NATURE AND DETERMINANTS OF MALE OUT-MIGRATION FROM RURAL UTTAR PRADESH: A STUDY OF SIX VILLAGES IN JAUNPUR DISTRICT

A thesis submitted to the University of Hyderabad in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the award of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY
IN
ECONOMICS

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SEPTEMBER 2017

CERTIFICATE

This is to certify that the thesis entitled "***Nature and Determinants of Male Out-Migration from Rural Uttar Pradesh: A Study of Six Villages in Jaunpur District***" submitted by ***Ms. Ruchi Singh*** bearing registration number 11SEPH02 in partial fulfillment of the requirements for award of Doctor of Philosophy in Economics is a bonafide work carried out by her under my supervision and guidance.

This thesis is free from plagiarism and has not been submitted previously in part or in full to this or any other University or Institution for award of any degree or diploma.
Papers related to this thesis have been published:

A. Published in the following publications

1. Paper, **The Role of Social Networks in Migration: A Case Study of Out-Migration from Uttar Pradesh to Mumbai,** in *Journal of Studies in Dynamics and Change,*1(3), (ISSN No.2348-7038), pp-137-144.(2014).
2. Chapter, **Socio-Economic Conditions of Migrant Workers: A Case Study of Auto and Taxi Drivers in Mumbai**, in an edited book "Population Issues: Studies from Uttar Pradesh and Bihar" (ISBN-978-81-316-0850-0),pp-182-196 (2017).
3. Chapter **"Risk Diversification Motives for Migration: Evidence from Data and Field in Rural Uttar Pradesh"**, in an edited book "Public Health Different Dimensions" (ISBN-978-938-5309-80-9) ,pp-275-296.(2014).
4. Chapter **"Is Migration still induced by Regional Disparity: A Probe into Literature "** in an edited book "Regional Disparity in India", (ISBN-978-81-927285-1-3), pp-248-260.(2014).

B. Paper presented in the following conferences/seminar

1**.Credit Constraints and Rural Migration: Evidence from Six Villages in**

Uttar Pradesh presented in International conference "The Migration Conference" held at Harokopio University, Athens, Greece during 23rd-26th august 2017.

2.**Impact of Male Out-Migration on Women Left Behind: A study of Two Villages in Uttar Pradesh** presented in International conference "Oxford Symposium on Population, Migration and Environment" held at St.Hughs College, Oxford UK during 15th-16th March 2017.

3.**Trends and Patterns of Male Out-Migration from Rural Uttar Pradesh: NSSO Unit Level Analysis** presented in National Seminar "Dynamics of Rural Labor Relations in India" held at National Institute of Rural Development (NIRD), Hyderabad during 10-12 March, 2016.

4.**Risk Diversification Motives for Migration: Evidence from Data and Field in Rural Uttar Pradesh** presented in National Seminar "Population Studies and Public Health" sponsored by ICSSR, New Delhi, held at Mahatma Gandhi Kashi Vidyapeeth (MGKVP), Varanasi during 24-25 January, 2015.

5.**The Role of Social Networks in Migration: A Case study of Migration from Uttar Pradesh to Mumbai** presented in National Seminar "Migration, Poverty and Social Justice: Perspectives, Policies and Experiences" held at Tata Institute of Social Sciences (TISS), Mumbai on 24-25 March 2014.

6. **Socio-Economic Analysis of Migrant Workers in Mumbai: A Case Study of Auto and Taxi Drivers from Uttar Pradesh** presented in National Seminar "Demographic Transition and Development: Issues and Challenges in Uttar Pradesh and Bihar" organized by International Institute of Population Sciences (IIPS), Mumbai in collaboration with Sanjay Gandhi Post Graduate Institute of Medical Sciences, Lucknow during 11-13 March 2014.

Further, the student was exempted from doing course work (recommended by Doctoral Committee) on the basis of the following courses passed during her M.Phil programme at IIT Bombay, Mumbai and the M.Phil degree was awarded:

S. No	Course Code	Subject	Credit	Pass /Fail
1	HS 454	Principles of Management and Organizational Behavior	6	Pass
2	HS 601	Development Planning & Policies: Issues and Alternatives	6	Pass
3	HS 603	Socio-Psychological Perspectives in Development and Change		
4	HS 605	Research Methods in Social Sciences	6	Pass
5	HS 615	Computer Aided Applied Statistics	6	Pass
6	HS 694	Seminar	4	Pass
7	HS 602	Science & Technology in India	6	Pass
8	HS 604	Micro-Level Planning: Principles, Methods & Case	6	Pass
9	HS 606	Environmental Planning Development	6	Pass
10	HS 693	R &D Project	12	Pass
11	HS 699	Communication and Presentation Skills	4	Pass
12	HS 702	Law, Governance, Rights and Development	6	Pass
13	HS 629	Ecology and Society	6	Pass
14	TD 603	Watershed Management	6	Pass
15	HS 797	I Stage Project	24	Pass
16	HS 798	II Stage Project	48	Pass

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DECLARATION

I hereby declare that the work embodied in the thesis entitled ***"Nature and Determinants of Male Out-Migration from Rural Uttar Pradesh: A Study of Six Villages in Jaunpur District"*** has been carried out by me under the supervision of Dr. R. Vijay in School of Economics, University of Hyderabad. I declare to the best of my knowledge that no part of the thesis was earlier submitted for the award or research degree of any other university or institute.

Place: Hyderabad

Signature of Candidate

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I feel myself deeply humbled in giving all glory to Almighty for blessing me with His grace and mercy that has sustained me all through these years of doctoral thesis. Undertaking this Ph.D has been a truly life-changing experience for me and it would not have been possible to complete it without the support and guidance that I received from many people.

Firstly, I would like to mention a heartfelt and very big thanks to my supervisor Dr.R.Vijay for all the support and encouragement he gave me since inception of the study through its completion. I take this oppurtunity to express how indebted I am to Dr.R.Vijay , my research supervisor for not only accepting me as his student but also mentoring me through all these long years with his valuable suggestions and coopertaion, both at professional and personal front. I am extremely fortunate to be part of his research group and sincerely feel that this work would not have been possible without his constant guidance and encouragment. I have learnt a lot from many dicsussions we have had over entire duration of Ph.D. I cannot thank him enough, and I could not have asked for better supervisor. He has always given me freedom and liberty in my research work. I must also pay my gratitude and thank to my doctoral committee members Dr. G.Vijay and Dr. R.V.Ramnamurthy for providing me suggestions and insights whenever required. I am also grateful to Dr.P.Goyri for his constant support and motivation.

Special thanks are due to Ex-Dean K.N.Murthy , B.Kamaiah and Dean of School of Economics Naresh Sharma for their timely help in my research work.

Hearfelt thanks to all faculty and staff members of School of Economics for being constant source of inspiration and support over the course of time. Special thanks to Azghar Khan for patiently quenching all my queries related to fellowship.

Apart from the advisors and teachers, I am also indebted to some of instiutions which helped me in a way or another. I gratefully acknowledge the University Grants Commsion for providing UGC-Junior and Senior Research Fellowship that has helped me financially in undretaking this research. I would specially like to thank CDS, Kerala; IIPS,Mumbai; V.V.Giri Labour Institute,Noida; IIT Bombay Monash Research Academy,Mumbai, MGKVP, Varanasi and BHU,Varanasi for helping me in all possibe means in entire duration on my research work.

I am highly grateful to Dr.Irudya Rajan,CDS, Prof Anoop Sathpati,VVGNLI, Rajeev Sharma, BWI, Dr. Padmini Ravindranath, Prof.Rakesh Raman and Dr.Manisha

Malhotra from BHU, Judith Heyer, Oxford University, Prof Pushpa Trivedi from IIT Bombay and Chinmay Tumbe, IIM Ahemdabad for guiding and supporting me throughout my academic career and who were always so helpful and provided me with their assistance throughout my Ph.D.

This PhD study would not have been possible without the cooperation and support extended by those who helped me in field survey. I want to thank all rural households, village Pradhan and key informants who played the role of torch berarer while I was conducting my field survey.There patience during the numerous focus group discussions as well the household surveys that I undertook in April-June 2016 is very much appreciated. I am especially grateful to them for providing me details of migrants at various destinations. I am equally grateful to migrants I survyed at various destinations for allowing me to have better indepth understaing of my objectives and research problem. I am also thankful to Shashi Upreti, Murali Ji, Prince Verma, my cousin sister Namrata Singh, my sister Richa Singh, my parents and husband for helping me in conducting survey of 370 housheolds at origin and survey of 75 migrants at destination. Without their help and support the survey of six villages in three blocks and survey of migrants at destination from same households would not have been possible. Their excellent work during data collection has made an invaluable contribution towards my PhD. I am also grateful to them and their families for their friendship and the warmth they extended to me during my time in the villages and for always making me feel so welcome.

Regardingng technichal help I pay my heartfelt thanks to Ramashsih Yadav, Deepanjai Vishwakarma and Sunil Yadav. I am thankful to my senior Akhilesh sharma and friend Chitrasen and Murali in helping me analysing NSSO data; Sunil Yadav for helping me with GIS software in making the maps used in the thesis; Deepanjali Vishwakarma for helping me with field data analysis, Ramashish and Akhilesh K Sharma for promplty answering all my queries in my statistical analysis and Sanjay Kishore for helping in formatting and editing my thesis.

I am indebted to all my friends, juniors and seniors at University of Hyderabad, who made my stay in Hydearabd memorable one. The list is endless Chitrasen Bhue, Renibeni Kikon, Murali, Pratik Rumba, Suresh, Chandayya Makeni, Sukriti Kapoor, Mohd. Jamsheer, Zulkar Nain, Aas Mohammad, Bhanu Pratap Singh, Babu Rao Gona, Neetu. My friends from various other educational institutions who morally suupported me through out my study Prachi Varshney, Nikhil Jain, Shahana Purveen, Rati Parihar,Ruchi Singh, Nidhi Pandey and Neha Bhardwaj.

Lastly and most importantly I wish to share how all the words in world are insufficent to express my gratitude and respect for my family members who are constant source of enouragmnet and my strong pillar of strength. Thanking them will not be enough, specially my parents (Dr.M.P.Singh and Dr.Chanchal Kumari) and parents in law (Dr.Pawan Kumar Singh and Suman) and my husband Mr.Keshav Kishore Singh who have patiently looked forward to me in pursuing my research. Also heartfelt thanks to my sister Richa who has always been my mirror image and my all time strees buster since the day we were born. I also would like to thank my sister in law (Kamakshi), who has always given me strength and support to overcome my fear and failure which one often go through while prusing Ph.D. Heartfelt thank to my brother in laws (Nishishwari and Sandeep) for always cheering me up with lovely and fun-filled words.Thank you to all of you for making me smile when I was down and out, for installing new confidence in me when I was about to give up, thank you for giving me hope and new condfinece in tough times and for showering unflinching faith in me and my capabilities whenever I doubted myself. Thank you so much Keshav for supporting me, taking care of me in all possible means and being there with me at each and every step of this journey. Keshav has always been by my side throughout my Ph.D, without whom, I would not have had the courage to embark on this journey in the first place. Its because of love and strenth you all showred on me, I am able to accomplish this journey. Thank you all for being my strength and helping me in all possible ways.

Ruchi Singh...

Chapter Outline

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Chapter 1
Introduction

"Countries don't prosper without mobile people. Indeed the ability of people to move seems to be a good gauge of their economic potential and willingness to migrate appears to be a measure of their desire for advancement. Government should facilitate labour mobility" [1].

1.1 Introduction

Rural urban migration has become an integral character of developing economies. Sources of livelihoods and earnings in rural households are no longer confined to agriculture and are increasingly being diversified through migration of one or more family member within and beyond national boundaries. Migration is not a new phenomenon in India rather, country has a long history of migration, which has played important role in its social history, development and growth and culture (Bhagat, 2015). Almost a third of Indians (i.e. some 325 million people, out of a population of 1.14 billion in 2008) are estimated as migrants (NSSO)[2]. 29 per cent of India's population is internal migrant (NSSO), and this figure is remarkably stable over last few decades.1971 Census reveals 29 per cent internal mobility compared to 30 per cent in 2001. Latest available NSSO data for the year 2007–08, also mentions that about 29 percent of population of India is internally mobile (Bhagat, 2011). In pre-colonial times, major drivers for migration of people were mainly religious and trade related (McNeill, 1984). Although study shows that internal migration in India has been low over period of time (Davis, 1968) in contrast, census results shows that labour mobility especially migration due to employment have increased during the same period (Bhagat, 2011). In the economy of rural households of developing countries like India, temporary migration is a survival strategy as it provides additional income to household (Keshri & Bhagat, 2011) and helps in poverty reduction (Deshingkar, 2006). Male usually migrate for employment related reasons. On the other hand, major reasons for female out-migration in India is marriage related (Lusome and Bhagat, 2006). NSSO also shows similar result, majority of male from rural and urban areas had migrated out for employment related reasons whereas, major reason for female out-migration is marriage. As per NSSO,out of total

[1] Geography, R. E. (2009). World Development Report
[2] National Sample Survey Organisation

female migration in India, 84 percent out-migrated for marriage.Long term migration is often undertaken by male members of household whereas, in case of seasonal and circular migration which is more frequent among poorest section, male and female out-migrate in almost equal numbers (Rao,2005). In India, along with household income, education, skill, age, sex etc., social group affiliation is also an important factor in migration related decisions. Caste is an endogamous social group in India where status is determined by birth (Bhagat, 2006). Studies show that social group affiliation is having important relationship with temporary migration in villages of India (Marius-Gnanou, 2008; Haberfeld *et al*., 1999; Mosse *et al*., 2005). Since long it is assumed that major reasons for migration are economic in nature. Lack of income opportunities, poverty and unemployment leads to male exodus in rural households. Above-mentioned reasons are indeed of great importance while considering migration decisions but diversification of agricultural risks and occupation is also an important motivation for migration by rural households in many developing countries (Stark, 1984). Various informational imperfections in developing economies are also one of the major reasons for migration undertaking decisions (Katz and Stark, 1986).

The word migration has been derived from the Latin word "migrane" which means to change one's residence. A migrant according to NSSO is a person whose place of enumeration is different from his/ her last usual place of residence (UPR). Migration in the census of India is defined as of two types, migration by birth place and migration by place of last residence. When enumeration of a person according to census is done at a place, i.e., village or town, different from her/his place of birth, she/he would be considered a migrant by place of birth. A person would be considered a migrant by place of last residence, if she/he had last resided at a place other than her/his place of enumeration. There are two types of migration at broad level, internal migration i.e. migration within the country and second one is international migration, which means the movement of people from one country to another. Internal migration can be of four types i.e. rural to rural, rural to urban, urban to rural and urban to urban. The definition of out-migrants[3] in the study is based on definition out-migrants of NSSO (64th Round).

[3] Any former member of a household who left the household, any time in the past, for stay outside the village/ town was considered as out-migrant provided he/ she was alive on the date of survey.

1.2 Statement of The Problem

Migration has become popular area for research in social sciences in recent era. Roughly 3 percent of world's population (about 200 million) are foreign born (Geography,World Development Report, 2009, pp-150). Migration has huge implications on both, destination and sending areas. Because of lack of proper data on migrants, especially on unorganized and informal, and being costly affair the research in migration issues often gets hindered. Migration is very multifaceted phenomena and is considererd as main catalyst of progress over the past two centuries along with trade and cities (Geography,WDR,2009).For better and improved livelihoods, migration is a key feature of of human society (Padhan and Luha, 2016). Fertility, mortality and migration are three major constiuents of change in population structure. Though fertility and mortality are biological occurrences, migration is result and outcome of socio-economic conditions and circumstances. As stated by Bogue (1969),

> … "If the problem of human fertility were not so critical at present time, it is almost certain that the human migration and plight of migrants (especially in developing countries) would be listed as top priority problem for research and action" …

In developing economies, rural out-migration is more extensively studied and role it plays in lives of migrants and rural household is well accepted (Hossain, 2001). Major reasons for rural urban migration are poverty, unemployment, low agricultural productivity, failure of crop, landlessness, poor education and medical care, lack of credit facilities along with low land per capita in one hand and improved livelihood, better employment opportunities along with better civic amenities, wage differentials, bright city lights in the urban areas on other hand (Mohapatra, 2014, Kumar et al., 2013). Migration from poor to rich agricultural areas has historically been most prominent form of internal migration, whereas movement from villages to cities has increased remarkably in recent years (Narayan and Singh, 2016).

The next question is why people migrate from one place to another? To explore the theoretical foundation behind migration decisions and its determinants, the study has disentangled various theoretical approaches on migration over time across various disciplines. Major focus of the theoretical underpinning of the study is on New Economics of Labour Migration (NELM) by Oded Stark, which will be discussed in detail in, later in chapter five.

Migration from poor Indian state of UP has almost doubled since last two decades, mainly to big metro cities and not to agriculturally developed and prosperous states of India (Geography, WDR, 2009). The agriculture of UP without any substantial improvement is unable to sustain the needs of growing population in the rural areas (Khan, 2010). Though few studies have been undertaken in migration related issues in UP, still there is lot to be done. The present study aims to understand the nature and determinants of male out-migration from rural UP. The study will also make an attempt to analyze whether migration in rural UP is survival, risk/income diversification or accumulation strategy. Literature shows that social group i.e. caste plays very important role in UP (Narayan and Singh, 2016; Srivastava, 1999; Lerche, 1999; Kothari, 1994, Srinivaslu, 1994). In UP since ages, prosperous and rich landlord class belonged mainly to the people from upper castes, their ex-tenants who now constitute most of the landowning peasants are from the middle-ranking castes, and rural and agricultural laborers are primarily from untouchable, downtrodden and very low castes (Lerche, 1999). Given the above background an attempt has been made to analyze the role of caste factor as well in migration decisions in rural UP. An attempt has been made to analyze nature and determinants of male out-migration from rural UP across various social groups.

1.3 Overview of Migration in India

As mentioned above, it is noted that migration is not new phenomena rather agricultural labour market existed in ancient and medieval ages in India as well, but there is dearth of data in regard to magnitude of those kind of laborers (Sethi, 2007). Studies on internal migration reveals that till 1990's migration showed decline, whereas there is increase in movement of people in post liberalization era (Kundu and Gupta, 1996; Singh, 1992; Bhagat, 2009). NSSO (2008) highlights that, internal migration has increased over time, and nearly 29 per cent of the persons were migrants. Moreover, it also highlighted that majority of (more than 56 percent) migration from rural to urban area and is primarily employment oriented.

Present section will be focusing on broad patterns on out-migration at all India level of few major states and Delhi. North Eastern States and Union Territories (UT's) have been ignored because of low population. Delhi has been taken into consideration, as from preliminary analysis it was found that Delhi is playing very important role in

migration scenario of India. As per NSSO, all India migration rate[4] for rural area is 261 per thousand persons. For rural male it is 54 persons per thousand and for rural female it is 477 persons per thousand.

Table 1.1 highlights net migration rates[5] of few major States and UT's in India. Net migration gives us an idea about which are the leading states with highest out-migration and which are the states with highest in-migration. Net migration is highest in Maharashtra followed by Delhi, West Bengal, Gujarat and Haryana. Maharashtra shows highest number of in migrants per thousand of population and has highest positive net migration also. From Table 1.1 it can be seen that negative net migration is highest in UP followed by Bihar, Kerala, Tamil Nadu, Rajasthan and Orissa.

Table1.1 Net Migration Rate (Per 1000 of population) for each State/UT

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
State /UT	**In-Migrant (00)**	**Out-Migrant (00)**		**Net Migration (00)(Col.2-Col.3-Col.4)**	**Population (00)**	**Net Migration Rate**
		To another State	**To Abroad**			
Andhra Pradesh	10153	12324	4374	-6545	752758	-9
Bihar	5505	47077	1046	-42618	755017	-56
Chhattisgarh	9651	3193	67	6391	229916	28
Delhi	43585	11694	70	31821	131603	242
Gujarat	20778	10879	1858	8041	494655	16
Haryana	22349	14175	502	7672	218264	35
Jharkhand	3913	8129	174	-4390	246211	-18
Karnataka	20130	14173	1228	4729	489468	10
Kerala	10691	8096	15832	-13237	298619	-44
Madhya Pradesh	13168	17035	235	-4102	604647	-7
Maharashtra	56584	15414	2286	38884	948135	41
Orissa	5303	9648	248	-4953	363647	-13
Punjab	18586	11697	3864	3025	238582	13
Rajasthan	17582	20841	2145	-5404	580845	-9
Tamil Nadu	9906	13675	4983	-8752	614601	-14
Uttar Pradesh	32326	81405	3836	-52915	1708700	-31
West Bengal	23670	12303	820	10547	784690	13
All-India	**18155**	**-**	**44421**	**-26266**	**10092595**	**-260**

Source: NSS Report No.533: Migration in India: July, 2007- June 2008, pp-158.

[4] Migration rate, for any category of persons (say of rural or urban male, male or female), has been estimated as the number of migrants belonging to that category per thousand of persons in that category.

[5] As per NSSO, Net migration for any region is defined as the difference between in-migration and out-migration. The number of net migrants per 1000 of population gives the net-migration rate. The number of in migrants is determined in relation to last UPR.

Table. 1.1 shows net migration of various States and UT's without segregating rural, urban and male and female migrants.

Table 1.2 Out-Migrants from Each State/UT

State/UT	No. of Households reporting Out-Migrant per 1000 Households		No. of Households reporting Out-Migrant to another country*		No. of Out-Migrants per 1000 persons for each State					
					Rural			Urban		
	R	U	R	U	M	F	Total	M	F	Total
Andhra Pradesh	267	173	60	132	99	173	136	59	94	76
Bihar	258	168	24	18	108	65	87	62	48	55
Chhattisgarh	160	188	3	10	44	93	68	37	106	69
Delhi	124	65	3	17	1	70	33	5	44	22
Gujarat	300	193	18	104	56	205	126	37	117	75
Haryana	412	324	21	31	51	338	185	33	236	127
Jharkhand	136	127	4	64	56	29	43	58	34	47
Karnataka	276	133	12	136	80	157	11	39	60	50
Kerala	509	438	344	354	233	302	269	215	247	232
Madhya Pradesh	243	162	2	24	39	146	89	30	95	61
Maharashtra	354	200	9	69	93	244	166	42	124	81
Orissa	285	185	4	43	112	107	110	73	94	83
Punjab	274	153	253	153	62	170	114	34	109	68
Rajasthan	374	286	36	65	104	240	170	62	199	128
Tamil Nadu	233	154	123	147	105	111	108	73	58	65
Uttar Pradesh	391	235	25	33	116	191	152	50	126	86
West Bengal	311	231	10	26	69	179	122	42	126	86
All-India	**304**	**193**	**49**	**93**	**92**	**166**	**128**	**51**	**110**	**79**

Source: NSS Report No.533: Migration in India: July, 2007- June 2008, pp-115-117.
* Per 1000 Households reporting out migrant

Table 1.2 shows number of households reporting out migrants per thousand households, number of households reporting out migration to another country and number of out migrants per thousand persons form each States and UT's. It highlights out migration for both rural and urban areas and also gives an overview about male and female out migration. At all India level number of households reporting out migrants per thousand persons is 304 from rural area. Households reporting highest numbers of out migrants in rural areas are from Kerala followed Haryana, UP, Rajasthan and Maharashtra. Households reporting least out-migrants are Delhi and Jharkhand. UP is among top five states in number of households reporting out migration. Households

reporting highest number of out migrants in urban area are form Kerala followed by Haryana, Rajasthan and Gujarat.

Table 1.3 shows distribution per thousand of out-migrants by place of residence for each State/UT, rural and urban area wise.

Table.1.3 Distribution (per 1000) of Male Out-Migrants by place of residence for each State/UT

State/U.T	Same state				Outside the State		Within the country		Another Country		All (inc.n.r)
	Within same District		Another District								
	R	U	R	U	R	U	R	U	R	U	R/U
Andhra Pradesh	320	218	439	418	141	191	899	827	88	170	1000
Bihar	50	52	72	202	852	709	974	963	23	23	1000
Chhattisgarh	324	224	328	292	344	386	996	902	4	21	1000
Delhi	0	58	0	422	605	337	605	817	122	113	1000
Gujarat	298	185	607	388	63	194	969	768	30	230	1000
Haryana	128	59	234	342	574	492	936	893	64	107	1000
Jharkhand	172	18	129	269	686	645	987	932	13	68	1000
Karnataka	312	115	487	471	179	207	978	794	20	206	1000
Kerala	205	260	157	106	212	208	574	574	421	421	1000
Madhya Pradesh	327	100	405	467	262	384	994	951	2	49	1000
Maharashtra	277	208	618	464	173	173	986	845	14	130	1000
Orissa	150	64	251	327	586	562	988	953	6	47	1000
Punjab	116	120	149	257	249	265	515	642	485	339	1000
Rajasthan	201	121	240	371	500	362	941	854	56	146	1000
Tamil Nadu	160	109	481	487	195	213	836	809	164	181	1000
Uttar Pradesh	79	76	185	309	700	563	964	947	32	51	1000
West Bengal	145	126	356	322	482	473	983	921	14	57	1000
All-India	**173**	**143**	**293**	**356**	**458**	**333**	**924**	**832**	**72**	**159**	**1000**

Source: NSS Report No.533: Migration in India: July, 2007- June 2008, pp-118, 121.

