

**RURAL TO URBAN MIGRATION IN DELHI: A SOCIO-ECONOMIC ASPECT**Sunil Kumar*¹ Dr Tushar Kanti Das²¹Research Scholar, Sambalpur University, Jyoti Vihar, Sambalpur, Orissa, India.²Sr. Lecturer, Sambalpur University, Jyoti Vihar, Sambalpur, Orissa, India.**ABSTRACT**

Migration has become a universal phenomenon in modern times. Due to the expansion of transport and communication, it has become a part of worldwide process of urbanization and industrialization. In most countries, it has been observed that industrialization and economic development has been accompanied by large-scale movements of people from villages to towns, from towns to other towns and from one country to another country. From the demographic point of view, migration is one of the three basic components of population growth of any area, the other being fertility and mortality. But whereas both fertility and mortality operate within the biological framework, migration does not. It influences size, composition and distribution of population. More importantly, migration influences the social, political and economic life of the people. This study is an attempt to find out the socio-economic reasons for migration and their socio-economic consequences.

Keywords: Migration, Migration in Delhi, Rural-Urban Migration**INTRODUCTION**

During the days when there is a lot of economic and industrial development in various parts of the country and when movement of the population has intensified, emphasis should be given to further understanding and study of the trends and patterns of migration. Several studies found that volume of interstate migration in India was low but asserted the fact that about one third of India's population is enumerated outside their place of birth indicating the importance of migration as a major demographic process in India. Moreover, when regional fertility and mortality differentials decline, migration becomes the foremost component influencing the redistribution of population.

Within development studies, migration has not received the attention it deserves. This is one of the central conclusions of the review of the literature on migration presented in this work. I will argue that labour migration, between and within urban and rural areas, has to be seen as a central element in the livelihoods of many households in developing, poor as well as rich. Much of the literature focuses on movements of people as a result of crises – environmental, economic or demographic. Yet migration is also a 'normal' element of most, if not all societies. This study addresses itself to scholars of development studies, with a plea to integrate the analyses of migration within those of agricultural and rural development.

If we compare India at the time of independence and at present, we can find that at the time of independence India had a very few cities. But after the independence the number of cities

and population has been raised fastly. The main reason of urbanization is the formation of new states with which new capitals also formed. Apart from this, industrialization also leads to the formation of urbanization. Although the symbol of development and prosperity is urbanization, but it cause of many problems, because of urbanization, there is a centralization of various facilities like education, medical, employment etc. All these leads to the migration of people from rural areas to urban areas.

Migration is a shift in the place of residence for some length of time. While it excludes visit for short time and tours, it includes different types of both voluntary and involuntary movements like crisis as war, transfer of population, floods, drought, earthquakes, marriage and transfer migration. There are other situations of migration, where migration is part of people's earning a livelihood.

Basically migration can be divided into two broader categories:

- 1) Internal migration. It refers to a change of residence within national boundaries, such as between states, provinces, cities, or municipalities. An internal migrant is someone who moves to a different administrative territory.
 - a) Rural to urban migration
 - b) Rural to rural migration
 - c) Urban to rural migration
 - d) Urban to urban migration
- 2) International migration. It refers to change of residence over national boundaries. An international migrant is someone who moves to a different country. International migrants are further classified as legal immigrants, illegal immigrants, and refugees. Legal immigrants are those who moved with the legal permission of the receiver nation, illegal immigrants are those who moved without legal permission, and refugees are those crossed an international boundary to escape persecution.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Arpita Chattopadhyary (1995) Her study has analyzed the relationship between family migration and men and women's occupational attainment. She does not directly examine the household migration decision, neither is it possible to determine conclusively that family migration is the cause underlying the observed relationship. Nevertheless, the results on the differential impact of family migration on men and women point to certain inferences regarding the role of gender in household migration decision in Malaysia.

This study shows that family migration has a slight adverse effect on a women's occupational status, although the negative influence of family migration is not significant for women who work. Moreover, women who have experienced many family migrations are much less likely to be working on the survey.

In the case of men, the type of move does not affect their gains through migration. Indeed irrespective of the type of move, migration improves the men's socioeconomic scores by

exactly the same amount, but the gains from family migration are less assured, indicating that sometimes they too compromise their careers to move with their wives.

