

**REVIEW
OF LITERATURE**

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

A retrospective survey of literature was carried out to gain insight into the methodological aspects and results of the various aspects of migration and its impact on the perceived quality of life. The available researches and reports relevant to the study have been presented under the following heads :

- 2.1 Migration
 - 2.1.1 Types of Migration
 - 2.1.2 Migrant Worker
 - 2.1.3 Migration process
 - 2.1.4 Migration model
 - 2.1.5 Migrants' characteristics
 - 2.1.6 Factors influencing migration decision
 - 2.1.7 Consequences of migration
- 2.2 In-migrants' contact with the place of origin
- 2.3 Source of Information used by the in-migrants' families
- 2.4 Perceived cost and benefits of migration
- 2.5 Coping strategies adapted by the in-migrants' families
- 2.6 Help received by the in-migrant's families
- 2.7 Perceived quality of life
- 2.8 Conclusion of review of literature

2.1 Migration

People used to migrate in primitive society for food and shelter which may be defined as 'Ecological migration' (Standing, 1984) that was mostly collective in nature. Considering the difficulty in traversing hilly and thickly - forested terrain and the labor oriented and extensive nature of the cultivation method, it would not be presumptuous to conclude that piecemeal and seasonal migration of individual households or persons did not exist. The only form of individual migration that evidently existed was the marriage migrations of women in patrilineal, patrilocal societies and of men in matrilineal, matrilocal ones. Even in many cases, if village endogamy was accepted, only males/ females married to spouses from outside the village had to migrate.

It is evident that collective or individual migration of persons need not have interfered significantly with the continuity of the traditional social, economic and cultural systems due to the lack of structural differentiation between one area and another. In fact, as mentioned earlier, migration under these circumstance can be viewed as a balancing mechanism that attempts to reinforce continuity of the rural social structure by distributing populations; this form of migration had probably been the prevailing one in century, and in many cases, even till the mid-twentieth century. A significant departure from this came when rules of both nature and culture were eroded to pave the path of economic development, setting in process large-scale labor migration of people in search of their livelihood and the satisfaction of new aspirations.

The establishment of city-based manufacturing centers characterized the phenomenon of urbanization and industrialization in

nineteenth century Europe and North America. In Asia, on the other hand, the expansion of towns and cities has been marked by a concomitant growth of the informal or unorganized sector concentrating on the provision of services as well as of the production of a variety of goods in small manufacturing units. Interestingly, these areas of urban expansion, both in the West in the last century as well as in the third World of today, have depended heavily on female labor.

1. Migration refers to the move of a person or persons from one place of residence to another geographical area; such a move can last for a shorter period or for a lifetime.

Irrespective of the direction of the move, migration can be permanent or temporary. In the former case, there is a definite move to the area of current residence for a lifetime and this may be maintained for succeeding generations.

In the words of Helen (1975)

“Migration is normally viewed as an economic phenomenon. Though non economic factors obviously have some bearing, most studies concur that migrants leave their area of origin primarily because of lack of employment opportunities and in the hope of finding better opportunities elsewhere.”

Jansen(1992) regards migration as a demographic problem that influences the size of population at both the places- the place of origin as well as destination.

2.1.1 Types of Migration

Migration can be classified into different types on the basis of physical distance, duration and the period of stay, cultural and political differences between two places and individual, family and group and on the place where from the migrant comes and where he settles. If, the region is taken as basis, migration may be

- Internal and
- International

Internal migration means the movement of people from one place to another within the country and the movement of people from one nation to another nation is called international migration.

Smith (1962) mentions four types of internal migration:

- Migration from country to city (rural to urban)
- Migration from cities to country (urban to rural)
- Migration from one country to another (rural to rural)

Peterson's (1970) typology is one of the best known for analysis of migration. He utilized a number of criteria in this typology and the most important being the distinction between the emigration, which is undertaken in order to change the way (innarrative) and that which helps to preserve it (conservative). Other criteria include the type of interaction expressed by migration force, which result into classes and type of migration. On the basis of this criterion, he recognized five broad classes of migration- primitive, forced, impelled, free and mass. He observed five types of migration namely

- Primitive migration
- Forced migration
- Impelled migration
- Free migration and
- Mass migration

Kosinski's multidimensional scheme of types of migration is based on Peterson's (1970) typology. The major dimensions of his classification are time (temporary, permanent), distance (long, short), boundaries crossed (internal, external, areal units), decision making (voluntary, impelled, forced), member involved (individual, mass), social organization of migration (family, individual), political organization of migration (sponsored, free), cases (economic, non-economic), aims (conservative, Innarration). Kosinski's typology because of its wider coverage has more utility than Peterson.

Migration can also be classified as

- Free migration and
- Forced migration

Free migration takes place as a result of the operation of the free will and personal choice of the people and forced migration takes place as a result of political disturbances, dreadful droughts and famines.

Zachariah (1971) has also classified migration on the basis of the distance of movement such as

- Short distance migration and
- Long distance migration

From 1881 onwards, the Census of India has asked questions on migration and the Census of India in 1961 identified the following types of migration on the basis of distance:

1. Short Distance- persons born outside the place of enumeration but within the district of enumeration.
 2. Medium Distance- persons born outside the place of enumeration but within the state.
 3. Long Distance- persons born outside the state of enumeration.
- *Forced Migration* refers to the kind of migration where individuals forced to leave their country eg. Africans brought to U.S. as slave labor.
 - *Reluctant or fleeing Migration* is where individuals are not forced out of their country but leave because of warfare, political problems or ethnic purging.
 - *Voluntary or Volitional Migration* is a kind of migration where individuals choose to relocate to new places because of opportunities offered in the new place.

A feature of slightly longer-term migration (which could, in some cases be termed 'return migration') is that which Lourdes Arizpe (1981) has characterized as 'relay migration'. Based on her research in two Mexican villages, she concluded that in peasant families with small landholdings, different family members migrate in turn, depending on their position in the unit's life cycle. Thus, the father starts the relay followed by an older child, who may be a boy or be a girl; when the child is ready to return, he or she is replaced by another child who in time 'retires'. The

mother rarely migrated and stays home to shoulder the entire responsibility of managing the household.

Kant (1983) presented another typology that was based on circular movement (pastoral, nomadic, transhumance) and areal unit between which migration takes place (interlocal or interregional and intralocal or intraregional). Beltramo (1982) pursued the same line of reasoning and classified migration into temporary and definitive and later on into areal unit (extramuros and intramuros).

Kingsly (1984) observes five types of migration:

- conquest
- displacement
- forced labor
- free individual
- controlled

Breman, (1985) and Mukhopadhyay, (1987) categorized temporary moves as- return migration and seasonal or circular migration. The former refers to a 'coming back to the place of origin after an unspecified stay away from it', while seasonal migration relates mainly to a short term stay of under a year in another location; as this movement is made primarily for employment purposes by those at the subsistence level, it is likely to be repeated at preferred times and hence is also known as circular migration simply as 'the circulation of labor'.

Mukhopadhyay (1987) states that it is much more difficult 'to categorize temporary moves' chiefly because these do not always follow a pattern regarding duration, the nature of the relationship with the earlier place of residence and so on. Jan Breman (1985) points out those

temporary migrants who are away from home for a few months have never 'arrived' anywhere. At the same time, they are no longer registered at home and thus remained unrecorded altogether. Thus such movements, though of a great importance in understanding a significant feature of labor behavior, are not easily captured in census and other enumeration exercises.

2.1.2 Migrant Worker

The general conference of ILO convened at Geneva (<http://www.ilo.org/ilolex/cgi-lex/convde.pl?C143>) by the governing body of the International Labor Office and met its 60th session on 4th June, 1975. It defined the term *Migrant workers* as a person who is to be engaged, is engaged or has been engaged in a remunerated activity in a State of which he or she is not a national. A migrant worker can be of different types:

- *Frontier Worker* refers to a migrant worker who retain his or her habitual residence in a neighboring state to which he or she normally returns every day or atleast once a week.
- *Seasonal Worker* refers to a migrant worker whose work by its character is dependent on seasonal conditions and is performed only during part of the year.
- *Seafarer*, that includes a fisherman, refers to a migrant worker employed on board a vessel registered in a State of which he or she is not a national.

- *Worker on an Offshore Installation* refers to a migrant worker employed on an offshore installation that is under the jurisdiction of a State of employed on an onshore installation that is under the jurisdiction of a State or which he or she is not a national.
- *Itinerant Worker* refers to a migrant worker who is having his or her habitual residence in one State and has to travel to another State or States for a shorter period owing to the nature of his or her occupation.
- *Project-Tied Worker* refers to a migrant worker admitted to a State of employment for a defined period to work solely on a specific project being carried out in that State by his or her employed.
- *Specified Employment Worker* refers to a migrant worker:
 - I. Who has been sent by his or her employer for a restricted and defined period of time to a State of employment to undertake a specific assignment or duty; or
 - II. Who is engaged for a restricted and defined period of time in work that requires professional, commercial, technical or other highly specialized skill; or
 - III. Who upon the request of his or her employment, is engaged for a restricted and defined period of time in work whose nature is transitory or brief; and who is required to depart from the State of employment either at the expiration of his or her authorized period of stay, or earlier if he or she no longer undertakes that specific assignment or duty or engage in that work.

- *Self Employed Worker* refers to a migrant worker who is engaged in a remunerated activity otherwise than under a contract of employment and who earns his or her living through this activity normally working alone or together with members of his or her family, and to any other migrant worker recognized as self-employed by applicable legislation of the State of employment or bilateral or multilateral agreements.

2.1.3 Migration Process

Lee in 1970 provided a general theoretical framework for the spatial movements of population. The migration process is divided into four parts. The first two of these are the factors related to the area of origin and those related to destination. As Lee indicates, migration may be the result of a comparison of advantages and disadvantages associated with origin and destination as perceived by the migrant. The third part of this scheme deals with Intervening obstacles such as distance, physical barriers and boundaries etc. The final component is a set of personal factors like intelligence and rationality of individual, their perceptions and stage in life cycle. Lee's migration conceptualization leads to formulation of a series of hypotheses related to volume of migration, migration streams and characteristics of the migrants.

Migration from rural to urban areas in third world countries have been viewed with much interest particularly by those concerned with understanding the processes of development and change in these societies (Todaro, 1988). The classical theorists, both in development studies as well as in demography, thought of migrations in universal-evolutionary kind of framework. It was expected that as the developmental process unfolded a large proportion of rural inhabitants would inevitably

moved to cities, giving up working on land and shifting to employment in industry or the urban service sector. Industrialization and urbanization have for long regarded as the two most important indicators of the modernization process.

However, the actual experiences of the socioeconomic transformation in different countries of the third world have been quite varied. The processes of migration have tended to follow much more complex pattern than what was predicted by the development theorists.