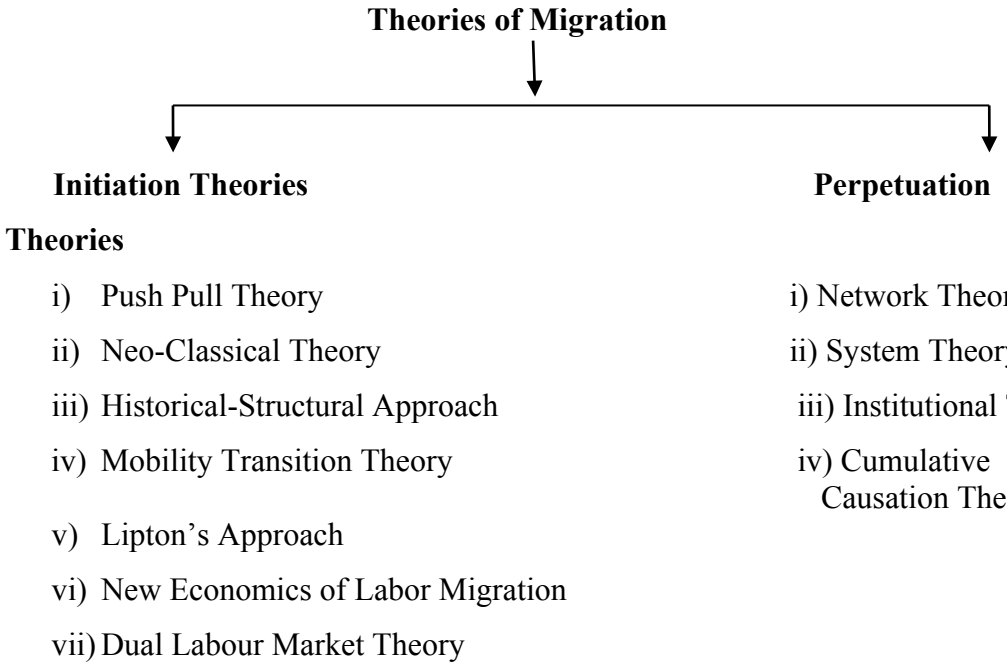
Table. 1.3 highlights that; at all India level highest out migrants by place of birth is outside the state from rural areas, followed by urban areas within the country. Outside the country out migrants are very less in comparison to outside the state migration. It can be seen that leading states with out -migration in rural areas is in same state that too within same district are Madhya Pradesh followed by Chhattisgarh, Andhra Pradesh and Karnataka. UP is among top states with least out migration within same district including, Delhi and Bihar. Again in case of male out migration in another district from rural area as well, is lowest in UP. State with highest outside the state migration is Bihar followed by UP, Jharkhand, Delhi, Orissa and Rajasthan. UP is among top five states in this category. Maharashtra is among five states with least out migrants to another state

whereas, from Table 1.1 it was found that it is among top states with highest in migration.

In urban areas in same category, state with highest out migration is again Bihar followed by UP. UP is among few states with least out migration from rural areas to abroad. UP has low presence in case of urban male out migration to abroad in comparison to top five states. Detail analysis of context, drivers, trends and regional patterns of male out-migration from rural UP at state level have been analyzed using NSSO 64^{in} round data on migration particulars in chapter three.

1.4 Theoretical Background of Migration (A Probe into Literature)

Scholars and policy makers across globe are exhibiting huge relevance of migration related studies since ages. Various endeavors have been made by scholars to make general theory of migration (Lee 1966; Massey et al., 1993; Mangalam and Schwarzweller, 1968). Studies shows that migration is a varied and multifaceted phenomenon to be studied and explained by any single theory or any single discipline (Arango, 2008; Molho, 1986; Ghatak and Price, 1996; Cohen, 1996). Literature divides various literature reviewed on migration and related issues in two broad categories viz., Initiation theories of migration and Perpetuation theories of migration.



Literature shows that there are disintegrated set of theories and no general theory of migration. Central factors underlying migration in each approach, strengths and weakness of various theories and linkages of the latter discussed approaches with previously mentioned theories have been discussed in brief in this section.

1.4.1 Initiation Theories of Migration

A range of models and theories has been proposed to explain why migration occurs. The central factors of the initiation theories are to analyze the underlying reasons in movement of people from one place to another. This section deals with various migration aspects, which tries to find out the major reasons that initiate migration.

1.4.1.1 Push and Pull Theories of Migration

The propounder of this approach is Ernest Ravenstien (1876), Lee (1966) and Peterson (1958). Ravenstien work is the earliest work on migration based on British census of 1881. He mentions about laws of migration. He classifies migrants as the local migrants, short journey migrants, migration by stages, long term migrants and temporary migrants. Push and Pull factors are responsible for migration. Bad or oppressive laws, heavy taxation, an unattractive climate, uncongenial social surroundings and even compulsive (slave trade and transportation) all have been mentioned as major reasons for migration over time. According to him migration is economic in nature. Ravenstien argues that along with mainstream or current of migration there is also counter current. Author also mentions about laws of migration. i) Most migrants proceeds a short distance and that there takes place consequently a displacement of the people, which leads to "currents of migration" setting towards big centers of commerce, trade and industry. ii) Second law is that migration takes place in stages, iii) The course of dispersion is the inverse of the absorption and reveals similar features. iv) He mentions that each main current of migration produces compensating counter currents, v) Migrants proceeding long distance generally go by preference to one of the big center of trade and commerce, vi) There are differences in rural urban migratory patterns. Natives of urban areas are less migratory than natives of rural areas, vii) Females are comparatively more migratory than males.

Lee (1966) reframed Ravenstien laws of migration in terms of general migration theory. Author mentions push and pull factors. Push factors are those factors which push people from origin such as lack of employment opportunities, underdevelopment, poor infrastructure, lack of basic civic amenities etc. while pull factors are those positive factors which attracts people from area of origin such as better employment

opportunities, better income opportunities, better civic amenities etc. He defined migration as a permanent or semi-permanent change of residence. Author further adds, regardless of distance and difficulties every migration involves an origin, a destination and intertwining set of obstacles. Factor, which decides migration, are factors associated with area of origin, factors associated with area of destination, intertwining obstacles and personal factors. Set of plus and set of minus at both origin and destination is differently, defined for every migrants or prospective migrant. Plus are those positive factors which fascinate and attract people and negatives are those, which deter people. Zero represents the indifference of people towards migration. He further adds that knowledge of the area of destination is rarely exact and appropriate, as some of the advantages and disadvantages can only be perceived by living in particular destination. The balance in favor of move must be enough to surmount the natural inertia that always exists. Lee also mentioned about sequential migrants such as children and wives of migrants who have little role in decision to migrate.

Gravity model proposed by Reilly (1929) shows that the migration of people between two urban centers would be proportional to the product of their population and inversely proportional to the square of the distance between them. MI=K×P1.P2/d, where MI is the movement index, K is the proportionality constant, P1 is the population size of settlement 1 and P2 is population size of settlement 2 and d is distance between two settlements. The area of inquiry of gravity theory is based on physical analog of gravitational theory and is part of social physics (Kumar and Sidhu, 2005). To envisage the degree of interaction between two places gravity model is derived from Newton's law of gravity (Rodriguez, 1998). The law known as Reilley's law of retail gravitation states that a city attracts retail trade from an individual customer located in its rural areas i.e. hinterland in proportion to its size and in inverse proportion to the square of the distance separating the individual from the city center. Principle of least effort mentioned by Zipf in 1946 shows that lesser the effort undertaken, the greater is desire and propensity to migrate and greater the effort to undertake lesser the desire to migrate.

Although, push and pull are the earliest works on migration theory and research but it has some certain limitations. This approach on migration and related dimension is very descriptive in nature and lack analytical aspect. If we discuss in detail push and pull factors are generally mirrored in each other and talk almost about same thing. Economic reason cannot be the only and reason for migration always. There are various other factors responsible for undertaking migration decisions apart from economic factors. The

theory also fails to explain why some people move and some don't (Massey et al 1993). This approach totally ignores the cultural, social and political reasons responsible for migration.

1.4.1.2 Neo-Classical Theories

For a better and simpler understanding of neo-classical approach this section is divided in macro and micro part, which are discussed in following sub-sections 1.4.1.2a and 1.4.1.2b respectively.

1.4.1.2a Macro Approach

At macro level neo-classical theories explain migration of people by geographical differences in supply and demand of labour. Differences in wages and earnings cause workers to move from low wage and high labour surplus to high wage rate regions. According to this approach migration will take place as long as this wage imbalance exists (Jones, 2009). The major tenant of this approach is, individuals will migrate in order to improve their living standards. This approach recognizes migration to be driven by variances in returns to labour across markets (Kurekova, 2010).

Lewis (1954), in his work mentioned that unlimited supply of labour exists in countries where population is relatively large to capital and natural resources. Agriculture is characterized by disguised unemployment. There are sectors of economy where the marginal productivity of labour is negligible, zero or even negative. There exists another sector, where labors are working at given wages but they are not getting wages according to their marginal productivity. The price of workers in these economies is a wage at subsistence level. Author mentions, an underdeveloped economy is a dual economy with two sectors, traditional agrarian sector and modern manufacturing sector. The underlying assumption of Lewis model is, labour in agriculture and rural area is always in surplus but not so in manufacturing sector. Thus in rural area irrespective of talent, education, skills or inmate talents every labor has zero marginal productivity but each has positive productive in manufacturing sector. This leads to a gap in wages earnings from rural areas and incentives for a labour to migrate from rural area to cities in search of manufacturing jobs. Agriculture sector supplies an unlimited labour force to manufacturing sector and transfer of labour between the two sectors takes place through rural urban migration. This migration continues until the disguised unemployment of workers in rural areas is absorbed into manufacturing sector in urban areas.

Lewis approach on surplus labour and migration, to some extent is one sided as it completely ignores the development of agriculture and moreover wages are not always

constant in capitalistic sector. Lewis assumes that wage rate is constant in manufacturing sector until the supply of labour is exhausted from subsistence sector but in reality it's not so.

Ranis and Fei (1961), model is an extension of Lewis model of unlimited supply of labour. The Lewis model of unlimited supply of labour failed to adequately analyze the growth and development of agricultural sector. Author talks about the transition process through which, an underdeveloped country hopes to move from one of motionless growth to self-sustained growth. He also talks about reallocation of population between agriculture and industrial sector. He mentions that in an underdeveloped economy most of the people are engaged in agricultural sector, which is stagnant and regressive. Non-agricultural sector too exists but they have inadequate capital. Workers contribution in agriculture is negligible or zero. The basic assumption of this model is similar to Lewis except they assume land to be fixed; constant returns to scale and wages in industrial sector are fixed. Marginal productivity of labour in agriculture sector is zero or excess of population can be transferred to agricultural sector without any output loss in agriculture.

According to authors, on the basis of above mentioned assumptions, the development of labour surpluses can be divided in three phases: i) In the first phase there are disguised unemployed workers who are not contributing to agricultural production and can easily be transferred to industrial sector at constant institutional wage rate. ii) In the second phase, agricultural labour that is adding to agricultural output but produce less than institutional wage they get can be moved. This type of workers can also be shifted to industrial sector. iii) The third phase starts where second phase ends. In this stage, self-sustained growth initiates where workers are adding to agricultural produce more than the institutional wage they get. In other words in this stage surplus labour is exhausted and agricultural gets commercialized.

Though the work of Ranis-Fei is improvement in Lewis approach as it takes into consideration another aspect as well that is agricultural growth but this approach also is based on some unrealistic assumptions. Supply of land is not always fixed and institutional wage not above marginal productivity of labour. In real world wages paid to agricultural laborers is much below than marginal productivity of labor. Another major lacunae of this approach are that there is not always disguised unemployment in developing countries (Oshima, 1963). This approach deals with closed model thus totally ignore international trade. Despite of its intrinsic restraints one doesn't underestimate the importance of Ranis-Fei model in reality. It offers systematic understanding of the

development process of labour surplus countries. Besides, this approach also gives practical meaning to process of sustained growth through the interface of agriculture and industrial sector of underdeveloped economies.

Harris and Todaro (1970) also presented a model of rural urban migration in underdeveloped countries. The main assumption of the model is that there is perfect competition and labour migration in an underdeveloped economy is due to rural urban differences in average expected wages than actual wages in rural and urban areas. The migrants consider various employment opportunities of employment accessible in rural and urban sectors and pick the one that maximizes their expected wages. The minimal urban wage is substantially higher than the rural wage. Expected wages are measured by variance in real rural urban income and rural income and probability of migrants getting a job[6]. Migrant compares his expected income for a given time horizon in urban sector with his prevailing average income in rural area and migrates if former is more than the latter, than he decides to undertake migration decisions. Migration ceases only if expected income differential is zero.

Though the contribution of Harris-Todaro approach for expected wage differential as major underlying reason for migration is still relevant and many researches are going on assuming this central argument still, the approach has certain limitations. Fixed wage assumption is not realistic. Various informational imperfections, such as imperfections in capital and insurance markets, present in the labour market of developing economies are also among common causes of wage dispersion, which has been totally ignored by this approach. Another important thing that should be taken under consideration is that urban wage difference plays a significant role in the formation of pre-migration expectations and thus migration decisions (Riadh, 1998).

Before shifting to Micro /human capital approach of Neo-Classical, let us outline in very brief some major arguments of macro approach:

i) Migration is caused by differences in wage rates between countries;

ii) The elimination of wage differential will cease movement of people;

iii) Individual is the unit of analysis and is also decision maker;

iv) Every migrant has symmetry of information;

v) Migrants move by choice and envisage optimization behavior; and

vi) Labour markets are the main instrument causing the movement of people and

[6] Probability of finding a job is defined as the ratio between the number of new openings and the number of unemployed workers.

other markets don't influence migration.

1.4.1.2b Micro Approach/ Human Capital Approach

Unlike macro approach, micro approach focuses on heterogeneity of individuals and assumes that individuals are not homogenous. At micro level neo-classical migration theory views migrants as individual, rational actors who decides to move on the basis of cost and benefit analysis. Neo-Classical macro-level explanation can be transferred to the micro level model of individual choice and has been labeled as the human capital theory of migration (Todaro, 1969). The central idea of this approach is that human capital; endowment, skills, age, marital status, gender, occupation and labour market status as well as preferences and expectations strongly affect migration decisions (Kurekova, 2010). This approach opines that individual is the profit maximization rational individual who undertakes migration calculating his costs and benefits. Individual will undertake migration decisions if benefits especially monetary are higher than incurred costs. Unlike macro approach which emphases on economic, political, structural and demographic setting in particular countries, micro approach takes into account distinctive values and norms of an individual such as his /her and expectation and skills etc.

Sjaastaad (1962) perceives migration as investment in human capital. Human capital has been recognized crucial economic factor in the process of economic development. Sajaastaad assumes that migration patterns are influenced by factors such as population, densities and distance. Author mentions that individuals are a rational actor and migration decisions are undertaken after performing cost benefit calculation that leads them to expect positive net return usually monetary from migration. Sajaastaad focuses on the migration as equilibrating mechanism in changing economy. Both psychic and monetary costs and benefits have been given importance while undertaking migration decisions. Waldrof ,2007; Mukkala, 2005), also found that concentration of human capital facilitates knowledge spillovers that i.e. human capital attracts human capital are so essential for spurring growth in today's knowledge economy.

Major stands of Human capital/Micro Approach of migration are as follows:

i) Migration is perceived as investment in human capital,

ii) Role of personal factors is of equal importance in determining who migrates and who don't;

iii) Migration decisions are undertaken by individual after costs and returns analysis of migration; and

iv) Individuals are not homogenous.

The major contribution of this approach is that it explains why likelihood of migration decreases with age and why individual with higher education often shows higher migration. Before discussing historical-structural approach critical views of neo-classical theory of migration have been discussed in brief. This approach ignores market imperfections and various other structural constraints. Another major limitation of this approach is that it assumes perfect knowledge of costs and benefits of migration. Instead in most countries factor market (capital and insurance) are typical far from perfect, making access to financial services and capital difficult or even impossible for marginalized groups. This approach ignores the role of social-cultural factors, as migration doesn't take place in absence of social, cultural and institutional factors. Another main disapprovals against neo-classical are for being a historical and Eurocentric supposing that migration (i.e. transfer of labors from rural agrarian to urban industrial sectors) fulfills the same facilitating role in currently developing countries as it did in 19th an 20th century in Europe. Rather the structural condition under which temporary migration is taking place is different across time and spaces (De Haas 2010).

1.4.1.3 Historical-Structural Approach

Historical structuralists opine that economic and political power is unequally distributed among developed and underdeveloped countries. People have unequal access to resources and that capitalist expansion has inclination to further reinforce this inequality. Wallerstein (1974) and Frank (1966) proposed this approach. Wallerstein mentioned about the world systems. According to the world system approach, the world is divided in the core, which is abundant in capital, a periphery, which is abundant in cheap labour and raw materials and consumer markets, and semi-periphery that takes into considerations both elements. Migration according to this approach is the inevitable result of the problems that are generated by capitalistic development. World system theory assumes that a movement of people is an outcome of dislocations caused by capitalist penetration in less developed countries. Dependency theory by Frank (1966) also shares the same view on migration and perceives migration as an outcome of exploitation of poor countries by capitalist countries. Migration is as one more product of the dominance exerted by core countries over peripheral areas (Arango, 2000). Migration is perceived as an outcome of disruptions and dislocations that are intrinsic to capitalist accumulation.

Historical structuralists approach therefore assumes that political and social norms also play very important role in migration. Unlike neo-classical, where individuals

have free choice to migrate, individual don't have free choice to move rather it's always constrained by structural factors. People according to this approach are forced to migrate as traditional economic structures have been undermined as a result of their incorporation in global political and economic system.

Despite of this that approach has incorporated broader features of migration such as structural and political factors but is not free from certain fundamental limitations. This approach assumes that individuals and their behavior can be explained primarily by their individual location within larger system and thereby ignores various counter forces whose origin lies at national regional and local levels and therefore approach is too rigid and deterministic (Wood, 1982). It always perceives migrants as the victim and sufferer of capitalization. Capitalism only can't be criticized for underdevelopment in underdeveloped nations as it has both positive and negative affects. Another major assumption of this approach migration is always forced or plight for misery is not true either. This approach is also value-laden and historical in nature.

Both neo-classical and historical-structuralists approach fails to explain why some people in certain country or region migrates while in same circumstances others don't. These approaches also failed to explain why people tend to migrate between particular places in spatially clustered areas. Moreover migration decisions also depends on various other inherent factors such as aspiration of people, which is ignored by push and pulls approach, neo-classical and historical structuralists.

1.4.1.4 Mobility Transition Theory

Both neo-classical and push and pull approach on movement of people perceived migration as a consequence of geographical and spatial differences in development levels between the origin and destination areas. Both of the approaches tend to ignore the migrants perception and aspirations. Attempts have been made by geographers, demographers, sociologists, and anthropologist to go beyond migration and expected income differences linkages which instead try to elucidate how migration and broader processes of development are reciprocally related, and how the character and role of migration might alter in the course of development processes (De Haas, 2010). This dynamic model is known as transitional model of migration development by Zelinsky(1971). Author talked about spatio-temporal theoretical perspectives on migration. Demographic transition theory has been linked with changing patterns of population mobility. This approach is synthesis of demographic transition theory, spatial diffusion of innovations, the economic doctrine of least effort or economic optimization,

and the various laws developed by Lee (1966). In his hypothesis of the mobility transition Zelinsky links the "vital transition" to the mobility transition. He argued that through advance of scientific acquaintance and knowledge, man had control over his physiology in the form of death and birth control, resulting in the demographic transition. He preferred to use term vital transition, by means of which he widened the term demographic transition by linking it to the processes of modernization, economic growth, and increasing movement of people. He distinguished five phases of the vital transition: i) The pre-modern traditional society (high fertility and mortality, little natural increase if any), ii) The early transitional society (rapid decline in mortality, major population growth), iii) The late transitional society (major decline in fertility, significant but decelerating natural increase), iv) The advanced society (fertility and mortality stabilized at low levels, slight population increase if any), v) A future "super advanced society" (continuing low fertility and mortality).

The pillar of his hypothesis is, each and every phase was linked to distinct forms of mobility, in process that Zelinsky coined as the mobility transition. Zelinsky (1971:230-1) argued that "there has not only been a general and spectacular increase in movement of people in modern era and societies, but also that the specific character of migration course tends to alter over the course of this vital transition".

This approach was innovative as it considered various functionally connected forms of migration with broader temporal-spatial development perspectives (De Haas, 2010). But like neo-classical approach this approach is also universal in nature as it assumes all societies undergo the same processes. Like neo-classical approach, it is also historical in nature proposing that there is a single, unilinear path towards development, whereas in reality migration and development do not go under same process and affect areas in the same way everywhere (Findlay et. al, 1998). This approach is also criticized for its failure to postulate the actual causal relation between demographic transitions and mobility change as well as its erroneous assumption of largely immobile traditional societies (Skeldon, 1997). Despite above mentioned limitations fundamental idea of Zelinsky hypothesis have not been undermined. Without any suspicion, this approach is an empirically more realistic hypothesis than neo-classical, structuralists and push-pull models.

1.4.1.5 New Economics of Labour Migration

Oded Stark propounded the NELM approach. Oded Stark developed it in 1980's in cooperation with, David E. Bloom, Eliakim Katz, Edward Taylor and Mark

Rosenzwieg (Taylor, 1999; Stark and Taylor 1989; Katz and Stark, 1986; Stark, 1984). NELM theory challenges some of the postulations of the neo-classical approach, offering new level of analysis and different nature and determinants of migration. This approach has shifted the focus of migration research from individual independence to mutual interdependence. The main argument of this approach is that individual does not make migration decisions alone rather households and families as whole undertakes migration decisions. This approach opines that unlike neo-classical and push and pull framework migration decisions are influenced by comprehensive set of factors not only profit maximization intentions alone. Migration is perceived as risk, insurance and income diversification strategy by the poor households[7]. Migration decisions are not result of individual profit maximization alone instead an outcome of imperfections and market failure in developing countries. Migration is reaction of households to income risks and to failure of various kinds of markets in developing economies such as labour market, credit market, or insurance market. As per NELM approach, migration in absence of significant wage differentials or the absence of migration in the presence of wage differentials does not imply irrationally rather forces and compel individuals to take into account a set of other variables related to relative deprivation[8] and the risk aversion and risk minimization of income of the households. This theory assumes that migration is family strategy to overcome various risks confronted by poor households in rural areas of developing countries such as unemployment, loss of income, crop failure, given imperfections etc. and to diversify income sources. The decisive role that family plays in migration have also been considered by Jacob Mincer in different perspective mentioning that it is not workers alone but family migrates as whole (Mincer, 1978). While neo-classical does not underline role of remittances, NELM perceives remittances as one of the most essential and important factor of moving out. The theoretical underpinnings of NELM are discussed in detail in chapter five.

Kumar. et.al.,(2012) in their study in rural Bihar found that migration works as a survival strategy in rural Bihar. Out migration lessens the state of deprivation significantly for migrant households than non-migrants irrespective of their social

[7] See Stark and Levhari (1982), Geisbert (2007), Arango (2000) ,Kinnan et.al.,(2012), Lindstrom et.al.,(2012), De Weerdt and Hirvonen (2012), De Brauw et.al,. (2011), Demurger et al.,(2010) ,Arzaghi and Rupasingha (2013),Ghobadiet.al.,(2005), Rafique et.al.,(2006), Konsiega (2005), Ellis (2003),Sakho-Jimbira and Bignebat (2008), Deshingkar and Start (2003), Waddington (2003), Waddington and Sabates (2003), Paulson (2000), De Haan (2000).

[8] Relatively deprived household performing relatively worse to other households have higher propensity to send a member abroad.

affiliation. Kinan.et.al (2012) in their study found that internal migration delivers wealth transfers, insurance or credit to non- migrating household members. Lindstrom et.al (2012) in their study found that the households use temporary migration to lessen the demand for food during times of stress by temporarily shedding members. Demurger et. al.,(2010) in their paper found that availability of land stimulates on farm diversification, local off farm activities are mostly guided by household assets and resources, while migration decisions often depends on household size and composition. Taylor (1999), in his paper highlights how remittances have shaped development in-migrant sending areas. Migration decisions are strongly influenced by relative income instead of absolute income and relative deprivation in host society in rural areas of developing countries leads to migration (Stark and Taylor, 1989; Katz and Stark, 1986; Stark, 1984).

NELM also assumes that credit constraints of rural households lead to migration. Various studies show the relationship between credit constraints and migration. Fink et. al (2014), in their study found that off farm labour is not an outcome of optimal labour allocation, rather is household inability to cover short-term needs with savings or credit. Providing rural households with access to credit during growing season significantly changes the allocation of household labour. Rossi and Trucchi (2014), in their study found that a credit constraint facilitates women participation in labour, whereas there is no significant effect on labour supply of men. Kumar et.al (2012) in their study found that binding liquid and credit limits negatively affect production and livelihood alternatives and is significant barrier in preventing escape from poverty. Abramitzky et.al., (2012), found that wealth discourages migration. Angelucci (2012), found that credit constraints often restrict migration even in the absence of positive and favorable net benefit of migration of people. Delpierre (2012) shows that migration is indeed an investment subject to cash and liquid constraints. Dormel et .al., (2010) found that credit market imperfections do increase the persistence of unemployment. Stampini and Davis (2009) found that nonagricultural labor income relaxes credit constraints to farming. Credit unavailability and constraints plays very significant and crucial role in self-selection in migration (Chiquiar & Hanson, 2005; Borjas, 1987; Mesnard, 2004,2009; Rapoport, 2002), in their work found that temporary migration is strategy adopted as a ways of lessening credit market imperfections by rural households in poor developing countries. Stark & Levhari (1982), found that migration is way of diversifying family income sources in credit-constrained households. Studies found that credit constraints may produce an inverse u-shaped relationship between income and migration (e.g., Faini

and Venturini, 1993, 1994; Massey, 1988;Taylor and Wyatt, 1996; Hatton and Williamson, 1998, 2005). Morduch (1995) and Besley (1995) found that households facing credit-constraints and missing credit markets often resort to various consumption smoothing strategies from livestock and asset sales to sending member abroad i.e. migration. Halliday (2006) mentions migration as ex-post strategy and found that wealthier households have less credit constraints and are thus able to finance migration.

This approach in nutshell therefore assumes that migration is family strategy to overcome various kinds of income and insurance risks faced by poor households in developing countries such as unemployment, loss of income, crop failure, given imperfections etc. and to diversify income sources. The crucial role that family plays in migration had also been given primary importance. While in neo-classical remittances do not play a role, in NELM they are perceived as one of the most essentials of migrating. This approach also faces some severe limitations. By assuming that migration is household strategy to overcome local constraints to economic production and development, in particular NELM sometimes proposes that migration thus contributes to development in sending areas (De Haas, 2010) whereas it doesn't hold true always. Another major limitation of this model is that this theory assumes household as monolithic, altruistic unit taking unanimous decisions to advantage of whole group (Carling 2005). The approach deals only with cause of migration indirectly at the sending side ignoring destination dimension of migration.

