Differentials and Determinants of Out Migration in Eastern Uttar Pradesh

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Abstract

Migration has a number of socio-economic, cultural, political and demographic implications at both the places of origin and destination. In the dynamic process of development, rural to urban migration has been recognised to contribute significantly in bringing down the economic disparities across regions, especially through transfer of technology, skilled manpower and remittances. The present study tries to examine the differential in out migration in eastern Uttar Pradesh by using a sample of six villages (three from remote and another three from semi-urban areas). The sample includes a total of 1300 households. Findings reveal that out migration rate is nearly twice in remote villages compared with semi-urban villages. In addition, the outmigration rate among those who are below the age of fifteen years is almost five fold higher in remote villages compared with those who live in semi-urban villages. The migration rate is also higher among people who have completed primary or higher education. Unemployment and poverty are the main push factors leading to out migration from both types of villages.

Key words: Migration, villages, age, education, caste, destinations, marital status, occupation.

I. Introduction

Migration as one of the three components of population change works through a complex mechanism by involving multiple sets of social, political, economic, cultural, demographic and psychological factors. All these variables affect the magnitude and pattern of migration within a particular time frame. Migration has a number of socio-economic, cultural, political and demographic implications at both the places of origin and destination. In the dynamic process of development, rural to urban migration has been recognized to contribute significantly in bringing down the economic disparities across regions, especially through transfer of technology, skilled manpower and remittances. It also provides a network of expansion of ideas and information, cultural diffusion and social integration, and indicates the symptoms of environmental and economic changes (Thompson & Lewis, 1976).

Migration is not a new phenomenon. Migratory movements such as people crossing state borders in search of a better quality of life or livelihood have been documented well. Migration is population's mobility within and outside given geographical boundaries. It has always occurred in the past and continues even in the present. The movement from one place of residence to another causes numerous impacts upon the social and economic lives of the migrants and their families (Rees, 1977). Broadly, migration can be categorised in two broad heads. The first being the 'internal migration', where people move within a given social system and the second being the 'international migration', where people cross the internationally recognised geographical and political boundaries which separates one country from another (Peterson, 1978).

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There are a number of theoretical models for explaining migration. Most notable among them is the 'Push-Pull Theory' propounded by Lee (1996). According to it, there are certain push factors, which compel people to move out of their place of origin as a result of bad climate, poverty, famine, war, religious and political conflicts, instability, etc. On the other hand, pull factors attract people to move out in search for new opportunities or a better life which include better health, political and religious freedom, urban glamour and enjoyment, better educational facilities, improved medical facilities, security, and a civic society. Human capital model posits that an individual's decision to move depends on the hope of being better off at a different geographical destination in relation to the existing circumstances at the place of origin. He compares the potential future benefit with the current cost of migration and, if the balance tilts in favour of the former, he decides to migrate (Davanzo, 1980).

The factors behind migration are selective. Migration mainly concerns young adults, who are moving and, likely to have a positive net expected return on migration due to their longer working life. Sometimes social norm also requires that young adults migrate in search of better life (De Haan & Rogally, 2002). Family strategies can involve sending a young adult to the city, and investing in a potentially remitting child (Lucas & Stark, 1985). Both low and high skilled individuals are more likely to migrate but usually for different reasons. Where there is surplus labour with low skilled individuals, they have strong incentives to move to the city in search of a manual job which they may not find in the rural area, while well educated workers may find that their human capital is better rewarded in cities than in rural areas (Lanzona, 1998; Agesa, 2001).

Socio-economic changes taking place in India in the period of globalization have strong spatial implications. Studies on internal migration have indicated a decline in population mobility up to 1990s (Kundu, 1996; Singh, 1998; Srivastava, 1998; Bhagat, 2009). Conversely, the post-reform period confirms an increase in internal population movement. The latest National Sample Survey (NSS) figure (2007/08) shows that internal migration in India has increased to 29 per cent from 25 per cent in 1993. NSS estimates also shows that more than half (56 per cent) migration in the rural to urban flow is due to employment and there occurs an increase in salaried/wage earning class over the period from 28 per cent in 1999/00 to 32 per cent in 2007/08 which is declining in other types of employment. In this regard, studies by Shylendra et al. (1995) and Hann (1997) shows that the increasing rural to urban migration in recent years is largely endorsed by economic reasons as they were mostly motivated by the availability of urban employment in the expanding informal sector. Besides economic factor, non-economic factors like education and changes in administrative boundaries (Singh, et al., 1998; James, 2000; Singh, 2009) also influence rural to urban migration. Overall, it can be said that neither push nor pull factors alone influence migration flow - rather both groups of factors influence migration simultaneously.

One important aspect of the study of population is migration arising out of various social, cultural, economic or political reasons. For a large country like India, the complexity of movement of population in different parts of the country helps in understanding the dynamics of the society. At this crucial juncture in economic development in India, a study of migration assumes special importance (Census of India, 2001). For centuries, India has witnessed the phenomena of out migration from its rural areas and Uttar Pradesh is not an exception to that. This state has been an important source of workforce for different parts of the country. Now that the whole country is going through an important phase of economic development, the importance of human resource and workforce becomes evident. Therefore, the phenomena of migration from the rural areas of Uttar Pradesh becomes important to study. The persistence of depressed and stagnant agricultural economy is incapable of sustaining the growing population in countryside. Besides, the steady and systematic dispossession of peasants and impoverishment of rural artisans whose work was connected with agriculture created a large number of landless and marginally employed persons. After this, such people find easier to respond towards pull factors operating in the neighbouring and distant urban centres with high employment potentials (Khan, 1986).