Todaro (1988) describes migration as a process through which people move from one permanent place of residence to another, more or less permanent for a substantial period of time. The change of residence results in redistribution of population both at the origin and at the destination. As such migration is one of the three components of population change, the other two being fertility and mortality. It is a complex and dynamic process. It has wide spread consequences for the individual migrant, as well as for the society within which the movement takes place. Movement of individuals implies an element of dissociation from the usual and familiar world and an involvement with a new environment as new context of physical space and social relationships. The person migrating into may already know the new environment or he/she may be totally unfamiliar with the new place. The migrant to a new environment carries with him/ her much of the old values and perceptions depending upon his age, socialization, circumstances etc.

Ravenstien in 1889 gave certain laws relating the trend of migration:

- Most migrants move to short distance

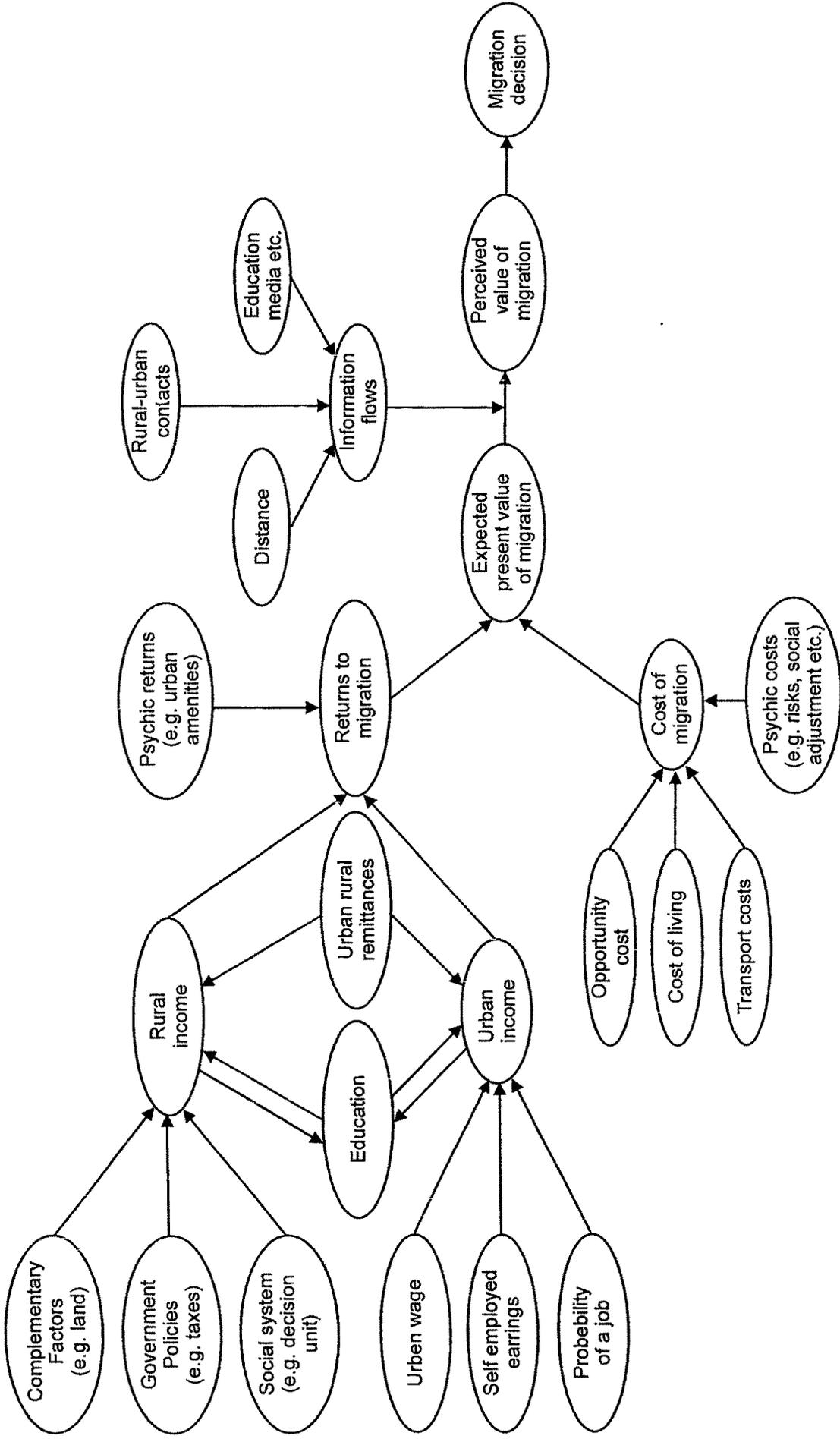
- Migration occur in the form of stream directed towards the centers-commerce and industry.
- Migration takes in the form of step, inhabitants of country, surrounding a town move into it the gap left is filled by migrants from remote corner of the kingdom.
- The process of dispersion is the inverse of the absorption exhibit similar features.
- Each main current have a counter current.
- Long distance migrants generally go to centers of commerce and industry.
- Ruralites are less migratory than urbanites and
- Similar is the case of females who migrate more than males.

2.1.4 Migration Model

Todaro (1988) had proposed a migration model with the assumption that migration is primarily an economic phenomenon that for the individual migrant can be a quite rational decision despite the existence of urban unemployment. The Todaro's model postulates that migration proceeds in response to urban-rural differences in expected rather than actual earnings. The fundamental premise is that migrants consider the various labor market opportunities available to them, as between the rural and urban sectors, and choose the one that examines their 'expected' gains from migration. Expected gains are measured by (a) the difference in real income between rural and urban work and (b) the probability of a new migrant obtaining an urban job (Fig. 1).

In essence, the Todaro theory assumes that members of the labor force, both actual and potential compare their expected incomes for a

FIG 1:A SCHEMATIC FRAMEWORK FOR THE ANALYSIS OF THE MIGRATION DECISION



Source : D. Byerlee, 'Rural Urban Migration in Africa, International Migration Review, Winter 1974, p. 553.

given time horizon in the urban sector (i.e. the difference between returns and costs of migration) with prevailing average rural incomes and migrate if the former exceeds the latter.

2.1.5 Migrant Characteristics

There are certain empirical evidences about the characteristics of migrants regarding their age, education, marital status, occupation etc. The characteristics of the migrants are divided into three broad categories:

(I) Demographic Characteristics:

Urban migrants in developing countries tend to be young men and women between the ages of 15 and 24 years (Todaro, 1988). In many countries the proportion of migrating women seems to be on the increase as their educational opportunities expand. According to Thomas (1983), persons in their teens, twenties and early thirties are more migratory than other groups. Several other studies also showed that the tendency to migrate is to be higher among young people in the age group of 15 to 34 years (Belhun, 1976; Bulsara, 1980; Singh, 1981; Oberai, 1983; Zachariach, 1983; Lakshmaiah, 1984).

A study conducted in twelve randomly selected villages of six districts of U.P. (Khan, 1976) i.e. Jaunpur, Azamgarh, Ghazipur, Ballia, Faizabad and Sultanpur with the help of a household schedule. A period of ten years is considered suitable for the estimates of out-migration. For the purpose of the study 749 households with a population of 4142 persons (2224 males, 1918 females) were surveyed in 12 sample villages. The total number of male out-migrated during last ten years was found to be 139. Age of the migrants at the time of the out-migration showed that more than

half of the migrants left the villages at the ages 15-24 and another one-third at the ages 25-34 years. These are the age groups when most of the persons enter into job market and in which the jobs are normally available at other places.

(II) Educational Characteristics:

One of the most consistent findings of rural-urban migration studies is the positive correlation between educational attainment and migration (Todaro, 1988). There seems to be a clear association between the level of completed education and the propensity to migrate those with more years of schooling, everything else being equal, are more likely to migrate than those with less. He further says that educational levels provide limited urban employment opportunities and only those workers with some secondary education have a chance of finding a job. Those with only some primary school education find it very difficult to secure employment. Their proportionate numbers in the migrant stream, therefore, have apparently begun to decline. Bogue and Zachariach (1980) observed that literate people are more migratory than others are. Several studies have also indicated that illiteracy or low level of education hinders migration (Gosal, 1978; Majumdar, 1978; Kingsley 1981,). On the contrary, studies by, Grewal and Sandhu, (1979); Garkovich, (1983) and Lambart, (1993) reported that most of the migrants are illiterate or they have low level of literacy.

A study conducted in twelve villages of U.P. (Khan, 1976) found that half of the outmigrants were literate with one-third possessing middle and high education at the time of outmigration. The concentration of the outmigrants in the literate groups showed that migrations deplete the outmigrating villagers of the few educated persons they possess.

(III) Economic Characteristics:

The people who are poor, landless, unskilled individuals whose rural opportunities are for the most part does not exist (Todaro, 1988) migrate. With the emergence of a stabilized, modern industrial sector in most urban areas of the less developed countries, the financial assets of migrants from rural areas becomes important only to the extent that individuals with larger financial resources can survive longer while searching for the elusive urban job. In short, migrant seems to come from all socio-economic strata, with the majority being very poor only because most rural inhabitants are poor. Mukherjee (1979) observed that the more an individual is poor, landless and socio-economically deprived, the greater the chance of his migration from rural areas to other areas. According to Swanson (1979), people with high economic status are more migratory than others. On the other hand Rao, (1974); Connell and Dasgupta (1976); Saxena, (1977) and Sovani (1986) have observed that both poor and rich are almost equally prone to migration, The above review reveals that there is no unanimity among academicians regarding the selective characteristics of the migrants.

The data of a study conducted in UP (Khan, 1976) showed that the gap between the income of unskilled and semi-skilled and skilled worker was large. The average monthly income of the former comes to half of the average income of the later.

The other characteristic of migrants were :

Sex: Internal migration in India, unlike migration in Western countries, is highly selective of *males*. However, Ravenstein (1989) generalization (predominance of females in the short distance migration) holds good only in the case of the rural-urban migration. Males dominate females whether it

is a short or long distance migration. Piampiti (1986) conducted a study in Thailand, the results of the study showed that males migrated more than females.

Marital Status: Some scholars relate migration with *marital status*. The results of the study conducted in U.P. showed (Khan, 1976) that a little less than three-fourth of the out-migrants were married and rest were unmarried at the time of out-migration. The proportion of married rose considerably after migration.

Studies by Dhesi and Gumbar (1982) and Chauhan (1986) noted that most of the migrants were unmarried. However, Grewal and Sindhu (1979) observed that majority of the migrants in Punjab was married. But scholars like Kamath (1914), Wattal (1934), Chandrashekhar (1950) pointed out that early marriage hinders migration.

Religion and caste: Religion and caste are another important characteristics of the migrants. The data of the study (Khan, 1976) showed that out-migrants were preponderantly Hindu. Though caste wise schedule caste persons had sufficiently high proportion among out-migrants. It further concludes that higher education among upper caste, which facilitates migration, is responsible for this pattern.

The studies of Joshi, (1975); Connell and Dasgupta (1976) and Eames (1984), reveal the fact that upper caste people are more migratory than those belong to lower castes. Contrary to this generalization, Grewal and Sindhu (1979), Gupta and Bhakoo (1980) observed that low caste groups are more migratory than others are. Further, Mishra (1956) and Majumdar and Majumdar (1978) observed that many low caste people migrate from the rural areas to the other places chiefly with a view to

liberate themselves from age old social discrimination and to conceal their low social status in the hierarchy of caste system.