The study also lends support to the gender role theory of family migration decisions. The results have shown that although solo moves are as beneficial to women as to men, only the men experience socioeconomic gains from family migration. This reveals that the family migration decision indeed favours the husband. This coupled with the fact that women, when they do work, have an advantage over men in the labor market, seems to suggest that family migration decision in Malaysia does not optimize family gains, but rather compensates for the male effect in the labor market. An interesting question arises. Would household decisions be compensatory if females suffered in the labor market? Comparative studies based on a wide variety of social and economic contexts are required to provide accurate insights into the influence of gender on household decisions and behaviour.

Bhattacharya P (1998), This study explored the role of the informal sector in rural-urban migration during the 1970s in India. The analysis includes a description of the occupational shifts during the 1970s, urbanization patterns, and the role of informal sector earnings and employment opportunities in increasing rural-urban migration. The share of agriculture in the work force increased during the 1960s and declined in the 1970s. Agriculture declined to 35.5% of the national domestic product in 1981. Agricultural workers declined to 66.7%. Informal non-agricultural sectors, especially informal manufacturing, absorbed most of the loss in agricultural workers. In 1981, the dominant movement was rural-rural migration, which was 57.1% of the total. 19.5% of migration was rural-urban migration; 15.5% was urban-urban migration. The rural-rural and rural-urban flows were more prominent during 1971-81 than 1961-71. Among interprovincial movements, urban-urban movements were the most important flow. In both periods, rural-urban migration flows were more important in total migration. Migration increased in importance as part of urban growth between decades. Two important keys to rural-urban migration were employment and family. The formal sector increased very slowly. The work participation rate of main and marginal workers increased between decades. It is unlikely that rural poverty increased during the 1970s. Per worker annual earnings among informal workers were much higher than among agricultural workers. Informal labor was more than an absorber of labor. The dynamic, productive sector attracted labor.

Priya Deshingkar and Sven Grimm (2004) in their paper they defined that a failure to fully understand mobility and migration results in an insufficient understanding of what the poor do to make a living and how policy can help them to maximise the benefits of *multi-locational livelihood strategies*. Since many internal migrants in Africa and Asia are poor and come from drought prone areas, the policy implications of internal migration are at the heart of poverty reduction. This paper has shown that there are marked differences in the pattern of internal migration by region: in East and Southeast Asia, migration is driven by economic booms; in India new “pushes” created by population pressure, commodity price crashes and drought have emerged at the same time as new “pulls” created by urbanisation and manufacturing; in the more stagnant economies of Sub-Saharan Africa mobility has increased but with mixed poverty reducing impacts and in the already highly urbanised countries of

Latin America inter urban movements are increasing. While the evidence on the positive impacts of internal migration in terms of poverty reduction is more clear in Southeast and East Asia, there is also evidence that mobility is critical to livelihoods in Africa. It is also evident that migration can have multiplier effects on the entire sending area through stimulating land and labour markets, increased agricultural production and improved nutrition, health and education. Controls on population movement are likely to hamper economic growth and poverty reduction. While some important policy for such as the Club du Sahel (2000) and the European Food Security network (1999) have recognised this, there is still a policy gap in many donor organisations, government and decision-making circles. Urgent policy attention is needed in three areas: improve data on internal migration, migrant support and developing ways of maintaining social and financial links with sending areas.

Le Thanh Sang (2004) In his study he defines that from the 1950s to the late 1980s, the Vietnamese government enforced a policy of migration control, especially control of rural to urban migration. Only those with official permission were allowed to live in cities. After a long period of very slow economic growth, the Vietnamese government began to apply a policy of economic reform known as *Doi Moi*. A key point was to admit the role of the market and to allow economic actors, including individuals and households, greater independence in making economic decisions, including decisions relating to migration. These reform policies fostered more rapid economic development and a renewal of the urbanization process. Migration in the post-reform era reflected the rational choices made by individuals and households in responses to changing economic opportunities. Although the government continued with planned migration projects, the scale of these projects was modest, while free migration increased rapidly. Rural to rural migration was still a major stream, but rural to urban migration emerged in response to economic development that began after *Doi Moi* with the loosening of the *ho khau* restrictions.