1.4.1.6 Lipton's Approach

Most of the theories and approaches discussed so far in this section anticipated homogenous optimizing behavior of individual and households, rich persons optimistic whereas poor persons are more reactive than proactive (Tidsell and Regmi, 2000). Thus on the basis of above mentioned understandings and statements rural poor are more likely to driven by push factors instead of pull factors in undertaking migration decisions. Theory by Lipton (1980) mentions that it is useful and necessary to differentiate between migration patterns and behavior based on optimizing by families or individuals or those based on satisficing or threshold concepts of such behavior. Most of the theories and approaches discussed so far have dealt only with optimizing behavior of families and individuals of rural households in developing economics. Lipton (1980), and to some extent Stark (1991) considered and discussed satisficing behaviour as well. Lipton's (1980) theory is very stimulating as it assumes the mixtures of behaviours patterns by migrants depending on their socio-economic status and affiliations (Tidsell and Regmi,

2000). Lipton mentions that neo-classical perceives migration behaviour as an outcome of optimizing behaviour of economic agents. He further adds that migration is the response to the income possibilities and opportunities linked with the place of origin as well as place of destination. These approaches assumed that there is free choice, perfect knowledge i.e symmetry of knowledge and perfect mobility. However, the rationality of an economic agent is restricted in bounded rationality (Tidsell and Regmi, 2000). NELM approach, on the whole also lies on optimizing proposition but the unit of decision-making is not an individual instead family members as whole takes migration decisions. However, the approach also focuses on element of satisficing or use of a threshold concept. While the migration process is triggered and driven by the feelings of relative and comparative social deprivation (a threshold or a satisficing concept), the actual process once triggered involves optimization (Tidsell and Regmi, 2000). Lipton suggests that there are two types of out migration streams from rural areas in developing and third world countries: i) The migration of deficit farmers and landless destitute laborers who are poor and ii) Migration from well to do families i.e. of sons of 'big' (well off) farmers.

According to Lipton migrants of first types are the ones who are poor and are pushed out due to widening income and wealth inequality. Thus, these poor migrants exhibit satisficing rather than optimizing motivation in their migration decisions. Migration takes place when their income falls below a tolerable threshold. Whereas migrants from rich and well to big farmers households, are supported by family, and also get financial assistance in their urban education and job search. These second type of migrants are pulled out by better civic and income opportunities and therefore households shows optimizing behavior. The migration decisions undertaken by the former is reactive while that of later is proactive. Migration will not reduce poverty rather steady decline of traditional economies would even increase the deprivation of non-migrants. He also has discussed about the socio-cultural effect of migration i.e. loss of community solidarity and development of urban. He further adds that migration might be beneficial to migrants but have negative impact on village left behind. The drain of skilled, strong and young and innovative people from village, lead to productivity loss. Impact of male on women left behind is increases work burden on women as migration leads to loss workers in village. Moreover, migrants from households of the big farmers, the one from well to do families, also move out from village and remit higher amount remittances. The households tend to use those remittances to buy labour saving technology in agriculture, which in the longer term might deteriorate the economic

conditions of poor households in rural areas. He denies any positive impact of remittances in improving village economy and hence equalizing rural-urban inequalities as well as intra-village inequalities. Tidsell and Regmi (2000) found this from their empirical evidence in case of Nepal. Lipton further mentions that remittances disproportionately go in the pockets of big farmers and landlords thus leading to more intra-village inequalities.

Lipton only highlighted negative aspect of migration whereas various studies show that migration is beneficial for the sending households. This approach totally have ignored the positive role of migration via remittances and socio-cultural and skill transfers.

1.4.1.7 Dual Market Theory

This approach propunded by Piore (1979) explains migration from demand side of argument. This theory focuses on the receiving end of migration. This approach links migration with structural changes in the economy and explicates migration dynamics with demand side of argument (Massey et al, 1993). It assumes a bifurcated occupational pattern and dual pattern of economic organization in advanced and developed economies. This theory argues that migration is result of conditions of labour demand rather than supply of labour. There is always demand for low skilled and menial jobs in developed countries. Thus according to this approach international migration is caused by permanent demand for cheap labour that stems from certain intrinsic characteristics of advanced industrial and developed societies, which leads to the segmentation of their labour markets. In developed economies there is duality of organizations and economy exists, namely capital-intensive where both skilled and unskilled labour is employed and labour intensive where unskilled labour prevails. The theory also explains the reason for permanent demand of labour in advance countries along with structural unemployment in receiving countries. For various reasons highly developed and industrial economies, require cheap foreign labours to fill jobs that native workers refuse to take up and also because women and teenagers no longer undertake those jobs. Piore (1979) mentions four factors responsible for such permanent demand of cheap labour, which is satisfied by means of recruitments. The major reason for permanent demand of cheap foreign labour in developed and advance countries is a result of native labors in advanced economies shuns low paid, unstable, unskilled, dangerous, demeaning, low prestige and menial jobs. Theory makes an attempt to explain i) Why in developed and industrially advance economies there are unstable and low-productivity jobs; ii) Why local labourers

shun such low paid jobs; iii) Why the local labours unwilling to occupy unattractive and low paid jobs cannot be explained through market mechanisms i.e. by raising wages attached to such jobs; iv) Why foreign labours from low-income and developing countries are willing to accept such low paid and menial jobs; and finally, v) Why women and teenagers do not undertake those jobs and can no longer fill such structural labour demand as before?

In industrially advanced and developed economies there is co-existence of duality of economies. The major reasons for existence of these unstable, menial and low paid jobs is an outcome of duality of economy in capital intensive and labour intensive sectors. Capital-intensive sector is primary sector of these countries and combine both skilled and unskilled labour whereas land intensive sector is secondary and takes into account only unskilled labour. Local workers shun such jobs because of status and motivational problems attached along with the job. These jobs are low status and low paid jobs so as a matter of prestige issues and instability native workers never go with these jobs in advance economies. The native workers unwillingness from these jobs cannot be solved through standard price mechanisms because raising salaries at the bottom of the occupational scale would require raising proportionately wages at the following levels in order to respect the occupational hierarchy, and that would lead to structural inflation (Arango, 2000). Workers from developing and poor countries are ready to occupy these kinds of jobs by having aspiration to go back one day at their native place. For these cheap labors from poor countries, status and prestige issues are matter at their origin country; in foreign land, they do not bother much about their status and prestige. At last, these low paid unskilled jobs can no longer be filled by women and teenager because female work and laborers have lost its secondary, dependent status in favor of autonomous career oriented one and reduced fertility and prolonged higher education have reduced the availability of teenagers (Massey et al. 1998, 33).

This approach not only elucidates causes of international migration but also provides convincing explanations for such demand (Arango, 2000). Another major contribution of this approach is that it sheds this assumption that foreign workers compete with local ones and affect each other's level of wages and employment projections. Despite it illustrating explanation for reason of international migration it has certain lacunas. This approach assumes that all migration is demand stimulated and totally overlooks supply or push factors related with migration. In advanced and developed nations foreign workers come on with their own initiatives and expectations

not merely to fill pre-existing jobs (Arango, 2000). Another reality is that it's not always true that all migrants ending up in getting jobs. Another major limitation of this approach is that it doesn't explain differential immigration rates, i.e., why different advanced industrial economies, which have similar economic structures, exhibit different rates of immigration (Arango, 2000).

1.4.2 Perpetuation Theories

Perpetuation theories are those, which explain duration of migration instead of causes of migration. This approach makes an attempt to analyze the underlying reasons behind what perpetuates migration ones it is initiated. Under this section we will discuss below-mentioned four approaches:

1.4.2.1 Network Theory

The network theory of migration does not emphasize on the determinants, which initiate migration; rather focus on what perpetuates migration in time and space once it is initiated (Massey et al.1993; Fawcett, 1989; Haug, 2008). Dekker and Engberson (2014), argues that social network facilitates migration. This approach also tries to explain the reasons why migration trends and patterns are not evenly distributed across countries, but how they tend to form so-called migration regimes (Arango, 2000). Scholars have recognized the eminent role of social networks and job referrals in facilitating migration (Rees, 1966; Schmutte, 2012). Networks are set of inter-personal ties that link migrants, former migrants and non-migrants in sending and receiving area through bonds of friendship, kinship, caste affiliations and shared community. Social capital at the place of destination has positive and favorable impacts on emigration intentions and return migration, whereas role of social network at the origin has negative impact on return migration (Haug, 2008). Social networks reduce costs and risks associated with migration leading to more migration. This approach is also known as social capital approach. Bourdieu and Wacquent's (1992) approach has come to be known as the social capital theory of migration. Many scholars have acknowledged the role of social network in facilitating migration[9]. Social capital is considered to be the sum of human resources, which accrue to person/ group by virtue of retaining a network of institutional relationships. Information about the destination to the prospective migrants is directed to through those who have already made the journey to particular destinations.

[9] See Glitz (2013), Caria and Hassen (2013), Meeteren and Pereira (2013), Dekker and Engbersen (2014), Krug and Rebein (2012), Lagerwaard (2012), Schmutte (2011), Yogo (2011), Anjos and Campos (2010), Caliendo et al., (2011), Guilonoto and Sandron (2001).

Social networks also provide assistance in securing employment and housing. This viewpoint was first suggested by Douglas Massey (Massey et al, 1987), drawing on social capital theory, associated with such prominent name Pierre Bourdieu. Besides material and human capital (education, skills, knowledge), social capital is a third crucial migration resource in enabling and inspiring people to migrate and therefore in facilitating migration (Massey et al 1993). Though the research on migration networks have become very popular in last few years, but still is not free from certain limitations. It does not offer any understanding on the mechanisms that eventually lead to the weakening and collapsing of migration networks. Although, it is demanding to control migration by government due to network effects but legal and physical barrier to migration also play fundamental role in migration decisions. Another major limitation which is of great consideration is that there may over time develop some internal forces which start working as gatekeepers instead of bridgeheads (De Haas, 2010). Although kinship networks are of great help in migrating most of the times, they also tend to be exclusionary for people not belonging to particular social, caste, race, and sect or kinship groups. Thus the same strong ties that help members of a group might also exclude outsiders from migration (Massey et al, 1993).

1.4.2.2 Migration Systems Theory

Network theory is closely associated to other approach known as system theory. The central idea of this approach is that migration alters social, cultural, economic, and institutional conditions at both receiving as well as sending areas. Mabogunje (1970) perceives migration as a system linked by flows of people, goods and services and information, which encourage further migration. Whereas network theory mainly focuses on the facilitating role of personal relations between migrants and non-migrants, and the way this social capital perpetuates and transform migration processes and patterns, migration systems theory goes beyond this point in highlighting that movement of people not only affects and is affected by the direct social environments of migrants, but restructures the entire societal- or developmental- context of the concrete spaces in which migration takes place, both at origin and destination (De Haas, 2010). A geographer, Mabogunje (1970), defined this approach as a set of places linked by flows and counter-flows of people, goods, services, and information, which encourages further exchange, including migration, between the places. He focused on the role of information flows and feedback mechanisms in shaping migration patterns and systems. Role of feedback mechanisms through which information is transmitted back to origin has been given

importance. Favorable information will thus have positive impact and will therefore facilitate more migration.

The major inherent limitation of this approach is that Mabogunje focused his entire analysis on rural-urban migration within the African continent. This approach assumes that linkages, and their numerous interactions, establish the most appropriate context for the analysis and interpretation of migration. Nevertheless this approach which aspired to draw on the analytic power of system analysis, is yet no more than a desideratum in words of Arango (2000) which has never been fulfilled, at least as far as international migration in concerned. This approach has hardly gone beyond the identification of international migration systems, at a purely descriptive level.

1.4.2.3 Institutional Theory

Another approach in perpetuation theories is theory of institutions. This approach is based on idea and assumption that as soon as migration process is initiated a number of private and social institutions and organizations come into scenario. The major aim of these organizations is to meet the demand created by imbalance between prospective migrants, who wish to migrate countries and a limited number of immigration visas offered by these countries (Iglicka-Okolska ,1998). This view highlights the growing importance of various social and private institutions in facilitating international migration. Various kinds of barriers by various advance core countries leads to black market in migration processes. As this underground labor market creates conditions conducive to exploitation and victimization of prospective migrants, various voluntary organizations develop to enforce rights of migrants. These profit making and private organizations provide range of services related to migration processes to migrants in exchange of fees set on this underground market. To protect the rights of migrants from exploitation various humanitarian and social groups come into force and offer various services such as counseling, social services, legal aids and advices etc. in migration process.

Institution, network and migrations systems approaches on migration primarily focus on underlying factors that shape and perpetuate migration. Taken together these approaches help us to understand how migration pattern evolves over time and changes, magnitudes, destinations and selectivity and how migration is reciprocally linked to broader process of development (De Haas, 2010). This approach is basically conflicting with and superior to static and a historical push-pull, neo-classical and structuralist's

approaches, which all draw on the specious, sedentary perception that migration and development are substitutes rather than complements.

1.4.2.4 Cumulative Causation Theory

A third strand of perpetuation theories, which is of great relevance in recent era, is cumulative causation theory. The propounder of this approach is Gunnar Myrdal (1975). The central underlying assumption of this approach is that migration is self-sustaining and self-perpetuating phenomena. It highlights backwash effects by uneven development in underdeveloped areas of developing economies. This theory opines that once differential growth had occurred, internal and external economies of scale will perpetuate and deepen the bipolar pattern characterized by the vicious cycle of poverty in the periphery i.e. poor and developing economies and the accelerated growth in core i.e. developed region. Myrdal (1975) mentions that although positive spread effects also occur such as increased demand for labour, and raw materials etc. from trade it cannot overcome the negative effects. Capitalism leads to increased regional inequalities in absence of strong governmental policies. Migration weakens regional and local economies by depriving societies of their most valuable and crucial labour force, increasing dependence on outside world, and stimulating successive out migration (De Haas, 2010).

In nutshell, this approach postulates that migration increases regional disparities. Various studies conducted in origin area suggested that Myrdal's approach of grim and negative view about migration appeared to be coming true (Lipton 1980;Tidsell and Regmi 2000). Totally different from neo-classical cumulative causation and historical structuralists don't perceive migration as a means of growth and development rather as source of exploitation and regional inequalities. Lipton, historical-structuralists and Myrdal highlights the negative aspects of migration, what De Haas (2010) termed as "migrant syndrome".

Recent theoretical underpinning in a way helps in contributing to a better understanding of the causes of migration, and of mechanisms that contributes to self-perpetuation of migration. Yet overall picture is far from satisfactory (Arango, 2000). Most of the theories starting from push-pull mention only causes of migration. There is not any single attempt to focus on why only few people migrate while others in same circumstances don't. There is also dearth of integration and linkages in every approach to look into immobility as well along with mobility. As mentioned by Arango (2000) migration studies should not only focus on centrifugal forces but also on centripetal ones.

Various approaches discussed above in this section are partial in nature and are unidirectional. As, they tend to explain an aspect, or dimension or highlights any particular feature of migration and are certain time, context and locations specific. Another major limitation of migration studies are that most of the studies focus on labour migration only, though various other forms of migration are relevant in current era.

It can't be denied that various approaches and framework that are available now days are development over those prevailing few decades ago. Yet contribution of various approaches as a whole on migration studies there is still scope of improvements taking into considerations broader and wider perspectives. Taking into account more multi-disciplinary aspects and paying attention to other causes of migration as well instead of focusing on economic reasons only migration theories can be more general. This encompassment will help in understanding the multifaceted and diverse character of migration and helps in developing broader perspectives as well. Another major point, which shall be mentioned here is that prevailing theoretical underpinnings and approaches on migration and related studies should not be considered in opposition with each other, on the contrary they should be perceived as complimentary to each other. After reviewing comprehensive literature on migration across various disciplines and time it can be said that migration is very diverse, complex and unpredictable phenomena. Causes and circumstances, which may seem perfect at a time in given scenario may be totally different and doesn't hold true in another scenario in same time. This section can be summed up in words for migration mentioned by Hagen-Zenker (2008),

"… due to dynamic nature of migration, the question of why people migrate will continue to be lively and interesting topic in the years to come." …

1.5 Short Review of other Migration Related Studies

Above section discussed various theoretical foundation of migration. This section will deal with a short review of other studies related to migration. The section is further divided in three parts: 1.5.1 Literature on Uttar Pradesh and migration. 1.5.2 Literature on caste and migration and 1.5.3 Other migration related studies (Impact of Migration, characteristics of migrants, case specific studies and migrants conditions at destination, Various Reports, Internal Migration, Rural Urban Migration and Determinants of Migration).

1.5.1 Literature on Uttar Pradesh

Current section will disentangle existing literature on UP. Literature shows that there are very few studies on out-migration from Uttar Pradesh. The very few are

discussed below. Majumder (2015), highlights that brick kilns are most often adopted option of migrants labors as survival strategy of poor households in UP. It was found that these kinds of distress migration are generally forced and often end up vicious circle of debt. Singh (2016 found that social networks facilitate male out-migration form rural UP. Singh (2016) in study at destination found that residential condition of migrant workers is very bad at destination with lack of even basic civic amenities of life. Although, migration has increased the status of migrants at their native place but they often face discrimination, disrespect and lack of even basic and civic amenities at destination. Rasul and Sharma (2014) in their study on UP and Bihar analyses various underlying cases of poor economic growth of the two states. The study reveals that poor economic growth in UP and Bihar is not due to any particular cause rather is an outcome of a multitude of social, economic and political factors rooted in structural, historical and macro-economic policies such as low human capital, weak institutions and poor infrastructure coupled with political instability and social conflict rooted in sectarian politics based on caste, class and ethnic division. Kumari et.al (2103) analyzed the socio-demographic profile of migrants in eastern UP. The study found that majority of out-migration is internal and inter-state migration is more than intra-state migrations especially to the high HIV prevalent states of the country. It is not the poor households who are sending member abroad, but the members from lower middle and middle-income group households for economic gains are moving out. Maharashtra is major destination of migrants from eastern UP. Ali (2013) analyzed the socio- economic conditions of rickshaw pullers in Aligarh with major objectives to assess and analyze the arrival and previous occupations. The study found, rickshaw puller community was illiterate and poor rural people in majority who spent their nights in poor dwelling where civil amenities are absent and resides in slums in very unhygienic conditions. Shafiqullah (2013) makes an attempt to analyze spatial pattern of regional inequalities and level of agricultural and other development scenario in UP. Study found that eastern UP and Bundelkhand are most backward regions in UP, whereas districts of western and central UP are on higher side on scale of development on various indicators. Singh (2013), in her study in UP found that because of inadequate agricultural income in rural UP, to meet household expenditure, small and marginal farmers have to opt for other livelihood strategies for their survival. The study has shown that agriculture is not able to meet the needs of huge population and is therefore unable to provide sustenance to a large number of farmers in rural UP. Raman and Kumari (2012) analyzed district level agricultural development in

UP. The study found that most advanced region on all indicators is western regions and least developed districts were Bundelkhand followed by eastern region in UP. Kumari (2014) also found the similar results on inter district disparities in UP. By using five indicators i.e agriculture, industry, services, education and health found that top ten most developed districts are in western UP, while top ten least developed districts are in eastern UP.

Pandey and Raman (2012), found interesting fact that the size of non- farm sector is not similar in different states of India or and also varies in different district of UP. Study shows that rural non-farm employment plays an important and crucial role in reducing rural poverty in UP. Diwakar (2009), highlights regional disparities and inequality and causes of backwardness in UP. The basic objective is to examine whether micro-level disparities and inequalities and deprivations are much wider and are more worrying than at aggregate level and whether planning at all levels needs to address these issues on a priority basis. Erfe and Mahajan (2007) studied determinants of remittances in UP and Bihar using survey conducted by World Bank on living conditions in UP and Bihar. The study found that altruism is the major reason to remit and remittances have positive impact on household's expenditures on consumption. Rajni (2007) analyzed the nature and pattern of casual contracts prevalent in the labour market of rural areas in regions with diverse socio-economic patterns of development. Paper highlights importance and relevance of non-agricultural employment opportunities and sources for the labour households and the pattern of diversification of agricultural labour households in Meerut in the form of dairying. Arora (2006), in her paper examines the credit given by the banks to the state at the aggregate level, covering a span of 33 years from 1972-2004. Author makes an attempt to analyze trends and patterns of credit in the state and found that during post reform there is decline in credit availability to less developed states such as UP. Paris et.al (2005), studied labor out migration from three districts of Eastern UP. The paper examines the incidence, trends and impact of male outmigration on the livelihood of rice farmers and their women left behind and found migration have increased women's decision-making capacity predominantly followed by increased work burden of women. Srivastava (1999), conducted field study of six gram panchayats during 1993-95 in Muzzafarnagar, Rae Bareilly and Jaunpur districts of UP and has provided evidence of various methods and strategies pursued by the poorer households in rural areas. The paper also highlights changes in the economic and social relations between the laboring classes and dominant classes in the study panchayats in Jaunpur

district.

Khan (1986), in her study analyses the quantum and magnitude of outmigration from the sample villages in eastern UP. Author highlights the positive role of migration in reducing the reliance on agriculture and its role in diversification of livelihoods in rural areas. Lanjouw and Stern (1991), in their study in North Indian village of Palanpur mentions that low-caste households and agricultural labors are most vulnerable ones. In another detailed study on villages in UP, Lanjouw and Stern (1998), highlights that information networks i.e. social networks and ability to pay bribes are very important determinants of access to better payments and more attractive non-farm jobs. Study also found that household size and per capita land holding availability is also major determining force in undertaking migration decisions. World Bank (2010), highlights various socio-economic indicators of UP and also discussed in detail regional disparity and their underlying reasons within UP. Report reveals that flow of out-migrants have an over-representation of men. It discusses in detail various trends, characteristics and direction of out-migration from UP. Singh (1969) also found that eastern region and Bundelkhand is most backward region and western region in UP is most prosperous one in all districts in UP.

1.5.2 Literature on Migration and Caste

This section deals with existing literature on linkage between caste and migration. Literature on caste and migration shows that social group affiliation plays very important role in migration decisions. The traditional village economy revolved around an inherited caste hierarchy that prescribes occupations of individuals (Anderson 2011). Pankaj (2016), in his study looks into the plight of labors in terms of discrimination in various labour markets, access to employment, wages and employer behavior at workplace. Social exclusion has been recognized as an obstacle for Dalits in every aspect in society, which deprives them from access to resources. Goli et.al (2014) suggests that between group inequalities contribute more to the total inequality in landholding whereas within group inequalities and disparities contribute maximum to total inequality in education and wealth status of different castes in rural UP. Study by Singh (2014), exhibited that underlying major cause of inequality among various caste groups is actually grounded in a hierarchy of land rights, political power and driven by religious and secular ideology but lacks supports to the argument based on empirical evidence. Bhagat (2013), found that although conditions of marginalized social groups like SCs, STs progressed significantly over period of time as reflected by the various indicators of living

conditions and assets, the gap has widened between SCs and STs on the one hand and SC-STs and the rest on the other. Poor and deprived states like Bihar, Jharkhand, Chhattisgarh, UP, Orissa, Rajasthan and Madhya Pradesh exhibits one of the lowest levels of living conditions and asset base for all the households in general and SC and ST households in particular. Mehrotra (2006), in his study in UP found that Dalits have the worst social indicators in the state and condition is even similar for country as whole. Accessibility of resources to the local state and the reproduction of class variances among big landowners, small landowners and low caste workers are clearly interlinked. Deshpande (2001), found that that lower caste i.e. SC's and ST's are generally at bottom end and the dominance of upper castes in the prestigious, upper rung and highly paid occupations is relevant even after so many years of independence in India. He also found that land endowments are also determined by caste affiliation and SC group have lowest share in land holdings in UP. Kapur et al. (2010), in their study found that advances and modernization of agriculture over period of time along development in manufacturing and service sector has reduced the traditional labour market discrimination against SC's in UP. Based on field-work in two villages in Western UP, Jeffrey (2001) in his study in UP found that there is persistence of feudal relationship in agricultural economy in UP, where SC depends of land owners for labour work and big farmers and land owners use their economic and political power to create barriers for the SC's to obtain any job than agricultural labour. Studies have found that there are huge discrepancies in occupation and poverty rates in SC and mainstream population and there is direct effect of caste on occupational and livelihood diversification. SC labors are more into low and menial jobs and upper caste are land owners, middle caste are famers and artisans (Deshpande 2001; Borooah 2005; Gang, Béteille 1996; Mendelsohn and Vicziany 1998; Gang et.al,2012; Narula and Macwan ,2001; Gist,1955). Studies found that social structure plays important role in migration decisions (Rogaly, 1998; Inbanathan, 1988; Jeffrey et al., 2008; Marius-Gnanou, 2008; Haberfeld et al., 1999; Mosse et al., 2005; Sundari, 2005; Vijay, 2005).

1.5.3 Other Migration Related Studies

This section will give a brief overview of literature on migration related studies other than those mentioned above in previous sub sections. Impact of migration, characteristics of migrants, case specific studies and migrants conditions at destination, various reports, internal migration, rural urban migration and determinants of migration are few major sub heads of this sections.