People generally migrate where they can achieve better living conditions and livelihood. Eastern Uttar Pradesh has a long history of out migration. According to Census 2001, the male out migration from the rural area due to work/employment/business has been higher in Uttar Pradesh as compared with the rest of India. Seventy per cent migration in the country is from rural area and thirty per cent from urban area. However, in Uttar Pradesh, the corresponding shares are eighty per cent and twenty per cent from rural and urban areas respectively. The above pattern of male out-migration is much more pronouncing. The situation is by and large the same in Varanasi district. Its total population according to the Census 2011 is 3,676,841 divided into 2,079,790 in rural and 1,597,051 in urban areas, resulting into 43.4 per cent urbanisation which is considerably higher than the state as a whole (22.3 per cent).

Interaction of various factors in the course of development can not only emphasize the pace of mobility, but would lead to emergence of new migration patterns. There can be contrasting reasons for this current increase in the migration rate. On the one hand, increasing unemployment, poverty, population pressure, environmental degradation, depletion of natural resources, etc. limit the livelihood options and may force people to migrate. But, at the same time urbanization, better employment and educational opportunities, improvement in educational level, changing occupational pattern, development of transport and communication are the new momentum facilitating spatial mobility. Yet, there are only limited studies that have focused on the changing pattern of migration, especially after the reform period. Hence, it calls for a further critical investigation of patterns of migration in recent years in India.

It is important to note that the characteristics of migrants are not sufficient to explain the selectivity of migration because the decision of a person to migrate is largely dependent on his family background as well as complex social milieu. Individual characteristics can give some idea about the type of people involved in the process of migration. Thus, it is important to study the characteristics of migrant households to get an idea about the selectivity of migration process. This may provide a better understanding as to why some families participate in the migration process, while others do not. Migration is a concept that involves various aspects and produces a number of socio-economic, cultural, political and demographic impacts on places, namely, origin as well as destination. Persons belonging to some section are more mobile than those of other sections and consequently the overall effect of migration is likely to be different for different sections of the society.

This paper aims to examine the differentials and determinants of out-migration by different socio-demographic characteristics in Eastern Uttar Pradesh.

II. Data Source and Methods

This study is based on information collected from the selected villages of Varanasi district and focuses on the pattern of migration by adopting a modified definition of a household which is often adopted for migration studies which are conducted at the place of origin. This study follows the definition adopted by Rural Development of Population Growth (RDPG) survey, 1978, "*A household will be defined as a group of people who usually stay together and share a common kitchen, inclusive of persons usually living outside of the village but claiming to belong to the respective households*". The villages included in the RDPG survey of Varanasi district are classified in two groups based on the distance from Varanasi city forming two strata. Villages located within the radius of three kms from the city formed the first stratum, known as 'semi-urban' villages, while those situated beyond constituted the second stratum called 'remote villages'. For the study, six villages were randomly selected (three from remote and three from semi-urban villages) from 14 villages included in the RDPG survey (eight from semi-urban and six from remote villages). The sample included a total of 1300 households from six villages by complete enumeration. The data were collected in February-April, 2012 through personal interview method and migration record including questions on the present age, education, marital status, occupation, age at migration, year of migration, place of migration, reasons of migration,

remittances, etc., for each migrated person of the households. To fulfil the objective of the study, migration rate, bi-variate, bar diagram and multivariate like binary logistic regression techniques have been applied.

The rate of migration exhibits the mobility level of a population and is supposed to be a useful measure of the intensity of migration of a population (Wunsch & Termote, 1978). Migration is defined as the move from one place in order to go and live in another place. Migration rate is the ratio of total volume of migration during a specific period and the total population exposed to the risk of experiencing it. The formula for computing the rate of migration is

$$m_i = \frac{M_i}{P_i} * k$$

where, m_i denotes the rate of migration of the ith individuals. M_i denotes the number of migrants or volume of migration during a specified period of ith individuals. P_i denotes the size of the population that would have performed migration, that is, total population exposed to the risk of experiencing the events of migration of ith individuals; k denotes a constant (generally equal to 1000 but in this study it is taken as 100).

To examine the factors influencing migration, the logistic regression model with most likely variables was fitted and estimated using the maximum likelihood method. This model postulates the probability of migration. P is a function of an index variable Z, summarizing a set of the explanatory variables (X_i). In fact, Z is equal to the logarithm of the odds ratio, i.e., ratio of probability of migration to the probability of non-migration and it can be estimated as linear function of explanatory variables. The functional form of the logistic model may be given by the equation

$$Y = \frac{p}{1-p} = \frac{1+e^z}{1+e^{-z}} = e^z$$

$$\text{Or } \ln\left(\frac{p}{1-p}\right) = z = F(X_1 + X_2 + X_3 + ...X_k)$$

where Y represents migration status of the household (1 if any member of the household is migrant, and 0 for non-migrant households). Z is vectors of explanatory variables and K is total number of explanatory variables.

III. Results and Discussion

Migration Status

For capturing the status of migration, the pattern of migration has been divided into three categories, viz., single migration, migration with wife and children, and migration with parents/relatives/friends/others. A total of 1300 households have been sampled for this study. Among the studied population, the sample sizes from the remote and semi-urban villages are 671 and 629 households respectively. Table 1 presents percentage distribution of households by migration status in remote and semi-urban villages. Among 671 households in the remote villages, 54 per cent households were non-migrant. However, among migrant households (46 per cent), the migration status of the households was found to be single male migration (24 per cent), migration with wife and children (15 per cent) and migration with parents/relatives/friends/others (8per cent) in remote villages. Similarly, in semi-urban villages, among 23 per cent migrant households, the migration status of the households was found to be single male migration (8.7 per cent), migration with wife and children (13 per cent) and migration with parents/relatives/friends/others (2 per cent). Results reveal that proportion of households with single male out-migration from remote villages was found to be significantly higher compared to semi-urban villages.
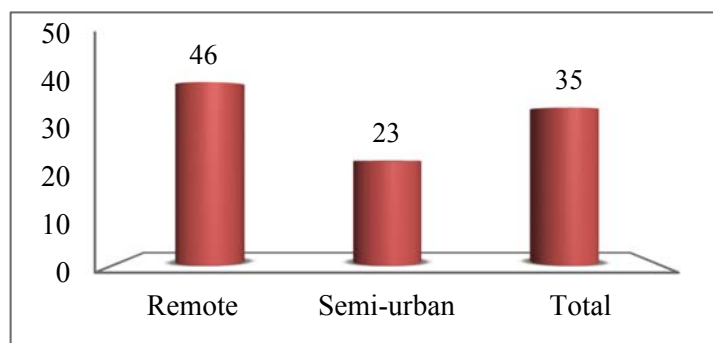
Table1: Per cent distribution of households by migration status in remote and semi-urban villages, Varanasi, 2012

