABOUR MOBILITY ON COMMUNITY AND GEOGRAPHICAL LEVEL

The evidence from various studies has shown direct positive impacts of labour mobility on the geographical level. It can be revealed from the increasing job prospects and reduce unemployment rates in the regions. It may be outcome of investment made by the migrant and migrant family's leads to increase in local business and services.

Figures 5.3.1 provides a graphical representation on positive determinants of labor mobility at community and geographical level. The money inflow through migrants is providing the prospects to local business. The enhanced demand of goods and various services had improved the living standard of the local population to which migrant belongs. The geographically produced goods and various services are helping circular flow of income. The money gets transfer from one section to other section of the society that make the life of people at the place at ease. The multiplier effect in economy through migrants earning had improve the shape of their geographical place. The outcomes of this consumption are increased in job prospects at the place. The sector such as constructions, white goods and others in economy are the results of earning sent by migrants. The raised values of land and houses prices are the outcome of income flow from migrants to the region. The migrants revealed that their large share of earning are spent on consumption for the improvement in the expenditure pattern of household. It includes the construction of house and others as well the various social functions that are directly creating short term jobs opportunities at the place. It can even be said that the mobility of labour is bringing equality of gender. Some migrants informed that the role of spouses had increased in various decisions making with respect to social and economical aspects. This impact was noticeable from improved women conditions in managing and controlling various aspects monetary and non monetary matters as informed by the respondents. The migration of labour at the manufacturing industries had improved their social status through the income earned at the place and the additional skills acquired by them. The sharing of the skills and migrants experiences when shared among the community members had improved the potential migrants from the place.

Figures 5.3.2 provides a graphical representation on negative determinants of labor mobility on community and geographical level. The factors can be based on

economic and social costs of migration on them. Labor mobility sometimes leads to disable and occupational hazards workers causing them to become an additional financial burden on their families. In the coming years the negative impact of labor mobility will be the spread of different infectious diseases. The degradation of moral at all levels such as individual, household and community. The cultural values among the migrant and their family are changed which are noticeable at all stages. Increase in financial support provided by government at a geographical level can be interpreted as negative financial consequences of labor mobility on the geographical level.

The increased in incomes of household had leads to rise in price of real estate and fueling the shadow economy. Disparities in the incomes of community members and expectation of the people lead to rise in crime rates.

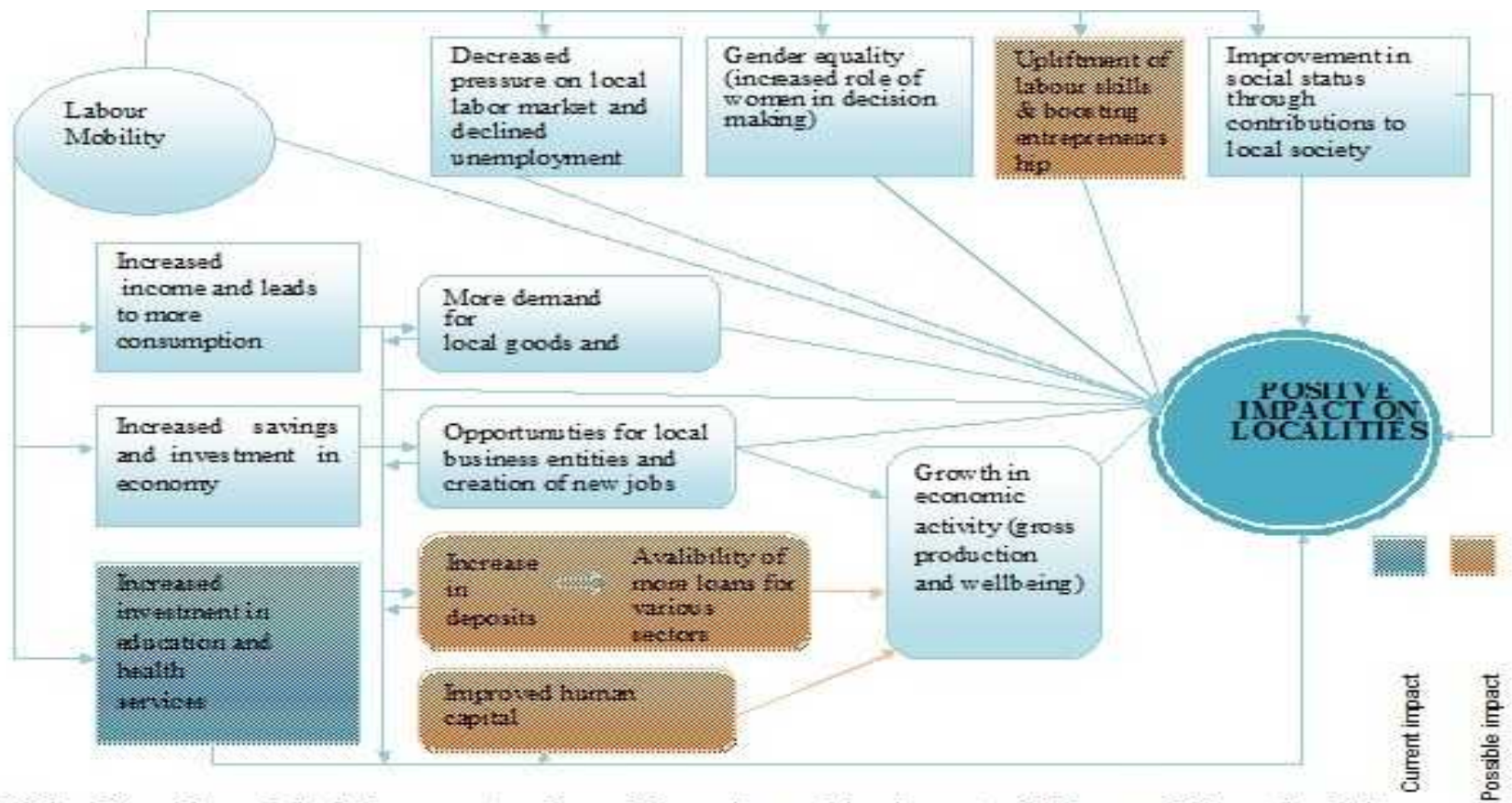


Figure 5.3.1 – Graphic model of the current and possible major positive impacts of labor mobility on localities.