1.5.3.1 Determinants of Migration

Current section will highlights determinants of migration and will give some explanations on why migration is chosen by some and not by all in same given context and time. Researchers like Kingsley Davis mentions low migration in India because of the dominance of caste system, joint families, traditional values, cultural and language diversities, lack and low level of education and predominance of agriculture and semi-feudal land relations (Davis, 1951). It is generally assumed that migration is often undertaken as a way out of poverty and is adopted by poor states, although majority of migration is seen in Delhi, Punjab, Maharashtra, Gujarat and Haryana, not all net out-migrating states are poor and underdeveloped states, a remarkable example is Kerala that is socially and educationally most advanced state of India but still is among one of the major out migrating state to gulf (Kannan & Hari, 2002). Bhagat (2011), highlights several reasons why movement of people does not takes place or push factors are effective. Low level of educational attainment, poor skill of rural people, high cost of living in cities, lack of even basic civic amenities, hostile and unfavorable city are the factors that reduces propensity to migrate. Migration decisions are strongly affected by human capital and endowments, education level, skills, age, marital status, gender, occupation and labor markets status (Kurekova, 2010; Skeldon, 1997). Rosenzwieg and Stark (1989), mentions that a significant proportion of migration in low-income countries, particularly in rural areas is comprised of migration by women for marriage purpose and found that marriage cum migration plays significant role in reduction in food variability of rural households food consumption. Migration by women for marriage purpose also provides insurance to the rural households**.** Malmberg (1997), interprets the absence of migration as the result of sedentrism. He mentions that majority of people prefer to stay at home at their native place which gives explanation why only 3 percent of the entire world's populations are international migrants. This thought does not seem particularly substantial when we focus on the numbers of work done that point to the significance of migratory flows in contemporary and past human life ranging across movements and circulation of people (tourists, migrants, refuges, pilgrims) etc. (Jonsson, 2011). Study by Abdulai and CroleRees (2001), found that poorer households have less diversified incomes opportunities such as in non-farm activities. Another major finding was that landholding had a large positive and favorable impact in non-farm activities participation. As poorer household is not able to overcome entry costs associated with international migration and therefore end up in internal migration (Mendola, 2008).

Another major determinant of migration is social networks. Social networks act as facilitator by reducing transfer costs associated with migration but at same time act as entry barriers at some places when it is caste, gender, creed, race or location biased. Information about destination is channeled to prospective migrants through social networks as they have already made the journey (Haug, 2008; Krug, & Rebein, 2012). Migration decision is response to the failure to survival due to the weakening of the sustainability of the agro-resource base, or indebtedness, or lack of food security (Adhikari 2001). De Haan (2010), found that migration decision is undertaken to reduce the uncertainty and risks associated with households income, provide funds for investment, and livelihoods for those with small land holdings in Bihar. In Cameroon, Schrieder and Knerr (2000) found evidence that migration works as social security mechanism for smaller households in Cameroon. Family size also plays crucial role in migration decisions (Rogaly 1998). Education and skill endowment level also play vital role in undertaking migration decisions (Lucas, 2007; Konsiega, 2006). Various studies mention that majority of migrants from poor households remit money to sustain and support consumption in households at origin to meet basic needs (Rogaly 2003). The study mentions that those households whose basic needs are met with available resources probably will not give a thought to sending member as their subsistence level is achieved with given income, whereas for the poorest, migration is last resort, and often a reaction to indebtedness. Study found that those who are poor use migration as a means to reduce vulnerability and for some it is investment in agriculture (De Haan, 2000; Waddington 2003). Munshi and Rosenzwig (2009), examined the hypothesis that there is persistence of low spatial and marital mobility in rural India, despite increased growth rates due to the existence of various caste networks and groups in rural India that act as insurance mechanism for rural households. Bhowmik (1984) mentions that migration is an outcome of unequal distribution of resources.

1.5.3.2 Impact of Migration

This section deals with existing studies on impact of migration with special reference to linkage between income inequality and migration. Migration contributes not only economically via remittances but also through knowledge, skills and cultural transfers. Rozelle et al. (1999) & McKenzie and Rapoport (2007) in their study found the negative impact of migration whereas Garip (2014), analyses the impact of migration and remittances on wealth accumulation and distribution and found that migration and remittance have equalizing effect on wealth distribution in rural Thailand. Taylor and

Lopez (2010) in their study found migration increases per capita incomes via remittances and also increases land productivity. Relationship between income inequality and migration is mix. Le Goff and Ebeke (2009) and McKenzie and Rapoport (2007) in their study found that migration via remittances reduces income inequality. Acosta et al., (2008) in their study found that remittances promote financial development and have a direct poverty-mitigating effect. Stark (2006), provide behavioral and analytical explanation for positive relationship between income inequality and Gini co-efficient. He postulates that higher total relative deprivation of population higher the propensity to migrate. Author mentions that total relative deprivation is positively related to the Gini coefficient; and that, consequently, the Gini coefficient and migration are positively correlated, holding the population's income constant. Awumbila .et al (2015) and Semyonov and Gorodzeisky (2008) in their study found that internal migration improves wellbeing of migrant's households. Narayana and Singh (2016) have discussed various social and economic impacts of migration. Some researchers have studied and analyzed the distributional impacts of remittances by comparing income distributions including and excluding remittances (Barham and Boucher, 1998; Oberai and Singh, 1980; Knowles and Anker, 1981) or by using income-source decompositions of inequality measures (Stark et al., 1986, 1988; Adams, 1989, 1991; Adams and Alderman, 1992). Migration via remittances widens the income inequality in area of origin (Portes and Rumbaut, 1990; Lipton, 1980; Stark et al., 1986) as migrants are from households at the upper-middle or top of the origin area income distribution. It was also found that initially migration may raise inequality, as only the relatively well off have the resources to send members abroad and therefore receive remittances. However, as migrant networks are established in the destination countries, the cost of migration falls and over period of time less well off too can bear the migration costs and therefore can migrate (Koechlin & Leon 2007). Barham & Boucher (1998) in their study found that migration via remittances widen income inequality when compared with the no-migration counterfactual. Adams et. al (2008) indicate that remittances from international migrants widen rural income inequalities slightly, whereas remittances from internal migrants work as income equalizers. Study found that remittances do not play any role in local development instead, results in real estate bubbles and rising food prices in the country (Marat 2009). Strategic motive for remitting is proposed by Stark (1995). In rural areas of developing economies in presence of imperfect capital markets, migration via remittances is an understood contract between the migrant and the household. Migration

via remittances helps households in smoothening consumption despite of volatility in income in rural areas. Datta (2016) in her study found that remittances play important role in livelihoods of households at origin and households in the lower quintiles (castes and classes) are disproportionately more dependent on remittances than those in the better off social groups. Migration is a result of inequality in the distribution of resources and lack of diversified sources of income (Olimova and Kuddusov 2007). It is perceived as the barometer of changing socio- economic and political circumstances at the national and international levels (Razi, 2014). Migration acts as the only choice for sustenance of livelihood for landless and marginal farmers who are in constant debt trap. Human migration and development brings benefits, most directly in the form of remittances sent to households in sending aeras (Human Development Report 2009). The implementation of MGNREGA[10] is reported to have declined seasonal out-migration of mostly women, at least of a distress kind (Kalkoti 2014) but mostly is true for SC households. Migration can be considered as a short-term strategy and is adopted due to need to supplement income in order to fill the cavities of seasonal employment. Study shows that rural households will not opt for migration if they are offered sustainable livelihood in rural areas (Kumar, 2005). Positive associations have been found in labor migration and economic growth (World Bank, 2010). Korra (2011a), in his work found that implication of migrations on the land and labour markets varies in village of origin and destination. Author mentions that labour migration do not alter the structure of the economy either in sending area or receiving area but peasant migrants have the capability to stimulate the land market and change the structure in the destination village.

1.5.3.3 Other Studies (Case specific studies, Issues and Working Conditions of Migrants, Internal Migration, Rural Urban Migration etc.)

Kainth (2009) analyses the socio-economic conditions of brick-kiln migrant workers in Indian state of Punjab. Study found that migrants were living in extremely dusty and unhygienic condition in lack of basic civic amenities. Pais (2006), in his paper focuses on migration and labor mobility in the leather accessories manufacture in Dharavi, Mumbai and found that caste affiliation plays very important role in facilitating migration and living condition of migrants is very bad at destination. Mukherjee et.al (2011) analyzes the socio-economic status of the migrant labour in urban India. Study found that migrants get higher wages in post-migration occupation than wages they

[10] Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Guarantee Act

would have earned in their area of origin. The study found that migrants even lack basic rights needed for decent livings. Mitra and Murayama (2009), analyses the district level rural to urban migration rates (both intra states and inter states) among males and females separately. The study found that among four types of migration, rural to rural migration is highest within country accounting for 54.7 percent. The study also found that social network plays very vital role in case of short-term migration. Bhattacharya (1998), reveals that the positive role of informal sector in rural-urban migration. Kundu and Debesh (2010), in their study found an interesting result that there is an advance in rural-rural migration and rural-urban migration in pre reform-to-reform period while urban-rural and urban-urban migration just witnessed the reverse. Korra (2011a) in his study found that majority of migration in India is seasonal and circular in nature. Srivastava and Sasikumar (2003), in their study deal with overall aspects of migration. Study is very exhaustive in nature as it deals with historical context and causes of migration, profile of migrants, impact and consequences of migration, role of governmental and non-governmental organization in migration.

1.6 The Context and Justification of the Study

From Table 1.2, it can be seen that UP is among top five states with high number of out migrants to other states. It has large number of out migrants in Maharashtra, Gujarat, Delhi and Punjab (NSSO) but hardly any importance has been given in assessing the impact of out migrants at their home as well as in analyzing nature and determinants of out migration. Lack of employment, low and stagnant agriculture, lack of non-farm jobs along with huge inter district disparity leads to male exodus from rural UP (Narayana and Singh, 2016). One of the reasons for highest out migration and high negative net migration rate can be attributed to large population along with stagnant agriculture and lack of non-farm employment opportunities. If rural households are provided with sustainable livelihoods options they will not migrate (Kumar, 2005). Though positive net migration rate is highest in Delhi, an overview of the migration in India clearly shows that UP is among leading states in male out-migration. Net out-migration rate is highest in UP i.e. number of people migrating in is very low in comparison to number of people going out. Thus out-migrate is very high in comparison to in-migration in UP as per NSSO. Rural UP has major share in total migration in UP. Moreover inter-state migration is very high from UP (NSS0). As per Census 2001, 3.8 million migrated out from UP during preceding decade compared to 1.1 million

individuals who migrated in UP. Net out-migration as per census, 2001[11] was 2.7 million or about a two percent annual out-migration rate for state. Out-migration increased by 70 percent and in-migration almost doubled in last decade. The figure of census is over-represented figure as it reflects figures from undivided state of Uttaranchal as well. Table 1.4 highlights reason for male and female out migration from both rural and urban areas. But as studies (Lusome and Bhagat, 2006) and NSSO data shows female migration to very large extent is result of marriage, present study intends to emphasis only on male migration that too from rural area as well.

Table 1.4 shows that male out migration from rural areas for economic reason is comparatively high than urban male out-migration almost for all State/UT's. From rural areas in UP, only 9 per thousand of women migrated for employment related reasons, 10 per thousand for studies, 1 per thousand forced migration, 131 per thousand with movement of parents, whereas 835 per thousand women in rural UP migrates for marriage.

Table 1.4 Distribution (per thousand population) of out-migrants by reason for out-migration in UP

Reasons	Rural		Urban		Total (M+F)	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Rural	Urban
Employment related	825	9	747	17	330	239
Studies	44	10	136	17	24	53
Forced Migration	0	1	0	0	0	0
Marriage	6	835	10	872	509	609
Movement of Parents/Earning Members	97	131	75	72	118	73
Others	11	11	29	18	14	21

Source: NSS Report No.533: Migration in India July: July, 2007-June, 2008, pp-127-128

In urban area as well, the reason for migration is same i.e., 872 per thousand of women migration takes place because of marriage, whereas only 17 per thousand female migrates for employment related and 17 per thousand female migrate for studies. UP is among top ten states witnessing high male out migration from rural areas. With above justification and background only male migration and from rural areas have been considered for the present study as UP witness very less male out migration from urban areas. Although, UP and Bihar are two states with highest male out migration but lots of works done are primarily related to Bihar. Negligible studies have been done in out migration and related issues in UP. NSSO data shows that highest number of male out-

[11] Census 2001, statement 7 based on table D2, Census of India 2001.

migrants are from Azamgarh district followed by Jaunpur in all 70[12] districts in UP. Moreover Jaunpur also is among top ten district with high rate of male out-migration among all districts in UP (Appendix 1).

1.7 Research Gap and Contribution of the study

Theoretical underpinnings discussed above highlights various underlining causes of human mobility. Expected wage differential model is still very relevant and scholars are studying migration assuming the proposition of this model. But migration in developing countries are not merely results of expected rural urban wage differential but also undertaken often because of prevailing imperfections in capital and insurance markets. Historical approach perceives migration, as forced and negative outcome of capitalism but it's not true always in real life. These approaches also assume that migrants have perfect knowledge of costs and benefits of migration. Moreover in rural areas of developing countries capital and insurance markets are far from perfect. Migration via remittances plays very important role in sending household and area, which totally have been ignored by various theoretical underpinnings on migration. Positive role of migration via remittances in well being of household has been considered by NELM approach. In rural households of UP remittances might play very crucial role in diversifying income and risks associated with agriculture. One of another reason for choosing NELM approach for the current study is that migration doesn't take place in absence of socio-cultural factors. Relative deprivation and role of households have been completely ignored by all prevailing approaches except NELM. Migration is not an individual decision rather is household decision of poor rural households. Various other approaches perceives migration as individual profit maximization behaviors instead migration is most often adopted family strategy by rural household to diversify their income and risks associated with agriculture and to cope with imperfections such as crop failure, unemployment, credit market imperfections etc. Above-mentioned factors play very important role in undertaking migration decisions by rural household along with income differentials. NELM, therefore somehow challenges some of the propositions of the neo-classical approach, offering new dimensions and nature of migration determinants and it shifted the emphasis of migration decision research from individual independence to mutual interdependence. NELM approach, therefore, have been chosen as theoretical background for the current research as it offers different unit of analysis

[12] In latest census there are 75 districts in UP.

and a richer set of explain nation of underlying causes for undertaking migration decisions. Unlike push-pull, neo-classical and various other approaches, NELM perceives that migration decisions are made taking into consideration various set of factors and not profit maximization alone.

Literature also shows that there are few studies on migration in UP (Ali 2013; Alam and Alam 2013;Khan 2010, Narayan and Singh, 2016, World Bank, 2010,Singh and Sharma, 1984, Majumdar, 2014). Despite the fact that remittances sent by migrants contribute in reducing poverty in rural UP, and UP being leading state of out-migration, the literature is very scarce in migration related studies and no literature exist in analyzing migration as risk and income diversification strategy in rural UP. There is also dearth of literature considering both origin and destination in same. Most of the study either focuses on origin or destination. Despite the important and crucial role played by migrants from UP, rarely its significance has been acknowledged in literature on migration studies. The growing importance of migration in the rural area of UP demands a greater attention than it currently receives. The current study, therefore, will try to fill the void. The study makes an attempt to study migrant households at origin and track male out-migrants from same households at their respective destination and analyze their socio-economic status at destination. There is no literature analyzing whether migration is survival, risk diversification or accumulation strategy by rural households in UP. Very negligible attempts have been made to understand to role of caste in UP (Mehrotra, 2006; Narayan and Singh, 2016;Srivastava, 1999; Lerche, 1999;Kothari, 1989,Srinivaslu, 1994) and there is dearth of literature in analyzing nature and determinants of out-migration across various social groups in rural UP. Analysis across various social groups will give better understanding of nature of migration from rural UP as caste plays detrimental role in rural UP. Even in era of 21st century caste hierarchy is easily visible in villages of UP. The sample villages have been segmented unofficially in various fractions based on their social groups both physically and economically. Thus, it is quite essential to analyze the migration decisions across social groups. Major contribution of the study is, in context of rural UP study will give insight on whether migration is purely distressed because of above-mentioned factors or is risk diversification or accumulation strategy by rural households across various social group.

1.8 Objectives of the Study

The objectives of the study are as follows:

i) To analyze nature and determinants of male out migration from six villages of rural UP across various social groups.

ii) To assess whether male out-migration is risk and income diversification strategy for rural households in UP or not.

Objective II has three sub-objectives, which are as follows:

i) Is it true that wider the income inequality higher the propensity to migrate i.e. gini coefficient is positively related to migration?

ii) Do credit constraints i.e. capital market imperfections play any role in migration decisions?

iii) Is migration beneficial to migrant households?

1.9 Hypothesis

Hypothesis for the current study are as follows:

i) Determinants of migrant households are different for different social groups i.e. Determining factor for whether to migrate or not is not homogenous and varies across social groups.

ii) Migration is risk and income diversification strategy for rural households in UP.

Sub-Hypothesis

i) Migration is positively related to income inequality.

ii) Credit constraints are an important factor in undertaking migration decisions.

iii) Migration is beneficial for migrant households.

1.10 The Scheme of Chapters/Organisation of the Study

The present study is organized into seven chapters. The First chapter presents the problem along with overview of migration in India, theoretical foundation of migration, short review of other migration related studies, context and justification of the study, research gap and contribution of the study and objectives and hypothesis of study. Chapter two focuses on research methodology and database. It highlights rationale behind selection of study area, sampling design of household surveys, sources and tools of data collection tools and methodology adopted for empirical analysis. It also deals with introduction to study area. This section deals with brief background of state, districts, block and surveyed villages. Chapter three will give insights from NSSO (64th

Round) data on context and drivers of male out-migration from rural UP. It also discusses in very brief historical overview of male migration from UP. Chapter four will analyze nature, patterns and determinants of male out-migration by analyzing field data of six sample villages. Socio-economic and demographic characteristics of migrant households have been discussed along with determinants of male out-migration from these villages across various social group and Jaunpur as whole. Chapter five will analyze NELM approach i.e. whether male migration from rural UP is risk/income diversification or accumulation or survival strategy. Chapter six will deal with the migration and related phenomena with migrant's perspective at destination. Socio-economic backgrounds of migrants have been analyzed at destination, considering migrants from same households surveyed in origin at their respective destination. To have better understanding of nature of migration from migrant's point of view, occupational and social group analysis have been done as occupation engaged and social group depicts lot about nature and patterns of migration in rural UP. Chapter seven is summary and conclusion.

Chapter 2

Research Methodology, Database and Area of the Study

2.1 Introduction

The research design is an overall plan of study for finding answers to the research questions guiding and motivating the research. Hungler and Polit (1999) explain research design as a blueprint, or outline, for conducting the research in such a way that maximum control will be exerted over variables that could interfere with the validity of results of the study. Burns and Grove (2001) state that designing a study assist researchers in planning and implementing the research in a way that will help to get the anticipated results. This chapter will provide rationale for selection of study area. It will give an overview of the methodology of the research, including the sampling design of household surveys, data collection instrument, sources and methodology of empirical analysis. It will also give brief introduction to study area. Brief profile of district and sample villages has been given. The study employs case study method, primarily involving data collected through household surveys of 370 households at origin and 75 migrants from the same households at their respective destination. In this study migrant household is defined as a household with at least one male out-migrant above age 15.

The chapter is further categorized in nine sections. First section deals with Introduction; second section deals with rationale behind selection of study area (State, region and district), third section deals with sampling design of household surveys, fourth section mentions sources of data, section five deals with data collection tools, section six deals with problems faced in field while conducting survey at origin and destination, section seven deals with methodology adopted, section eight deals with introduction to study area (district and villages) and section nine is concluding remark.

2.2 Rationale behind Selection of Study Area (State, Region and District)

Every research work grounded on field initiates with selection of study area. The study area is most pivotal thing in research based on primary data. The process of choosing the study area initiates with review of existing literature on particular subject and available secondary data. The rationale behind selecting UP as an area of study is that from migration overview at all India level (see table 1.2), UP is among leading states of male out-migration followed by Bihar among all states in India. Net out-migration rate is also very high in UP, showing maximum number of persons are migrating out, than

migrating in the state (table 1.1). Share of rural out-migrants is very high in comparison to urban out-migrants (table 1.2) thus, rural out-migration has been considered for the study. While doing preliminary analysis of NSSO data, it was also found that male out-migration is highest from Eastern region of UP thus, Eastern region have been selected for study (Appendix 1).

After narrowing down state, UP and then Eastern region, next stage of sampling involved narrowing down geographical focus to single district in UP. In selection of district for further study, ranks of all 70 districts on the basis of number of male out-migrants have been calculated to find leading districts with highest rural male out-migration. District wise rate of male out-migration was also calculated. NSSO definition of out-migrants[13] has been used while calculating the rank of districts. NSSO data on UP reveals that Eastern part of UP i.e. 15-district out of 70 districts in rural UP accounts for almost 50 percent of male out-migration and southern regions shows lowest male out-migration (Appendix 1). Eastern UP consists of 27 districts from which Jaunpur district has been chosen for the study. Azamgarh is leading district with highest number of male out-migration followed by Jaunpur in rural male out-migration. Data collection in Azamgarh was a bit difficult because of many personal, social and political reasons thus, Jaunpur has been selected for current research. Moreover the percentage difference in total male out-migrants from Azamgarh and Jaunpur is merely of one percent. Jaunpur also rank first in terms of sex ratio (1,024), in all districts of UP, which is higher than state average i.e. 912 females for thousand male as per census 2011. Higher sex ratio can be indicator of high male out-migration. As literature and NSSO data shows that female migration is mostly for marriage purpose, only male out-migration has been considered for the study.

2.3 Sampling Design for Household Surveys

2.3.1 Selection of Block and Villages

Jaunpur district is administratively divided into 6 tehsils and further divided into 21 blocks. As per Census 2011, there are 1514-gram panchayats and 3381 revenue villages in which 658449 households resides. Given the time constraint, finance limit and scope of this research, covering this huge geography, as a whole was obviously not possible and therefore sampling strategy was used that allowed the main objectives of

[13] Any former member of a household who left the household, any time in the past, for stay outside the village/ town is considered as out-migrant provided he/ she is alive on the date of survey.

this study to be fulfilled. The study focuses on rural households, thus multi stage sampling procedure was adopted to select the household sample. Out of twenty-one blocks in Jaunpur, three blocks were randomly selected. From each block two villages (within the range of ten kilometers) have been selected, again with simple random techniques. The name of the selected block is Dhobi, Shahgnaj/Sodhi and Jalapur. The names of randomly selected villages are Chitko, Jarasi, Rampur Soiri, Asbaranpur, Yonouspur and Manecha. Moreover Jaunpur is homogenous district as far as geographical and physical features are concerned. Therefore simple random sampling will be most apt for the study.

2.3.2 Selection of Households

Census 2011 provides information on number of households in each village. Census house listings have been used in the current study for surveyed villages. As already stated multi-stage sampling method have been employed in the selection of the district as universe, blocks as stratum, village panchayats as primary unit and number of households as an ultimate unit. With six villages selected randomly, the last stage was to select the households. Sample size was restricted to 15 percent of total number of households in each village. Total sample size came up according to above-mentioned criterion was 370 households. There are 255 households in Chitko, 420 in Jarasi, 636 in Rampur Soiri, 448 in Asbaranpur, 509 in Manecha and 173 in Yonouspur. To maintain the number of households irrespective of total number of village households, fifteen percent of households from each village irrespective whether it is large or small village, was selected for survey i.e. 38,63, 95, 66, 76 and 32 from Chitko, Jarasi, Rampur Soiri, Asbaranpur, Manecha and Yonouspur respectively.

Table 2.1 Lists of Sample Villages in Jaunpur District

S.No	Block	Village Name	Total No. of Households in each Village as per Census 2011	Fifteen percent of Total Households in Village
1	Dhobi	1.Chitkon	255	38
		2.Jarasi	420	63
2	Jalalpur	3.Rampur Soiri	636	95
		4.Asbarnpur	448	66
3	Shahganj/ Sodhi	5.Manehcha	509	76
		6.Younouspur	173	32
Total	3	6	2441	370

Source: Primary Census Abstract, District Census Handbook of Jaunpur, Uttar Pradesh, 2011.

In villages of UP settlement pattern are often based on caste/social groups i.e. members of same caste or social affiliation tend to live in proximity to each other. Though things have changed over time because of huge population pressure on land but caste and social affiliation based settlements are still prominently visible in rural UP. Locally, sample villages are divided in various strata according to their caste and occupation. Various clusters of household of same caste and occupation in local language are called Pura's. Panditan, Thakuran, Bhoomihar, Lohran, Chamraut, kewat,Teli, Ahiran, Musahar, Bharuti etc are various clusters based on caste affiliation. Chitko village for example is divided in two parts Choti (Small) Chitkon and Badi (Large) Chitko. Choti Chitkon is segment where all SC population lives together and is quite cut off from the village, whereas Badi Chitkon is place where all upper caste population such as Pandit and Thakur resides. Another distinct feature of villages selected for study are that the households belonging to lower caste groups were found to be on village margins that are quite cut off from the village. Caste based segments in sample villages and their tentative proportion in total population has been analyzed with the help of Gram Panchayats and other key informants in each randomly selected sample village. A key-informant refers to any person who can provide useful information about the community under investigation. In present study Gram Panchayat (Pradhan) have been chosen, as they are assigned with responsibility of monitoring village level social and economic development programmes and thus, maintaining records about the socio-economic conditions of all the members of the village. Unstructured open-ended interview was conducted on Pradhan, including Gram Panchayat presidents in each village to have better understanding of resident households in village. Key informant method has been employed extensively to understand the locations and major caste and occupation based segments in village. Gram Panchayats were asked about the tentative percentage of each segment of caste based groups in village. Information regarding socio-economic background of the villages has been inquired from Pradhans. Table 2.2 shows the hierarchal order of share of migrants in villages. The list of households in each sample village on the basis of social group (caste) in local language *Pura's* with the help of Gram Pradhan and other members of the village was prepared. After house listing was done fifteen percent of households from each village have been selected. Fifteen percent of households from total number of households in each village have been proportionately distributed in various *Puras's* i.e. social groups to get maximum representation.