Type of households	Remote	Semi-urban	Total
Non-migrants	53.9	76.8	65.0
Migrants			
Single	23.8	08.8	16.5
Migrated with wife & children	14.6	12.7	13.7
Migrated with parent/relatives/others	07.7	01.7	04.8
Sample size (N)	671	629	1300

Migration Differentials

They have been studied at household level according to some socio-economic and demographic factors, viz., age, education, land size, caste group and marital status in remote and semi-urban villages. Figure 1shows the migration rate in remote and semi-urban villages. Results reveal that overall, migration rate of the studied population was found to be 35 per cent. However, migration rate was found to be nearly twice more in remote villages (46 per cent) compared with semi-urban villages (23 per cent). Lack of job opportunities and other facilities may be the responsible for more migration from remote villages.

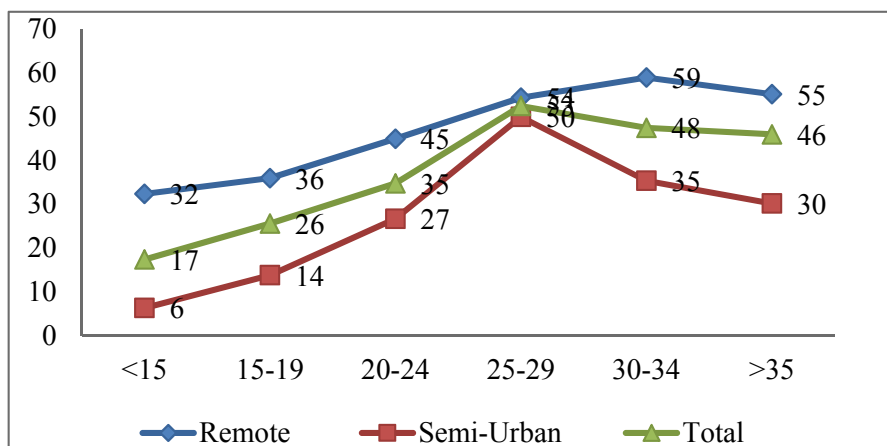Figure 1: Migration rate in remote and semi-urban villages, Varanasi, 2012

Migration by Age-Groups

A number of attempts have been made to study the migration differentials by age and a majority of studies have shown that migration among adults is higher than others (Narain, 1972; Singh & Yadava, 1981; Caldwell, 1969; Lipton, 1980; Hugo, 1978). Migration differential by age has been almost generalized and it is higher for the people aged between 15 and 40 (Yadava, 1988). While studying the rural-urban migration in Ghana, Caldwell (1968) has indicated that most initial migrations were made between 15-25 years of age. Hugo (1981) has shown an over-representation of migrants in the age-group of 15-34 years. In a survey of Paris, Pourcher (1964) has reported that about 58 per cent of migrants belonged to the age-group of 15-34 years on their arrival in Paris and the average age was 26 years. The migration differential according to age group in this study is given in Figure 2. Results reveal that overall, the migration rate was higher among people belonging to the age group of 25-29 years (53 per cent), followed by 30-34 years (48 per cent), more than or equal to 35 years (46 per cent), 20-24 years (35 per cent), 15-19 years (26 per cent) and less than 15 years (17 per cent). Migration is higher in age group of 25-29 years may be because formal education is over for the most people by then. It shows a pattern more or less similar to the other studies in India as described above. Almost the same pattern of male out-migration was found to be in the semi-urban villages. An interesting feature was observed from Figure 2 that the recent migration is occurring slightly higher in older ages in remote villages. One of the reasons for such a changing pattern may be due to an improvement in the educational

system. Another interesting aspect observed is that the migration rate was found over five times more among the less than 15 years age group in remote villages (32 per cent) compared with semi-urban villages (6 per cent). This may be due to a delay in the termination of school life.
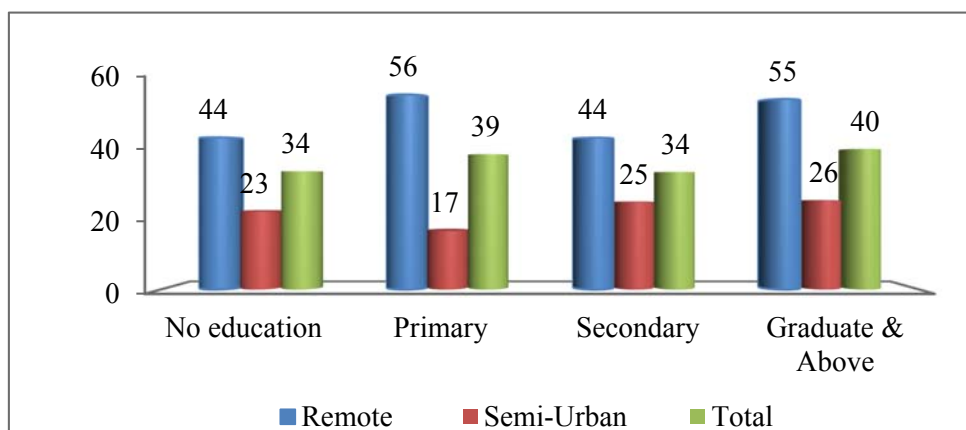
Figure 2: Migration rate by age groups in remote and semi-urban villages, Varanasi, 2012