Work Category: *Occupation* is also recognized as an important factor influencing migration. The study conducted in UP showed that 90 per cent of the migrants were workers and another 6 per cent were looking for job (Khan, 1976). Students and dependents accounted for a very small proportion. This shows that outmigration of the males from these villages were mainly job oriented.

Sen (1970) reported that in Calcutta, most of the migrants are unskilled manual workers. On the contrary, Hamsaleelavathy (1970) observed that skilled and technical workers are more migratory than non-skilled workers are. Mayer (1983) found that Indians in Fiji came from different occupations namely business, farming and crafts.

Work Status and type of work prior to migration: The change in the work status, industrial and occupational structure of the migrants after migration is an important aspects of migration. The data of a study conducted in U.P. (Khan, 1976) showed that the industrial composition accounted for nearly 56 per cent of total migrants who were directly engaged in agriculture prior to migration while their proportion decreased to only 4 per cent after migration. Proportion of migrants engaged in household and manufacturing was 6 per cent only, which increased to 31 per cent. Similar changes were witnessed in other services. There were 34 per cent of migrants engaged in construction trade, commerce and transport while their contribution in these activities was practically nil prior to migration. The major differences in the industrial composition of migrants were mainly the result of difference of economic base of rural and

urban areas, showed that rural out-migration reduced the dependence of population on agriculture which provide relief to the communities of origin and bring them to non-agricultural occupations.

Similar differences were observed in occupational structure though proportion engaged in unskilled job still remained high after migration, there was remarkable change in other two categories of occupation. The proportion of semi-skilled and skilled worker was 9 per cent and clerical supervisory and managerial 2 per cent prior to migration increased to 19 and 23 per cent respectively. Therefore, it can be said that outmigration resulted into diversification of occupation which is not possible in rural areas.

Location Pattern of the Out-migrants: Khan (1976) conducted a study in Uttar Pradesh which revealed that there are certain pockets and regions in India, which are historically known for attracting the migrants from the various parts of the country. Prior to partition, it was Calcutta industrial region and Plantation region of Assam, which was the major attraction for the migrants. After partition with the implementation of five year new areas of attraction came up. Though East and Calcutta and Assam still remained the major attraction for the migrants the stream of movements were directed towards west i.e. Maharashtra, North West Delhi, Center Madhya Pradesh, South Region. For outmigrants from U.P. beside Calcutta, Assam, Delhi and Madhya Pradesh, Bihar Punjab and areas of Rajasthan were attracting.

In this study the sample migrants had moved to various places except to the places within the district. Hence, the classified destination of the out-migrants was in the following manner:

- Urban areas of other districts of U.P.
- Rural areas of other districts of U.P.
- Urban areas of adjoining state.
- Rural areas of adjoining state
- Urban areas of Punjab.
- Urban areas of other state.
- Rural areas of other states.
- Metropolitan cities of India
- Outside India.

Cityward Migration: It has been generally stated that larger urban agglomeration is receiving the lion's share of migration in India, and there is positive correlation between the size of city and volume of migration. The data showed that nearly 45 per cent of urban migrants went to metropolitan cities. If class I cities were considered than three-fourth of the out-migrants were found to be going to larger cities.

2.1.6 Factors influencing Migration Decision

Large numbers of factors are generally considered while taking a decision to move from the place of origin to some other place. If an individual is satisfied with his present life, he may not think of migration even if the economic opportunities are superior and abundant at the place of migration. So, man may migrate either with definite aims and aspiration or under the pressure of conditions or for personal reasons.

Brinley (1954) considers the economic factors to be predominant in migration and supersedes other factors. Hertzler (1956) says that the advantages or disadvantages of the two places act as attractive or repulsive forces in migration. Today areas like Delhi generally offer

numerous avenues of employment opportunities and better prospects of life than rural areas. These attractions of urban centers generally coincide with rural distress and induce people to move. The attractive forces of city life motivates people of all ranks and categories – skilled or unskilled, rich or poor, highly educated or illiterate to migrate.

Kono and Shio (1968) studied the internal migration in Japan in 1956-1961 and hypothesize that internal migration occurred where there were differences in economic conditions between areas i.e. from an area of low level of economic conditions to an area of high level. Multiple – regressions were used to explore inter-relations between migration and variety of demographic and economic factors. This analysis was done by taking into account:

- Age, sex, composition of population
- Per capita income
- Degree of industrialization
- Degree of family employment
- Degree of urbanization
- Housing condition
- Distance between two prefectures
- Contiguity-non-contiguity of prefectures and
- Regional location

The result of analyses showed that economic factors played important part in migration. The age factor, the differences in percentage of population aged 15-39 between prefectures are also important. Other factors appeared to be insignificant.

According to Lee (1970), factors associated with the area of destination, intervening obstacles between the places of origin and destination and personal factors are the reasons determined the process of migration.

In a study (Greenwood, 1971) attempted to analyze the causes and pattern of urban migration in less developed countries on the basis of Indian data. The results of Greenwood's study showed that economic factors such as transportation costs, income and job opportunities enter importantly into individual's decision to migrate to city. The migrants to urban areas both from rural and urban areas tended to come from nearby areas but this tendency were more pronounced in rural to urban migration. The inter-urban migrants moved from cities of lower income to cities of higher income. Rural urban persons alike were found to be migrating to rapidly growing cities. The results showed that social, cultural and social psychological factors influence a resident in rural depressed community's predisposition for migration.

According to Toshio Kuroda (1972), "uneven distribution of economic activity, the level among regions and regional reproductive differentials of population tend to reinforce each other to accelerate migratory movements".

Gupta (1972) observed that the improvement in transport and communication, the increase in the educational level of the population and general economic development have contributed to the increase in migration in recent years. It may be concluded that the causes for rural-urban migration in India are mostly relating to economic factors resulting in population growth. Apart from these, the amenities in the urban centers

such as easy credit, entertainment facilities free medical services and free education facilities may also attract the rural people to the urban centers.

In an opinion of Chapin (1972) the desire for personal advancement an important factor causing migration". Pal (1974) is of the opinions that relatively better conditions of living and better prospects in the city motivate the villagers to migrate.

Kemper (1977) examined the movement and experiences of migrants from a single community of origin, the peasant village Tzintzuntzan to a single urban destination i.e. Mexico City. Out of the total migrants moved out of Tzintzuntzan village nearly 34 per cent gone to Mexico. People migrated for higher level of education, occupation, and living standard.

The Taiwanese data (Li, 1977) suggested that the attraction of socio-economic opportunities was an important factor determining the relative strength of migration. Migration tended to move wherever opportunities appear. Hence, the magnitude of the main stream tended to be great. Donald (1979) says that migration is caused by economic, non-economic factors which are responsible for the shift of rural people to the urban areas.

In the study of Hubli city, Dhekney (1979) pointed out several causes of migration, of which the most important were securing employment, better prospectus, better employment or better business, city-ward migration motivated by factors such as famine, inadequacy of land, loss of land and low income.

Kempinski (1981) explains that rural exodus is caused mainly by the fall in farm labor requirements (push) and by the attraction of urban life (Pull), where suitable urban jobs are scarce, people emigrate abroad. There are social and psychological difficulties both in farm-to-town and farm-to-farm migration but there are also economic advantages for the countryside and for the nation as a whole.

Piampiti (1986) found that migrants were concentrated at age under 40 regardless of sex during internal migration in Thailand. It further says that males migrated more than females and migration in Thailand were responsive of economic and social opportunities.

A survey carried out by Yashwant in 1987-89 (1992) showed that there was a high degree of association between poverty and rural communities and migration and it was mainly push factors which was motivating migration. The push factor in migration could be corroborated by the study of income and occupational status of migrants belonged to lowest income group and was marginal farmers or agricultural laborers by occupation.

There is no unanimity among the scholars in migration on the factors that affect rural-urban migration. Some have emphasized on economic factors, while others on non-economic factors. For instance, Zachariah (1989) says that economic factors play a significant role in the process of rural-urban migration. Musgrove (1990) says, " migration is an answer to personal predicaments, often frustration in work and absence of opportunities for advancements".

The pattern of Population redistribution relative to economic pressures within Philippines was studied (Simkins, 1990). Even lower level

of living was chosen until pressure become severe. Most people increased family ties choose migration reluctantly and community bonds and strongly felt.

Morrison (1992) studied the impact and significance of Rural-urban migration in United States, Santa Monica, California, and USA and drew following conclusions:

- Demographic and economic imbalances underlying migration include high natural increase in rural areas and mechanization of agriculture.
- Migration improved occupational and living standards notably for blacks. When the migrant's opinions were asked most of the migrants believed they were better off after moving to urban areas.
- Migrants soon became indistinguishable from natives of same education, age, race and sex. Policy recommendations were:
 - i. To strengthen effectiveness of rural out-migration as means of individual material improvement.
 - ii. Retain viability of declining areas as alternative to urban living by consolidating health, education and other social services.

The findings of the survey done by Narain (1992) showed that females dominated out-migration but were confined to short distance, males on the other hand moved to long distances. For females, the reason of migration was marriage while among males choice of destination was primarily for economic and educational reasons. The concentration of males in young age group depleted the village of young and able-bodied males. Higher mobility in certain caste affected the caste composition of

the villages. Some changes in male education and occupation were observed after migration but no such change is visible for females.

According to George (1993), "The decision to migrate is always a difficult one. It is hard to balance objectively both the effect of leaving the present residence and the expected advantages of a new home. Thus the history of human migration is replete with disappointments founded on unrealistic hopes for a paradise in the New World".

In a chapter of the edited book, Kalam (1997) offers an anthropological perspective on moorings and mobility in the Indian Context. He argues that decisions about migration or staying back are not taken by keeping only the economic factors in mind. Identities of caste and kinship, birthplace and land work strongly on the minds of those who decide to migrate. Though economic factors were powerful motivation force 'non-economic' factors also significant. When it came to permanent migration, chance played no role. Along with individual choice, family ties, lineage and caste logic played important roles in decisions regarding migration. It is further said that migration prevented the established social structures and traditional norms from disintegrating altogether.

Todaro (1988) has emphasized on the factors viz.: social factors, economic factors, physical factors, demographic factors, cultural and communication factors.

(I) Social Factors: Include the desire of migration to break away from traditional constraints of social organizations. (I) By and large marriage has been a dominant social reason for migration (Grewal and Sindhu, 1979). (ii) It is an urge or a desire to break away from traditional constraints and set norms of social organization.

Schapera (1947) adds psychological factors along with social factors and reasoned them as the desire for adventure and change, escape from domestic and communal problems. Social and institutional factors along with the economic conditions and motivations are given as the causes of migration by Joshi and Padasia (1991).

(II) Economic factors :

Schepera (1947) gives the economic factor, as the economic necessity that includes growth of new wants, annual cash expenditure, income from sale of produce, employment inside the territory, specific wants and labor migration.