Jason Long (2005) The two strands of the literature on internal migration in nineteenth century Britain focus on the extent and determinants of migration on the one hand, and the efficiency implications of mobility on the other. The results in this study speak to both strands. With respect to the nature of rural-urban migration, it is clear that urban migrants were the cream of the rural labor market crop, in that their prospects in both the urban and the rural labor markets were superior to those of the rural persisters. Migrants considered anticipated labor market outcomes and were more likely to move the larger were their anticipated gains. Typically, the decision to move was a fruitful one. On average, people from all socioeconomic strata who moved to the city were substantially more successful in improving their socioeconomic status than they would have been had they remained in rural areas, and they were more likely to experience upward intergenerational occupational mobility. The implications of these results for the efficiency of British labor markets are largely, but not entirely, positive. First, potential urban migrants responded to labor market signals, as evidenced by the large, positive coefficient *in* the migration-decision equation. In addition, migrants were well rewarded; the large, positive estimate of indicates a strong economic return to urban migration for the average migrant. Both of these features are indicative of an efficiently functioning labor market drawing migrants from areas of low to

areas of high marginal product. The only evidence that labor markets might have been functioning sub optimally is the positive estimate of some rural persisters could have benefited from moving to urban areas but chose to remain rural anyway. This is not, of course, conclusive evidence of labor market failure. The present analysis does not account for higher living costs, psychic costs of moving, and any compensating differentials required to induce migration to cities with poor living standards. It is entirely possible that gains to migration went unexploited because they were insufficient to outweigh these unmeasured costs. As it stands, however, the presence of these unexploited labor market gains is at least suggestive of potential inefficiency. Even if this is the case, and the overall level of migration was less than optimal, the high *quality* of urban migrants must have served to offset the inefficiently low *quantity*. The results here indicate that urban migration was a positive selection process, whereas rural persistence was a negative selection process. The fact that urban migrants were the “cream of the crop” meant that urban, industrial labor markets were drawing the best of the rural labor pool, even if the magnitude of migration was less than optimal.

Dilip Ratha and William Shaw (2007) Although the data on South-South migration are spotty and much less complete than those for South-North migration, new results from an ongoing effort to build better bilateral migration data suggest that the stock of South-South migrants is large and economically important. This study indicates that migrants who travel to other developing countries enjoy much lower increases in income, are more likely to be irregular, are subject to greater risks of exploitation, and are more likely to be expelled than are those who migrate from developing countries to industrial countries. Nevertheless, if the benefits from South-South migration are limited, it is also likely that many South-South migrants are poor, or are forced to migrate because of war or ecological disaster. Even small increases in income can have very substantial welfare implications for people in such circumstances.

The magnitude of South-South migration suggests that policymakers need to attend to the issues it raises. Developing-country governments have made efforts to improve the management of South-South migration through bilateral and multilateral treaties, and through participation in multilateral processes. But overall the policy challenges presented by South-South migration remain underappreciated. Remittance fees are particularly high, and bans on remittance transactions funnel remittances into the informal sector. Migration has facilitated the spread of contagious diseases, most spectacularly HIV/AIDS. Tight restrictions on immigration have been associated with substantial increases in irregular migration, which, together with legal migration regimes that give employers control over migrants’ freedom, have increased migrants’ vulnerability to exploitation and abuse. We have not attempted to formulate concrete recommendations on these issues, in part because appropriate policies will depend on local circumstances, and in part because very little information is available on the impact of South-South migration. Even in industrial countries, the welfare analysis of migration is fraught with difficulties owing to uncertainty about distributional implications. In developing countries such analysis is almost altogether absent; it is one of the highest priorities for research in the field of migration.

Israt Rayhan and Ulrike Grote(2007) In their work they defined that rural-urban migration acts as a form of credit. The results from the empirical study show inclination to the Massey-Parrado model of credit market deficits due to flood and unemployment. Some results, however, also support the Harris-Todaro model of the rural-urban wage differentials. About 70 percent of rural-urban migration was held from 2nd and 3rd quartiles income groups, which indicates that migration cost has an important effect on the migration choice. It is depicted from the cross-sectional vulnerability estimates that households whose major source of income are remittances from urban migrants were the least vulnerable from the flood 2005 in surveyed areas. Empirical works also justify the strength of weak ties; about 72 percent of the households reported that rural urban migration was motivated by acquaintances and lose friends living in destination places, which indicate that weak ties were more effective for the surveyed households.

Migrants who are successful are pivoted not just only from social networks, but also from a direct and significant connection with the places of origin and having something to offer in return. The success of migration really depends on whether a member of the household can earn a steady income from migrant labor and can share the earnings with his or her family. Many of the migrants also move to nearby urban places to diminish health hazards and insecurity caused by floods; their aims are not matched by economic gains. Some households from the poorest quartiles are found to migrate to other villages or cities without knowing anything about the destination place, but as an ultimate coping strategy for survival. In sum, it can be concluded that migration plays a major role for survival after floods in Bangladesh.