Migration by Education

Education acts as a strong catalyst in the process of human movement, particularly in rural to urban migration. Many researchers (Caldwell, 1969; Hugo, 1978, 1981; Levy & Wadycki 1974; Kothari, 1980; Singh, 1985; Singh & Yadava 1981) have reported that a high degree of educational selectivity of a person as well as of his other family members play a prominent role in migratory enterprise. There is a significant and positive relationship between the level of education and the tendency to migrate. Upreti (1981) has shown that educated persons have more chances of migration than the uneducated persons in Jaipur. Figure 3 explains the migration differential by educational level in remote and semi-urban villages. The migration rate was found to be higher with graduate and higher education (40 per cent) followed by primary (39 per cent), secondary (34 per cent) and no education (34 per cent). In addition, the migration rate was higher among primary and graduate and higher educated persons in remote villages. The same finding has been stated from four villages in Rajasthan by Kothari (1980). It reports that the migration occurred with illiterate (19 per cent), primary or middle (51 per cent) and secondary and above education (24 per cent) receptively. However, it was also observed that in semi-urban villages, migration higher in secondary and higher educational status. From figure 3, it was also exposed that migration pattern according to each category of education was higher in remote villages compared with semi-urban villages.
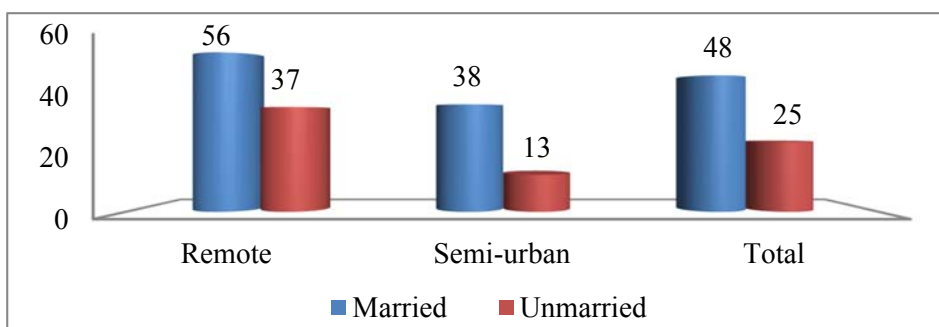
Figure 3: Migration rate by educational status in remote and semi-urban villages, Varanasi, 2012

Migration by Marital Status

It is well known that migration has a noticeable effect on the marital status. Changes in the marital status due to migration are related to the disturbances posed by the structural transformation in the marriage market (Santini, 1974). It is also observed that marriage pattern is affected by radical change in the sex ratio of the eligible partners for marriage (Caldwell, 1962). Figure 4 presents migration differential by marital status in remote and semi-urban villages. Results show that overall, migration rate was found to be higher among married persons (48 per cent) compared with unmarried persons (25 per cent). In addition to this, the same pattern of migration was observed in remote villages as well as in semi-urban villages. However, migration rate was found to be more in both categories of marital status in remote villages in comparison with semi-urban villages. A married person is more mobile in both types of villages, and it may be due to greater family burden and obligation.
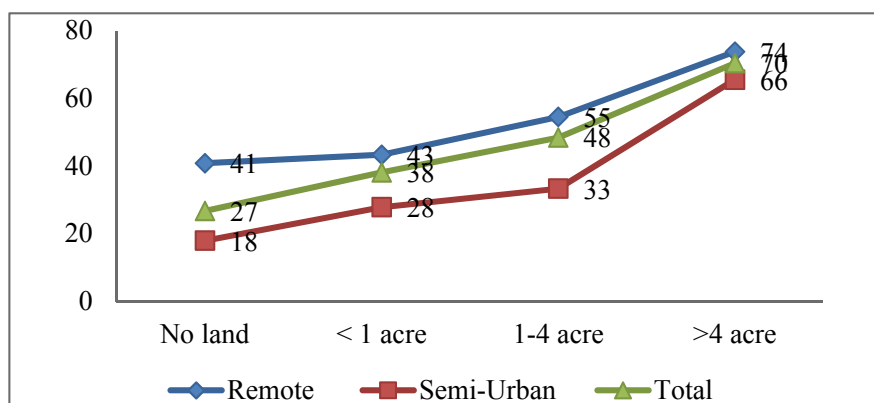
Figure 4: Migration rate by marital status in remote and semi-urban villages, Varanasi, 2012

Migration by possession of land

Land plays a vital role in every aspect of village life. The possession of significant land is deemed to be a symbol of economic and social status. Landholding is a powerful force behind the migration pattern, especially in an agrarian economy. In rural economy, people are mostly dependent on land for their living. Land is valued not only as the factor of production but as a regular source of income and security also. A number of studies have shown that the possession of land and its distribution in the community have important bearings on the migration decision process (Kothari, 1980). Figure 5 shows the migration differential according to the size of land in remote and semi-urban villages. Results portray that overall, migration rate was higher among those having more than four-acre land (70 per cent), followed by one to four-acre land (48 per cent), less than one-acre land (38 per cent) and those having no land (27 per cent). However, Sharma (1984) in his study has found a higher rate of migration in households with no land than those have less than one bigha land. The same pattern of migration by land size was observed in both types of villages. However, migration pattern was found to be higher according to the land size in remote villages compared with semi-urban villages.
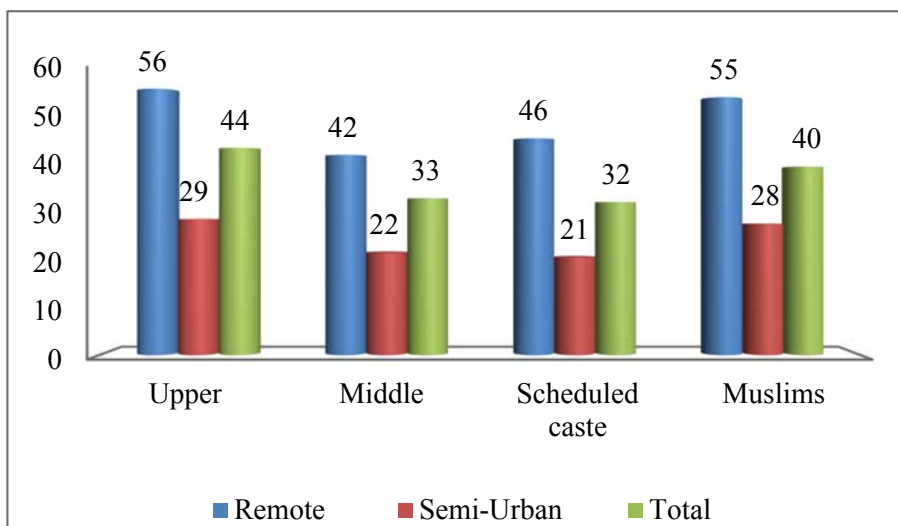
Figure 5: Migration rate by land size in remote and semi-urban villages, Varanasi, 2012