Source: Own representation.

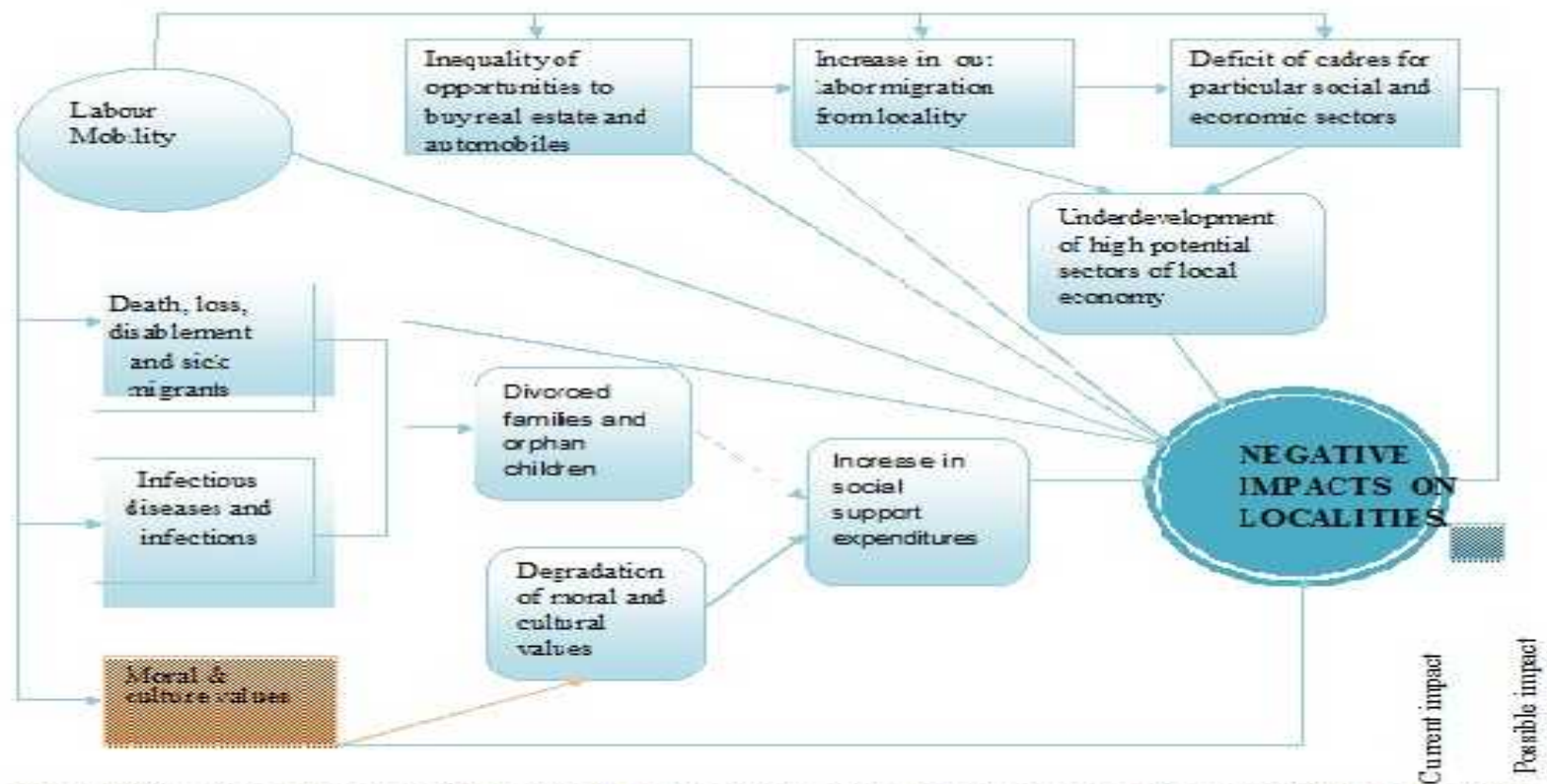


Figure 5.3.2 – Graphic model of the current and possible major negative impacts of labor mobility on localities.
 Source: Own representation

5.4. THE IMPACT OF LABOR MOBILITY ON NATIONAL LEVEL

This study tries to view the implications of labour mobility at national level. In the absence of appropriate data gives an obstacle for quantitative analysis of the role of labor mobility on the economic growth.

The labour mobility increases the income of household. As the income had increased the consumption expenditure of household also increase. The household investment pattern also gets changed. This has got a multiple effect on the economy. The economy starts moving towards the growth.