Jafri S.S.A. (2009) Though India and China are comparable in term of size of population, but yet India is far behind in all aspects of development. In India rural-urban policy is not spelled properly, except various developmental programmes are implemented in isolation in rural and urban areas, which are inadequate and inconsistent. The 73rd and 74th Parliamentary Constitutional Amendments have not yet been implemented, which reflects that we don't understand the rural-urban nexus which is a natural phenomenon. Our small and medium towns or even lakh plus cities are merely residential, administrative or retail trade centres bereft of security and urban infrastructure. Neither local investors nor FDIs are interested to establish their entrepreneurs, which could attract rural poor surplus labourers. In million plus cities, there is no restriction of locating further entrepreneurs which are not even serving the local population. If these entrepreneurs were located in small size cities/towns, then migrants could have avoided to pour into million plus cities, where water scarcity, slum, pollution and crime are the main features. More than one-third population in all million plus cities live in slums. China was able to make small urban centres viable for attracting investments in new industries and rural surplus labourers to work and settle instead of migrating to already grown up cities and making mess. Small towns and cities can become the engine of growth at regional level, when they are made creative and where 24 hours power and infrastructure are assured.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This research has been conducted in order to determine, which are significant reasons for migration from rural areas to urban areas of Delhi. In order to answer these research goals, the researcher opted to obtain the view of various social and economic aspects with this topic. Specifically, migration tables from Census of India for Delhi have been taken. Data gathered from this research instrument were then computed for interpretation. Along with data from migration table of Census of India, the secondary resources have been taken in the form of published articles and literature to support results.

REASONS FOR MIGRATION

The main thrust of this work is to analyse the economic and social reasons for rural to urban migration. In this chapter we will discuss the reasons for migration by the state of birth, age and sex in 1981, 1991 and 2001 census.

The 1981 census provides data on five reasons for migration, which are employment; education; family moved; marriage and other reasons. The 1991 census provides data on seven reasons for migration, which are employment; business; education; family moved; marriage; natural calamities and other reasons. The 2001 census provides data on work/employment; business; education; marriage; moved after birth; moved with household and others.

For the sake of comparison the 1991 census data has been merged for reasons 'business' with 'employment' and 'natural calamities' with 'other reasons'. The 2001 census data has been merged for reasons 'business' with 'employment' and 'moved after birth' with 'moved with household/moved with family'.

In 1981 census the total migrants from rural areas to urban areas of Delhi for all the reasons for migration are 12,28,478 persons from which male and female are 7,11,818 and 5,16,660 respectively. The relative percentage of male and female migrants from rural to urban areas of Delhi has been shown in the following Figure 4.1.