Stone (1973) found that majority of the males migrated from Britain to South Africa in search of better employment opportunities. These findings are also supported by the study of Rao (1974) who observed that 40 per cent of total immigrants migrated for better livelihood opportunities. In this regard, the studies by Dhekney (1979), Grewal and Sidhu (1979) Sandhu (1979), Stockel (1992), and Chauhan (1996), have also observed that majority of migrants moved to the other places because of better livelihood and better economic factors like higher wage rates, income and regular employment at the place of immigration.

It is this factor that lead to better employment and income (Todaro, 1988). The place of birth data in 1981 census reveal that there were 58 million male internal migrants and out of them 19.5 million male migrants moved for employment.

Sinha (1983) in his study reported that employment sector appears to be most important factor affecting rural – urban migrate in India. The

analysis of variance results show that between literacy groups, migration differ significantly for most of the states. Age is another important variable influencing migration but between literacy and age, literacy seems to be more important variable as analysis of variance shows.

A study on conditions of migration of 'chamar' i.e. shoe-maker was conducted by Sharma (1987) and the result showed that the non-availability of adequate employment opportunities at their original place was expressed by 39.50%. The second reason was given by 16.04% of migrants who state that low wage level had been a major factor being driven away from their native place. The third reason was given as the prospects or employment in big industrial centres given by 9.87%. Mahmood (1988) revealed in a study conducted in U.P. on rural urban migration that employment is the main reason among males while marriage is the main reason for migration among females. In another study conducted by Singh (1990) almost same results were revealed.

A study done by Hanonmoney (1991) reveals that there is decline in the employment opportunities for agricultural labourers especially among male workers due to adoption of new agricultural technology and therefore agricultural labourers in Tamil Nadu migrate in large number to other areas inter district and intra district in search of employment.

Tiwari (1991) in his study of migrant workers in Kanpur metropolis found that over 68 per cent of workers moved from rural to urban areas because of low income at their native places, followed by those who came for seeking employment in the city (13.38 per cent). Other factors like family conflict (11.8 per cent) and to educate children (5.91 per cent) were found to be of secondary importance.

The process of rural-urban migration of landless rural families in south Asia was analysed by Roy et al. (1992). Field data were gathered in 1990 from Dattabad slum in Calcutta and from Notuk village in Midnapur district, West Bengal, India, as well as from Ekdala and south Rampur villages in Bangladesh. Results revealed that diminishing access to non-market goods and lack of employment of females caused a significant fall in family income, which forced the rural families to migrate to Dattabad slum. Their decision to migrate was linked to the onset of poverty and lack of economic security for them.

Large-scale livelihood opportunities in the town were reported to as superior to those of village occupations in terms of wage rates, income and working conditions. These had motivated several rural people to come to the suburban settlements of Anantpur town (Reddy, 1998). This factor ranked third in the rank order of the responses belonged to this category. Migrants reported that there was a significant difference in the wage rates between rural and urban areas. They said that the working hours in their villages were hard, while in urban areas the working conditions were prospective, attractive, encouraging, remunerative and limited working hours.

(III) Physical factors :

According to Todaro (1988) this factor includes climatic and meteorological disasters like floods and droughts. It is also termed as environmental factor which is generally attributed to natural and man made calamities. The natural one is being a flood, famines and droughts whereas the man made ones are riots, terrorism, invasion etc. In these cases generally there is a group or mass movement of families and communities.

Every year agricultural drought was causing several damages to the rural people in Anantpur town (Reddy, 1998). Migrants reported that they sold their bullocks, cart, electric motor and other implements during the severe drought conditions and seeds were consumed. Streams, tanks and wells dried up and the people failed to create alternative sources of irrigation. In this situation several rural people left their villages in search of livelihood. The studies of Bhargava (1971), Sexena (1983), Simic (1987), Stoltmen (1991) and Bose (2003) observed that natural calamities like drought and flood caused large-scale migration from villages to various urban centers.

(IV) Demographic factor :

This factor included the reduction in mortality rates and concomitant high rates of rural population growth.

(V) Cultural factors :

This factor included the security of urban 'extended family' relationships and the allurements of so called 'bright city lights'.

Attracted by urban way of life (Reddy, 1998) was the reason which occupied second place in the rank order and 19 percent of the responses belonged to this category. Though the living conditions in the squatter settlements were poor, they considered their life in the town preferable to what it was in their respective villages. The migrants reported that they were more accessible to certain civic amenities like recreation and entertainment facilities, medical and educational facilities and enjoyment of modern democratic atmosphere than before. In a study of squatter settlements in Delhi, Majumdar (1977) found that majority of the migrants



left their village due to the improved urban civic facilities and better economic opportunities. The observations of Mishra (1956) and Gosan and Krishnan (1975) were same. Swaminathan and Aankleseria (1988) observed that the living conditions in the shantytowns appear to be horrific to any visitor. But even in these horrific shantytowns infant mortality had reduced significantly and life expectancy had doubled since independence. The migrants in urban slums were in many cases better off in these respect than the wretched in village hovels, who had no access to health care or preventive medicine and whose wells were more polluted than urban pump sets. Therefore, it may be concluded that the high difference between places in terms of certain civic amenities is an important cause for migration among low-income groups.

(VI) Communication factors :

Resulting from improved transportation, urban-oriented educational systems and the 'modernizing' impact of introduction of radio, T.V. and the cinema.

Parida and Rath (1991) examined the dadan system (in which migrants take advance from the intermediaries before they go outside the state) of labour out migration in one of the backward districts of Orissa and found that Government's failure to provide educational and vocational training to the people of dadan prone areas. This compels them to go as migrants to far-off places, often risking their lives.

Patel and Talati (1991) gave the factors of migration as the increased presence of population on land, decline of cottage industries and village handicrafts, poverty, unemployment and indebtedness, no land,

existence of joint family system, family quarrels and social boycotts are determining factors.

Few other factors, which also influenced the migration decision :

(I) Commercialisation of Skills

Elder (1970) observed that several rural artisans abandon their traditional occupation due to the failure of Jajmani system and finding alternative means of livelihood either in the towns or in the villages. Similarly, Jain and Lucas (1985) documented that in societies like India, traditional social factors and usually hereditary occupational background of individuals play an important role in determining economic opportunities and migration.

According to Reddy (1998), there are certain skills like carpentry and masonry, which have great demand in the urban housing construction activities. And other skills of enterprise, dairy repairing, servicing, tailoring, laundry and barber are also promising prospects in the town. Some migrants as a vital factor for the rural-urban migration have cited. The commercialization of skills. All the people with these skills migrated to the suburban settlements of Anantpur town with a definitive aim to commercialize their skills as they failed in their respective village due to the collapse of 'Jajmani system' in the rural areas. The 'Jajmani system' is the traditional rural occupational system, which carried with it certain responsibilities, rights and remuneration. But it has gradually collapsed under the influence of very frequent crop failures, penetration of the money economy into the village, diffusion of modern technology and changing tastes of the people. Rural artisans like carpenter, barber, laundry, cobbler and others used to get their remuneration in grain under Jajmani system.

The farmers and other villagers could not pay their remuneration regularly to rural artisans due to frequent crop failure caused by the high frequency of the agricultural droughts. Consequently, the rural artisans reduced to starving conditions and realized that they were doing unpaid service to the villagers. In this situation they migrated to the town so as to make best of their skills.

(II) Deterioration of Traditional Rural Economy, Social and Living Conditions

Bhargava (1971) observed that gradual decay of traditional occupation and village industry, high pressure of population and low wages have considerably aggravated the economic miseries of the rural masses, leading to migration of rural people to the urban areas. A similar view is also expressed in the studies of Bulsara (1976) and Bose (1981).

According to Reddy (1998), several rural artisans and the people from low socio-economic rural groups migrated to Anantpur due to this reason. It is evident that Indian traditional rural economy and panchayat systems (Basic administrative system at village level) have been completely destroyed by the British rule. Consequently, the effective age-old coordination between agriculture and handicrafts has broken down and several artisans lost their livelihood and the village living condition deteriorated. However, the modern panchayat raj system was introduced to reconstruct the ruined rural economy and village panchayats in the district are dormant and defunct for various reasons like lack of grants, aids, resources, corruption, nepotism and general indifferent attitude of the people. Today, there is no effective administrative system in the villages to cater their civic and economic needs and to run day to day life of the village. And the rule of 'might is right' holds well in several village. Several

panchayats have failed even to supply and maintain certain basic civic facilities like drinking water, streetlights, public hygiene and sanitation, schools, medical facilities, library and recreation. Certain institutions like village cooperative society, public distribution center and post office are not properly running in the villages.

(III) Unemployment

Singh (1978) observed that majority of the rural people migrated to towns because of adverse agricultural conditions, unemployment or underemployment and over population the rural areas. In the same way, similar studies by Singh and Yadav (1981) and Dhesi & Gumbar (1982) have also reported that unemployment in the rural areas in causing migration in a significant way. Bhatt and Chawla, (1992) found out that a great majority of the migrants in Ahmedabad city slums left their villages due to unemployment, drought and famine conditions.

Unemployment ranked the sixth position in the ranking order and nine percent of responses belonged to this factor (Reddy, 1998). Anantpur district being a chronic drought prone area was highly susceptible to agricultural drought leading to very frequent crop failures and loss of employment in agriculture. Other factors like low agricultural productivity, lack of irrigation facilities, depletion of ground water resources and increasing population pressure on land were also causing unemployment problem among the agricultural laborers and petty peasants. Usually, there was no work during Feb to July in the year. Supplementary occupations were totally absent in the villages. As the farming became gambling, high risky and non-remunerative, the so-called farmers were not in a position to pay 5 to 10 rupees per day as wage to the agricultural laborers. There was no possibility to save something when there was less work and depend on

it during the period of unemployment due to low agricultural wages. In this situation the agricultural laborers were migrating to town in search of livelihood.

Vandsemb (1998) examined the determinants of spontaneous out-migration from Western Hambantota District, Sri Lanka. The study indicated the factors that impelled out-migration are increasing population density, decreasing size of landholdings, increasing landlessness and unemployment, and stagnation in the development of agriculture and alternative production activities. The migrants were mainly young, nuclear families who do not own land in their home villages, despite being from farming families.

(IV) High cost of Cultivation

Jagannathan (1988) and Sharma (1988) observed that the position of an average farmer (having 7.5 acres of land) is inferior to a clerk in Government service, It may suggest that the high cost of agriculture has made the peasants impoverished and to leave their villages to earn the livelihood.

Agriculture is in a great crisis due to high cost of cultivation in the district in Anantpur town (Reddy, 1998). A wise farmer does not prefer agriculture at high cost and heavy losses. If the farmer is sensible and conscious of high cost of cultivation and non-remunerative prices, he tries to reduce the cost either to change to the best alternative cost, or to change the cropping pattern. Otherwise if possible, the farmer may change his occupation to the non-agricultural occupation. But the people in Anantpur area consider agriculture as a way of life and not as a

remunerative occupation (Reddy, 1998). The peasants were mostly illiterate and they seldom apply accounting system in agriculture. Therefore, they realized their real economic position only when they became bankrupt and were thrown out of their land and house. In this situation many peasants left their villages in search of livelihood in the urban centers. In Reddy's (1998) study high cost of cultivation stood in the seventh position in ranking order and seven per cent of the responses belong to this category. Cost of cultivation increased by three to five times of the normal cost of cultivation due to deepening of well, erection of bore well, replacement of high power motors diesel engines and irrigation equipment, long spells of power cuts, construction of field channels and non-remunerative agricultural prices. In addition, frequent loss of labor, inputs and other expenses on agriculture, because of continuous failure of crops caused by agricultural and hydrological droughts increased the cost of agriculture.