Table 2.2 - Tentative Hierarchy of Caste based segments in Sample Villages (in decreasing order)

Hierarchy of Caste across villages (as per mentioned by Gram Panchayats)					
Chitko	**Jarasi**	**Rampur Soiri**	**Asbaranpur**	**Manecha**	**Yonouspur**
Thakur (Upper Caste)	Chamar/Pasi /Dom (SC)	Ahir /Lohar/ Bhar (OBC)	Bhoomihar (Upper Caste)	Kewat /Rajbhar (OBC)	Chamar/Pasi/ Dome/ Musahar (SC)
Rajbhar/ Loharan/ Kewat (OBC)	Ahir /Rajbhar (OBC)	Pandit/ Bangawat (Upper Caste)	Pasi /Chamar (SC)	Chamar/Pasi (SC)	Kewat/ Rajbhar/ Lohar (OBC)
Chamar /Pasi/Dome/ Musahar(SC)	Thakur (Upper Caste)	Musahar/C hamar (SC)	Kewat /Rajbhar/Ahi r (OBC)	Thakur/Pandi t/Bhoomihar /Sheikhs (Upper Caste	Thakur/ Pandit/ Bhoomihar/ Sheikhs (Upper Caste)
No Muslims	Muslims (Very less)	No Muslim	No Muslim	Muslim Dominated	Muslim Dominated

Source-Own work.

Every third household was selected randomly from Chamraut i.e. pasi, chamar, dome, musahar (Schedule Caste segment), Ahiraan, Lohran , Kewat, Bharauti (OBC segment) and Panditaan , Bhoomihar and Thakuran (Upper caste) respectively on the basis of their tentative share of population in each village as mentioned by Gram Panchayats and other key informants till the required number of households i.e. fifteen percent of total households has been attained irrespective of their migration status. Village segments listed with help of Gram Panchayats made sampling easy for the study and made it more unbiased and representative but there was no official count on the number of households in the segments. This hierarchy or share of each caste/social groups based segments in total population of village was best guess estimate which have been attained based on the conversations with Gram panchayats, their representative and senior villagers who are well versed with village geography and social division.

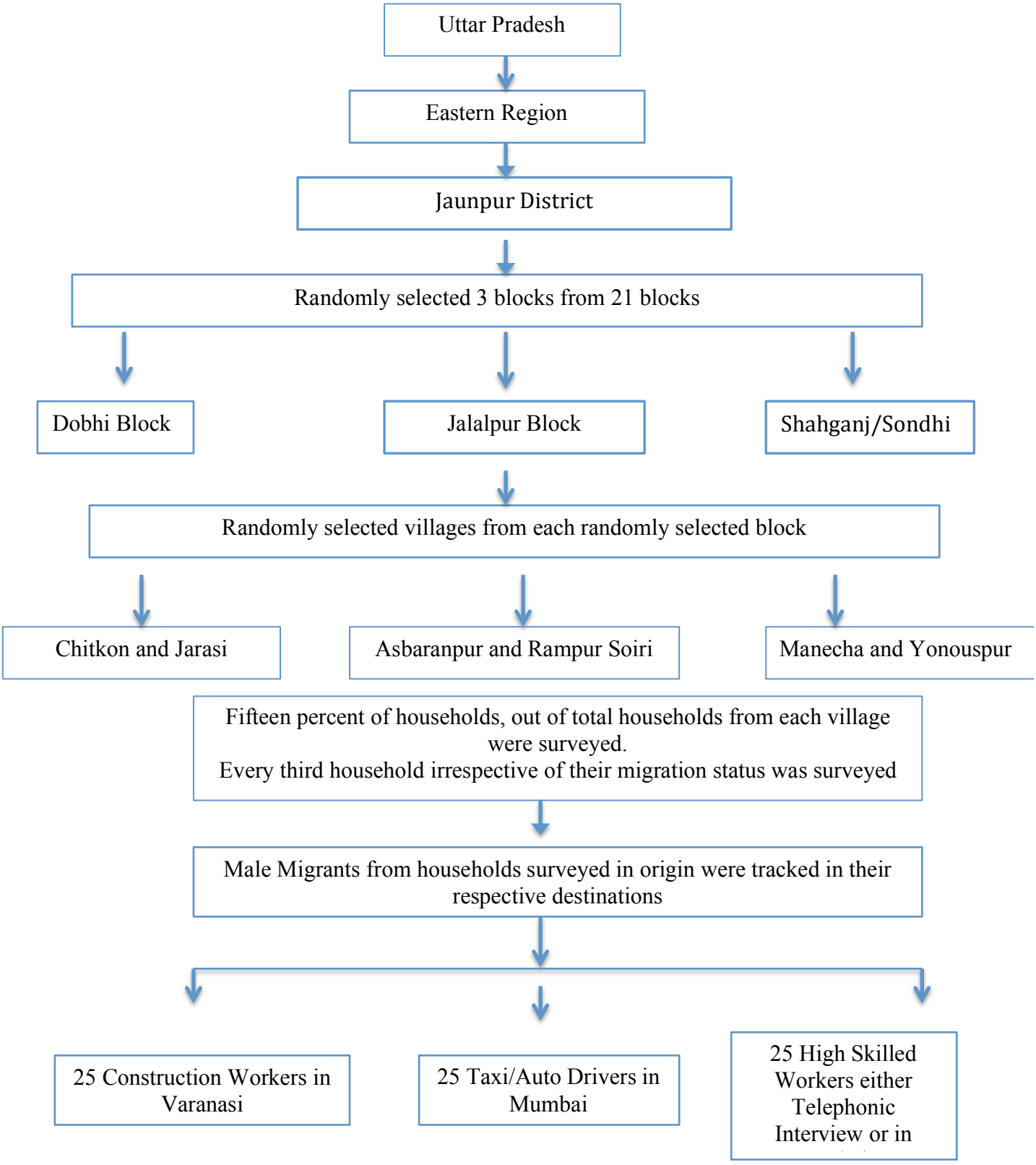
2.3.3 Sample selection of Migrants at Destination

Though the main focus of the study is households in origin i.e. villages, but an attempt has also been made to understand the migrant's perspectives and experiences in their respective destination areas. This was undertaken as follows: Upon the completion of surveys in origin, village survey participants were informed about the second round of survey of interviews of migrants at their respective destination and were requested

whether they would be willing to share the contact details of male migrant members from their family. Majority of the household responded positively and in favor of researcher. Households willingly shared the contact details of the migrants though they left the decision to take part in the interviews on migrants itself.

These out-migrant members of the surveyed households of sample villages in origin were contacted on phone. Some of them provided their exact address and willingly agreed to take part in survey, some of them agreed to get it done personally at their working sites and few did not agree to be part of the survey. After doing preliminary analysis of occupation details in origin, for further analysis three category of occupation of out–migrants were made i) construction workers, ii) taxi/auto drivers and iii) high skilled white-collar jobs to include migrants of all kind. From elementary telephonic conversation, it was found that most of the out-migrants who are employed in taxi/auto drivers are in Mumbai, those who are employed in construction workers are in Varanasi and skilled/high collar jobs are in various parts of India and abroad. Thus, on-site survey was done in Mumbai and Varanasi and for skilled/white collar out-migrants telephonic interview was conducted to meet the objectives of the study. 25 construction workers, 25 taxi/Auto drivers and 25 white-collar out-migrants were interviewed. Various construction sites in Varanasi such Rudra Estates, Chandpur, Mahavir Heights, Lahartara have been surveyed in order to meet desired objectives. 25 construction workers were traced from sample villages. For taxi/auto drivers the study undertakes a primary survey of 25 auto rickshaw and taxi drivers at Andheri, Khar East, Chembur Deonar and Jogeshwari in Mumbai. The village level household questionnaires were surveyed on migrants at destination with few more questions included in it. Figure 2.1 shows the sampling design for the study.

Figure 2.1 Sampling Design for the Study



2.4 Sources of Data

The data has been gathered from both primary and secondary sources. The nature of data is both quantitative and qualitative. The study is primarily based on primary data collected from sample households and their respective migrants with the help of structured interview schedules.

2.4.1 Secondary Sources

The secondary data has been obtained from various sources. NSSO 64th round (2007-08) given by (NSSO) has been used. This particular round of NSS includes a schedule (10.2) on employment-unemployment and migration, which provides information on migration, out-migration as well as other demographic and socio-economic particulars from all the states. District Census Handbook of Jaunpur, Census of India 2001, 2011, Statistical Abstract of UP, UP World Development report and Town and Village directory are other secondary sources of the study.

Limitations of Secondary Source of Data

NSSO and other mentioned data are vast source of information. Various information have been given in NSSO regarding out-migration from UP. Despite of this, various information required for the study is not there in any secondary data sources. To meet the objectives of the study more detailed information is required from the households and migrants. There is no information about landless households, no information on access to credit on sample villages, role of social networks in migration, migration as ex-ante or ex-post strategy etc. in NSSO data. Thus, in order to meet the objectives and get insights from field, a detailed household survey through structured questionnaire was conducted in six selected sample villages in Jaunpur district and in respective destination of migrants.

2.4.2 Primary Source

As mentioned earlier, to meet the research objectives, a household survey was designed and carried out during April-July 2016. The selected areas for origin are Jaunpur district and for destination is Varanasi and Mumbai. The focus of the survey was to gather information on profile and character of male migrants. Other major thrust area of questionnaire is to look more deeply into whether migration is risk diversification strategy or not for rural households in Eastern UP. Questions have also been framed and asked to understand experiences and perspectives of migrants at respective destinations from rural UP. Access to credit and remittances and its uses are another major part of questionnaire.

2.5 Data Collection Tools

Data collection tools refer to devices used to gather data such as questionnaires, tests, and structured interview schedules etc. In order to collect primary data, a well-designed pre tested questionnaire was used. Before the main survey, a pre-tested schedule was administered tentatively to 20 households[14] in order to test the validity of schedule. All 20 households managed to fill the questionnaire in 30-45 minutes. Households encountered no major problems during completion of questionnaire. This pre-tested schedule helped in removal of unwarranted and irrelevant questions. Suitable crosschecks and rechecks were carried out to minimize bias in the response of respondents. Direct personal interview method was adopted to collect the data appertaining to the socio-economic status, factors, remittances, social network, credit constraint and other overall objectives pertaining to the study. In schedule drafted for current study, part 1-part 6 have been conducted on households at origin and same questionnaire with some extra set of questions have been conducted on migrants. The field survey was conducted during April 2016-July 2016. In most of the cases the head of the households were interviewed. In the case where head is unavailable because of any reason, other members who were above 18 and have acquaintance of household were interviewed. Other research methods used for study were key informant unstructured interviews and focused group discussion with members of Gram Panchayats, Pradhan and other senior and elderly residents of villages who were deemed to posses awareness on village affairs.

2.6 Problems faced in the Field

Problems faced while conducting survey was, interview schedule being lengthy. So, sometimes it took so long to get survey done as while answering innocent villagers kept reciting their stories and experiences throughout the questionnaire. To avoid fatigue investigator tactfully kept switching on some attention-grabbing topics concerning their private life, in order to fill schedule completely. Another major problem while conducting field survey was over response. An issue that, investigator frequently encountered while conducting the survey was that although the researcher has decided to conduct survey on 15 percent of total number of households in each villages, more than this given number of households in the sample villages shown their desire to participate in the survey. This evident tendency was due to perception among the innocent people of

[14] A group of person who normally lived together and had food from common kitchen (NSSO).

rural households that the surveyors are government official and surveyed families will later be rewarded with some or other government welfare benefits. This was dangerous perception with implications for quality of data. However, it was clarified to the households that survey is purely for academic purposes with no link to government benefits whatsoever.

In cities at destination, tracking the migrants for the interviews proved to be a difficult and tiring task. Many of the out-migrants from sample households agreed to be interviewed on the first call but later could not be contacted or refused to take part. Secondly most of the out-migrants specially construction and taxi drivers worked long hours all seven days a week in Mumbai and Varanasi thus researcher had difficulties scheduling interviews with them. Various other severe difficulties arose in tracing the migrants for interviews at their work place at destination in case of construction and auto/taxi drivers. Firstly, many migrants with whom we had spoken earlier could not be reached again because of their disinterest in participating in interview, mismatch in timing of migrants and researchers timings. They usually get free by late evening and in area these construction workers and taxi/drivers reside are not considered to be safe for girls in late evenings. Another major issue was Mumbai is very big city so travelling form one place to another part for Mumbai to get survey done was another cumbersome and tedious task.

2.7 Research Methodology

As previously discussed in chapter 1 as well, caste is the most important unit of social affiliation in rural UP, as villages are divided into small segments based on their caste affiliation. The analysis has been done for Jaunpur as whole including six sample villages and across various social groups. STATA and SPSS statistical packages have been used for empirical analysis and tabulation and cross tabulation

2.7.1 Simple frequency tables, cross tabulations, bar diagram and pie chart have been used to analyze and study magnitude, pattern and characteristics of male out-migration from Rural UP using NSSO and field data. Descriptive analysis has been done. STATA and SPSS software packages have been used for study. ArcGIS software has been used for mapping.

2.7.2 Logistic Regression

In order to find out the determinants and probabilities of out-migration, and analyze whether migration is survival, risk diversification or accumulation strategy in

rural UP binary logistic regression model is used for Jaunpur as whole and across various social groups. In social sciences, this statistical model can be adopted to explain an event (dependent variable having two responses i.e. 'yes' or 'no') in terms of certain factors (independent or predictor variables or covariates). The dependent variable should be qualitative and dichotomous i.e. having only two responses.

The model can be mathematically represented as:

$$y = \ln\frac{p}{1-p} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \cdots + \beta_k X_k + e$$

Or,

$$p = \frac{1}{1 + (\exp - (\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \cdots + \beta_k X_k))} + e \quad \text{..... (i)}$$

where "**Y**" is the dependent variable; "**X**" represents the independent variables having '**k**' covariates in the model.; "**p**" means the probability of occurrence of the event, **Y**(0,1) and "**e**" are the residuals. In our case, the dependent variable **Y** (0,1) has exactly two responses i.e. whether male from rural UP will out-migrate (1) or not (0).The following covariates have been taken into account, for determinants of male out migration from Jaunpur viz. head of the household, religion, social group, household size, number of adult males between 15-50, household head educational attainment, total land possessed, total monthly income with and without remittances, total monthly expenditure with and without remittances. For analyzing whether migration is risk diversification strategy or not in rural UP following covariates have been used viz. primary source of income, villages, wealth score, social group, income sufficiency, crop insurance, source of credit, easy access to credit, total monthly household income with and without remittances and total land possessed.

2.7.3 Factor Analysis

Using the primary survey, relationship between household wealth status and migrant status of household has been estimated. One of the major ways to measure and compare standard of life of any households is through monetary income. However, collecting information on exact and accurate income is very tough and demanding task (Montgomery et al.2000), requiring extensive resources for household surveys. Income and expenditures often show short term volatility and various forms of income which are not in cash rather are in kind such as crops which are traded and exchanged, and

measuring accurate income can be tough for the self or transitory employed (e.g. agricultural work), due to accounting issues and seasonality involved (McKenzie, 2005). Another major issue faced while considering income as source of comparing living standards of household is that many people will not report their income truthfully during survey settings as they may feel bad and embarrassed in reporting the exact amount of income they receive in given time period. For above-mentioned reasons use of other ways of measuring living standard is very common in low and middle-income and developing countries. The wealth index is based on set of household characteristics and asset ownership and was explicitly designed to overcome recognized challenge in measuring income (Filmer and Pritchet, 2001).

Asset index have been taken as proxy to income to derive wealth status of sample households in rural UP. Wealth index represent living standard of household in better terms as they capture long-term wealth and it's comparatively easy to collect more accurate data on household's assets than monetary income (Rutstein and Johnston, 2004). As there is no single asset that can reveal households standard of living thus wealth index or asset index is formulated. Wealth index is based on set of household characteristics and asset ownership and overcome the problems associated with measuring income (Filmer and Pritchett, 2001). Wealth quintiles are relative measure of how wealth is distributed within the population from which quintiles were calculated. It is an easy way of measuring relative poverty. The major problem of wealth index is that it fails to account short term or temporary fluctuations and shocks to households and is more representative of long-term wealth or living standard of households (Filmer and Pretchett, 2001). Therefore, if the objective of the study is on current resources then an index based on assets may not be appropriate measure.

Asset/Wealth index have been created to comparatively analyze migrant and non-migrant households in rural households in UP and across various social groups and also wealth status of households within group have been analyzed. There are two major models known as common factor and principal component analysis used. Extraction method selection depends upon the objective of the study. PCA is used when aim of the study is to summarize most of the original information (i.e. variance) in a minimum number of factors. Moreover PCA determines the relative importance to each variable seeking to summarize a set of variables (De Vellis 2012). Whereas, common factor analysis identifies the factors that variables share in common.

Principal component analysis has been used in the study. PCA is a statistical technique used to reduce number of variables in dataset into smaller number of "dimensions". PCA creates one summary measure of wealth when applied to asset and households characteristics data (Vyas and Kumarankyake, 2006). In data, asset in survey variables are often correlated and complex in multiple dimensions. PCA is commonly employed to reduce those variables by assessing which variable behave in similar manner. Based on the variables and their relationships to each other, PCA creates new set of variables, each called principal component. The first principal component accounts for the largest possible variance across the specified variables. The second principal component is not linearly correlated to the first principal component and accounts for as much of the remaining variance as possible. Every succeeding component accounts for as much of the remaining variance as possible and is not linearly correlated to any of the proceeding variables. First complement represents the relative wealth. Based on the first principal component each variable is given factor weight. The factor weight represents the relative importance of each variable to the constitution of first principal component. Once the PCA is done, factor weights for each variable have been extracted. Wealth index have been calculated and households have been separated into different quintiles based on their wealth index scores and range of wealth scores for each quintile have been analyzed (Vyas and Kumarankyake, 2006).

In mathematical terms from an initial set of n correlated variables, PCA creates uncorrelated indices or components, where each component is linear weighted combination of initial variables. For example from a set of variables

$PC_1 = a_{11}X_1 + a_{12}X_2 + \ldots\ldots\ a_{1n}X_n$

.

.

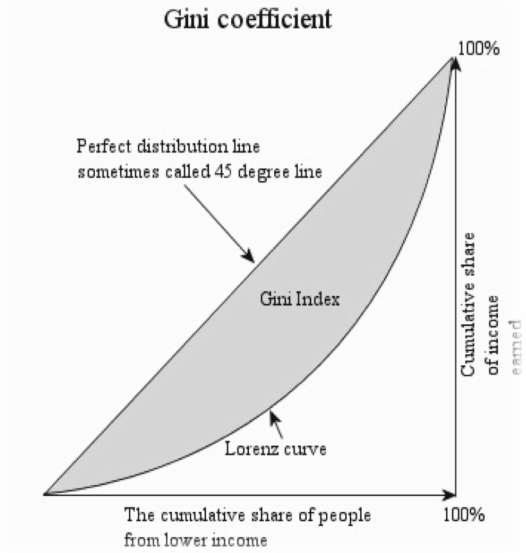
$PC_m = a_{m1}X_1 + a_{m2}X_2 + \ldots\ a_{mn}X_n$

Where a_{mn} represents the weight for the m^{th} principal component and n^{th} variable. The weight for each principal component are given by the eigen vectors of the correlation matrix or if the original data were standardized, the co-variance matrix. The variance (λ) for each principal component is given by the Eigen value of the corresponding Eigen vector. The components are ordered so that the first component (PC_1) explains the largest possible amount of variation in the original data set, subject to constraint that the sum of the squared weights ($a^2_{11} + a^2_{12} + \ldots\ a^2_{1n)}$ is equal to one. As the sum of eigen values

equals the number of variables in initial data sets, the proportion of the total variation in original data set accounted by each principal component is given by λ_i/n. The second component (PC_2) is completely uncorrelated with the first component and explains additional but less variation than first component, subject to same constraint. Subsequent components are uncorrelated with previous components; therefore each component captures an additional dimension in the data, while explaining smaller and smaller proportions of the variation of the original variables. Variables used in constructing Asset/Wealth Index are: Radio, TV, Mobile, Refrigerator, Bicycle, Car/Jeep/Personal Four wheeler, Motorcycle, AC/Cooler, Tractor, Gas Stove, Agricultural Machinery, Electricity, Drinking water, Public sewage, Toilet, LPG, Cow, Buffalo, Goats, Pucca House.

2.7.4 Gini Coefficient and Lorenz Curve

Lorenz curves are widely used in inequality research. Gini coefficient is a measure of inequality of distribution. It is defined as a ratio of the areas on the Lorenz curve.



Gini coefficient is defined as A/(A+B), where area under line of perfect inequality and above Lorenz curve is A and area under Lorenz curve is B. As A+B =0.5, gini coefficient, G=2A=1-2B. Lorenz curve for the current study has been estimated as proposed by Jann (2016).[15]

[15] Jann, B., 2016. Estimating Lorenz and concentration curves in STATA. Tech. rep., University of Bern, Department of Social Sciences.

2.8 Introduction to Study Area

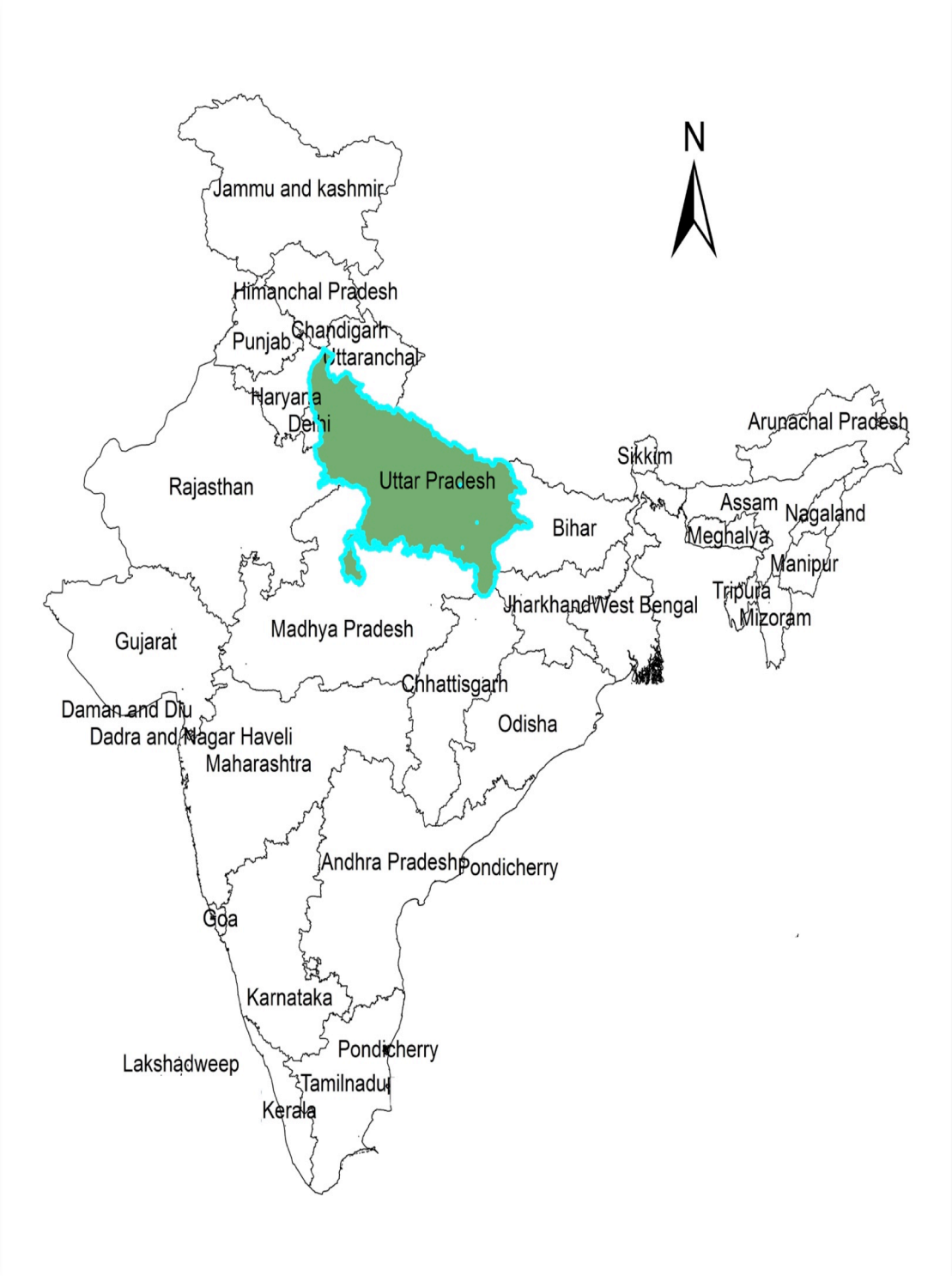
Rural out migration is an outcome of many factors at origin and destination such as level of employment and poverty, land settlements, agriculture growth, irrigation status, level of development, climate conditions and history and prevalence of migration etc. This section gives an overview of area under study. The area of the study consists of the State of UP in general and the Jaunpur district in particular. In previous section 2.2 rationale behind selection of UP and Jaunpur have been explained. The section is divided into five sub-sections. First section will give brief overview of Uttar Pradesh, second section gives brief profile of Jaunpur district, third section deals with introduction of three blocks randomly selected, fourth section will be focusing on six sample villages and fifth section will be concluding remarks.

2.8.1 An Overview of Uttar Pradesh[16]

Uttar Pradesh was created on 1 April 1937 as the United Provinces during British rule, and was renamed Uttar Pradesh in 1950. The capital of Uttar Pradesh is Lucknow. Uttar Pradesh is northern part of India. Below is the map 3.1 of location of UP in India. The population of the state was about 200 million as per census of 2011, which accounted for 16.49 percent of the total population of India. The state is divided into 4 divisions, namely. Western (30 districts), Eastern (28 districts), Central (10 districts) and Bundelkhand (7 districts). At present as per census 2011, state of UP have 75 districts, 327 tehsils, 822 blocks and 107452 revenue villages. The state is also dividend into 9 agro climatic zones, 1. Tarai Region, 2. Western Plain Region, 3. Central Western Region, 4. South Western Region,5. Central Plain Region, 6. Bundelkhand Region, 7. North Eastern Plain Region, 8. Eastern Plain Region, 9 Vindhyachal Region.

[16] Note: This section is primarily from Udyog Bandhu, UP, Census, 2011, Statistical Abstract of UP.