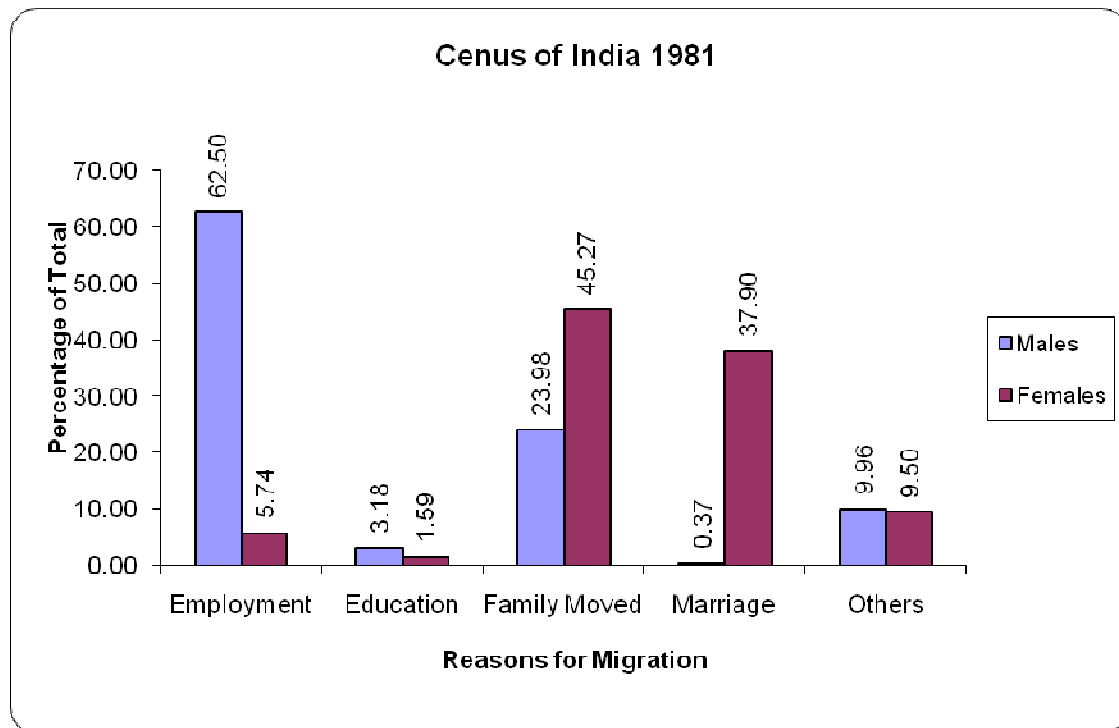


Figure 4.1

Source: Census of India 1981, Migration Tables, Series-28, Delhi, Part V-A&B, D-3 Table Male migrants from rural areas to urban areas of Delhi reporting 'employment' as a reason for migration are 4,44,851, which is 62.50 percent of total male migrants and female migrants are 29,662, which is 5.74 percent of the total female migrants. Male migrants from rural areas to urban areas of Delhi reporting 'education' as a reason for migration are 22,611, which is 3.18 percent of total male migrants and female migrants are 8,229, which is 1.59 percent of the total female migrants. Male migrants from rural areas to urban areas of Delhi reporting 'family moved' as a reason for migration are 1,70,677, which is 23.98 percent of total male migrants and female migrants are 2,33,888, which is 45.27 percent of the total female migrants. Male migrants from rural areas to urban areas of Delhi reporting 'marriage' as a reason for migration are 2,632, which is 0.37 percent of total male migrants and female migrants are 1,95,826, which is 37.90 percent of the total female migrants. Male migrants from rural areas to urban areas of Delhi reporting 'others' as a reason for migration are 70,877, which is 9.96 percent of total male migrants and female migrants are 49,058, which is 9.50 percent of the total female migrants.

In 1991 census the total migrants from rural areas to urban areas of Delhi for all the reasons for migration are 15,91,922 persons from which male and female are 9,32,629 and 6,59,293 respectively. The relative percentage of male and female migrants from rural to urban areas of Delhi has been shown in the following Figure 4.2.

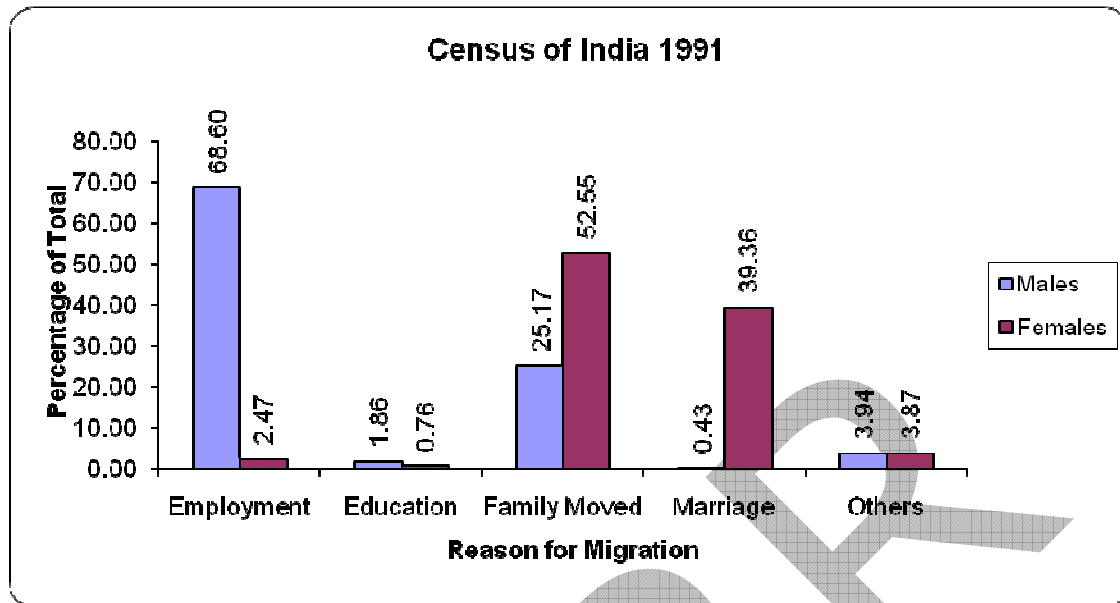


Figure 4.2

Source: Census of India 1991, Migration Tables, Series-31, Delhi, Part V-A&B, D-3 Table