2.1.7 Consequences of Migration

The impact of migration on the family would be felt when the migrant leaves his family at his place of origin or later the family members move along with him to the place of destination. There are important effects on the family in both the modes of migration.

In an another study Lakshmasamay (1990) analyzed migration and remittances as a strategy adopted by a risk averse, enterprising small farmer family to alleviate the credit and risk constraints which are prohibiting the adoption of new agricultural technology. There are indirect effect of migration are release of rural resources, education and information flow on agricultural innovation.

Economic migration of woman was studied by Shanti (1991) and reported as most of the married migrant poor women live on pavements slums devoid of basic amenities. Moreover, the women have to reconcile a range of employment activities with child care which places them under great physical and mental strain.

The employment opportunities available in the urban areas always attract the rural area people. This is supported by the study Tiwari (1991) has done. According to him most of the migrant workers gained after joining the informal sector in the urban area. Only 7.08% migrant workers who were working in informal sector got lower earnings than they had at the native places but 99.2% gained when they started up the job.

The growing male out-migration from Punjab villages in Pakistan led to demographic changes which resulted in the matri-weighting of households, that is, in the absence of various male roles, the role of the mother had become dominant, Rahat (1990). A shift of decision-making power had been found from men to women.

Brink (1991) studied the impact of the emigration of husbands on the status of wives. Of the 79 women interviewed in the village of Sadeeq, Egypt, 6 had husbands working abroad. The status of this subset of women was compared with that of the women whose husbands were at home. It was found that the families with migrant husbands were able to build a nuclear family house sooner than most, and so those wives were able to control food money at a comparatively younger age, which was used to be done by mothers-in-law in extended families. The absence of the husbands from the nuclear family further increased the status of wives

by freeing them of supervision and increasing their ability to make financial decisions for routing expenditures and ongoing projects.

The study of migrant agricultural labourers in Punjab as conducted by Gupta (1991) revealed that majority of the immigrants to Punjab hailed from Bihar and Uttar Pradesh. They were mostly married but had migrated alone except two who had migrated with their families. The majority of immigrants admitted that their economic status in their native villages had improved. The remittances sent by them had contributed towards improving the education level of their wards, marriages of blood relatives, purchasing durable goods like radio, transistor, sewing machine and cleaning their debts. A few reported that they saved money and purchased agricultural lands at their native villages. The study further revealed that increased income earned in Punjab had enabled them to acquire a better living standard, which, in turn, improved their socio-economic status back home.

Tiwari (1991) reported that most of the migrant workers gained in their earning after joining informal sector in the Kanpur metropolis. It was found that only 7.08 per cent migrant workers started work in the informal sector which fetched them lower earnings than what they had at their native places, while 92.92 per cent of migrant workers gained at the time when they started the first job in the city. On an average, a migrant worker earned Rs.313.85 per month, which was 3 times higher than the per capita income at their native places (Rs.103.71) per month.

During a study on the women of the Holocaust : Universal Theme in Migration and Repatriation Experiences by Quoss (1991), 5 themes were identified :

- a) Changes in family power / status relationship
- b) Person states changes within the process of migration or repatriation.

- c) Reorganization of cultural or religious belief systems and practices.
- d) Changes in everyday living routines including technological adjustments
- e) Coping with negative consequences of the Holocaust experience

Both men and women – alone, together and with family – are migrating. Analysis of migration pattern reveal that men often migrates first and when risk and uncertainties at the place of migration reduce, women and families follow the migrant men (Gunjal, 1994).

A study was conducted by Yadava et al. (1996) on the rural out-migration and its economic implications on migrant households, in different parts of Uttar Pradesh through a number of sample surveys in terms of flow of remittances from urban to rural areas. The study indicated that the migrant households were socio-economically and educationally better placed than others. It was found that the remittances improved the income of out-migrant households and decreased the inequalities in the overall income distribution. It was found that a migrant household received an average of about 24 per cent of its income from remittances sent by the migrants.

Santhapparaj (1998) explored the consequences of migration in terms of urban-rural remittance from the place of destination. The primary data were collected from Madurai city between October 1990 and May 1991 from 240 migrants selected through multistage random sampling technique. It was found that most of the urban migrants maintained links with their native place in the rural areas through regular visits. It was observed that out of the 57 migrants who remitted money, nearly 75 per cent remitted less than or equal to Rs.1500 in a year. In all, the migrants remitted 13.30 per cent of their annual earnings to their place of origin. It

was observed that remittances from the migrants did not have any significant influence on the rural economy, except that they helped migrant households in meeting their basic needs.

2.2 In-Migrant Families' Contact with the place of Origin

The exodus of the people from their place of origin is not an easy task in terms of leaving the place of birth, relatives, friends and the reminiscence. The sentimental and affectionate ties are found between the migrants and their kith and kin in the villages in spite of geographical separation by the act of migration. Thus, whether the move is temporary or permanent, they try to maintain the contact with the people at their place of origin for one or other reason.

Some contact with the place of origin is maintained for succeeding generation. Some contact with the place of origin is maintained through visits on the occasion of marriage, death and other ritual occasions within the kin group. There may also be a question of sending remittances to dependent family members for the maintenance of a share in the ancestral property. In such cases, if children of the migrant stay on in the area of migration, they will no longer be regarded as migrants but as the permanent residents.

A study conducted by Ade Pogu (1974) into two Nigerian urban centres named Ife and Oshogbe in 1941-72. The findings of the study showed that almost all the migrants retained contact with their place of origin. About 80 per cent of them went back frequently, 2-12 times per year. These visits reinforce the identification with ancestral home.

The impact of migration of Bihari labourers to Gauhati as examined at the place of the origin of the migrants by Thakur and Sinha (1988)

showed that the migrants remitted money to their family every month and visited their village once or twice every year. Income saved by migrants improved socio-economic status as well as quality of life at home. Migration helped to conserve and promote the prestige of the family, as defined traditionally in terms of land holding, kind of housing and the level of expenditure on social occasions. The migrants as a result of their exposure to outside influence also brought some new ideas.

Rahat (1990) found in her study that the new source of income from male migration led to increased investment in modern housing and other conspicuous displays of wealth. The study of migrant agricultural labourers in Punjab as conducted by Gupta (1991) revealed that majority of the immigrants to Punjab hailed from Bihar and Uttar Pradesh and they used to send the remittances at their native place.

Therefore, it would be worthwhile to study the nature of the links between the migrants and the people in their villages. Patel (1993) studied the rural outmigrants of Ratnagiri district into Bombay mills. According to her, the young male migrants got a job where former migrants happened to be employed. Migrants maintained a close contact with their native places, usually through visits and remittances. All migrants had interest in property in native place and consider it a valuable security for the time of unemployment, severe economic distress, disabled conditions, and illness in the family etc

The first link between the migrants and the people in their villages was the initial support at the time of their migration (Reddy, 1998). The sources of the initial financial support were own savings, family savings, loans from private lenders and relatives and liquidation of rural assets. 5%

migrants sent their remittances amount below Rs. 200 per year, 10% sent between Rs. 201 and 400, 17% between Rs. 401 and 1000, 27% sent between Rs. 2001 and 4000, 11% sent between Rs. 4001 and 8000 and 4% sent this between Rs. 8001 and 10000. 10% migrants did not sent any remittance to their villages. Migrants also reported that they got food grains from their villages in return to their remittances at times of good crop. It was also found that these were an oral understanding between the migration and their villages to help each other at the times of difficulties.

He added that 27% migrants visited their villages to give money to their dependents, 22% to cultivate lands, same number of respondents did this to participate in village festivals, funerals of their families and to see their friends and relatives, 15% to attend the marriages of their relatives and friends, 10% to bring food grains from their families in their villages. 4 percent of them had never visited their families in their villages. The frequency of their visit varied from once in a month to once in a year. 16% migrants visited their villages once in a month, 15% once in two months; 12% once in three months, 21% once in six months, 10% once in a year, 19% visited whenever necessary and 3 % visited whenever their kith and kin requested. About 4% of them reported that they never visited their villages.

Since a long time, letters are found to be an effective and economic way to keep the contacts among the people. Findings of the study (Reddy, 1998) showed that 11% migrants wrote letters once in a week, 16% once in two weeks, 20% once in a month, 14% once in two months, 10% once in three months and 29% reported that they did not write letters at all.

2.3 Source of Information Used by In-migrant Families

People migrate to urban areas for various reasons but usually the prospect of economic gain is of major importance. When people feel that it is not economical or not possible to make living in their places, they collect information about employment opportunities, living conditions and about various other aspects before they actually move. These informations are collected either personally or through their relatives, caste members, friends, neighbours etc.

Relatives, friends and co-villagers appeared to be the major source of information about employment in a study conducted in 12 villages of U.P (Khan, 1976). They accounted for almost for two-third of the migrants.

Personal and social contacts or networks play an important role in the process of migration. Reddy (1998) in his study found out that 85 per cent of migrants took the assistance from various sources like relatives, caste members, friends and own villagers while they migrated. The actual assistance included regarding supply of food, lodging, employment and living place free of cost. Only 15 per cent of the migrants moved out of their places on their own (self-help).

Prabhu (1956), Rao (1974), Gist (1975), Majumdar and Majumdar (1978), Singh (1978), Veen (1979) and Zachariah (1989) concluded that the migration is enhanced on the lives of caste, kinship and friendship and the previous migrants work as motivators by supplying food, shelter and other necessities at the initial stage to the new migrants. The role of social contacts in motivating migration was also reported by Russell (1980) and Dhesi and Gumbar (1982).

2.4 Perceived Cost and Benefits of Migration:

Cost stands "for a measured amount of value purposefully released or to be released in the acquisition or creation of economic resources. (materials, labor etc.) either tangible or intangible. (Gupta, 1997). He further reports the following :

Terminology of Cost Accountancy by British Institute of Cost and Management Accountants.

"Cost is the amount of expenditure incurred on a given thing."

American Accounting Association adds.

"Cost is foregoing measured in monetary terms incurred or potentially to be incurred to achieve a specific objective. "

American Committee comment on terminology of Cost:

"The amount measured in money, of cash expended or other property transferred, capital stock (Shares) issues, services performed or a liability incurred in consideration of goods or service received or to be received (is cost)."

Sjaastad (1962) presented a theory of migration, which treats the decision to migrate as an investment decision involving an individual's expected costs and returns over time. Return comprise both monetary and non-monetary costs such as cost of transportation, disposal of property, wage forgone while in transit and any training for a new job. Psychic costs include those of leaving familiar surroundings, adopting new dietary habits and social customs.

His theory assumes people desire to maximise their net real income over their productive life and can atleast roughly compute their life time

income streams in the present place of residence as well as in all possible destinations.