Migration by caste groups

Caste in India is an endogamous group, bearing a common name, membership of which is hereditary arising from birth alone, imposing on its members certain restriction in the matter of social intercourse and constraints concerning a common traditional occupation and social customs. Caste largely determined function, status, opportunities available for a better life and handicaps towards greater vertical social mobility. Very often the land ownership pattern is based on caste grouping. The caste rules are more rigid and strictly followed in more traditional and isolated societies. Kothari (1980) points out that it is not only the economic position of the people that is linked with the caste to which they belong, the settlement pattern within the village also reflects the fundamental importance of the caste structure to the social life. Caste system is a pivotal point in the stratification of the Indian society into a hierarchical order and hence it is an appropriate variable in the study of migration process. In our study, caste has been classified into four group viz. Upper caste (*Thakur, Bhumihar, Brahmin and Srivastava*), middle caste (*Koiri, Kurmi, Ahir, Gareria, Teli, Baniya, Sonar, Halwai, Prajapati, Kahar, Lohar, Nai, Mali, Bind, Chauhan and Rajbhar*), Scheduled caste (*Chamar, Dharkar, Dhobi, Gaud Pasi and Musahar*) and Muslims (*Hasmi, Daphali, Mansuri and Pathan*). Figure 6 illustrates the migration differential according to caste group in remote and semi-urban villages. The overall migration rate of the studied population was found to be higher among upper caste (44 per cent), followed by Muslims (40 per cent), middle caste (33 per cent) and scheduled caste (32 per cent). In addition, the rate of migration was also higher in the upper caste followed by Muslims, scheduled caste and middle caste in remote villages. However, in semi-urban villages, migration rate was found to be higher among Muslims. The situation was entirely interchanged in respect of Muslims, middle caste and scheduled caste except for the upper caste according to the study. The second higher out-migration rate is among Muslims. This is due to the fact that Muslims households do not possess adequate landholdings or have in possession of marginal land. Thus, more persons belonging to Muslim community have no alternative than to move outside the village to earn their livelihood. Shift in the position of middle caste may be due to their improved economic, educational and social conditions which might have worked as a force for greater propensity to migrate.

Figure 6: Migration rate by caste groups in remote and semi-urban villages, Varanasi, 2012

Reasons of Migration

The reasons of migration differ from country to country, depending on the characteristics of both the population of rural and urban areas. Causes of migration are usually classified into two sets of push and pull factors. Push factors are those that operate in areas of out-migration (origin) and compel the people to move towards other areas. Pull factors are those that operate in areas of

in-migration (destination) and attract people to those areas. It is not necessary that in an area only push or pull factors should operate. Bogue (1959) has considered these push and pull factors attributes of communities of origin and destination as independent migration variable which account for selectivity of certain groups. In fact, both push and pull factors operate simultaneously in the same area. It is in this context that sometimes it becomes difficult to differentiate between push and pull factors. All types of migration in the modern context take place due to growing industrialisation, technological advancement and other changes that are taking place in the social and economic spheres. In addition, wars, political events, regional disparities, natural calamities, employment potentials, wages and availability of agricultural land are other stimuli for population movements. The purpose of this section is to draw some attention on push and pull factors that are common in rural areas. The probable push factors ascertained from the respondents of the migrated households are listed as unemployment, poverty, family crises, education and health. All attempts were made to avoid multiple answers and emphasis was given to a main reason. Respondents were not only encouraged to give as many responses as they liked, but also to order them according to their perceived important reason of migration.

Table 2 shows the percentage of distribution of migrants according to push and pull factors from remote and semi-urban villages. Results reveal that overall 68 per cent migrants migrated due to push factors from the studied area. However, about 72 per cent and 58 per cent migrants migrated due to push factors from remote and semi-urban villages respectively. Among 72 per cent migrants in remote villages, 60 per cent migrants migrated due to unemployment followed by poverty (23 per cent), family crises (6.4 per cent), education (6.4 per cent) and health related problems (2.1 per cent). On the other hand, among 58 per cent migrants in semi-urban villages, 52 per cent migrants migrated because of unemployment (52 per cent), followed by poverty (22 per cent), family crises (7.3 per cent), education (2.4per cent) and health related problems (5.8 per cent). In this context, Singh (1985) from 1978 survey data has reported about 6 per cent and 2 per cent of the migrants respectively from remote and semi-urban villages migrated due to differences in the family. In the sample about 7 per cent migrants were found to have migrated due to educational purpose. However, Kothari (1980), in his study of Rajasthan, reported about 18 per cent people left the village for education. Xaxa (1986) in his study on the plantation daily wage earners in north-eastern Indian states reported conflicts in the family as one of the major reasons of migration.