Male migrants from rural areas to urban areas of Delhi reporting 'employment' as a reason for migration are 6,39,809, which is 68.60 percent of total male migrants and female migrants are 16,285 which is 2.47 percent of the total female migrants. Male migrants from rural areas to urban areas of Delhi reporting 'education' as a reason for migration are 17,339, which is 1.86 percent of total male migrants and female migrants are 5,026, which is 0.76 percent of the total female migrants. Male migrants from rural areas to urban areas of Delhi reporting 'family moved' as a reason for migration are 2,34,730, which is 25.17 percent of total male migrants and female migrants are 3,46,453, which is 52.55 percent of the total female migrants. Male migrants from rural areas to urban areas of Delhi reporting 'marriage' as a reason for migration are 4,048, which is 0.43 percent of total male migrants and female migrants are 2,59,479, which is 39.36 percent of the total female migrants. Male migrants from rural areas to urban areas of Delhi reporting 'others' as a reason for migration are 36,703, which is 3.94 percent of total male migrants and female migrants are 25,516, which is 3.87 percent of the total female migrants.

In 2001 census the total migrants from rural areas to urban areas of Delhi for all the reasons for migration are 35,14,289 persons from which male and female are 20,50,235 and 14,64,054 respectively. The relative percentage of male and female migrants from rural to urban areas of Delhi has been shown in the following Figure 4.3.

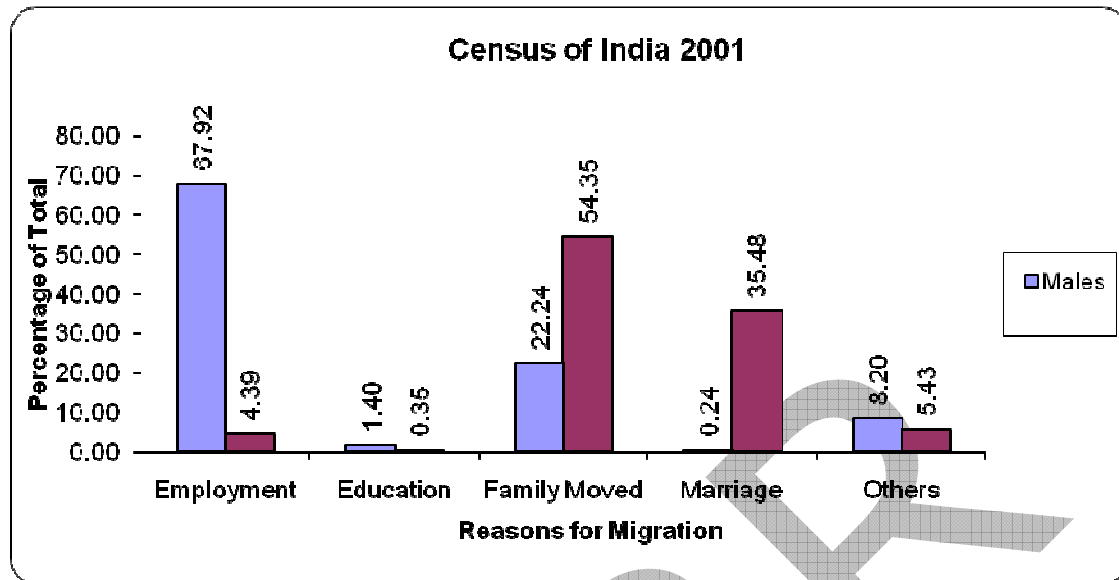


Figure 4.3

Source: Census of India 2001, Migration Tables, Delhi, D-3 Table

Male migrants from rural areas to urban areas of Delhi reporting 'employment' as a reason for migration are 13,92,441, which is 67.92 percent of total male migrants and female migrants are 64,249 which is 4.39 percent of the total female migrants. Male migrants from rural areas to urban areas of Delhi reporting 'education' as a reason for migration are 28,744, which is 1.40 percent of total male migrants and female migrants are 5,143, which is 0.35 percent of the total female migrants. Male migrants from rural areas to urban areas of Delhi reporting 'family moved' as a reason for migration are 4,56,009, which is 22.44 percent of total male migrants and female migrants are 7,95,672, which is 54.35 percent of the total female migrants. Male migrants from rural areas to urban areas of Delhi reporting 'marriage' as a reason for migration are 4,972, which is 0.24 percent of total male migrants and female migrants are 5,19,506, which is 35.48 percent of the total female migrants. Male migrants from rural areas to urban areas of Delhi reporting 'others' as a reason for migration are 1,68,069, which is 8.20 percent of total male migrants and female migrants are 79,484, which is 5.43 percent of the total female migrants.