Todaro (1988) states that migration is stimulated primarily by rational economic consideration of relative benefit and costs, mostly financial but also include psychological. The decision to migrate depends on 'expected' rather than actual urban-rural wage differentials and the probability of successfully obtaining employment in the urban modern sector.

The laws of immigration proposed by Ravenstein in 1880 and published in 1989 in the Journal of Royal Statistics. These laws have stood the test of time and even now they are considered as the fundamental laws for analysis of migrant according to these laws, migrants move from areas of low opportunity to the areas of high opportunity.

2.5 Coping strategies adapted by In-migrant families

In-migrants migrate from their place of origin to a new place which may be known or unknown to them which results in various problems. At times these problems could easily be solved and at times these take the whole life. To overcome these problems certain coping strategies are adapted by these people. Seeking livelihood is one of them.

Change of residence from one place to another necessitates the search for a livelihood in the town. Securing livelihood is also difficult for them because of competition among the migrants themselves and the urban employees. At the same time new place setting is different from the earlier one.

Kemper (1977) examined the movement and experiences of migrants in Tzintzuntzan to Mexico City. He found that as the number of migration increased, the positive attitude towards them decreased. The cause was that the more recent migrant was less prepared to cope with urban life and would encounter more difficulties in establishing him or her in the city.

Migrants mostly depend on their personal money and loans immediately after migration during the period of search for their employment. Reddy (1998) reported that 47 per cent migrants depend on personal money, 25 per cent on loans and 19% on the free lodging and boarding provided by their relatives. He further stated that kinship and personal networks play an important role in securing the urban livelihood of the migrants. According to the findings of his study 47 percent of the migrants got their first livelihood through their relatives 18 percent got by their employers, 14 percent got by themselves, 12 percent got by their caste members, 7 per cent by their friends, 2 per cent secured through their own villagers.

He added that 38 per cent of the migrants fell in a manageable debt condition in spite of the increase in family income. This was due to investment in certain sectors (trade and business and dairy and animal husbandary sectors which needed comparatively large amount of capital), low wages and income in certain sectors (labour and service sectors) and irregular flow of income. About 74% of the migrants in the debt were below the average family debt (Rs. 3,202) They took loans for the income generation activities (41%) and consumption purposes (59%). Loans of small size meant for consumption were financed mostly by money lenders and local chit funds. Income generation loans were large in size and were

generally financed by nationalized banks. However, the banks were the important source of borrowing both for small and big sized loans.

2.6 Help Received by the In-migrant Families:

The study conducted in twelve villages of U.P. (Khan, 1976) probed for acquisition of jobs acquired by the in-migrant at the place of migration. The study revealed that nearly one-fourth of them secured a job within one month of their 'reaching the destination', another half of them in one to three months and nearly one-third had to wait for three months and more for the gainful work.

Gupta (1991) carried out a study on the migration of agricultural labourers from eastern to north-western region of India. He explored that at a later stage the networks of the co-villagers and caste played dominant role in sustaining immigrant's stay at the place of migration.

2.7 Perceived Quality of Life:

"Quality of Life covers all aspects of living including material satisfaction of vital needs as well as more transcendental aspects of life such as personal development, self-realization and a healthy eco-system." (UNESCO,1977)

Since the early 1940s there has been an increasing interest in the assessment of quality of life (Gross, 1966). Sullivan (1992) stated that 'quality of life' emerged as a political entity in the United States in mid 1950s and in Europe in 1960s. The number of publications on quality of life was limited until the late 1970s, when the political entity finally became a scientific concern. Since then an exponential growth in the literature on

quality of life has occurred in a broad range of disciplines including psychology, medicine and sociology (Karlsson, 1992).

One of the main reasons for studying quality of life in the population at large was inherent in the social indicators movement (Evans *et al.*, 1985). In the late 1960s there was a recognition that something more than gross economic indicators such as the gross national product was required as a basis for comparing countries (Chubon, 1987). The alternative proposed was the social indicator, a measure reflecting not only the economic development but also the social development of a country (Palys and Little, 1980; Johnson, 1988). It quickly became obvious that while the social indicator provided information about a cultural unit (town, state, and country), it provided little or no information about the quality of life of the specific individuals within the unit. This observation led to interest in the assessment of the subjective or perceived quality of life of population samples in such cultural units as the United States, Europe and Australia (Andrews, 1991; Davis and Fine-Davis, 1991; Headey and Wearing, 1991). Interest in subjective indicators of quality of life has intensified as researchers have failed to find other than meager and often-inconsistent relationships between objective social indicators and subjective measures (Costa and McCrea, 1980; Davis and Fine-Davis, 1991). The concern of the social indicators movement continues to be comparison between cultural units or within cultural units over time, whether objective or subjective measures of quality of life are used (Andrew, 1991; Davis and Fine-Davis, 1991).

Definitions of quality of life have ranged from unidimensional to multidimensional approaches. In the range of approach, there are some commonalities but some quite distinct differences, particularly in terms of

comprehensiveness, levels of specificity and theoretical rigor. For instance, Levine and Croog (1984) have noted that a single variable of human behavior such as employment, general happiness or sexual functioning has been used as an *ad hoc* indicator of quality of life. Van Dam (1986) took a somewhat similar view in suggesting that there is no clearly accepted definition of quality of life as it may refer to a variety of issues such as physical and psychological complaints, feelings of well being, sexual functioning and daily activities. On the other hand, Wegner *et al.* have proposed a more detailed three dimensional definition (functional capacity, perceptions and symptoms) that is broken into nine sub-dimensions (daily routine, social functioning, intellectual functioning, emotional functioning, economic status, health status, well being, life satisfaction and symptoms related to the disease under study as well as other diseases).

Another reason for developing and evaluating quality of life measures in the general population has been to provide normative data against which to compare samples from specific populations. Often these data collected in conjunction with the development of measures have been designed to gather normative data on the population at large and data on specific populations have been compared to this normative data as the standard of quality of life (Evans *et al.*, 1985; Hearn *et al.*, 1987b; Grant *et al.*, 1990;). The latter approach seems to provide the most appropriate standard against which to gauge the success of procedures and programs directed toward special populations.

Spilker's (1990) suggested that quality of life generally includes the four categories of (a) physical status and functional abilities (b) psychological status and well being (c) social interactions and (d) economic

status and factors. Schallock's (1991) developed his model of quality of life and suggested that a model of quality of life should encompass both aspects of the macrosystem that represents cultural trends and factors in society and aspects of the micro system that relate to the individual (e.g. Family, schooling, rehabilitation program).

Schumaker *et al.* (1990) have defined quality of life 'as individual overall satisfaction with life and their general sense of personal well being'. They have suggested somewhat similar dimensions to those of Shipper *et al* (1990) and have proposed that six dimensions determine a person's quality of life; the first four including cognitive, social, physical and emotional functioning. Personal productivity or the degree to which a person is able to contribute to society (e.g. through a meaningful paid or unpaid activity) is postulated as a fifth dimension. The final dimension is intimacy including sexual functioning but also the giving and receiving of a broad range of behaviors that underlie the presence of a strong relationship with significant others. Powers and Goode (Goode, 1990) who have suggested that 'quality of life is primarily a product of relationships between people in each life setting'. The importance of the environment or the immediate macrosystem surrounding the individual to his/ her quality of life has been strongly emphasized by Goode (1987) and highlights the narrowness of the definitions employed in medicine. Paramenter (1988) suggested that 'quality of life as a common pathway for the various interlocking mechanism at the neuro-physiological, biochemical, experimental and behavioral levels'.

Ware (1991) has suggested that it should begin by looking at the two dimensions of life, namely its quality and quantity. Quantity can be indicated in terms of the length of one's life, life expectancy and mortality

rates but Ellinston (1979) had pointed out that these indices have little value in capturing the quality of years lived in developed countries. Quality of life surely encompasses much more than the status of one's health. For instance, issues such as standard of living, quality of housing, the district in which one lives and job satisfaction are frequently included in quality of life definitions and scales.

One of the problems observed in quality of life research is the elusive search for 'gold standard' scale; one that can be used across populations and one that can be used for a variety of purposes. Faden and Leplege (1992) observed that while quality of life has common sense appeal and meaning, there is little agreement among scholars concerning its definition. Chinball and Tait (1990) were more direct, stating that quality of life is an elusive concept. As Mugenda *et al.* (1990) have pointed out, there is little consensus on the definition of quality of life and therefore little agreement on its measurement.

2.7.1 The Empirical Relationship among Measures of Quality of Life

Many authors use quality of life interchangeably with other concepts, such as well being, psychological well being, subjective well being, happiness, life satisfaction, morale, positive and negative affect, the good life (Diener, 1984; Rice, 1984; Cheng, 1988 and George, 1992;). Others use quality of life as higher order concept which subsumes other concepts such as subjective well being, life satisfaction, positive and /or negative affect (Davis and Fine-Davis, 1991; Frisch *et al.*, 1992; King *et al.*, 1992). Some authors still put psychological distress and psychological well being on a continuum despite numerous findings that oppose this proposition (Bech, 1990; Chibnall and Tait, 1990). Others argue that quality of life is a

multidimensional concept which is represented by multiple continua such as life satisfaction and positive and negative affect (Abbey and Andrews, 1986; Heady and Wearing, 1991; Frisch *et al.*, 1992; Pavot and Diener, 1993). A number of authors have observed that despite the diversity of concepts often employed to represent and/or measure quality of life, there are high interrelations among the various construct (Costa and McCrea, 1980; Fadan and Lepage, 1992; George, 1992; Pavot and Diner, 1993;). Despite the 'countless number of constructs that have been used to represent quality of life, there has been little effort to impose either empirical or theoretical order upon them.

2.7.2 Towards a Taxonomy of Measures of Quality of Life

The first and perhaps the most important dichotomous category recognized by most, if not all, authors is that of objective Vs subjective measures of quality of life (Rice, 1984; Evans *et al.*, 1985; Chubon, 1987). The Quality of Life Index (Johnson, 1988) is an example of a measure of the objective aspect of quality of life. Perhaps, because low correlation have been found between objective and subjective measures, there are those authors that have argued that quality of life is purely subjective (Cheng, 1988). Rice (1984) argued that high correlation between objective criteria are important to those sampled and the level of the given objective and perceived criteria match. Allen (1991) has proposed that to adequately measure quality of life both objective and subjective measures must be employed in some combination.

Usually, subjective quality of life has been defined as the degree to which the individual's life is perceived to match some implicit or explicit internal standard or referent (Abby and Andrews, 1987; Cheng, 1988;

Jenkins, 1992, Pavot and Diener, 1993). Dimensions of comparison that have been suggested include one's current and expected situation (Jenkins, 1992), one's potential and one's achievements (Romney *et al.*, 1992) achieved goals and unmet needs (Brown, 1989; Frisch, *et al.*, 1992), aspirations and achievements (Hughey and Bardo, 1987). However, it is possible to conceive of a subjective measure of quality of life in which the standard of comparison is an external referent. This is the model employed in most personality tests in which the individual's responses are compared to those of a normative sample or external referent. A number of authors have argued that measures of quality of life should rely less on self ratings based upon an internal referent and more on a person's actual behavior and current conditions compared to external referents (Rice, 1984; Evans *et al.*, 1985, Jenkins, 1992; Matarazzo, 1992).