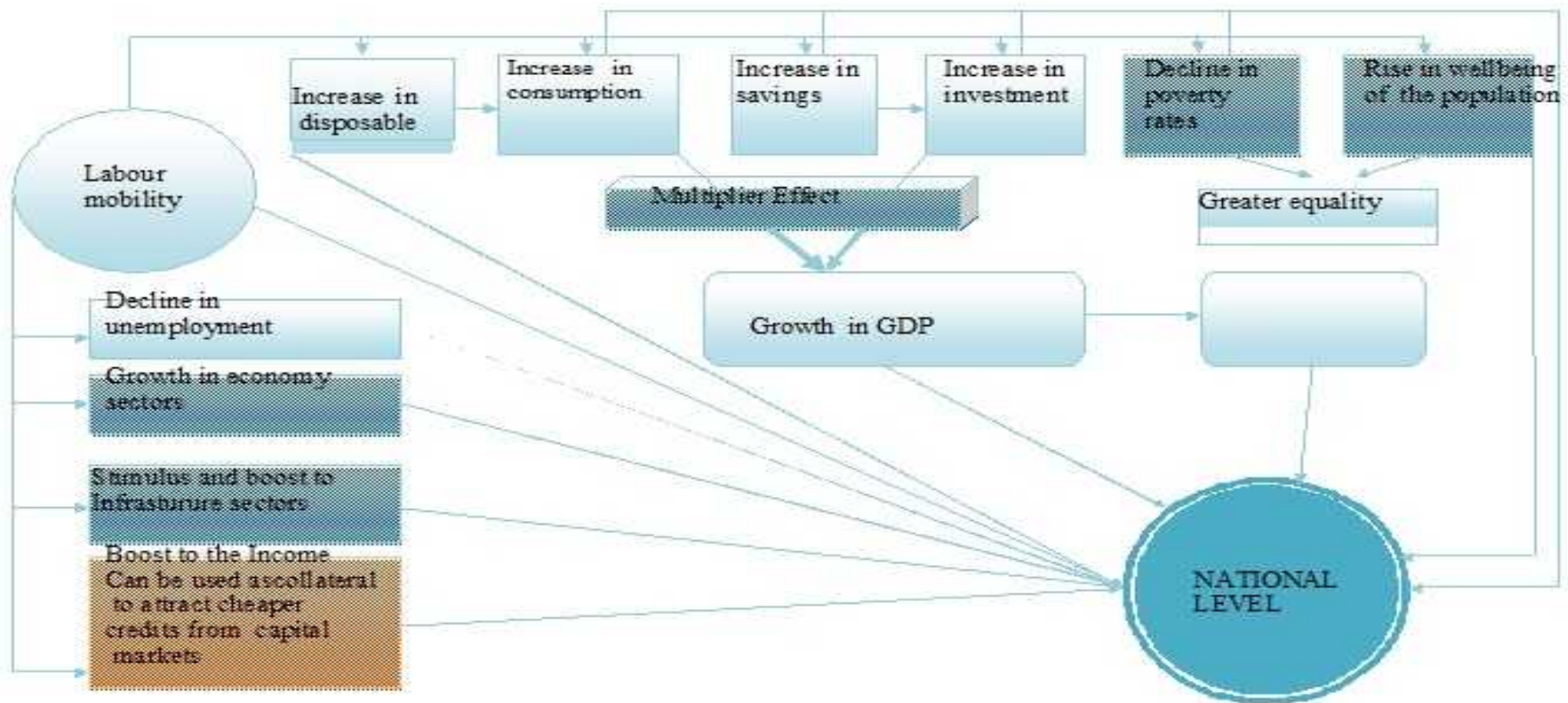
The Figure 5.4.1 depicts the outcome of various observations at national level. The remittances coming from migrated labor enhances the disposable personal income of the individuals that leads to boost in momentum of economy. In other words, it leads to more consumption and higher investments in economy by individuals and households. The multiplier effect of migrants is an imperative determinant that boosts the required growth rate in various sectors of India. The notable changes are visible in construction sector and retail sectors. The services sector also getting the importance through the movement of labour.

The employability made available through movement leads to decline in unemployment. The improved economical conditions increased the population above the poverty line. It results in the rise and wellbeing of different layers of the population. Thus we can say that the migration of labour has created equality level on individual, group of people and society.

The mobility of labor had increasing the household income. The remittances sent by migrants had helped in regional employability. Remittances through migrants could be used as good collateral to attract credits. The remittances accumulated increases the credit ratings of household and they can borrow loans form markets. The increase in the consumption and investment by the migrants and their family helped the growth rate.

At the macro level migration also serve as an additional support mechanism to the social system. Decline in real unemployment rates is another positive impact of labor mobility at macro level. The increasing number of migrants also gives a flip to transportation sector. In recent years, several new train, bus and flight routes were opened to different cities. The development in infrastructure at national level can be indirectly associated with the quantum of migration.

Figure 5.4.1 – Graphic model of current and possible future major positive impacts of labor mobility on national level