Change in Relative Importance of Different Socio-Economic Reasons for Migration in 1980s, 1990s and 2001

The relative change in various reasons for rural to urban migration has been shown in relative percentage in the following Figure-4:

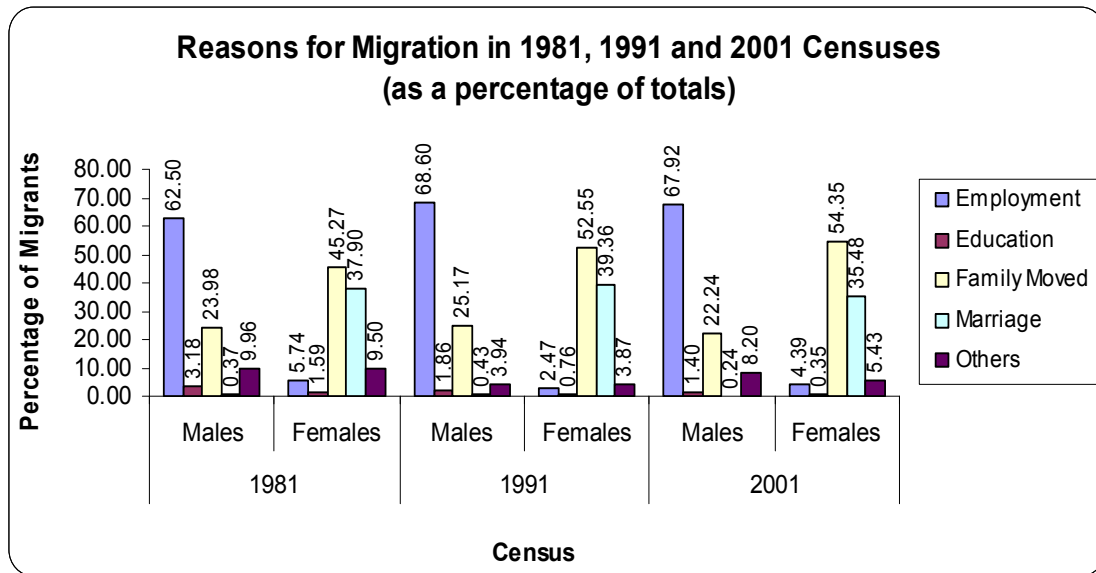


Figure-4.4

Source: Census of India 1981, Migration Tables, Series-28, Delhi, Part V-A&B, D-3 Table

Census of India 1991, Migration Tables, Series-31, Delhi, Part V-A&B, D-3 Table

Census of India 2001, Migration Tables, Delhi, D-3 Table

It has been shown in figure 4.4 that the male migrants from rural areas to urban areas of Delhi reporting ‘employment’ as reason for migration have a trend to rise, it was 62.50 percent in 1981 census to 68.60 percent in 1991 census of the total male migrants and it shows trend to decline from 68.60 percent in 1991 census to 67.92 percent in 2001 census of the total male migrants. The female migrants form rural areas to urban areas of Delhi reporting ‘employment’ as a reason for migration have a trend to decline from 5.49 percent in 1981 census to 2.47 percent in 1991 census of the total female migrants and a trend of rise from 2.47 percent in 1991 census to 4.39 percent in 2001 census of the total female migrants.

The male migrants from rural areas to urban areas of Delhi reporting ‘education’ as reason for migration have a trend to decline, it was 3.18 percent in 1981 census to 1.86 percent in 1991 census of the total male migrants and it shows trend to decline from 1.86 percent in 1991 census to 1.40 percent in 2001 census of the total male migrants. The female migrants form rural areas to urban areas of Delhi reporting ‘education’ as a reason for migration have a trend to decline from 1.59 percent in 1981 census to 0.76 percent in 1991 census of the total female migrants and a trend of decline from 0.76 percent in 1991 census to 0.35 percent in 2001 census of the total female migrants.