Map 2.1 Location of Uttar Pradesh in India



Source: Own Work

Table 2.3 mentions some statistical details of UP. UP is the most populous State in India.

Table 2.3 - Statistics of Uttar Pradesh

Statistics of Uttar Pradesh	
Area	2,40,928 Square Km
Population (As per census 2011 provisional data)	19,95,81,477
(a) Males (As per census 2011)	10,45,96,415
(b) Females (As per census)	9,49,85,062
Decennial growth rate (2001-2011) (As per census 2011)	20.09 Percent
Sex ratio (As per census 2011)	908 per thousand
Density (Persons per sq. km.) (As per census 2011)	828 per thousand
Child population (0-6 Years) (as per census 2011)	2,97,28,235
Child Sex Ratio (0-6 Years) (as per census 2011)	899 per thousand
Total literacy rate-Persons	69.72 percent
(a) Male literacy	79.24 percent
(b) Female literacy	59.26 percent
Districts	75
Cities & towns	689
Development blocks	820
Nagar nigam	12
Principal crops	Paddy,wheat,barley,millet,maize,urad(black gram),moog(Green gram),arhar etc.
Principal fruits	Mango,guava
Principal minerals	Lime stone,dolomite,soap stone,gypsum,bauxite,glass-sand,manganese,non-plastic fire clay etc
Principal handicrafts	chikan-work,embroidery,wood work,wooden toys and furniture,clay - toys,carpet weaving,silk & brassware work
Principal rivers	Ganga,Yamuna,Gomti,Ram ganga,ghagra,Betwa,Ken
Tourist & historical places	Piparhava,Kaushambi,shravasti,Sarnath(Varanasi),Kushinagar, Chitrakoot,Lucknow,Agra,Jhansi,Meerut,Varanasi, Rae bareilly,Ballia,Gorakhpur,Chauri Chaura(Gorakhpur),Allahabad,Badayun,Mathura,Jaunpur,Muzzafarnagar,Shahjahanpur etc.

Source: Statistical Department U.P. & Directorate Census, Lucknow

One sixth of the world's population lives in India and one–sixth of India's population lives in UP. Only four other countries of the world namely China, USA, Indonesia and Brazil have a population higher than that of Uttar Pradesh.

Table – 2.4 Lists of Districts in Different Economic Regions of Uttar Pradesh

Region	Districts
Western Region	Agra, Mainpuri, Firozabad, Aligarh, Kanshiramnagar, Bareilly, Badaun, Bulandshahar, Etah, Etawah, Farrukhabad, Mathura, Meerut, Ghaziabad, Muradabad, Pilibhit, Rampur, Muzaffarnagar, Saharanpur, Bijnor, Shahjhanpur, Begpath, Gautam Buddha Nagar, Hathras, J.B. Nagar, Kannauj, Auriya.
Central Region	Barabanki, Fatehpur, Hardoi, Kanpur Nagar, Kanpur Dehat, Khiri, Lucknow, Raibareilly, Sitapur, Unnao.
Eastern Region	Allahabad, Kaushambi, Azamgarh, Maunath Bhanjan, Ballia, Bahraich, Basti. Siddharthnagar, Deoria, Faizabad, Ghazipur, Gonda, Gorakhpur, Mahrajganj, Jaunpur, Mirzapur, Sonbhadra, Pratapgarh, Sultanpur. Varanasi, Balrampur. Shravasti, Chandauli, Sant Ravidas Nagar, Kushinagar, Sant Kabir Nagar, Ambedkarnagar.
Bundelkhand Region	Jhansi, Jalaun, Hamirpur, Mahoba, Banda, Chitrakut, Lalitpur.

Source: Statistical Department U.P. & Directorate Census, Lucknow

UP is comprised of 75 administrative districts, which are grouped into 18 divisions. Table 2.4 shows districts in various regions. 18 divisions of UP are Agra Division, Allahabad Division, Azamgarh Division, Bareilly Division, Basti Division, Chitrakoot Division, Devipatan Division, Faizabad Division, Gorakhpur Division, Jhansi Division, Kanpur Division, Lucknow Division, Meerut Division, Moradabad Division, Saharanpur Division, Varanasi Division. There are 75 districts in Uttar Pradesh out of which Jaunpur has been selected.

Map 2.2 Districts of Uttar Pradesh and Jaunpur (Highlighted)

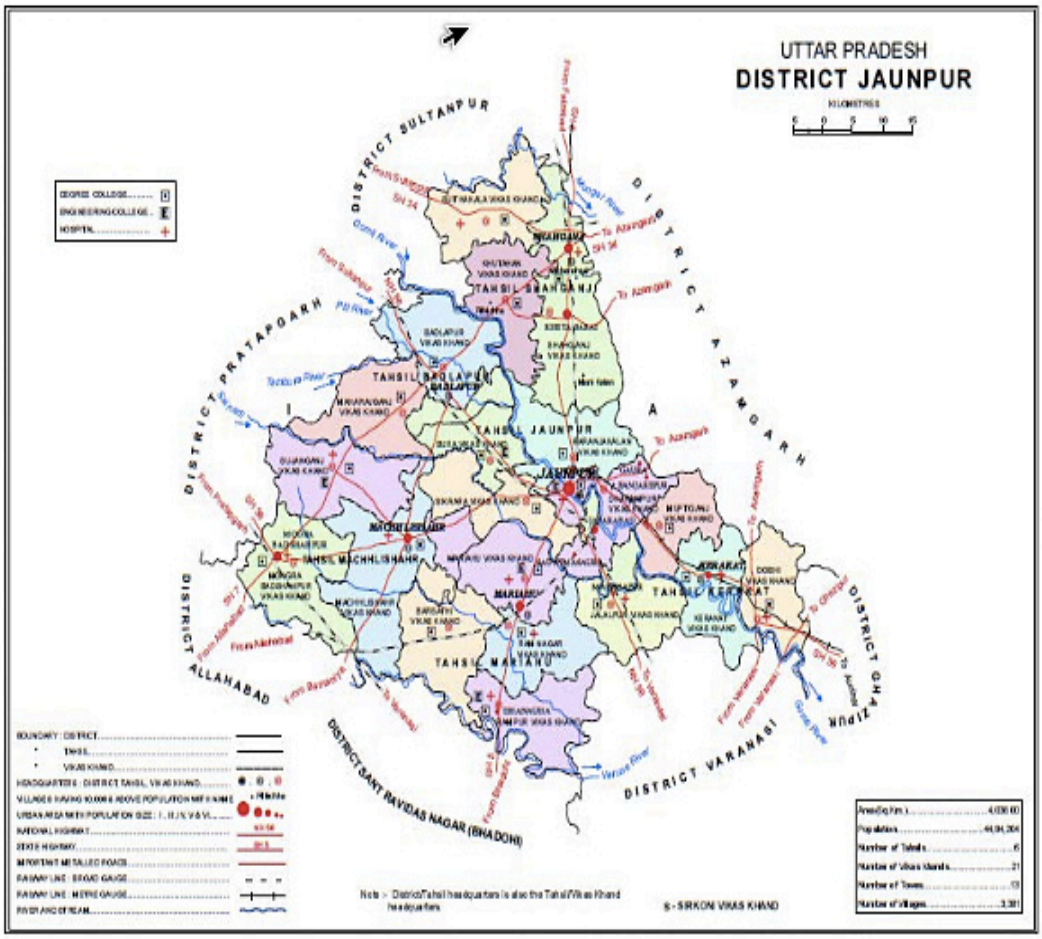
Source: Own Work

2.8.2 Brief Profile of Jaunpur District

Jaunpur district falls in the Varanasi division of UP. It is situated in northwestern portion of Varanasi division. As per Census 2011, Jaunpur has been divided into 6 Tehsils (sub divisions) and 21 development blocks. Names of six tehsils are Jaunpur, Shahganj, Machhlishahar, Mariahu, Kerakat and Badlapur. To implement various developmental schemes and proper monitoring it has been further divided in 21 development blocks namely, Sondhi (Shahganj), Suithakala, Khutahan, Karanja Kala,

Badlapur ,Maharajganj ,Sujanganj ,Baksha ,Mungrabadshahpur, Machhalishahar ,Madiyahun ,Barsathi ,Rampur ,Ramnagar ,Jalalpur, Kerakat,Dobhi, ,Muftiganj ,Dharmapur ,Sikrara and Sirkoni. As per Census 2011, total area of the district is 4038.0 Sq. Km. The rural area covers 3977.7 Sq. Km. and urban recorded 60.3 Sq. Km. There are 1514 gram panchayats and 3381 revenue villages with 3287 inhabited villages and 94 uninhabited villages. In urban area there are 08 statutory towns and 05 census towns. Statutory towns comprises of 03 Nagar Palika Parishad and 05 nagar panchayats. In 2006 the ministry of Panchayati raj named Jaunpur as one of the country's 250 most backward districts. Map 3.3 shows district map of Jaunpur.

Map 2.3 District Map of Jaunpur

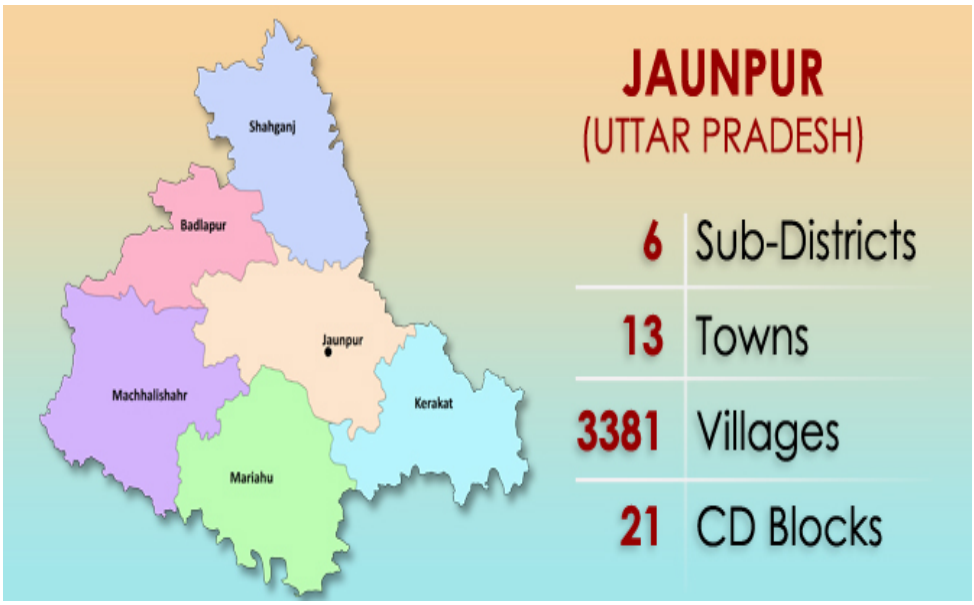


Source: District Census Handbook of Jaunpur

It is one of the districts in Uttar Pradesh receiving funds from the backward regions grant fund programme[17]. Map 2.4 shows Tehsils of Jaunpur district.

[17] Census, GoI Ministry of MSME report

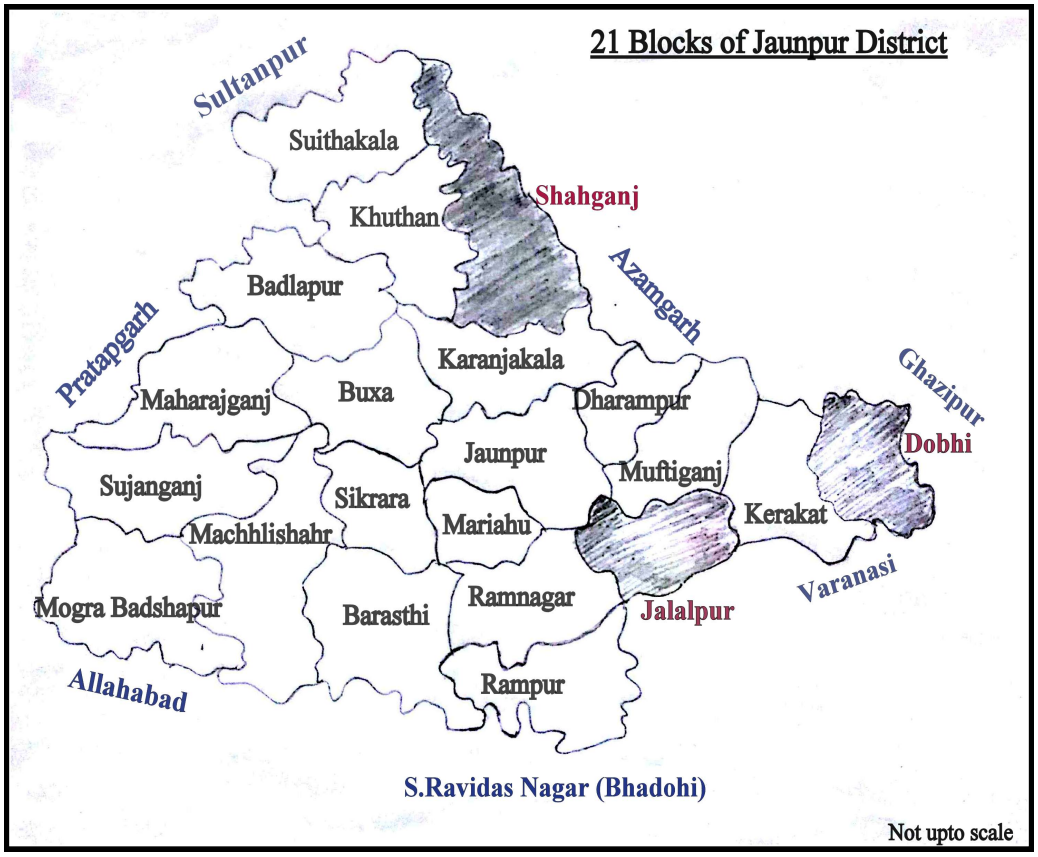
Map 2.4 Tehsil/Sub District of Jaunpur



Source: http://www.districtsofindia.com/uttarpradesh/statedistrict.asp

Map 2.5 shows map of 21 blocks of Jaunpur district and highlights randomly selected blocks.

Map 2.5 Map of Blocks of Jaunpur District



Source: Own work

Demography[18]

District Jaunpur ranks seventh in terms of population in the state. The percentage share of urban population in the district is 7.7 percent against 22.3 percent of the population in urban areas of the state as per census 2011. The district has population density of 1,113 persons per square km. Jaunpur district ranks first in terms of sex ratio (1,024), which is higher than the state average of 912 females per thousand males. It can also be attributed to high male out-migration from region. There are 663,513 households in the district accounting for 2.0 percent of the total households in the state. The average size of households in Jaunpur is 6.8 persons. The population density is 1113 people per square km; the population of Jaunpur district grew 14.89 percent between 2001 and 2011. Literacy increased from 59.84 to 73.66 percent. In 2011, 86.06 percent of men were literate and 61.7 percent of women. Children under six years formed 14.37 percent of the population.

In 2011, Jaunpur had population of 4,494,204 of which male and female were 2,220,465 and 2,273,739 respectively. Jaunpur District population constituted 2.25 percent of total Maharashtra population in 2011 census. Maharashtra have only 18 percent interstate migrants within which 6 percent are from UP. In 2001 census, this figure for Jaunpur District was at 2.35 percent of Maharashtra population. Out of the total Jaunpur population for 2011 census, 7.71 percent lives in urban regions of district. In total 346,580 people lives in urban areas of which males are 179,248 and females are 167,332. Sex Ratio in urban region of Jaunpur district is 934 as per 2011 census data. Similarly child sex ratio in Jaunpur district was 911 in 2011 census. Child population (0-6) in urban region was 46,429 of which males and females were 24,301 and 22,128. This child population figure of Jaunpur district is 13.56 percent of total urban population. Average literacy rate in Jaunpur district as per census 2011 is 80.17 percent of which males and females are 85.96 percent and 73.99 percent literates respectively. In actual number 240,633 people are literate in urban region of which males and females are 133,196 and 107,437 respectively. As per 2011 census, 92.29 percent population of Jaunpur district ,live in rural areas of villages. The total Jaunpur district population living in rural areas is 4,147,624 of which males and females are 2,041,217 and 2,106,407 respectively. In rural areas of Jaunpur district, sex ratio is 1032 females per 1000 males. If child sex ratio data of Jaunpur district is considered, figure is 918 girls per 1000 boys.

[18] Profiling of Jaunpur district is primarily based on information provided by Census, 2011 and District Census Handbook of Jaunpur.

Child population in the age 0-6 is 629,787 in rural areas of which males were 328,260 and females were 301,527. The child population comprises 16.08 percent of total rural population of Jaunpur district. Literacy rate in rural areas of Jaunpur district is 70.81 percent as per census data 2011. Gender wise, male and female literacy stood at 83.61 and 58.67 percent respectively. In total, 2,491,044 people were literate of which males and females were 1,432,198 and 1,058,846 respectively. Religion wise 89 percent are Hindu, 11 percent are Muslims and Christians, Buddhist, Jain, Sikh are very negligible and falls under remaining percentage.

Location, Geography and topography:

The district of Jaunpur is situated in the Northwest part of Varanasi Division. The land area extends from 24.24^0 N to 26.2^0 N latitude and 82.7E and 83.50E longitude. As per census 2011 the geographical area of Jaunpur is 4038 square km. As depicted in map, the district is bounded by the Sultanpur, Azamgarh ,Ghazipur, Varanasi , Sant Kabir Nagar, Allahabad and Pratapgarh. The topography of Jaunpur is mainly a flat plain with shallow river-valleys. Main Rivers in Jaunpur are Gomti and Saj. Varuna, Basuhi, Pili. Mamur and Gangi are the smaller rivers here. Jaunpur district is often affected by the misfortune of floods during rainy seasons. The soil is mainly sandy and loamy. The district is extremely poor in mineral deposits. Limestones and Kankar are found at some places, which are burnt to make lime. The lime thus obtained is used in construction work. Jaunpur is mainly plain area and it is having only 99 hectares of forest cover. The temperature varies between about 4 °C (39 °F) and 44 °C (111 °F). The annual normal rainfall is 1,098 millimetres (43.2 in).

Economy and Agriculture [19]

The economy of Jaunpur district is largely agriculture based, where 87 percent of total population is small and marginal. The major reason of heavy reliance on agriculture and allied sector is lack of heavy industries in the district. Woolen durry and carpets are major export items. There is some economic development in Varanasi Jaunpur highway. A cotton mill is operational near Karanja Kala and there are some textile manufacturers. Other manufactured products include perfume (jasmine oil and attar) and incense, furniture, carpets, chemical fertilizer and cement. Tertiary and service industries include repair workshops, print shops and Internet cafes. Poor infrastructure is another major problem like many other districts of Eastern UP. The main crops of district are: rice,

[19] Source: GoI Ministry of MSME report of Jaunpur district and information provided by Gram Panchayats.

maize, pigeon pea, pearl millet, black gram, wheat and chickpea. Other crops are onion and potato and crops for fodder. Table 2.5 shows the distribution of operational holdings in Jaunpur district. 90 percent of population posses less than 1 hectare land, followed by 8 percent, 2 percent posses 1-2 and 2-4 hectares respectively.

Table 2.5: Distribution of Operational Holdings of Jaunpur District

Farm size	Operational Holdings (in 1000)	Percentage	Area Operated (in hectares)	Percentage
Upto 1 (Marginal Holdings)	591.8	89.6	194.1	61.1
1-2 (Small holdings)	48.7	7.4	65.1	20.5
2-4 (Semi medium holdings)	17.7	2.7	46.3	14.6
4-10 (Medium holdings)	2.2	0.3	11.7	3.6
Above 10 (Large Holdings)	0.05	0.07	0.6	0.2
Total	660.4	100	317.8	100

Source: GoI Ministry of MSME report.

Table 2.6 shows land use pattern in Jaunpur district. Table 2.7 shows net irrigated area and sources of irrigation. Major source of irrigation are tube well and wells in Jaunpur district. Table 2.8 shows workers and non-workers and table 2.9 shows category of workers in Jaunpur district. Table 2.8 shows that work participation rate is 32.4 percent in rural Jaunpur.

Table 2.6 Land use pattern in Jaunpur District in 2010-2011

Table: Land use pattern in Jaunpur district			
S. No.	**Item**	**Area (In Hectare)**	**Percentage**
	Reporting Area	**3,99,713**	**100**
1.1	Forest	264	0.06
1.2	Total land not available for cultivation	53,789	13.5
1.2.1	Land put to non-agricultural uses	47,052	11.8
1.2.2	Barren & uncultivable land	6,737	1.7
1.3	Culturable waste	7,807	2
1.4	Permanent pastures & grazing land	1,337	0.3
1.5	Land misc,trees,crops,grass etc.	4,586	1.1
1.6	Current fallow lands	33,038	8.3
1.7	Other fallow land	20,109	5
1.8	Net area sown	2,78,783	69.7
2	Area sown more than once	1,92,029	-
3	Gross own area	4,70,812	-

Source: Statistical Abstract Uttar Pradesh, 2014.

Table 2.7 Net Irrigated Area by different Sources in Uttar Pradesh

Jaunpur District	Canals	Tube wells and wells	Tanks and lakes	Other Sources	Total	Percentage of Net Irrigated area to net sown area
	64948	182996	0	0	247944	88.9

Source: Statistical Abstract of Uttar Pradesh, 2014.

Table 2.8 shows that work participation rate for total persons is 32.0 percent and for rural area it is 32 percent and for urban area it is 27.3 percent. Sex-wise work participation rate for rural male and female is 42.1 percent and 22.10 percent respectively. For urban male and female work participation rate is 43.6 percent and 9.7 percent respectively. Percentage of main workers in Jaunpur district is 62.4 percent with 61.1 percent for rural areas and 80.7 percent for urban areas respectively. Percentage of male workers is very high for male in comparison to females in both rural and urban area. 68 percent of total population is non-workers in Jaunpur district indicating high level of unemployment and huge population pressure. 57.9 percent of males and 77.9 percent of female out of total population are non- workers in Jaunpur district.67.6 percent of total population in rural Jaunpur and 72.7 percent of total population urban Jaunpur is in category of non-workers. In rural Jaunpur 58.1 percent of total population and 76.9 percent of female out of total population falls under category of non-workers.

Table 2.8 Workers and non-workers in Jaunpur District

Workers and Non-Workers in Jaunpur District						
Total Workers	**Absolute**			**Work Participation Rate**		
	Total	**Rural**	**Urban**	**Total**	**Rural**	**Urban**
Persons	14,37,375	13,42,850	94,525	32.00	32.40	27.30
Males	9,34,157	8,55,938	78,219	42.10	41.90	43.60
Females	5,03,218	4,86,912	16,306	22.10	23.10	9.70
Main Workers	**Absolute**			**Percentage to Total Workers**		
	Total	**Rural**	**Urban**	**Total**	**Rural**	**Urban**
Persons	8,96,547	8,20,254	76,293	62.40	61.10	80.70
Males	6,64,609	5,98,990	65,619	71.10	70.00	83.90
Females	2,31,938	2,21,264	10,674	46.10	45.40	65.50
Marginal Workers	**Absolute**			**Percentage to Total Workers**		
	Total	**Rural**	**Urban**	**Total**	**Rural**	**Urban**
Persons	5,40,828	5,22,596	18,232	37.60	38.90	19.30
Males	2,69,548	2,56,948	12,600	28.90	30.00	16.10
Females	2,71,280	2,65,648	5,632	53.90	54.00	34.50
Marginal Workers (3-6) months	**Absolute**			**Percentage to Total Marginal Workers**		
	Total	**Rural**	**Urban**	**Total**	**Rural**	**Urban**
Persons	4,15,084	4,00,075	15,009	76.70	76.60	82.30
Males	2,10,798	2,00,325	10,473	78.20	78.00	83.10
Females	2,04,286	1,99,750	4,536	75.30	75.20	80.50
Marginal Workers (Less than 3 months)	**Absolute**			**Percentage to Total Marginal Workers**		
	Total	**Rural**	**Urban**	**Total**	**Rural**	**Urban**
Persons	1,25,744	1,25,521	3,223	23.30	23.40	17.70
Males	58,750	56,623	2,127	21.80	22.00	16.90
Females	66,994	65,898	1,096	24.70	24.80	19.50
Non Workers	**Absolute**			**Percentage to Total Population**		
	Total	**Rural**	**Urban**	**Total**	**Rural**	**Urban**
Persons	30,56,829	28,04,774	2,52,055	68.00	67.60	72.70
Males	12,86,308	11,85,279	1,01,029	57.90	58.10	56.40
Females	17,70,521	16,19,495	1,51,026	77.90	76.90	90.30

Source: District Census Handbook of Jaunpur, 2011.

Table 2.9 shows that majority of persons are cultivators thus economy of Jaunpur district is primarily dependent on agriculture. 39.9 percent of total workers of Jaunpur are in cultivation business, in which 40.7 percent are males out of total male workers and

38.5 percent of total female are working in cultivation. Share of industry workers is very less in rural and urban Jaunpur indicating lack of industries in the district.

Table 2.9 Category of workers in Jaunpur district

Category of Workers (Main + Marginal) in Jaunpur District						
	Absolute			Percentage to total workers		
Total cultivators	**Total**	**Rural**	**Urban**	**Total**	**Rural**	**Urban**
Persons	5,40,762	5,35,991	4,771	37.60	39.90	5.00
Males	3,52,188	3,48,328	3,860	37.70	40.70	4.90
Females	1,88,574	1,87,663	911	37.50	38.50	5.60
Total Agricultural Laborers	**Absolute**			**Percentage to total workers**		
	Total	**Rural**	**Urban**	**Total**	**Rural**	**Urban**
Persons	4,36,792	4,28,802	7,990	30.40	31.90	8.50
Males	2,49,587	2,43,310	6,277	26.70	28.40	8.00
Females	1,87,205	1,85,492	1,713	37.20	38.10	10.50
Total Household Industry Workers	**Absolute**			**Percentage to total workers**		
	Total	**Rural**	**Urban**	**Total**	**Rural**	**Urban**
Persons	88,404	77,843	10,561	6.20	5.80	11.20
Males	53,520	46,367	7,153	5.70	5.40	9.10
Females	34,884	31,476	3,408	6.90	6.50	20.90
	Absolute			**Percentage to total workers**		
Total Other Workers	**Total**	**Rural**	**Urban**	**Total**	**Rural**	**Urban**
Persons	3,71,417	3,00,214	71,203	25.80	22.40	75.30
Males	2,78,862	2,17,933	60,929	29.90	25.50	77.90
Females	92,555	82,281	10,274	18.40	16.90	63.00

Source: District Census Handbook Jaunpur, 2011.