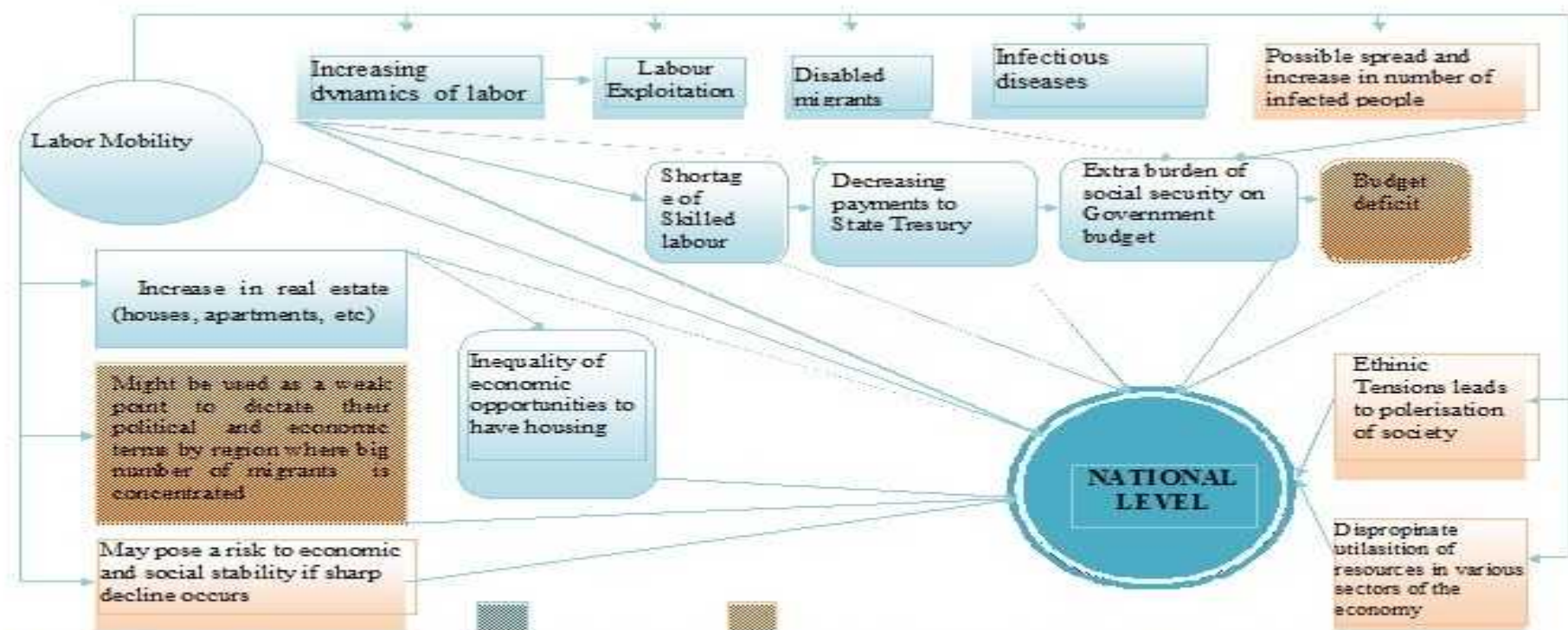


Figure 5.4.2 – Graphic model of current and possible major negative impacts of labor mobility on national level

Source: Own representation.

Current impact

Possible impact

5.5 LABOR MOBILITY- SOME SUGGESTIONS.

The evidence in the present study has shown that households, while having significant regular income from different internal sources like wages, stipends, pensions, agricultural production etc, will also send a member or members to work to earn money for investments in real estate, vehicles, higher education, some business or development of entrepreneurship. The labor mobility will keep on attracted to the Pune manufacturing sectors it is suggested that:

1. To develop a frame work to find better solutions to problems of migrants and adjustment of them in new environment.
2. To train and educate them to face and prevent possible infectious diseases
3. To initiate some mechanisms for stimulating them to invest a part of their disposable income in small business activity in addition to restore the trust of such population in financial institutions in own region to attract unused savings of remittance receiving as bank deposits to support businesses in region.
4. To establish entities which will help them for start up a small business and provide them ad hoc free consultancy services for efficient business management and mechanism to get easy financial.
5. Help for remittances receiving households which would like to invest in some small business or sustainable income generation sources.
6. To elaborate special programs and mechanisms to reduce unnecessary high socio-cultural expenditures.

5.5.1. POLICY ISSUES TO MANAGE MIGRANT FLOWS

The mobility of labor to a region assumed by local people that its increase the unemployment of local peoples. The arguments of the local people are not valid. The most of the migrants enter into the areas untapped by the local workers as well as they are entering into low wage jobs. The competitions for these jobs are ignorable. The migrants who enter into the region sometimes become the self employed in the other sectors of economy. These migrants who come to places create the employment opportunities in the region and give boost to the economy of the region.

The priorities at policy level for rural sector is to provide potable water, connectivity, agricultural and allied development and skill based literacy. Cities

continue to grow and develop at a fast speed. To manage the labor mobility following measures are suggested.

- i. Setting up labour intensive small-scale industries in rural areas to absorb them.
- ii. Providing loans to educated youth to establish such industries under self-employment scheme.
- iii. Dislocation of certain offices and industries from densely populated urban areas to rural places.
- iv. Skill oriented education centres in rural areas for imparting required skills and training
- v. Improving the educational system and pattern of education to equip them with skills to absorb in rural base industries.
- vi. Provisions for infrastructure development in the rural areas improve the opportunities for the rural people.
- vii. Provision of incentives to those people who opt to serve in rural areas.
- viii. Diversification of MSMEs with power and water in addition to connectivity in rural areas. Inclusive development plan for land acquired for industries to provide jobs to land owners.
- ix. These policies will assist the migrants to reallocate themselves into the societies and economies of their origin

5.6 FURTHER STUDIES FOR THE RESEARCHERS

The results of the study indicated that maximum labor mobility decision as voluntary and the factor which were considered are still same. The further studies can be based on collected data for decade of migrants with respect to social aspects of them as well as it can be evaluated on cost and benefits to migrants. There is better scope even for how work status of spouse gets affected or how the double income concepts lead to labor mobility in recent time. There is increasing trend of foreign investment which may result in shifting primary sector population to secondary sectors for better employment or earning. Collecting and analyzing the migrant's time series data can help in exploring the important determinants of shifting in population which can be correlated with the changing government policies. The rising intolerance, imbalance in the climate change and economic level of states can be study for the movements among labor migrants.

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APPENDIX-I :

Field Questionnaire on

Serial No:_____

**“A STUDY OF DETERMINANTS OF LABOUR MOBILITY IN THE
MANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES”**

BY BHATI RAKESH

Dear respondents, the objective of this survey is to study the determinants of “Labour Mobility in the Manufacturing Industries”. There are no rights or wrong answers. Your honest opinion will contribute to a great extent in understanding the various factors that contribute to Labour Mobility in the Manufacturing Industries. This questionnaire does not require you to personally identify yourself. Your information will remain anonymous and confidential and will be used only for scientific research purposes in Ph.D and the data will only be reported in an aggregated form.