The male migrants from rural areas to urban areas of Delhi reporting ‘family moved’ as reason for migration have a trend to decline, it was 23.98 percent in 1981 census to 25.17 percent in 1991 census of the total male migrants and it shows trend to decline from 25.17 percent in 1991 census to 22.24 percent in 2001 census of the total male migrants. The female migrants form rural areas to urban areas of Delhi reporting ‘family moved’ as a reason for

migration have a trend to rise from 45.27 percent in 1981 census to 52.55 percent in 1991 census of the total female migrants and a trend of rise from 52.55 percent in 1991 census to 54.35 percent in 2001 census of the total female migrants.

The male migrants from rural areas to urban areas of Delhi reporting 'marriage' as reason for migration have a trend to tiny rise, it was 0.37 percent in 1981 census to 0.43 percent in 1991 census of the total male migrants and it shows trend to decline from 0.43 percent in 1991 census to 0.24 percent in 2001 census of the total male migrants. The female migrants from rural areas to urban areas of Delhi reporting 'marriage' as a reason for migration have a trend to rise from 37.90 percent in 1981 census to 39.36 percent in 1991 census of the total female migrants and a trend of decline from 39.36 percent in 1991 census to 35.48 percent in 2001 census of the total female migrants.

The male migrants from rural areas to urban areas of Delhi reporting 'others' as reason for migration have a trend to decline, it was 9.96 percent in 1981 census to 3.94 percent in 1991 census of the total male migrants and it shows trend to rise from 3.94 percent in 1991 census to 8.20 percent in 2001 census of the total male migrants. The female migrants from rural areas to urban areas of Delhi reporting 'others' as a reason for migration have a trend to decline from 9.50 percent in 1981 census to 3.87 percent in 1991 census of the total female migrants and a trend of rise from 3.87 percent in 1991 census to 5.43 percent in 2001 census of the total female migrants.

CONCLUSION

Rural to urban migration is found to be a highly male selective process, as many migrants do not move with their family. Females stay back in villages while males move to urban areas.

As regards the pattern of selectivity in different occupational divisions, it appears that rural to urban migration is selective of almost all occupation. The male and female migrants are mostly engaged in production and related work, transport equipment operation, labourers, clerical and related works and service work and it was about three fourth of the total worker migrants.

In rural areas a vast majority of the people is engaged in the primary sector, while in urban areas of Delhi most migrants are engaged in production, transport equipment operation, labourers, clerical work and service sector.

The role of education is so important in migration that the level of literacy of working migrants, particularly that of the males are higher than that of non-working migrants.

The education and work status of female migrants indicates that the level of literacy of non-working migrants is higher than the working migrants.

Female migrants from rural areas to urban areas of Delhi can largely be explained in terms of marriage and associational mobility and these would perhaps change only over a long period, with changes in social norms and practices. Male migrants on the other hand respond more directly to economic factors.

Further this study explains the consequences of migration from rural areas to urban areas of Delhi.

Economic consequences: Delhi has much to gain from migration of low-skilled workers, but this can further jeopardize the already tenuous economic security of low-skilled workers. High-skilled workers are genuinely beneficial to Delhi, and the brain drain can cause real pain to destination city. Return migration is a key factor, as migrants may return home bringing many valuable skills they have acquired from Delhi.

Migrants can help to boost trade and investment relationships with their origin areas. They may possess an informational advantage as to the investment opportunities at origin. Even if they do not return, they would then promote both trade and investment between the destination and origin areas.

Socio-cultural consequences: Migrants' transfers have impacts on source areas. These transfers comprise not only economic transfer but also cultural and social transfers, and the impact of the latter is no less important. It has been found that migration is a mean of self-affirmation and social advancement, instead of merely a mean of fleeing poverty. Migration allows young people to shape themselves and attain the dignity of adulthood.

In Delhi, migrants are increasingly seen as competitors for obtaining jobs, as well as in access to land. What is happening is that a growing number of cities feel threatened by the presence of migrants communities, and that these communities are finding integration in Delhi to be very difficult. Low-skilled migrants find it harder to become integrated today, despite the persistent need, present and future, for this labour category. The unemployment rate among young migrants is very high in some states. The process of migration of people from rural areas has increased because migrants are often poor and poverty is seen as one of the major causes of increased insecurity, and can lead to instability and political oppression toward migrants.

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