Table 2.10 shows educational institutions in Jaunpur district. Table shows that, there is one university, 94-degree colleges and 496 secondary schools in Jaunpur district.

Table 2.10 Educational Institutions by type in Jaunpur District

Jaunpur District	University	Degree College	Higher Secondary School	Upper Primary School	Primary School
	1	94	496	1531	3382

Source: District Census Handbook Jaunpur, 2011.

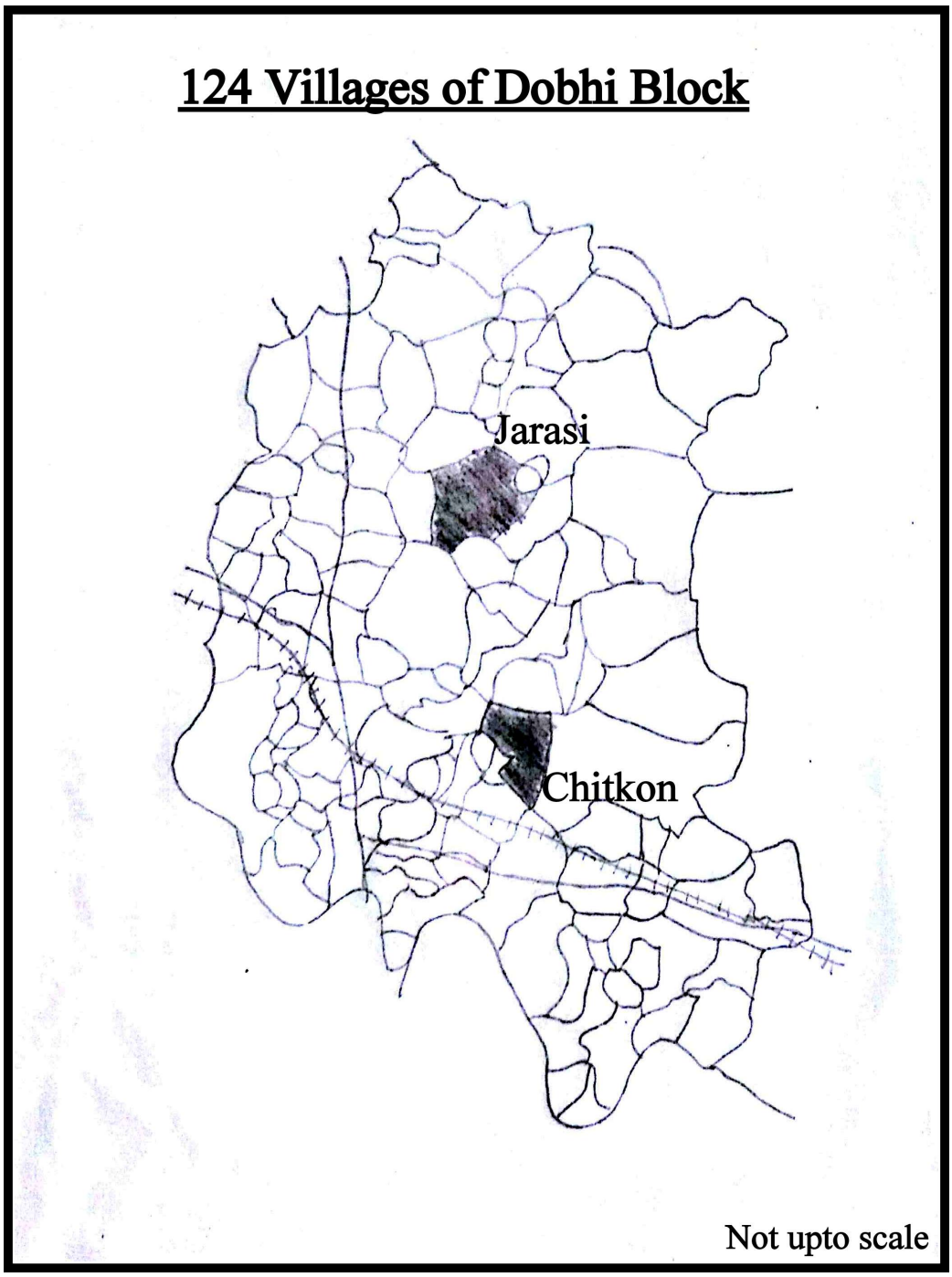
2.8.3. Brief profiling of blocks under study[20]

The study has been conducted in three randomly selected blocks out of 21 blocks in Jaunpur districts namely Dobhi, Jalalpur and Shahganj. This section will give a brief introduction to blocks and villages selected for study. Two villages within range of ten km randomly selected for the study in Dobhi block is Chitkon and Jarasi. As per census

[20] Major source of information for profiling of village are Village directory of Jaunpur district and census 2011.

2011 total geographical area of Dobhi block is 142.87 sq km. Total number of villages in Dobhi block is 124. Total population is 1,68,145 as per census 2011. Total number of households in Dobhi block is 26193. Map 2.6 shows two randomly selected villages in Dobhi block.

Map 2.6:Location of two sample villages Chitkon and Jarasi in Dhobi block

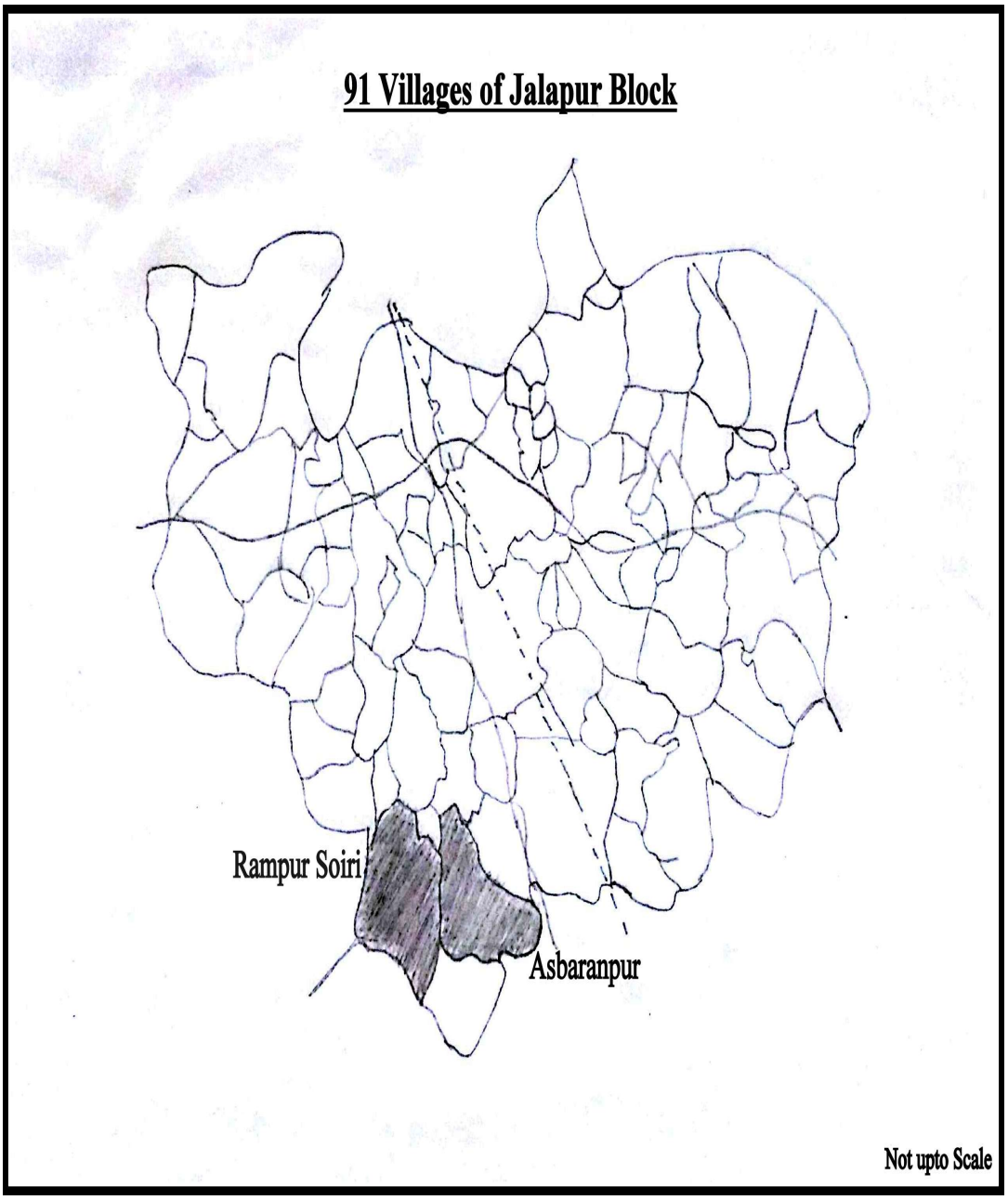


Source: Own Work

The sex ratio of Dhobhi block is 1031 as per census 2011. There are total 25,110 children in age bracket of 0-6 years, in which 13,179 are boys and 11,931 are girls. In Dhobi 27.7 percent of population out of total population is SC. Literacy rate in Dobhi block is 71.8 percent. Out of total population 164,804, 102,661 persons are literate and 65,484 persons are illiterate. 58,237 Males out of total 81,110 male are literate and 44,424 females out of total females 83,703 are literate as per census 2011. 24,540 males out f total males are illiterate and 40,944 females out of total female are illiterate. In Dobhi total land area in hectares is 14286.93. Percentage of cultivable area is 77.88 percent and 86.24 percent of total cultivable land is irrigated. In Dobhi block out of 168,145 persons, 29,226 (17.4 percent) persons are main workers, 22,258 (13.2 percent) of persons are marginal workers and 116661 (69.4 percent) persons are non-workers.

Jalalpur is another randomly selected block for study. It is situated in Kerakat tehsil of Jaunpur district. Two randomly selected villages within range of 10 kms are Asbaranpur and Rampur Soiri. Sex ratio of Jalalpur block is 1032. The block has 91 villages and there are total 25,712 houses in this Block. Population of Jalalpur block as per census 2011 is 170,084. Out of this, 838,20 are males whereas the females count 86,264 here. Map 2.7 highlights two-selected village in Jalalpur block.

Map 2.7 Location of two sample villages Asbaranpur and Rampur Soiri in Jalalpur block



Source: Own work

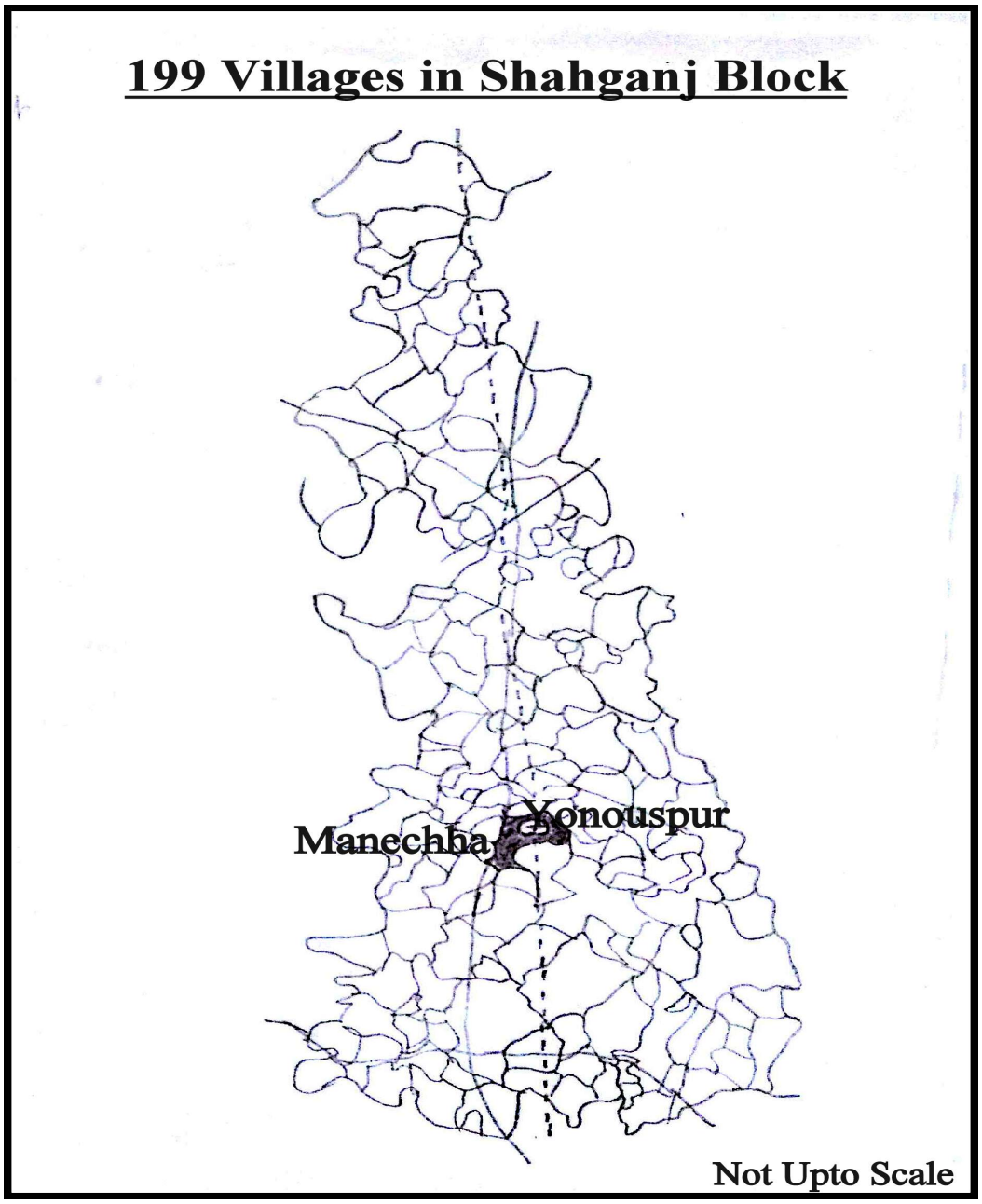
This block has 24,855 children in the age range of 0-6 year out of which 13,602 are boys and 11,793 are girls. Share of SC population in Jalalpur block is 26.58 percent as per census 2011. Literacy rate in block is 60 percent.102, 580 out of total 170,084 populations is educated here. Among males the literacy ratio is 69.7percent as 584,28 males out of total 838,20 are literate while female literacy rate is 52 percent as 45,694 out

of total 86,264 females are literate as per census 2011. Agriculture is the main source of income and occupation in the block. Total land area is hectares are 148,44.70. Percentage of cultivable area is 75.55 percent and 81.59 percent of total cultivable land is irrigated. Out of total population of 164,804, 32,121 (19.5 percent) persons are main workers, 18817 (11.4 percent) persons are marginal workers and 11386 (69.1 percent) persons are non-workers.

Shahganj is another block randomly selected for study. It is having geographical area of 296.00 sq.km in Shahganj Tehsil. The population of Shahganj block is 3,11,278 as per census 2011. There are two towns and 199 villages in Shahganj. Two villages within range of 10 km i.e Manecha and Yonouspur have been selected randomly from Shahganj block.

According here are total 43,166 households in this block. Shahganj's population is 311278. Out of this, 156,233 are males whereas the females are 155,045. It has 51,365 kids in the age group of 0-6 years. Among them 26,623 are boys and 24,742 are girls. Literacy rate in Shahganj block is 57 percent as per census 2011. 177,798 out of total 311,278 populations are literate. In males the literacy rate is 65 percent as 101,907 males out of total 156,233 are literate whereas female literacy rate is 48 percent as 75,891 out of total 155,045 females are literate.133480 out of total 311278 persons are illiterate. The number of employed person of Shahganj block is 90,370 while 220,908 are unemployed. And out of 90,370 working person 23,315 persons are fully reliant on cultivation. Sex ratio of Shahganj block is 992. 19.27 percent of total population belongs to SC category in the block.

Map 2.8 Location of two sample villages Manecha and Yonouspur in Shahgnaj block



Source: Own work

Total land area is 28854.49 hectares. Percentage of cultivable area is 69.87 percent and 91.59 percent of total cultivable land is irrigated. Out of total population 311,278 persons, 57,537 (18.5 percent) persons are main workers, 32,833 (10.6 percent) persons are marginal workers and 220,908 (70.97 percent) persons are non-workers.

2.8.4 Profiling Sample Villages (Insights from Field)

Current section will give socio-economic background of six sample villages randomly selected. Census 2011 and field data have been used in profiling of sample villages.

Rampur Soiri village is located in Kerakat Tehsil of Jaunpur district and in Jalalpur block. The total geographical area of village is 596.84 hectares. There are 636 houses in Rampur Soiri village as per census 2011.Total population of village is 4,323. Male population is 2,062 and female population is 2,261. In Rampur Soiri village population of children with age 0-6 is 664, which makes up 15.36 percent of total population of village as per census 2011. Average Sex Ratio of Rampur Soiri village is 1097, which is higher than UP state average of 912. Child Sex Ratio for the Rampur Soiri as per census is 994, higher than UP average of 902. As per census 2011, male literacy stands at 80.91 percent while female literacy rate was 54.97 percent. Schedule Caste (SC) constitutes 12.01 percent while Schedule Tribe (ST) were 0.02 percent of total population in village. Agriculture is main occupation of Rampur Soiri. Out of total population, 1419 were engaged in work activities. 56.59 percent of workers describe their work as main work[21] while 43.41 percent were involved in marginal activity providing livelihood for less than 6 months. Of 1,419 workers engaged in main work, 399 were cultivators (owner or co-owner) while 311 were agricultural labourer. The village has 2 per-primary school, 2 primary school, 2 middle schools and 1 secondary school and senior secondary and Degree College are within range of 10 km and 5 km respectively.

Asbaranpur is a large village located in Kerakat tehsil, with total 448 households residing. Total geographical area of Asbaranpur is 335.4 hectares. Village has population of 2,650 of which 1,249 are males while 1,401 are females as per census 2011. Population of children with age 0-6 is 398, which is 15.02 percent of total population of village. Average sex ratio as per census 2011 of Asbaranpur; village is 1122, which is higher than UP state average of 912. Child sex ratio for the Asbaranpur as per census is 923, higher than UP average of 902. Male literacy stands at 79.94 percent while female literacy rate was 55.87 percent. There is huge share of SC population. Asbaranpur currently doesn't have any ST population. Out of total population, 722 were engaged in work activities. 37.12 percent of workers describe their work as main work while 62.88 percent were involved in marginal work. Out of 722 workers engaged in main work, 172

[21] Employment or earning more than 6 Months

were cultivators while 12 were agricultural laborer. Bayalsi Inter College and Shri Nehru Smarak Inter College , Nahora are two inter-colleges in village. Schools near Asbaranpur are P.s.naharpatti ,Jaykisan U.p.s.Rampur Soiry, U.p.s.Bhadehari and U.p.s. Bhaupur.

Chitkon is a medium size village located in Kerakat tehsil, with total 255 families residing. The geographical area of village is 173.52 hectares. The village has total population of 1,476 of which 691 are males while 785 are females as per census 2011.In Chitkon village population of children with age 0-6 is 201 which is 13.62 percent of total population of village. Average sex ratio of Chitkon village is 1,136, which is higher than state average of 912. Child sex ratio for the Chitkon as per census 2011 is 1030, higher than state average of 902. Chitkon village has higher literacy rate compared to state. In 2011, literacy rate of Chitkon village was 72.78 percent compared to 67.68 percent of UP whereas Rampur Soiri and Asbaranpur has low literacy in comparison to UP as per census 2011. Male literacy in village is 84.80 percent while female literacy rate was 62.37 percent as per census 2011. SC share is 15.85 percent of total population in village. Chitkon currently doesn't have any ST population. Out of total population, 238 were engaged in work activities. 77.31 percent of workers mentioned their work as main work while 22.69 percent were engaged in marginal work. Out of 238 workers engaged in main work, 33 were cultivators while 7 were agricultural laborer. Village has one pre primary school, one primary school, one middle school and senior secondary school and Degree College is within range of 5 kms. College near Chitkon is Yashoda Mahavidyalaya Patarhi Jaunpur. Schools near Chitkon are Maa Bhagwati P.s Kachvan Pikora, Bjd Junior H C Kakrapar, U.p.s. Habusahi and U.p.s. Kachhwan.

Jarasi is a large village located in Kerakat tehsil, with total 420 families residing. Total geographical area of village is 291.4 hectares. Village has population of 2,692 of which 1,360 are males while 1,332 are females as per census 2011.Population of children with age 0-6 is 377 which is nearly 14.00 percent of total population of village. Average sex ratio of village is 979, which is higher than state average of 912. Child sex ratio for the Jarasi as per census is 914, higher than state average of 902. Jarasi village has higher literacy rate compared to UP. In 2011, literacy rate of Jarasi village was 72.35 percent which is higher that state literacy rate i.e. 67.68 percent of UP. Male literacy is 84.26 percent while female literacy rate was 60.33 percent. Share of SC households in total population is 38.41 percent. Jarasi as Chitkon currently doesn't have any ST population. In village out of total population, 853 were involved in work activities. 85.81 percent of workers reported their work as main workers while 14.19 percent are marginal workers.

Out of 853 workers engaged as main workers, 346 were cultivators while 281 were agricultural laborer. There are five colleges near Jarasi. Schools in Jarasi and around Jarasi are Koiari Badi primary school, Pokhara School, Mathura singh primary school, Primary school of Brahamanpur, Pokhiri school.

Manecha is a large village located in Shahganj block with total 509 families residing. Village has population of 3,853 of which 1,902 are males and 1,951 are females as per census 2011. Total geographical area of the village is 421.27 hectares. Population of children with age 0-6 is 651, which is 16.90 percent of total population of village. Average sex ratio of Manecha is 1026, which is again higher than state average of 912. Child sex ratio for the Manecha as per census is 849, lower than state average of 902. Literacy rate of Manecha is higher in comparison to state. In 2011, literacy rate of Manecha village was 70.58 percent compared to 67.68 percent of UP. Male literacy in village was 80.06 percent and female literacy rate was 61.68 percent as per census 2011. SC constitutes 13.50 percent of total population in village. Manecha too doesn't have any ST household. In village out of total population, 740 were engaged in work activities. 58.78 percent of workers mentioned their work as main workers while 41.22 percent were engaged as marginal workers. Out of total 740 workers engaged as main workers, 246 were cultivators and 51 were agricultural laborer.

Yonouspur village is located in Shahganj Tehsil, with 173 households residing. The geographical area of village is 60 hectares. Yonouspur has a total population of 1,165 peoples. In village population of children with age 0-6 is 229, which is 19.66 percent of total population of village. Average sex ratio of village as per census 2011 is 1,249, which is higher than state average of 912. Child sex ratio for village as per census 2011 is 1,202, higher than state average of 902. Yonouspur village has higher literacy rate compared to state. In 2011, literacy rate of village was 80.56 percent compared to 67.68 percent of UP. In Yonouspur male literacy stands at 90.82 percent while female literacy rate was 72.41 percent as per census 2011. Out of total population, 297 were engaged in work. Out of 297, 38.72 percent of workers are main workers and 61.28 percent are marginal workers. Out of total 297 workers engaged as main workers, 35 were cultivators and 7 were agricultural laborer. Yonouspur has huge share of SC population i.e. 34.25 percent of total population in Yonouspur village. Share of Muslim population is also high in comparison to other villages. This village as well doesn't have any ST population.

Demographic and Social Profile of Sample Villages (Insights form Field)

Current section will discuss various socio-economic backgrounds of sample households in surveyed villages. It will give an overview of demographic details, occupation, income and expenditure details, land holdings, living conditions and sources and access to credit of various villages in particular and Jaunpur as whole.

Table 2.11 Migrant and Non-Migrant households in surveyed villages of Jaunpur District

Village Name	Total No. of sample Households	Adult Male & Female (15-50 years)			Above 50 years			M HH	NM-HH
		M+F	M	F	M	F	M+F		
Chitko	38 (100.0)	167	96 (57.5)	71 (42.5)	24 (45.3)	29 (54.7)	53	26 (68.4)	12 (31.6)
Jarasi	65 (100.0)	293	149 (50.6)	144 (49.2)	33 (42.8)	44 (57.1)	77	40 (61.5)	25 (38.5)
Asbaranpur	95 (100.0)	472	247 (52.3)	225 (47.8)	53 (44.9)	65 (55.1)	118	79 (83.2)	16 (16.8)
Rampur Soiri	66 (100.0)	241	128 (53.1)	113 (46.9)	37 (39.4)	57 (60.6)	94	44 (66.7)	22 (33.3)
Manecha	74 (100.0)	284	159 (56.0)	125 (44.0)	12 (37.5)	20 (62.5)	32	39 (52.7)	35 (47.3)
Yonouspur	32 (100.0)	110	50 (45.5)	60 (54.6)	2 (66.7)	1 (33.3)	3	19 (59.4)	13 (40.6)
Total	**370 (100.0)**	**1,567**	**829 (52.9)**	**738 (47.1)**	**161 (41.6)**	**216 (55.8)**	**387 (100)**	**247 (66.8)**	**123 (33.2)**

Source: Field Survey 2016.
*Figures in parenthesis represent percent to total.

Table 2.11 shows migrants and non-migrant households in sample villages. Total numbers of sample households are 370. 38 households from Chitkon, 65 households from Jarasi, 95 households from Asbaranpur, 66 households from Rampur Soiri, 76 households from Manecha and 32 households from Yonouspur have been selected randomly. Percentage of adult male is highest in Chitkon i.e. 57.5 percent followed by Manecha 56.0 percent. Total number of migrant households[22] are 247 i.e. 66.8 percent of total sample households and 123 households i.e. 33.2 per of households are non-migrants households. Highest numbers of migrant households are in Asbaranpur.