Name of Industry: _____ Place of interview: _____

Size of industry: 1.Large – 2. Medium – 3. Small –

SECTION I: BACKGROUND INFORMATION

1. Gender : 1. Male 2. Female

2. How old are you now?

1. Less than 20 2. 21- 30 3. 31 - 40 4. 41-50 5. 51 & above

3. What is your marital status? 1. Single 2. Married 3. Divorced

4. Educational Status (in terms of highest level attained)

1. Illiterate 2. Upto 10th 3. Higher Secondary 4. ITI (diploma)

5. Graduate 6. Others (Please Specify) _____

5. Religion : 1. Hindu 2. Muslim 3. Christian 4. Other

6. Caste : 1. Open 2. OBC 3. SC/ ST 4. Other

(GENERAL INFORMATION ABOUT RESPONDENT’S FAMILY)

7. How many people do you have in your family? _____

8. How many of them are employed? _____

9. How many people do you support (i.e. provide financial assistance)?

10. Are some members of your family living and working with you in

Pune? _____

10-a. If yes, who are they? _____

10-b. How old are they? _____

11. How many of them are minors (under age)? _____

SECTION II: PRE- MIGRATION PHASE

12. Place of origin:

1. (Within Pune) Intra-district
2. (With in Maharashtra) Intra- State
3. (Outside Maharashtra) Inter- State

13. Was your place of origin is an urban or rural area?

1. Urban
2. Rural

14. What was the reason for you to move from your previous place of residence?

Check all that applies.

1. Lack of job opportunities
2. Earnings not adequate to sustain
3. Fewer employment benefits
4. Poor job quality
5. Poor economic conditions
6. Poor health service
7. Inadequate Educational facilities
8. Lack of public transport
9. Poor quality of housing
10. Unfavorable climate
11. High crime rate
12. Others (Please State) _____

15. Why did you choose to move to Pune?

1. Better job opportunities
2. Better employment benefits
3. Accumulate money for purchase of consumer durable
4. Accumulate money for construction or buying of house
5. Unemployment
6. Accumulate money for family events(wedding)
7. Accumulate money for starting own business/ enterprise
8. Others (Please State) _____

16. Before coming to the place d you have any information specifically about employment in this place?

1. Yes had information
2. Did not have information
3. Some information

17. How did you finance your travel expenses while coming to work in Pune?

1. Own / family financial resources
2. The financial resources borrowed from relatives
3. The financial resources borrowed from friends
4. Employer covered the travel expenses
5. Other (please, specify) _____

18. What were the main sources of to get the job information before moving to this place?

1. Relatives
2. Friends
3. Media
4. Job contractor

19. Persons influence your migrant decision to move to this place?

1. Self
2. Parents
3. Spouse
4. Friends
5. Others _____

20. Did you consider these before joining the current job? (More than one answer can be chosen)

1. Payment
2. Social Security
3. Working condition
4. Others , _____

SECTION III: INFORMATION ABOUT CURRENT WORK PLACE

21. How long the respondents have been working in Pune?

1. Less than One year
2. One to five years
3. Above five years

22. How many jobs you had changed while working here? (_____)

23. Reasons for leaving pervious job?

1. Inadequate pay
2. Casual employment
3. Bad working condition
4. Other reasons _____

24. What is your current income per annum?

1. Less than Rs.60,000
2. Rs.60,000 to 1,50,000
3. Rs.150, 000 and above

25. How do you rate the work at the current job? Hard / Easy

25.a) How do you find the working condition at the current job? Good / Poor

26. How well does your total income meet your daily needs such as housing, food, clothing, and other necessities?

1. Not enough
2. Enough
3. More than enough

27. Do you send money home? Yes, always Yes, sometimes No

27-a. If you send, how frequently ? (please, specify) _____

27-b. if you send, how much per month you send in average (Rs.)? _____

28. How do you send money home? (More than one answer can be chosen)
1. Through the people going back home
 2. I gather the money and take with myself while going back home
 3. Through money transfer systems
 4. Other (please, specify) _____
29. What kind of positive effects has your working in Pune had on you and your family? (More than one answer can be chosen)
1. I have acquired a new profession, skills or work experience
 2. We built or purchased a house
 3. We able to purchased consumer durable
 4. Our financial situation has improved
 5. Our position in the society raised
 6. Our wellbeing raised and living conditions improved
 7. We got opportunity to spend more on our health
 8. We got opportunity to provide better education to our children
 9. We saved considerable amount of money
 10. We established small business or began entrepreneurship activity
 11. Other (please, specify) _____
30. In your opinion, what kind of positive effects has your working in Pune & sending remittance had on the originated place?
- It hasn't had any positive effect
- Yes, it has had (please, specify) _____
31. Does any kind of negative effects has your working in Pune had on you
1. Yes have negative effect
 2. No it did not have any negative effect
- 31.a) If yes, what negative effects it has (More than one answer can be chosen)
1. My health worsened
 2. I got serious illnesses
 3. Relations with my spouse worsened
 4. Degradation of moral and cultural values
 5. I spent more than earned
 6. Living away from my family had bad negative psychological effect on me
 7. Other (please, specify) _____
32. What kind of negative effects has your working in Pune had on your family
1. Yes have negative effect
 2. No it did not have any negative effect
- 32.a) If yes, what negative effects it has (More than one answer can be chosen)
1. Our financial situation has been worsened due to the fact that I became indebted during my stay here
 2. Relations with my spouse worsened and our family collapsed
 3. Upbringing of our children worsened

4. School results of our children worsened
 5. My spouse or children became sick or their health worsened
 6. Other (please, specify) _____
33. In your opinion, what kind of negative effects has your leaving to in Pune had on the locality, city or district you originated from?
1. Yes have negative effect
 2. No it did not have any negative effect
- If Yes, it has had (please, specify) _____

SECTION IV: PLAN FOR FUTURE

34. How long you are planning to continue working in Pune? (please, specify)

35. Do you want to stay in Pune permanently?

1. Yes
2. No
3. I have never thought about this

4. Other (please, specify) _____

35a) if yes what determinants/factors motivate you to stay here this place

35b). If No, what would motivate you to move back to your native place? (More than one answer can be chosen)

1. Creation of more job opportunities
2. Better employment benefits
3. Provision of more employment benefits
4. Improvement in economic conditions
5. Provision of health service
6. Provision of Education Services
7. Provision of public transport
8. Provision of good housing
9. Reduction in Pollution
10. Reduction in crime
11. Ethnic tension
12. Others (Please State) _____

36. Any Suggestion: _____

Thanks for providing the valuable information and for your time.