A number of studies on rural-urban migration have concluded that most of the migrants were not pushed out by rural economic pressure but rather were pulled by urban prosperity or urban attraction. Lansing and Muelier (1967) in the Survey Research Bureau Study stated that economic factors which exert a positive stimulus on in-migration do not have a symmetrical negative effect on out-migration. Caldwell (1969) stated that a vast majority of the respondents explained rural-urban migration in term of more money and a better standard of living in the town, rather than insufferable economic conditions in the village. While analysing the possible pull factors, a substantial proportion of the respondents listed better job/offer, employment, presence of some relatives or friends on the destination place and retirement as the pull factors.

Again Table 2 shows that overall 33 per cent migrants migrated because of pull factors from the studied area. Precisely, about 28 per cent and 42 per cent migrants migrated due to pull factors from remote and semi-urban villages respectively. At the same time, among 28 per cent migrants who migrated due to pull factors in remote villages, a higher proportion of migrants (69 per cent) migrated because of better job or better offers followed by getting job (16 per cent), job transfer (7per cent), some friends/relatives at the destinations (2.8 per cent) and after retirement (2.1 per cent). However, among 42 per cent migrants from semi-urban villages, 63 per cent migrated for better job or better offers (63 per cent), followed by migration due to getting job (19 per cent), job transfer (5 per cent), and some friends/relatives at the destinations (10 per cent) and after retirement (3.4 per cent). On the other hand, Singh (1985) on the basis of the 1978 survey data of Varanasi found that about 19 per cent and 23 per cent of migrants from semi urban areas

and, 8 per cent and 35 per cent of migrants from remote villages migrated due to persuasion by the members of the household and village respectively.

Table 2: Per cent distribution of migrants by their reasons of migration in remote and semi-urban villages, Varanasi, 2012

Reasons of migration	Types of Village		Total
	Remote	Semi-urban	
Push Factors	71.8 (N=222)	58.2 (N=85)	67.5 (N=307)
Unemployment	60.2	52.4	58.2
Poverty	27.5	22.0	26.1
Family crises	06.4	07.3	06.6
Education	06.4	02.4	05.3
Health related problems	02.1	08.5	03.8
Pull Factors	28.2 (N=87)	41.8 (N=61)	32.5 (N=148)
Better job/job offer	69.0	62.7	66.2
Got job	15.5	18.6	16.9
Job transfer	07.0	05.1	06.2
Some friends/relatives already there	02.8	10.2	06.2
After retirement	05.6	03.4	04.6

Destinations of Migrants

The volume and direction of migration reveal an idea about the number of migrants going from different places of origin to a single destination or from one place of origin to different destinations. Migrants tend to choose the same destinations as previous migrants whom they know and who help them in the initial period of their migration including getting suitable job(s) (*Population Reports*, 1983). Table 3 presents the percentage of distribution of migrants by places of destination from remote and semi-urban villages. In addition, Map 1 shows the distribution of total migrants at different destinations from eastern Uttar Pradesh. It is evident from Table 3 that Maharashtra attracts the highest number of migrants from the studied area irrespective of the types of villages. With the expansion of economic activities in Maharashtra (especially in Mumbai, Pune and Nashik), a large number of migrants (41 per cent) from eastern Uttar Pradesh come in search of jobs. The second most preferred destination for the migrants from the studied area is Gujarat, and reported 17 per cent migrants. Delhi metropolitan region contains about 8.6 per cent of migrants from the studied area. The traditional centre of West Bengal (especially Kolkata) has been reported as an important destination for the migrants from eastern Uttar Pradesh (7.9 per cent). A relatively higher proportion of migrants from semi-urban villages (12 per cent) went to Kolkata compared with remote villages (6 per cent). The fifth important destination for the migrants from eastern Uttar Pradesh is Punjab. About 6.2 per cent migrants migrated from semi-urban villages to the Punjab in comparison with remote villages (5.2 per cent). Other neighbouring states like Madhya Pradesh, Chhattisgarh, Bihar, Jharkhand and Rajasthan, and states like Hyderabad, Goa, Orissa, Guwahati, Arunachal Pradesh, etc., and some districts of Uttar Pradesh jointly attracted approximately 20 per cent of migrants.

Occupation at destinations

The kind of job opportunities in urban areas which hold the promise of a better standard of living than that in rural areas is one of the most powerful pull factors available at the place of destination (Soni, 1976). Indeed, the rural-urban migration is more selective of occupations which require a sizeable work force in urban centres and, on the other hand, most of the migrants have been pretty sanguine that their journey outward will secure for them some non-agricultural job. The quantities and qualities of jobs, whatever are available at the place of destination play an

important role in regard to the volume of migration. In addition, occupation of migrants is an important dimension of the study from remittances viewpoint.

Table 3: Percentage distribution of migrants by place of destinations in remote and semi-urban villages, Varanasi, 2012

Destination	Type of village		Total (N=455)
	Remote (N=309)	Semi-urban (N=146)	
Maharashtra	46.3	30.1	41.1
Delhi	05.8	14.4	08.6
Gujarat	16.2	17.1	16.5
Kolkata	06.1	11.6	07.9
Punjab	05.2	06.2	05.5
Others	20.4	20.5	20.4
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

Table 4 presents the migrants by their occupation along with different destinations in order to understand the association of nature of jobs and places of destination. Results reveal that a majority of the migrants were engaged in private sector (26 per cent), followed by skilled workers (23 per cent), daily wage earners (23 per cent), business (13 per cent), service in government sector (11 per cent) and engaged in other sectors (5 per cent). Besides, a higher number of migrants were working as daily wage earners (28 per cent), service in private sector (27 per cent) and as skilled workers (24 per cent) amongst those who are living in Maharashtra. Similar evidences have also been reported by Singh and Yadav (1981a) and Singh (1985) that in their village study from the Varanasi (rural) where most of the migrants who went to Maharashtra were found to be employed in trade (37 per cent) and commerce (39 per cent). In addition to this, Zachariah (1964), studying the characteristics of in-migrants in Greater Bombay, also found that Uttar Pradesh born migrants were mostly engaged in manual jobs like industrial work, trade and commerce, which required less skill, education and capital. The migrants who are living in Delhi were mostly engaged in private sector (31 per cent), daily wage earners (23 per cent) and skilled workers (21 per cent). In Gujarat, a higher proportion of migrants was engaged mainly as skilled workers (43 per cent) and in private sector (29 per cent).