2.7.3 General Issues in the measurement of Quality of life

Most authors agree that quality of life as a whole is based upon an evaluation of one's life in a number of domains (Evans *et al.*, 1985; Abbey and Andrews, 1987; Groenland, 1990; Davis and Fine-Davis, 1991; McGee *et al.*, 1991). To take care of the individual importance of each domain, the overall quality of life is calculated by summing the products of the individual's evaluation in each domains and the importance of each domain (Evans and Cope, 1989; Mc Gee *et al.*, 1991; Frisch *et al.*, 1992). The quality of life questionnaire (Evans and Cope, 1989), the quality of life inventory (Frisch *et al.*, 1992) and the schedule for the Evaluation of individual Quality of life (McGee *et al.*, 1991) are all measures that base the overall measure of quality of life on a weighted sum of domain evaluations, taking into account the relative importance of each domain to

the individual. Each uses a different method to accommodate individual differences in domain importance.

The second issue concerns the stability of types of measure and/or domain measures over time (Cheng, 1988; Goodinson and Singleton, 1989; Groenland, 1990; George, 1992). It is fair to say that the authors concerned with this issue have simply raised it as a consideration. There is little research directed towards defining which measures are trait or state oriented. Cheng (1988) has argued that cognitive and affective measures will exhibit differential levels depending on the time of stressful life events. Goodinson and Singleton (1989) have suggested that domain based evaluations will vary over the life course. Groenland (1990) included in his taxonomy the need to categorize measures as being momentary or structured, long term approached. George (1992) has indicated that perhaps cognitive measures are more directed to the long term while affect measures are sensitive to short term effects. The latter arguments suggest the need to consider distinguishing and/or developing trait and state measures of quality of life.

2.7.4 Factors affecting Quality of Life

The purpose of this section is to examine research into factors that impact on quality of life. The rationale for identifying factors that influence quality of life is twofold; first they are the basis for developing a theory of quality of life and second they provide the raw material for generating programs to enhance quality of life in the population at large. The studies reviewed fall into two easily identified dichotomies depending on whether single or multiple factors are studied and whether the studies are cross sectional or longitudinal in design. The studies will be discussed under the

latter categories starting with single variable cross sectional studies and ending with multiple variable longitudinal studies.

(I) Cross Sectional Studies of Single Variables

Some studies were identified that evaluated the relationship between specific variables and measures of quality of life in the population at large using a cross sectional design. Several domain specific measures have been found to be related to quality of life: marital satisfaction, job satisfaction, financial satisfaction, community satisfaction, marital adjustment, religious satisfaction, family life quality and family wellbeing. Two personality measures, self esteem and hardiness and two communications measures, intimacy and expressiveness have been related to quality of life. A resource variable, income and environmental variable, urban vegetation were also related to quality of life. Although, there is no clear pattern among these results, they do suggest some of the variables that might be manipulated in an effort to enhance quality of life. Several of these authors have also looked at the relationship between other variable and domain specific measures of quality of life.

(II) Cross Sectional Studies Involving Multiple Variables

This group of studies falls into three categories. First, there are those, in which a multiple correlation approach has, been used to investigate the relationship and interrelationships between a number of variables and quality of life in the population at large. In the second group of studies, multiple correlation methods have been used in a path analysis to evaluate a predetermined model of relationship among variables. Third, there are set of studies that have used path analysis methods to evaluate several models to determine the best model of quality of life. There are two popular models that have been proposed to explain the relationship

between quality of life and other variables; the top down model and the bottom up model (Diener, 1984; Lance *et al.*, 1989; Heady *et al.*, 1991). The top-down model is based on the premise that quality of life is an enduring characteristic that causes certain outcomes in the individual's life. In contrast, the bottom-up model rests on the proposition that particular variable influence and individual's quality of life. In that these models are causal in nature it is difficult to test them in a cross sectional study.

Mugenda *et al.*, (1990) used path analysis to investigate the relationships among demographic, financial, skills and satisfaction measures and quality of life. They interviewed 123 money managers from a sample of households in Iowa, two-thirds of who were women. Several demographic and financial variables, including household size and current years savings had both direct and indirect relationship through such variables as communication, money management practices and satisfaction with financial status. Communication, in turn, had an indirect relationship through money management practices, which had an indirect relationship through satisfaction with financial status. Direct relationships with quality of life were as follows: household size-0.41, marital status-0.21, sex- -0.15, income-0.44, current years savings- -0.31 and satisfaction with financial status-0.37. Interestingly, current year's savings had a negative relationship with quality of life.

In a study with a random sample of 137 people over 60, Russel (1990) investigated the interrelationships among demographic, recreation and quality of life variables using a path analysis. The results are included here because if they were replicated in the population at large they would identify variables important in recreation and quality of life. He found that sex and education had an indirect relationship through recreation

participation and age had an indirect relationship through both recreation participation and recreation satisfaction with quality of life. Recreation participation had an indirect relationship through recreation satisfaction which had a direct relationship with quality of life of 0.31.

There are a considerable number of studies that have as their focus, the quality of working life and Loscocco and Roschelle (1991) have provided a partial review of this area. The majority of the latter studies were excluded from current consideration because they did not extend to overall quality of life in the general population. Parasuraman *et al.*, (1989) studied the impact of wives' employment on the husbands' quality of life while evaluating the effect of demographic variables the husbands' time commitment to work and the husbands' evaluation of work-family conflict. For the relationship between wife's employment status and the husband's quality of life, the multiple correlation was 0.14. When the control or demographic variables were entered alone and along with the husband's time commitment to work, the multiple correlation did not change significantly. Then the husband's evaluation of work-family conflict was added as a final step the multiple correlation jumped to 0.50 and the regression coefficient for wife's employment status and the husband's evaluation of work-family conflict were significant. Keller (1987) studied the relationship between demographic variables, including gender and races, work variables and non-work variables on quality of life. He obtained an adjusted multiple correlation of 0.56 between these variables and quality of life. However, significant regression coefficient was obtained for only job satisfaction (0.13), home stress (-0.40), self-esteem (0.24) and job level (0.18). Coefficients for job stress, education, age, sex, marital status and race were not significant.

A sample of 162 dairy farm couples from Utah were studied by Ackerman *et al.*, (1991) to identify which domains were related to global quality of life. Stepwise regression analyses were performed for husbands and wives, to identify those domains with or without the farm work domain that are related to global quality of life. For husbands, satisfaction with farm work, self, health and finances had a multiple correlation of 0.59 with global quality of life. When satisfaction with farm work was excluded from the analysis, satisfaction with self, leisure, health and finances entered the equation and a multiple correlation of 0.53 was observed. In the case of the wives, satisfaction with leisure, farm work, self, family, finances and health entered the equation and the multiple correlation with global quality of life was 0.53. When satisfaction with farm work was excluded from consideration, satisfaction with leisure, self, family finances and health entered the equation and the multiple correlation was 0.48.

Evans *et al.*, (1993b) studied the relationship between coping skills, social support and personality traits and psychological well being in a sample of individuals in the community, whose acute leukemia was in remission. When a stepwise multiple regression of the coping and social support variables on psychological well being was performed the multiple correlation did not reach significance. Then a similar analysis was carried out using personality variables, a multiple correlation of 0.80 was obtained with the personality dimensions, endurance (0.49), affiliation (0.57), cognitive structure (0.44), autonomy (0.35) and nurturance (-0.29).

(III) Longitudinal Studies of Single Variables

As might be expected the majority of longitudinal studies deal with multiple variables. However, there are a number of studies that can be

considered to deal with single variables in that they deal with changes in variables over time and use correlation or univariate methods of analysis. A study of the effect of race on quality of life by Thomas and Hughes (1986) can be considered to fall into this category. Using data from the General Social Survey in the U.S. for the years 1972 to 1985 (excepting 1979 and 1981) they compared 'blacks' and 'whites' on six measures of quality of life. They concluded that despite changes in civil rights just prior to the study period, whites experienced better quality of life than blacks. The differential was constant over the years sampled. For group's life satisfaction, marital happiness and trust in people showed a significant decline and Anomie showed a significant increase over the years studied.

In a study of 4942 persons in the U.S. whose original data were collected between 1971 and 1975 and follow up data between 1981 and 1984, Costa *et al.*, (1987) found considerable stability in quality of life over time. In-short they found that future quality of life was best predicted by past quality of life rather than demographic variables such as marital status, race, sex and age. Further, they observed that changes in marriage, work and residence had little impact on quality of life at least over a decade. They concluded that 'environmental effects on subjective well-being appear to be limited in magnitude, duration and scope. At any given time wellbeing scores appear to be better predicted by earlier scores than by objective circumstances even when circumstances have been altered dramatically since earlier scores were obtained'.

(IV) Longitudinal Studies involving Multiple Variables

These studies can be grouped under the same methods as used in the section on cross sectional studies involving multiple variables. Hoopes

and Lounsbury (1989) investigated the impact of a vacation on various domains of quality of life and overall quality of life. They surveyed 168 working adults one to two weeks' prior or their vacation and one-week after their vacation, 129 participated on both occasions. In separate hierarchical regression analyses prevacation measures were entered first followed by vacation measures and in each case the postvacation measure was the dependent measure. In each case the premeasure had a high multiple correlation with the post measure. For satisfaction with each of leisure, marriage/family, nature of work while on vacation, the increment in the variance accounted for was significant. As with the latter domain satisfaction with the vacation resulted in a significant increase in the variance accounted for by prevacation quality of life. Vacation satisfaction was found to produce an increase in overall quality of life.

In a longitudinal study, using data from the Australian quality of life panel study, Heady and Wearing (1990) investigated the impact of methods of coping with critical life events in three areas. The life event areas were financial and job health and personal relationships. Path analyses in each area were carried out for 78,72 and 128 subjects respectively. Data collected in 1983 and 1985 were analyzed. Participants responded to life events and coping inventories in the 1985 survey concerning the two-year intervening period. The measure of quality of life had negative affect for which 1983 and 1985 data were available. For all categories of event 1983 quality of life, instrumental events and avoidance coping had significant path coefficient with 1985 quality of life. In each case instrumental coping was found to reduce negative affect and avoidance coping increased negative effect. The findings suggest both a dispositional component in that as 1983 quality of life increased so 1985 quality of life increased and a skill based factor in that instrumental coping

with prior events increased 1985 quality of life and avoidant coping decreased it.

Brief *et al.*, (1993) derived a model that integrates top-down and bottom-up models of quality of life. They argued that personality disposition and objective life circumstance influence quality of life. They studied participants in three waves of the Second Duke Longitudinal Study with data collected every two years between 1970 and 1976, A path analysis was carried out on the data for 336 participants to evaluate the proposed model longitudinally. Measures of Negative affectivity and Objective health were included from the first wave, the measure of interpretation of health was taken from the second wave and the quality of life measure was taken from the third wave. They found that Personality (Negative affectivity) and Objective life circumstances (Actual Health), each had an indirect effect on quality of life through the interpretation of Life Circumstances (self- rated health). Interpretation of life circumstances had a direct effect on quality of life. They also did cross sectional analyses on the data for each wave, for which the results were identical to those of the longitudinal study.