**APPENDIX-II:
CENSUS OF INDIA (1971, 1981, 1991, 2001): MIGRATION
TABLES**

Appendix 1: Internal migrants by sex, India 1971-2001

Year	Lifetime Migrants (in millions)			Percentage of Migrants	
	Persons	Males	Females	Males	Females
1971	159.6	49.6	110	19	43.1
1981	201.6	59.2	142.4	17.6	43.9
1991	225.9	61.1	164.8	14.6	41.2
2001	309.4	90.7	218.7	17.5	44.6

Appendix 2: Growth of Internal Migrants by sex, India 1971-2001.

Year	Lifetime Migrants (%)			Intercensal Migrants (%)	
	Persons	Males	Females	Males	Females
1971-1981	26.3	19.43	29.4	13.74	22.02
1981-1991	12.04	3.21	15.72	-12.34	7.42
1991-2001	36.96	48.33	32.75	21.85	19.87
1971-2001	93.82	82.83	98.78	21.48	57.12

**Appendix 3: Growth of Internal Migrants by rural urban status,
India 1971-2001.**

Year	Total (%)			Rural (%)		Urban (%)	
	Persons	Males	Females	Males	Females	Persons	Males
1971-1981	26.3	19.43	29.4	4.5	22.6	40.2	32.1
1981-1991	12.04	3.21	15.72	-0.2	14.1	13.8	6.5
1991-2001	36.96	48.33	32.75	33.6	28.4	49	57.2
1971-2001	93.82	82.83	98.78	69.4	68.9	162.2	156.4

Appendix 4.1 : Percent distribution of lifetime migrants of each sex by migration streams, India 1971-1981

Type of migration streams	1971			1981		
	Males	Females	Sex Ratio	Males	Females	Sex Ratio
I Intradistrict						
Rural to Rural	36.8	61.2	271	32.2	56.6	237
Rural to Urban	9.3	5.3	791	10.7	6	744
Urban to Rural	3.6	3	550	3.6	3	510
Urban to Urban	3.3	1.8	838	4.6	2.5	772
Sub-total	53.3	71.4	336	51.1	68.1	313
II Interdistrict						
Rural to Rural	9.5	12.1	353	9.3	13.4	289
Rural to Urban	8	3.2	1138	9.5	3.9	1010
Urban to Rural	2.4	1.5	698	2.6	1.8	595
Urban to Urban	7.2	3.4	953	8.4	4.1	848
Sub-total	27.2	20.3	604	29.9	23.3	534
III Interstate						
Rural to Rural	4.5	3.5	592	3.8	3.3	477
Rural to Urban	6.7	1.7	1719	7.5	2.1	1478
Urban to Rural	1.5	0.6	1074	1.4	0.6	921
Urban to Urban	6.2	2.3	1189	6.2	2.5	1026
Sub-total	19.6	8.3	1059	19	8.6	915
All Streams						
Rural to Rural	50.8	76.8	298	45.2	73.3	257
Rural to Urban	24	10.2	1057	27.7	12	960
Urban to Rural	7.5	5.1	660	7.6	5.5	578
Urban to Urban	16.6	7.5	1000	19.2	9.1	876
Total migrants (million)	49.6	110	451	59.2	142.4	416

Appendix 4.2: Percent distribution of lifetime migrants of each sex by migration streams, India 1991-2001

Type of migration streams	1991			2001		
	Males	Females	Sex Ratio	Males	Females	Sex Ratio
I Intra district						
Rural to Rural	30.9	54.7	210	19.1	50.6	157
Rural to Urban	11.3	6.3	664	8.3	5.3	645
Urban to Rural	3.6	2.9	464	2.6	2.2	510
Urban to Urban	4.3	2.3	685	5.3	2.7	810
Sub-total	50.4	66.5	281	52.2	66.9	324
II Inter district						
Rural to Rural	8.9	14	235	6.2	12.4	207
Rural to Urban	10.5	4.5	867	8.9	4.2	884
Urban to Rural	2.5	1.9	508	1.5	1.2	501
Urban to Urban	8	4	735	7.2	3.9	765
Sub-total	30.1	24.5	456	26.7	23	481
III Interstate						
Rural to Rural	3.5	3.3	393	3.4	3.6	392
Rural to Urban	8	2.3	1279	9.8	2.9	1392
Urban to Rural	1.3	0.7	705	0.9	0.5	747
Urban to Urban	6.5	2.7	913	5.7	2.5	924
Sub-total	19.4	9	803	21.1	10.1	865
All Streams						
Rural to Rural	43.3	72	223	28.8	66.6	179
Rural to Urban	29.8	13.2	841	27	12.4	902
Urban to Rural	7.4	5.4	5.9	5	3.9	538
Urban to Urban	18.9	9	774	18.2	9.2	822
Total migrants (million)	61.1	164.8	371	90.7	218.7	415

Appendix 5.1: Percent distribution of lifetime migrants of each sex by migration streams, India 1971-1981