Those migrants who live in West Bengal were mainly in business (31 per cent). In this context, Singh (1984), studying the occupational characteristics of migrants based on 1961-71 Census data, found that about 87 per cent of migrants who migrated to cities of West Bengal were engaged in trade, commerce and transportation. Most of the migrants, who are living in Punjab, were engaged in daily wage earnings (32 per cent), private sector (24 per cent) and as skilled workers (20 per cent). In spite of those states (Maharashtra, Delhi, Gujarat, West Bengal and Punjab), migrants who are living in others states like Madhya Pradesh, Chhattisgarh, Bihar, Jharkhand, Rajasthan, and states like Hyderabad, Orissa, Arunachal Pradesh, etc., and some districts of Uttar Pradesh were engaged in government sector (34 per cent), followed by private sector (24 per cent), daily wage earners (20 per cent), as skilled workers (10 per cent), others tasks and business (7.5 per cent). In addition to this, Gosal and Krishan (1975) have studied the pattern of internal migration in India, and found that several of the large Indian cities have concentration of textiles and other industries which absorb a multitude of semi-skilled or unskilled daily wage earners from rural areas. Pandey and Saxena (1986) have reported in their study of internal migration in selected cities of India that migration to Maharashtra and West Bengal was mostly due to industrial segregation in their metropolitan cities like Mumbai and Kolkata.

Table 4: Distribution of migrants by their occupational categories at the place of destinations, 2012

Occupation categories	Maharashtra (N=187)	Delhi (N=39)	Gujarat (N=75)	West Bengal (N=36)	Punjab (N=25)	Others (N=93)	Total (N-455)
Government sector	02.7	07.7	05.3	05.6	12.0	34.4	10.8
Private Sector	27.3	30.8	29.3	16.7	24.0	23.7	26.2
Business	14.4	10.3	12.0	30.6	08.0	04.3	12.5
Skilled workers	24.1	20.5	42.7	16.7	20.0	09.7	23.1
Daily wage earners	28.3	23.1	09.3	19.4	32.0	20.4	22.6
Others	03.2	07.7	01.3	11.1	04.0	07.5	04.8
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Determinants of migrants

Factors influencing male out-migration identified using logistic regression model are villages, age, education, land size, caste groups, type of family, number of adult male in households and economic status.   Estimates of the logistic model are given in Table 5. In order to give more precise explanation, odds ratio (ratio of probabilities of adoption to non-adoption) of point estimate of the factors influencing adoption was worked out. Results reveal that migrants from semi-urban villages were found to be less likely (OR=0.41, p<0.01) to move at different destinations of the country as compare with remote villages. The lack of adequate demand for jobs and others facilities in remote villages may be one of the factors for the higher number of moves for males living in such villages. In contrast, the less number of moves by males living in semi-urban villages may be due to the fact that these villages are situated near Varanasi city which provides ample job opportunities for local unskilled daily wage earners in the non-agricultural activities. Besides, males engaged in agriculture may be less mobile as they generally grow cash crops for which they get lucrative prices. Daily commuting from semi-urban villages to Varanasi city may also be one of the causes of less number of expected moves. It is evident that those belonging to 25-29 years and 30-35 years of age groups are four and three times more likely (OR=3.95, p<0.01 and OR=2.87, p<0.01) to migrate compared with the reference category. These two age groups together constitute economically the most mobile group. Households having more than one-acre land are 2.4 times more likely to migrate (OR=2.41, p<0.01) as compared with households not having land. It is easy to imagine that those households having large size of land receive better education than others. Due to this educational advantage, the probability of migration increases as the land size increases. Households having 3-5 and more than or equal to 6 adult males are twice and thrice more likely (OR=1.70, p<0.05 and OR=2.66, p<0.01) to migrate than one or two adult males. This may be due to the fact that larger families had higher dependency ratio and hence the probability of migration was high as more members had to be looked after at home. Economic status significantly affects the migration process. Households belonging to the highest economic status are less likely (OR=0.64, p<0.51) to migrate as compares with households with lowest economic status.

IV. Findings and Conclusion

In the context of the migration differentials in eastern Uttar Pradesh, major findings portray that the migration rate is likely to be twice in remote villages as compared with semi-urban villages. This may be due to the fact that semi-urban villages are situated near Varanasi city. Residents of semi-urban villages can easily find jobs and other facilities like transportation, money, etc., in comparison with those from remote villages. It is worth noting that the out-migration rate among those who are below fifteen years in age is five times more in remote villages compared with those who live in semi-urban villages. This indicates a distress migration which occurs mainly due to the socio-economic backwardness as a survival strategy. The out-migration rate is higher among older age groups in remote villages. This may happen due to high aspiration, family pressures and crisis and, lack of suitable jobs for educated persons and compulsion to raise their socio-economic condition. With increasing land size possession of the households in remote as well as semi-urban villages, migration is increasing. Its rate is higher among people who have