The studies reviewed in this section reveal a myriad of relationships between a vast array of variables and quality of life. What is more evident is the complexity of the relationship among variables as they relate to, or influence quality of life. Efforts to develop and test several models of quality of life are also evident. Generally, three categories of variables seem to be related to or influence an individual's quality of life: quality of life in a range of life domains; personality variables; and skill variables such as coping skills, communication skills and money management skills.

A review of the research on factors affecting quality of life suggests that there are a number of dimensions that must be considered while reviewing quality of life. The first dimension is satisfaction whether it is life satisfaction or a domain specific satisfaction such as job satisfaction, family satisfaction or leisure satisfaction. Satisfaction is in essence what Lazarus (1991) has referred to as cognitive appraisal. He defines appraisal as an evaluation of what is believed about the significance of what is happening for one's general or specific well being or quality of life. The second dimension is skills, which can be subdivided into general and specific skills. General or generic skills (Cowen, 1991) for example communication, problem solving skills can be considered important in most if not all life domains. On the other hand, specific skills are relevant to a particular domain such as money management skills and financial domain (Mugenda *et al.*, 1990). A third dimension that has been explored by some authors and seems important is social support (Abbey and Andrews, 1986; Heady and Wearing, 1988). A fourth dimension that has received considerable attention is the impact of personality or dispositional factors on quality of life (Diener, 1984; Costa *et al.*, 1987; Evans *et al.*, 1993b). The fifth and final dimension includes a range of biosociophysical environmental factors that have been found to have impact on quality of life (Allen, 1991; Heady and Wearing, 1991; Loscocco and Roschelle, 1991).

The proposed relationships was influenced by a number of theories. First, Heady and Wearing (1989,1991) proposed a dynamic equilibrium theory, which involved three components. According to that as long as the individual's environmental events/conditions remain stable then quality of life would remain stable because of the influence of stable personality/ dispositional characteristics. However, when the individual's environmental

events/conditions deviate from the normal stable pattern then quality of life would be influenced. The impact of environmental personality traits that deviate from the norm is only temporary because personality traits influence the response to the events/conditions and return to stability. Second, another influence is provided by those authors that have argued the importance of environmental conditions in determining an individual's quality of life (Allen, 1991; Stokols, 1992). Third, Lance *et al.*, (1989) proposed that the relationship between cognitive appraisals of life quality and quality of life be bi-directional rather than either top-down or bottom-up. Fourth, Brief *et al.*, (1993) have provided a theory that suggests that the impact of personality/dispositional and environmental factors on quality of life is mediated through cognitive appraisal of life quality.

Cognitive Appraisal and Quality of Life: Satisfaction was viewed as cognitive life appraisal by Lazarus (1991). It was proposed that cognitive appraisal of life in general or of specific domain has a reciprocal relationship with quality of life. That is the relationship follows the bidirectional model that has been proposed and supported by a number of authors (Heady *et al.*, 1991; Lance *et al.*, 1989). It could depend on the salience of a particular domain to the individual at a particular point of time, the relationship might variously be bidirectional, top-down or bottom-up. Finally, it is argued, following the position biosociophysical environment factors on quality of life is mediated through cognitive appraisal on one's life circumstances. These propositions would suggest that cognitive appraisal of one's life circumstances can be equated with perceived quality of life and that quality of life is best equated to the constructs measure by such instruments as the Quality of Life Questionnaire (Evans and Cope, 1989). The latter position is based on the arguments made by Rice (1984) respecting perceived and objective quality of life.

2.7.5 Studies conducted in India on Quality of Life

A study was conducted on the quality of life of Irula (Parthasarthy, 1985), a scheduled primitive tribal group of Tamil Nadu. The study showed that the Irula qol included objective basic needs and subjective components. They were fully satisfied with their objective needs like nutrition, drinking water, perpetuation of the species, shelter and warmth but Irulas at the same time were not happy with their bad identity by the outsiders and interference in their aesthetic, social and cultural needs. The study concluded that to enjoy quality of life, subjective components were no less important than objective basic needs.

In an incisive analysis, the author Srinivasan (1990) has sought out the problem of exodus to cities and quality of life. According to him, the deterioration in the quality of city life is more in changing perceptions, attitudes and values of the people rather than in conventional statistical indicators of quality of life, that in-migration is a necessary ingredient of the economic and social structures of cities, that deterioration in certain aspects of life that are usually considered to be indicative of the quality of life in modern terms are not mainly attributable to the large volume of in-migrants to the cities. Further it is pointed out that the problems of metropolitan cities are indicative of problems of the country as a whole and should be tackled at national level. He studied twelve cities which had a population of million or more in the 1981 census in India. Delhi was one of those. In 1981, the total population of these cities was 42.1 million or 6.1 per cent of the nation's population. In terms of Absolute numbers Greater Bombay and Delhi continue to be attracted with the largest number of in – migrants per year.

An attempt was made in the study (Prabhakara, 1993) to group the districts of Karnataka into different health levels and quality of life so that the districts that needed extra health care could be identified for promotional work. Crude death rate, infant death rate, literacy, density of population and availability of hospital beds were used as the variables of the study. The variable corresponding to the districts were arranged either in ascending or descending orders of magnitude. The districts were then ranked serially giving the same rank, order for those having the same numerical value. It was assumed that the lower the death rate, infant death rate and density of population and higher the percentage of literacy and ratio of hospital beds to population the better the health conditions and quality of life, the nineteen districts of Karnataka were ranked on the basis of the above variables. Subsequently, the scores of ranking for all the variables for a particular districts were added and then the final ranking of the districts were made on the basis of the total scores. It may be justifiably assumed that the smaller the score, the better the rank order. On the basis of this ranking, the districts were divided into four groups. It may be mentioned that the districts within groups were arranged according to their ranking order. It was inferred that the districts Dakshina Kannada, Kdagu, and Shimoga districts in Group 1 possess a higher level of health compared to those in the other groups. Belgaum, Bellary, Bidar, Bijapur, Gulbarga, and Raichur were the districts with the lowest health status. These districts needed immediate and greatest attention from the health administrators. The study concluded that a lot more public health and medical inputs were needed besides creating a suitable infrastructure for the promotion of health and quality of life.

Anjum (1995) conducted a study in Modinagar, U.P. to study the Quality of Life of that place. She found that overall environmental

conditions of Modinagar were not clean. Habitat Quality was also found to be degrading as a result of fumes or smoke and garbage problem of the area. Modinagar was situated on the national highway and therefore vehicles were the major sources of noise and air pollution alongwith waste disposal problem and coal burning. She further quoted that electricity and migration damaged the quality of life of Modinagar.

According to Reddy (1998) the migrants reported that the quality of food, the variety and the regularity of the food supply were better than that of in the pre-migration period. The migrants themselves considered that their present diet was superior than what they used to have at their place of origin. The important food items were rice, pulses and vegetables and minor ones were ragi, jowar, fruits, edible oils, milk, meat, jaggery, sugar, coffee and tea. The proportion of expenditure on non-food items like clothing (171%), housing (210%), firewood, kerosene and electricity (133%), medical expenses (227%), transport expenses (225%), entertainment (273%) and hotel and refreshments (500%).

The use and possession of consumer durable goods in his study showed that 37% migrants possessed household goods, 15% possessed furniture, 16.5% transistor, 12% watches, 6% cycles, 1% electric fans, 0.7% sewing machines, 3% mopeds, 0.5% TV, 0.3% motor cycles and 8% were possessing ornaments of gold during the post-migration period. He interpreted this as contribution to the phenomenal improvement in the consumption pattern and the living standards of the migrants.

The Economist Intelligence Unit has developed a new 'quality of life' index based on a unique methodology that links the results of subjective life-satisfaction surveys to the objective determinants of quality of life

across countries. The index has been calculated for 111 countries for 2005 (www.economist.com/media/pdf/QUALITY_OF_LIFE.pdf).

Quality-of-life index, 2005 (Score on a scale from 1 to 10)

Countries	Quality of Life		GDP Per Person	
	Score	Rank	\$(at PPP*)	Rank
Ireland	8.333	1	36,790	4
Switzerland	8.068	2	33,580	7
Norway	8.051	3	39,590	3
Luxembourg	8.015	4	54,690	1
Sweden	7.937	5	30,590	19
Australia	7.925	6	31,010	14
Italy	7.810	8	27,960	23
Denmark	7.796	9	32,490	10
Spain	7.727	10	25,370	24
Singapore	7.719	11	32,530	9
United States	7.615	13	41,529	2
Canada	7.599	14	34,150	5
New Zealand	7.436	15	25,110	25
Japan	7.392	17	30,750	16
Hong Kong	7.347	18	31,660	11
France	7.084	25	30,640	18
Germany	7.048	26	28,250	21
United Kingdom	6.917	29	31,150	13
Malaysia	6.608	36	10,450	51
Qatar	6.462	41	33,840	6
Sri Lanka	6.417	43	3,810	91
Philippines	6.403	44	4,580	82
Kuwait	6.171	55	14,550	40
China	6.083	60	6,270	74
United Arab Emirates	5.899	69	18,330	33
India	5.759	73	3,290	96
Bangladesh	5.646	77	1,660	105
Egypt	5.605	80	3,930	88
South Africa	5.245	92	10,810	50
Pakistan	5.229	93	2,340	101
Ghana	5.174	95	2,560	100
Russia	4.796	105	9,810	55
Nigeria	4.505	108	960	110
Zimbabwe	3.892	111	1,500	106

*PPP = Purchasing Power Parity

2.8 Conclusion of the Review of Literature

Migration can be classified on the basis of time, distance, boundaries crossed, decision making, members involved, social organization of migration, political organization of migration, cases and aims various theories and studies suggest that migrants move from areas of low opportunity to area of high opportunity, calculating their costs and benefits. It is age, class, caste, education and income selective in nature. The decision of migration is affected by social, economic, physical, demographic cultural and economic the commonly understood 'push' and 'pull' factors. But this whole process of migration not only affects the place of migration but the place of origin also in terms of 'brain drain' and generally the movement of most fertile and productive part of population.

People migrate but they maintain their links with 'their people' at the place of origin not only out of emotional reasons but to keep their part in ancestral property and to receive certain benefits associated with the place. They may face certain problems at the place of migration but with the help of friends, family, relatives, acquainted people and self – determination they overcome the problems.

The incidence of exodus is not an easy task, therefore before one leaves his place of origin he collects information regarding various aspects through different sources but the quality of life depends on the various factors in and around the house within the individual as well as in the family. Thus, measurement of the quality of life involves subjective as well as objective indicators, which influence the overall life quality.

The review of literature revealed that though literature is available on causes and consequences of migration and their problems but not much

could be found on the quality of life of in-migrants. The literature reflected a need to study the interplay of the cost and benefits, problems and coping strategies and their perceived quality of life. Hence, the present study was undertaken.