Type of migration streams	1971			1981		
	Males	Females	Sex Ratio	Males	Females	Sex Ratio
I Intradistrict						
Rural to Rural	34.8	54.7	412	30.2	49.1	370
Rural to Urban	9.2	5.9	1003	11	7.2	928
Urban to Rural	4.3	3.7	755	4.3	3.7	714
Urban to Urban	3.7	2.4	978	5.1	3.5	872
Sub-total	52.2	66.8	505	50.6	63.4	481
II Interdistrict						
Rural to Rural	10.3	12	556	9.8	12.5	473
Rural to Urban	7.3	3.9	1220	9.2	5.1	1084
Urban to Rural	3	2.1	917	3.3	2.4	814
Urban to Urban	7.8	4.9	1044	8.9	5.9	911
Sub-total	28.6	22.9	808	31.2	26	724
III Interstate						
Rural to Rural	4.8	3.7	843	4.1	3.5	713
Rural to Urban	5.9	2.2	1701	5.3	2.7	1167
Urban to Rural	2	1	1320	1.8	1	1053
Urban to Urban	6	3.2	1219	5.6	3.3	1007
Sub-total	19.2	10.2	1211	18.1	10.6	1033
All Streams						
Rural to Rural	50	70.3	459	44.1	65	408
Rural to Urban	22.4	12	1202	26.8	15	1077
Urban to Rural	9.4	6.8	888	9.4	7.1	796
Urban to Urban	17.5	10.5	1082	19.9	12.7	941
Total migrants (million)	26.8	41.4	646	30.4	50.5	603

Appendix 5.2: Percent distribution of lifetime migrants of each sex by migration streams, India 1991-2001

Type of migration streams	1991			2001		
	Males	Females	Sex Ratio	Males	Females	Sex Ratio
I Intradistrict						
Rural to Rural	27.6	48.5	280	22.5	47.1	238
Rural to Urban	12.2	7.5	802	9.8	6.5	759
Urban to Rural	4.3	3.5	605	4	3.1	646
Urban to Urban	4.4	2.9	736	4.9	3.2	776
Sub-total	48.6	62.6	382	43.5	61.4	354
II Interdistrict						
Rural to Rural	9.3	13.2	345	8.3	12.7	326
Rural to Urban	10.6	5.6	930	10.2	5.4	944
Urban to Rural	3.1	2.3	654	2.4	1.8	663
Urban to Urban	8.7	5.4	792	8.6	5.3	808
Sub-total	31.7	26.6	587	30.3	25.8	587
III Interstate						
Rural to Rural	3.9	3.4	569	5.4	4.2	648
Rural to Urban	7.5	2.9	1247	11.7	3.9	1481
Urban to Rural	1.7	0.9	903	1.6	0.8	986
Urban to Urban	6.4	3.5	913	6.8	3.5	962
Sub-total	19.6	10.8	895	26.2	12.8	1024
All Streams						
Rural to Rural	40.8	65.1	308	36.1	64	282
Rural to Urban	30.3	16	929	31.7	15.8	1002
Urban to Rural	9.1	6.7	662	7.9	5.7	700
Urban to Urban	19.5	11.8	814	20.3	12	845
Total migrants (million)	26.7	54.3	492	32.5	65	500

Appendix 6: Growth of migrants by migration streams, India 1971-81

Migration streams	Lifetime Migrants			Inter censal Migrants		
	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females
All Internal Migrants						
Rural to Rural	19.56	6.32	23.51	8.87	0.3	12.8
Rural to Urban	44.56	37.83	51.69	43.25	36.07	51.89
Urban to Rural	31.35	21.06	38.14	21	14.04	27.19
Urban to Urban	47.83	38.1	57.55	38.61	29.28	48.71
Intradistrict						
Rural to Rural	16.49	4.57	19.72	6.26	-1.57	9.48
Rural to Urban	41.37	36.56	45.18	41.85	36.34	47.38
Urban to Rural	26.25	20.07	29.64	18.54	14.7	21.43
Urban to Urban	74.71	66.95	81.2	66.96	57.32	76.4
Interdistrict						
Rural to Rural	36	16.7	42.83	20.88	8.71	27.64
Rural to Urban	50.51	42.11	60.06	50.42	42.35	60.27
Urban to Rural	44.83	31.52	54.11	30.71	22.58	38.16
Urban to Urban	49.65	40.73	58.16	38.63	29.33	48.35
All Streams						
Rural to Rural	13.88	-1.17	22.79	5.81	-3.73	13.85
Rural to Urban	42.51	34.47	56.32	19.72	2.35	49.28
Urban to Rural	15.91	7.26	25.19	10.45	-0.41	24.79
Urban to Urban	28.43	19.7	38.82	15.97	5.91	28.25

Appendix 7: Growth of migrants by migration streams, India 1981-91

	Lifetime Migrants			Intercensal Migrants		
Migration streams	Persons	Males	Migration streams	Persons	Males	Migration streams
All Internal Migrants						
Rural to Rural	10.64	-1.29	13.71	-0.03	-18.74	7.61
Rural to Urban	19.34	11.33	27.03	6.58	-1.03	14.79
Urban to Rural	9.4	0.73	14.42	-5.63	-15.17	1.96
Urban to Urban	8.32	1.22	14.54	-7.29	-14.2	-0.78
Intradistrict						
Rural to Rural	9.34	-0.98	11.78	-0.73	-19.67	6.29
Rural to Urban	17.37	9.78	23.02	4.95	-2.93	12.25
Urban to Rural	9.01	2.32	12.42	-4.14	-13.23	2.36
Urban to Urban	3.95	-3.02	9.33	-17.04	-24.5	-10.54
Interdistrict						
Rural to Rural	16.36	-1.03	21.38	3.54	-17.25	13.38
Rural to Urban	23.74	14.34	33.22	9.11	1.1	17.8
Urban to Rural	11.79	0.94	18.25	-5.88	-17.06	3.21
Urban to Urban	6.05	-2.07	12.94	-7.94	-14.64	-1.85
Interstate						
Rural to Rural	9.13	-4.61	15.68	-3.4	-15.85	5.48
Rural to Urban	16.66	9.74	26.9	20.15	23.84	15.84
Urban to Rural	11.49	-3.86	25.61	-9.65	-16.43	-2.51
Urban to Urban	15.5	8.86	22.31	6.06	0.87	11.28