primary or higher educated as well as among upper caste and Muslims. This indicates that those who are educationally, socially and economically advanced migrate more.
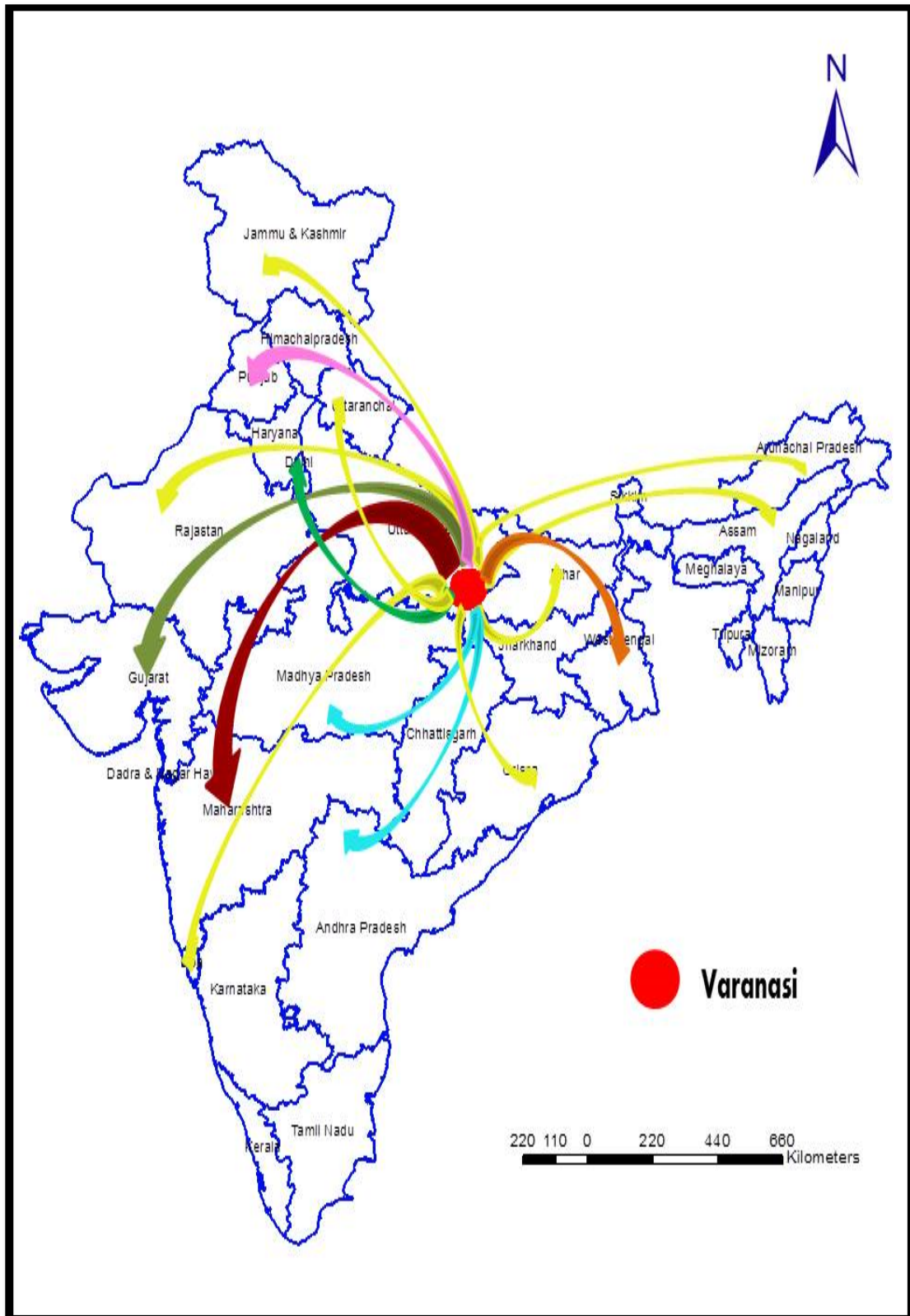
The volume of migration at different destinations has undergone changes. Metropolitan cities like Mumbai and Delhi are attractive for daily wage earners and for private job opportunities, still they attract migrants of low educational levels from the studied area. Maharashtra, Delhi, Gujarat, West Bengal and Punjab are other major destinations for migrants from eastern Uttar Pradesh. Unemployment and poverty are the main push factors leading to migration from both types of villages. In addition to this, better job opportunities in urban area are the pull factors for migration. Analysis of destinations portrays that despite a number of odds, especially in Mumbai in recent years, Maharashtra was reported as the most preferred destination for these migrants.

Table 5: Factors affecting migration process by selected characteristics, Varanasi, 2012

Independent variables	Dependent variable: Migration status		
	Exp (β)	95 per cent confidence interval	
		Lower	Upper
Village			
Remote®	1.00		
Semi-urban	0.41***	0.32	0.54
Age			
<15®	1.00		
15-19	1.48**	0.94	2.33
20-24	2.22***	1.36	3.63
25-29	3.95***	2.40	6.49
30-34	2.87***	1.71	4.84
≥35	2.19***	1.34	3.59
Education			
No education®	1.00		
Primary	1.27	0.84	1.93
Secondary	1.18	0.87	1.61
Graduate & above	1.56	0.91	2.66
Land size			
No land®	1.00		
<1 acre	1.29	0.94	1.77
>1 acre	2.41***	1.66	3.49
Caste groups			
Upper caste®	1.00		
Middle caste	0.79	0.49	1.29
Scheduled caste	0.87	0.50	1.51
Muslims	1.35	0.77	2.39
Type of family			
Nuclear®	1.00		
Joint	1.31	0.94	1.82
No. adult male in HHs			
1-2®	1.00		
3-5	1.70**	1.16	2.50
≥6	2.66***	1.61	4.38
Economic status			
1st®	1.00		
2nd	1.12	0.74	1.70
3rd	0.94	0.61	1.44
4th	0.80	0.51	1.25
5th	0.64**	0.39	1.05
Constant	0.18		

*** Significant at the 0.01 level, ** Significant at the 0.05 level, * Significant at the 0.1 level.

Map 1: Distribution of total male migrants from Varanasi, 2012

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