Appendix 8: Growth of migrants by migration streams, India 1991-2001

Migration streams	Lifetime Migrants			Intercensal Migrants		
	Persons	Males	Migration streams	Persons	Males	Migration streams
All Internal Migrants						
Rural to Rural	18.4	-1.41	22.82	15.37	7.78	17.71
Rural to Urban	29.51	34.37	25.41	22.84	27.68	18.35
Urban to Rural	-3.56	0	-5.37	3	6.48	0.7
Urban to Urban	38.39	43.12	34.73	24.27	26.85	22.17
Intradistrict						
Rural to Rural	17.42	-8.08	22.77	12.55	-0.99	16.34
Rural to Urban	9.83	7.93	11.1	1.25	-1.89	3.77
Urban to Rural	2.24	8.91	-0.86	8.24	12.69	5.55
Urban to Urban	66.51	83.37	54.97	33.41	37.44	30.45
Interdistrict						
Rural to Rural	14.72	3.22	17.43	13.44	8.54	15.13
Rural to Urban	24.74	26.02	23.64	16.3	17.17	15.5
Urban to Rural	-14.37	-15.15	-13.97	-8.65	-7.87	-9.16
Urban to Urban	30.08	33.07	27.88	19.05	20.42	17.96
Interstate						
Rural to Rural	46.54	46.14	46.7	54.58	67.61	47.16
Rural to Urban	76.41	82.96	68.04	77.59	90.98	60.88
Urban to Rural	1.5	5.02	-0.99	12.02	17.19	7.35
Urban to Urban	28.05	28.83	27.33	24.92	28.37	21.76

Appendix 9: Percentage distribution of reasons for total intercensal migration by sex and streams of migration, India 2001

	Reasons for Migration in (%)							
	Streams	Work Employment	Business	Education	Marriage	Moved after Birth date	Moved with House hold	Others
Duration 0-9	Total	14.63	1.15	2.96	44.05	6.73	20.88	9.59
	R - R	7.89	0.62	1.9	62.33	5.97	13.03	8.26
	R - U	12.81	1.22	3.02	28.98	18.67	24.64	10.66
	U - R	27.84	1.99	4.97	21.91	4.89	29.64	8.76
	U - U	19.87	1.87	4.23	22	7.88	34.75	9.41
Males	Total	37.58	2.9	6.22	2.08	10.53	25.11	15.58
	R - R	28.87	2.15	6.27	4.26	14.46	25.17	18.82
	R - U	26.51	2.44	5.16	1.58	24.19	24.93	15.19
	U - R	50.64	3.63	7.08	0.83	5.11	22.68	10.03
	U - U	38.53	3.55	6.16	0.84	9.01	30.12	11.79
Females	Total	3.16	0.28	1.34	65.02	4.84	18.76	6.6
	R - R	2.17	0.2	0.71	78.17	3.66	9.71	5.38
	R - U	3.5	0.4	1.56	47.58	14.92	24.45	7.59
	U - R	5	0.35	2.86	43.03	4.66	36.62	7.49
	U - U	4.1	0.45	2.61	39.87	6.92	38.66	7.99

Appendix 10: Percentage distribution of reasons for intrastate migration in the intercensal period by sex and streams of migration, India 2001

	Reasons for Intrastate Migration (in %)							
	Streams	Work Employment	Business	Education	Marriage	Moved after Birth date	Moved with Household	Others
Duration 0-9	Total	11.04	1.01	3.03	48.57	7.35	19.16	9.83
	R - R	6.81	0.58	1.96	63.54	6.2	12.55	8.36
	R - U	11.23	1.1	2.9	29.79	20.88	23.4	10.71
	U - R	21.89	2.01	6.26	25.27	5.34	29.89	9.32
	U - U	17.2	1.7	3.93	23.323	9.34	34.64	9.96
Males	Total	30.8	2.77	7.07	2.57	12.87	26.31	17.61
	R - R	25.49	2.03	6.78	4.53	15.74	25.58	19.84
	R - U	23.34	2.19	5.03	1.66	27.7	24.63	15.44
	U - R	42.29	3.98	9.61	1.1	6.12	25.43	11.49
	U - U	34.02	3.3	5.75	0.97	11.03	32.01	12.92
Females	Total	2.68	0.27	1.33	68.03	5.01	16.14	6.54
	R - R	2.01	0.2	0.73	78.69	3.75	9.21	5.41
	R - U	3.32	0.38	1.51	48.13	16.43	22.6	7.63
	U - R	4.71	0.36	3.45	45.64	4.7	33.65	7.5
	U - U	3.81	0.44	2.49	40.95	7.99	36.72	7.6

Appendix 11: Percentage distribution of reasons for interstate migration in the intercensal period by sex and streams of migration, India 2001

	Reasons for Interstate Migration (in %)							
	Streams	Work Employment	Business	Education	Marriage	Moved after Birthdate	Moved with Household	Others
Duration 0-9	Total	31.85	1.85	2.63	22.31	3.8	29.12	8.44
	R - R	27.75	1.31	0.94	37.47	2.54	22.9	7.1
	R - U	23.02	1.91	3.47	20.81	5.05	31.56	14.18
	U - R	41.11	1.95	2.09	14.4	3.87	29.1	7.49
	U - U	25.74	2.24	4.9	19.28	4.66	35	8.19
Males	Total	56.7	3.26	3.82	0.7	3.94	21.76	9.83
	R - R	57.39	2.79	1.84	1.52	3.37	23.45	9.63
	R - U	41.01	3.3	5.05	0.97	5.37	24.43	19.86
	U - R	64.91	3.05	2.76	0.36	3.4	17.98	7.53
	U - U	47.51	4.06	6.97	0.57	4.99	26.36	9.54
Females	Total	6.42	0.4	1.41	44.44	3.66	36.66	7.01
	R - R	8.54	0.36	0.35	60.76	1.99	22.53	5.46
	R - U	5.3	0.53	1.92	40.37	4.74	38.58	8.57
	U - R	5.86	0.31	1.09	35.18	4.56	45.56	7.44
	U - U	4.79	0.48	2.9	37.28	4.35	43.31	6.88