Table 2.12 gives village wise description of social and educational attainment of sample Households. Table 2.12 shows that 84.6 percent of households in Jaunpur are male-headed households and 15.4 percent of households are female-headed households. The average size of household in Jaunpur is 8. 85.7 percent of households are Hindu and 14.3 percent belong to Muslim category. In sample villages, Chitkon and Rampur Soiri have reported 100 percent Hindu households in village.

[22] Migrant household in the study is referred as household with at-least one male out-migrant.

Table 2.12-Demographic Profile of sample Households of Surveyed Villages in Jaunpur District

Variables	Name of Village						Total
	Chitkon	Jarasi	Asbaranpur	Rampur Soiri	Manecha	Yonouspur	
Head of the HH of Sample Households							
Male	26 (68.4)	61 (93.8)	80 (84.2)	54 (81.8)	66 (89.2)	26 (81.2)	313 (84.6)
Female	12 (31.6)	4 (6.2)	15 (15.8)	12 (18.2)	8 (10.8)	6 (18.8)	57 (15.4)
Average HH Size	7.4	8.7	8.7	7.7	6.9	5.6	7.7
Religion of Sample Households							
Hindu	38 (100.0)	58 (89.2)	91 (95.8)	66 (100.0)	48 (64.9)	16 (50.0)	317 (85.7)
Muslim	0 (0.0)	7 (10.8)	4 (4.2)	0 (0.0)	26 (35.1)	16 (50.0)	53 (14.3)
Social Group of Sample Households							
SC	10 (26.3)	25(38.5)	16(16.8)	17(25.8)	24(32.4)	10(31.2)	102 (27.6)
ST	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)
OBC	14 (36.8)	21 (32.3)	31 (32.6)	23 (34.8)	34 (45.9)	12 (37.5)	135 (36.5)
Upper caste	14 (36.8)	19 (29.2)	48 (50.5)	26 (39.4)	16 (21.6)	10 (31.2)	133 (35.9)
Educational Status of Head of HH of Sample Households							
Illiterate	5 (13.2)	5 (7.7)	14 (14.7)	21 (31.8)	34 (45.9)	6 (18.8)	85 (23.0)
Primary	15 (39.5)	13 (20.0)	6 (6.3)	16 (24.2)	3 (4.1)	2 (6.2)	55 (14.9)
Matriculation	7 (18.4)	15 (23.1)	27 (28.4)	10 (15.2)	33 (44.6)	21 (65.6)	113 (30.5)
Intermediate	3 (7.9)	17 (76.2)	17 (17.9)	15 (22.7)	0 (0.0)	3 (9.4)	55 (14.9)
Graduate	8 (21.1)	7 (10.8)	31 (32.6)	4 (6.1)	4 (5.4)	0 (0.0)	54(14.6)
PG and above	0 (0.0)	8 (12.3)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	8 (2.2)
Total	**38(10.3)**	**65(17.6)**	**95(25.7)**	**66(17.8)**	**74(20.0)**	**32(8.6)**	**370(100.0)**

Source: Field Survey 2016.

*Figures in parenthesis represent percent to total.

Manecha and Yonouspur reported large share of Muslim households. As far as social group is concerned there is no Scheduled tribe household is reported in any villages. Educational attainment of head of the households of sample households in Jaunpur district, 23.0 percent of household heads are illiterate. Highest number of illiterate household head is highest in Manecha followed by Rampur Soiri i.e. 45.9 percent and 31.8 percent and lowest Jarasi followed by Chitkon i.e. 7.7 percent and 13.2 percent

respectively. Households head with educational attainment postgraduate and above is found only in Jarasi i.e. 12.3 percent. Jarasi have one renowned college nearby so may be because of the educational attainment of head of household is high in comparison to other village.

Table 2.13 highlights land-holding size of sample households in surveyed villages. It can be seen that average land holding possessed by sample households is 0.8 hectares i.e. less than 1 hectares. Average cultivable land of villages as whole is 0.75 hectares. Chitkon is having highest average land possessed in hectares i.e. 1.9 hectares followed by Jarasi i.e. 1.3 hectares. Lowest average land possessed is of village Manecha i.e. 0.2 hectares followed by Yonouspur i.e. 0.4 hectares. From Table 2.13 it can be seen that Dhobi block is more land abundant than Jalalpur and Shahganj. Landless[23] are highest in Manecha i.e. 40.5 percent of sample households reported that they are landless followed by Yonouspur i.e. 15.6 percent. In Jarasi and Asbaranpur landless is 0 percent. One of the insights that can be seen from the leased out section is those who have large landholding size are from families who doesn't cultivate on their own, instead lease out major part of land. Chitkon, Jarasi, Asbaranpur and Rampur Soiri are fully irrigated villages. Manecha is least irrigated. Major source of irrigation in sample households is pumping machine on rent.

[23] Landless here implies those who don't have any land either owned or leased in.

Table-2.13 Land Possessed/holding Size and Irrigation details of Sample Households in surveyed Villages in Jaunpur District (In Hectares)

Name of Variables	Name of Village						Jaunpur District
	Chitkon	Jarasi	Asbaranpur	Rampur Soiri	Manecha	Yonouspur	
Average Land holdings in hectares	1.9	1.3	0.7	0.6	0.2	0.4	0.8
Landless Households	2(5.3)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	9(13.4)	30(40.5)	5(15.6)	46(12.4)
Average land owned	1.7	1.1	0.7	0.5	0.2	0.3	0.7
Average Leased in	0.26	0.23	0.02	0.15	0.01	0.02	0.1
Average Leased out	1.60	0.68	0.41	0.20	0.19	0.08	0.47
Average cultivable land	1.93	1.12	0.71	0.57	0.24	0.36	0.75
Irrigation status of Sample Households (324 Households)							
Yes	36 (100.0)	65 (100.0)	95 (100.0)	56 (98.3)	31 (70.5)	26 (96.3)	309 (95.4)
No	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	1(1.7)	13(29.5)	1(3.7)	15(4.6)
Modes of Irrigation of Sample Households							
Dug well	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	5(5.3)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	5(1.6)
Pumping machine (Self owned)	14(38.9)	9(13.8)	26(27.4)	19(28.8)	8(25.8)	5(19.2)	81(26.2)
Pumping machine (rented)	22(61.1)	56(86.2)	64(67.4)	37(56.2)	23(74.2)	21(80.8)	223(72.2)
Total	**38(10.3)**	**65(17.6)**	**95(25.7)**	**66(17.8)**	**74(20.0)**	**32(8.6)**	**370 (100.0)**

Source: Field Survey 2016.
*Figures in parenthesis represent percent to total.

Table 2.14 shows that occupational, income and expenditure details of sample villages surveyed in Jaunpur district. It can be seen that in sample villages primary source of income is remittances. Percentage share of remittances as primary occupation /source of income is highest in all other sources of income i.e. 38.1 percent followed by cultivation i.e. 27 percent, wage paid/salaried employee 20.5 percent, non-agricultural enterprises 4.9 percent and other sources of income 9.5 percent. Low non-agricultural enterprises show that condition of non-farm jobs is very poor and minimal in surveyed villages. Average monthly income of all sample villages is Rs.28, 756.7. Highest monthly average income is of Jarasi followed by Asbaranpur i.e. Rs. 45,630.8 and Rs.

42,315.8 lowest average monthly income is of Manecha i.e. Rs.12,121.62. Chitkon, Jarasi and Asbaranpur are comparatively better off in terms of income in comparison to other three villages. Average monthly household expenditure of all sample villages is Rs.19, 723.9. Jarasi is having highest monthly expenditure i.e. Rs.29, 133.9 and Manecha is having lowest i.e. Rs. 9,702.7. Manecha and Yonouspur are comparatively poor in terms of land availability, income and expenditure.

Table.2.14 Occupational and Income details of sample households in Surveyed Villages of Jaunpur district

Name of Variables	Name of Village						Total
	Chitkon	Jarasi	Asbaranpur	Rampur Soiri	Manecha	Yonouspur	
Primary source of Income of Sample Households							
Cultivation	21 (55.3)	17 (26.2)	37 (38.9)	20 (30.3)	4 (5.4)	1 (3.1)	100 (27.0)
Non-Agriculture Enterprises	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	14(18.9)	4(12.5)	18(4.9)
Wage/Salary Employed	6(15.8)	21 (32.3)	14 (14.7)	8 (12.1)	19 (25.7)	8 (25.0)	76 (20.5)
Remittance	10 (26.3)	21 (32.3)	26 (27.4)	29 (43.9)	36 (48.6)	19 (59.4)	141 (38.1)
Others	1(2.6)	6(9.2)	18(18.9)	9(13.6)	1(1.4)	0(0.0)	35(9.5)
Secondary Source of Income of Sample Households							
Cultivation	11 (28.9)	23 (35.4)	17 (17.9)	17 (25.8)	6 (8.1)	1 6(50.0)	90 (24.3)
Non-Agriculture Enterprises	4 (10.5)	13 (20.0)	9 (9.5)	0 (0.0)	20 (27.0)	3(9.4)	49 (13.2)
Wage/Salary Employee	7(18.4)	5(7.7)	11(11.6)	18(27.3)	18(24.3)	5(15.6)	64(17.3)
Remittance	9(23.7)	8(12.3)	40(42.1)	5(7.6)	2(2.7)	0(0.0)	64(17.3)
Others	7(18.4)	16(24.6)	18(18.9)	26(39.4)	28(37.8)	8(25.0)	103(27.8)
Average Monthly Income	30,368.4	45,630.8	42,315.8	16,469.7	12,121.6	16,125.0	28,756.7
Average Monthly Exp.	24339.4	29133.9	26526.3	12553.03	9702.7	12896.9	19723.9
Total	**38(10.3)**	**65(17.6)**	**95(25.7)**	**66(17.8)**	**74(20.0)**	**32(8.6)**	**370(100.0)**

Source: Field Survey 2016.
*Figures in parenthesis represent percent to total.

Table.2.15 Living conditions of sample Households Surveyed Villages in Jaunpur District

Name of Variables	Name of Village						Total
	Chitkon	Jarasi	Asbaranpur	Rampur Soiri	Manecha	Yonouspur	
Housing Status of Sample Households							
Yes	31 (81.6)	65 (100.0)	95 (100.0)	66 (100.0)	74 (100.0)	32 (100.0)	363 (98.1)
No	7(18.4)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	7(1.9)
Type of Dwelling of Sample Households							
Katcha	6 (19.4)	11 (16.9)	8 (8.4)	45 (68.2)	37 (50.0)	3 (9.4)	110 (30.3)
Semi-Pucca	7(22.6)	4(6.2)	9(9.5)	5(7.6)	7(9.5)	0(0.0)	32(8.8)
Pucca	18 (58.1)	50 (76.9)	78 (82.1)	16 (24.2)	30 (40.5)	29 (90.6)	221 (60.9)
Housing Characteristics of Sample Households							
Electricity	20(52.6)	24 (36.9)	89(93.7)	44(66.7)	46(62.2)	27(84.4)	250(67.6)
Drinking water	36(94.7)	61 (93.8)	95 (100)	52 (78.8)	74 (100)	32 (100)	350 (94.6)
Connection to public sewage	1(2.6)	1(1.5)	1(1.1)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	3(0.8)
Toilets	12 (31.6)	26 (40.0)	53 (55.8)	1 (1.5)	12 (16.2)	2 (6.2)	106 (28.7)
Fuel Used by Sample Households							
LPG	16(42.1)	43(66.2)	52(55.9)	15(22.7)	8(10.8)	8(25.0)	142(38.4)
Kerosene	1(2.6)	0(0.0)	2(2.1)	3(4.6)	0(0.0)	8(25.0)	14(3.8)
Coal/wood	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	16(16.8)	8(12.1)	61(82.4)	0(0.0)	85(22.9)
Dried Cow dung	22(57.9)	22(33.9)	24(25.3)	42(63.6)	5(6.8)	15(46.9)	130(35.1)
Livestock Assets of Sample Households							
No Livestock	13(34.2)	25(38.5)	38(40.0)	15(22.7)	8(10.8)	0(0.00)	99(26.7)
Cow	18(47.4)	1(1.5)	47(49.5)	36(54.6)	27(36.5)	3(9.4)	132(35.7)
Buffalo	20(52.6)	37(56.9)	33(34.7)	23(34.9)	21(28.4)	18(56.3)	152(51.1)
Goats	7(18.4)	28(43.1)	25(26.3)	12(18.1)	39(52.7)	28(87.5)	139(37.6)
Others	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	2(3.0)	10(13.5)	0(0.0)	12(3.2)
Assets Possessed by Sample Households							
Radio	19(50.0)	38(58.5)	61(64.2)	18(27.3)	6(8.1)	0.0	142(38.4)
Television	22(57.9)	61(93.5)	62(66.0)	16(24.2)	20(27.0)	27(84.4)	208(56.6)
Mobile	26(68.4)	62(95.4)	89(93.7)	47(71.2)	74(100)	32(100)	330(29.2)
Refrigerator	14(36.8)	38(58.5)	41(43.2)	6(9.1)	58(78.4)	31(96.9)	188(50.8
Cycle	26(68.4)	62(95.4)	67(70.5)	35(53.0)	10(13.5)	11(34.4)	211(57.0)
Private Vehicle	14(36.8	32(49.2)	34(35.8)	3(4.5)	10(13.5)	7(21.9)	100(27.0)
Motorcycle	19(50.0)	33(50.8)	45(47.4)	21(31.8)	8(10.8)	2(6.2)	128(34.6)
AC/Cooler	14(36.8)	20(30.8)	29(30.5)	1(1.5)	6(8.1)	1(3.1)	71(19.2)
Tractor	11(28.9)	14(21.5)	22(23.2)	1(1.5)	6(8.1)	1(3.1)	55(14.9)
Gas Stove	18(47.4)	39(60.0)	51(53.7)	20(30.3)	11(14.9)	20(62.5)	159(43.0)
Agricultural Machinery	8(21.1)	6(9.2)	30(31.6)	7(10.6)	5(6.8)	1(3.1)	57(15.4)
Total	**38(10.3)**	**65(17.6)**	**95(25.7)**	**66(17.8)**	**74(20.0)**	**32(8.6)**	**370(100.0)**

Source: Field Survey 2016.

*Figures in parenthesis represent percent to total.

Table 2.15 shows the living conditions of sample households in surveyed villages. In all villages except Chitkon, all sample households have own house. In Chitkon 81.6 percent of households have their own house and 18.4 percent don't have house. They are staying in huts provided or in some part of their employer's house. Village-wise living conditions including type of house, fuel used, livestock assets and assets are shown in table 2.15. It can be seen that villages Asbaranpur, Jarasi and Chitkon are comparatively better in terms of living conditions of the households in comparison to village Rampur Soiri, Manecha and Yonouspur.

Table 2.16 shows various sources of credit accessibility for sample households in surveyed villages. Table sows that informal source of credit is much higher, almost double than formal source of credit in all sample households in survey villages.

Table.2.16 Accessibility and Sources of Credit for of sample Households in surveyed Villages in Jaunpur districts

Source of Credit	Name of Village						
	Chitkon	**Jarasi**	**Asbaranpur**	**Rampur Soiri**	**Manecha**	**Yonouspur**	**Total**
Households usually get credit from							
Formal	16(42.1)	24(36.9)	49(51.9)	18(27.3)	7(9.5)	9(28.1)	123 (33.2)
Informal	22(57.9)	41(63.1)	46(48.4)	48(72.7)	67(90.5)	23(71.9)	247 (66.7)
Type of credit agencies							
Formal							
Cooperative societies	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)
Commercial banks	16(42.1)	24(36.9)	49(51.6)	17(25.8)	7(9.5)	9(28.1)	122 (33.0)
Others	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)
Informal							
Landlord	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)
Agricultural money lenders	16(42.1)	17(26.2)	23(24.2)	21(31.8)	35(47.3)	15(46.9)	127 (34.3)
Professional money lenders	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	2(2.1)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	2(0.5)
Traders	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)
Relatives and Friends	6(15.8)	24(36.9)	21(22.1)	28(42.4)	32(43.2)	8(25.0)	119 (32.2)
Total	**38 (100.0)**	**65 (100.0)**	**95 (100.0)**	**66 (100.0)**	**74 (100.0)**	**32 (100.0)**	**370 (100.0)**

Source: Field Survey 2016.
*Figures in parenthesis represent percent to total.

2.9 Conclusion

Current chapter has discussed the methods, materials, database, methodology used and brief profiling of area of the study. While the principal method employed in this study is household based surveys of 370 households spread across six villages of Jaunpur district, the overall approach of the study is to also take cues from the in-depth narratives of households migrants members, key informant interviews with senior villagers and observation made during field surveys on the relationship between migration and risk diversification. The selection of Jaunpur district was done on the basis of NSSO data analysis. Moreover, conversations with key informants suggest that rural population of Eastern UP and indeed UP as whole have historically been mobile. Chapter also gave an overview of area under study. In sample villages majority of the household reported remittances as primary source of income, this indicates lack of industries and non-farm jobs in eastern part of UP. Moreover there is huge differences in income and occupation in villages itself. Jarasi and Asbaranpur are comparatively better off villages in comparison to other villages. High percentage share of land availability and therefore high share of cultivation as major source of income makes these villages economic background better than rest of the villages. Yonouspur and Manecha are comparatively poor in terms of income and land availability. Given the profile and socio-economic background of study area the next chapter will highlight the context and drivers of male out-migration from rural UP at state level by analyzing NSSO data.

Chapter 3

Context and Drivers of Male Out-Migration from Uttar Pradesh: State Level Insights from NSSO Data

"I had been to other countries - in Europe, Asia and the Middle East - but none of them had provided even half as much variety, or so much to see and experience and remember, as this one State in northern India. You can travel from one end of Australia to the other, but everywhere on that vast continent you will find that people dress in the same way, eat the same kind of food, listen to the same music. This colourless uniformity is apparent in many other countries of the world, both East and West. But Uttar Pradesh is a world in itself."…

–Ruskin Bond[24]

3.1. Introduction

Out-migration of male members from rural to urban areas is most opted strategy by substantial number of households to overcome huge population pressure, weak and stagnant agriculture in UP. Male out-migration from rural UP has become part and parcel of rural households. As discussed in chapter 1, NSSO data and literature reveals UP is among leading states of India with highest number of male out-migration. UP is primarily agricultural economy and majority of population rely on agriculture for their sustenance and livelihoods. Migration is not new phenomena in UP, this chapter will give a historical overview and drivers of male out-migration from UP. As found in detailed discussion of theoretical background and various existing literature, male out-migration is an outcome of various political, social and economic factors in host and well as receiving areas. The major aim of this chapter is to provide brief historical overview of migration, drivers of male migration and detail overview of nature and characteristics of male out-migration from rural UP by analyzing NSSO data at state level, before shifting our focus at district level scenario in succeeding chapters. In the present chapter descriptive analysis of data has been done and it has been demonstrated through various types of tables, charts and bar diagrams. For better pictorial presentation of data, maps have been prepared using ArcGIS techniques.

This chapter is divided in five parts. Section one is Introduction, section two will give insights on historical overview of migration from UP, section three in very brief will

[24] Source: http://up.gov.in

be dealing with drivers of migration from UP, section four will highlight patterns and characteristics of male out-migration by analyzing NSSO data. Part four is further divided in two parts; part i) will give very brief scenario of in-migration in UP, Part ii) will highlight patterns and socio-economic background of male migration from rural UP. Section five is concluding remarks.

3.2. Historical Overview of Migration from UP[25]

The Indian state of UP, the geographic focus of this study is a state where large section of population has been mobile since ages. UP is multilingual and multi-cultural state of India as many tribes, races, religions, castes, creed and ethnicities reside together on same land. History and literature shows, UP was rich in natural resources, which has attracted various sects of people across globe in history but over period of time it's considered among few most backward states of India (Ahmad, 1999; Richards, 1993). Despite the fact that UP often witnessed drought and famine, which resulted in various problems including undernourishment of people in the area, yet the farmer, are often attached with villages with various social and cultural ties. For many long years because of this affection and attachment of villagers to land and village and village norms and culture, emigration was considered as the biggest misfortune (Husain 1994). Migration from UP at large scale started after arrival of British not only beyond villages but also beyond international boundaries.

History of emigration from UP can be traced back since 1800s. In 1820, large number of artisans, cultivators moved to different British colonies like Guyana, Suriname, Trinidad and Tobago, Mauritius, Fiji, Sri Lanka, Reunion island etc. as bonded and indentured labors[26] in sugar and tea plantations (Lal, 1998). Few out-migrations also took place in Jamaica, Martinique and Guadeloupe in small chunks. In Fiji emigration from UP first took place in 1874 (Husain, 1994). Abolition of slavery in 1833 in Britain led to shortage of laborers in British colonies. Sugar planters laid huge pressure on British government to provide cheap labors as their trade started declining. That gave inception to Indian indentured labors as large amount of laborers were sent to

[25] This section has primarily been taken from Husain, Majid (1994), *'Human Geography',* (Jaipur: Rawat Publications), Singh, S.A. (2013). The Experience of Indian Indenture in Trinidad: Arrival and Settlement, in Cruse & Rhiney (Eds.), Caribbean Atlas and Kale, M. (1995). Projecting Identities: Empire and Indentured Labor Migration from India to Trinidad and British Guiana, 1836–1885. *nation and Migration: the Politics of Space in the South Asian Diaspora*, 73-92.

[26] Indentured labour were recruited to work on sugar, cotton and tea plantations, and rail construction projects in British colonies in West Indies, Africa and South East Asia . It was kind of bonded labour sent to British colnies post abolition of slavery.

meet the need of shortage of labour in sugar producing areas by British colonies. Indians agreed as source of cheap labour as a result of widespread poverty, drought and famine in nineteenth century. 143,939 Indians migrated as indenture labour to Trinidad between 1845 and 1917 (Lal, 1998). Another study found that between 1845 and 1917 more than four hundred thousand workers have been imported from British India to work on sugar and tea plantations in Trinidad, British Guiana and Caribbean colonies (Kale, 1995). Indentured labors sent where mostly from agriculture and laboring class of UP and Bihar regions of north India (Singh, 2013). Agricultural labors from UP and Bihar were emigrated to sugarcane growing area of tropics, where it was arduous for European workers to work in fields under very hot and humid climates. Most of the migrants were Bhojpuri speaking and were forcefully taken to distant places and were forcefully employed in the plantation and agricultural sectors in such far off countries. The conditions of these workers were very bad and pathetic. They were treated as slaves, were given inhuman treatment and were forced to work and live ill clad, ill fed and ill housed with their miserable wages without any time bound increment. This kind of migration continued till First World War (Kumar 2005).

Because of vast natural resources, over period of time people from various regions started to come to UP. This led to increase in population density of state along with natural increase in population, which exerted huge pressure on limited resources of the state and on agricultural land. As a result in search of better resources and income opportunities people started moving out of the boundaries of villages. The second phase of migration from UP started, but within the boundaries of national frontier. In 19th century people started to move to cities and towns to the places of better job opportunities. Few of the major destinations that were industrially developed were West Bengal, Tea gardens of Assam and Darjeeling, coal mines of Bokaro, Girdihand Karanpura etc (Hussain, 1994).

Third phase of male out-migration from UP started in post independence era i.e. after 1947. Many people migrated from state to newly formed Pakistan while some moved in to settle down in state. This is considered as one of the extreme reshuffling of the population in the history of human race (Singh and Karan 2000). The history of third phase of out-migration can be traced back through Green revolution phase in India, which has created huge surge in demand of agricultural labors in agricultural developed states. Green revolution was huge success in Punjab, which led to huge agricultural labors in the state from neighboring states including UP as well. But because of so many

reasons such as, prolonged terrorism, attacks on migrant's labors, mechanization of agriculture, and low and stagnant wage rates migration reduced (Hussain, 1994). The decline in migration to state of Punjab doesn't at all mean out-migration from UP has declined rather in last two three decades UP emerged as a leading state of male out-migration. NSSO and census results confirm the same. Major destination of male out-migrants in current era is Mumbai in Maharashtra followed by Delhi. In recent era UP is leaving Kerala and Punjab behind in international emigration. Every class from UP is migrating within and beyond national frontiers. Moreover NSSO data shows that there are huge number of international migrants from UP in past decade i.e. from Azamgarh, Deoria, Balia to gulf countries. Over time migration have not increased only in absolute numbers but rate of out-migration too has increased in UP (NSSO).

3.3. Drivers of Male Out-Migration from Uttar Pradesh[27]

Post 1990's India has witnessed growth in economy however growth pattern is uneven and imbalanced across various states. States like Maharashtra, Punjab, Haryana and Gujarat are growing by 7-10 percent, whereas states like UP and Bihar has lagged behind (Dreze & Gazdar, 2006; Parker & Kozel, 2007; Shand and Bhide, 2000). Despite this fact that UP and Bihar are comparatively better endowed with natural resources and agro-climatic conditions than other states of India, UP and Bihar is among least developed states in India, with agriculture as primary source of employment and are considered as BIMARU states (Ahluwalia, 2000). Bihar's economy has made improvement in past years but UP still even after so many years of independence is characterized by stagnant and backward economy. Service and industry sector is still very bad and needs improvement and attention in UP. Per capita state domestic product is very low, Rs.8, 298 in UP, much less than the national average of Rs.11, 936. One out of three of India's 400 million poor live in Bihar and UP (Rasul and Sharma, 2014).

UP which is most populous state of India, having 16 percent of population of entire country, also is among few least developed states of India (Arora, 2006). More than two million men migrated out of UP in last decade and 70 percent of male migration was employment related (World Bank, 2010). Male migration is often an outcome of lack of employment opportunities, stagnant and weak agriculture, poor infrastructure,

[27] This section is primarily based on two articles: Rasul, G., & Sharma, E. (2014). Understanding the poor economic performance of Bihar and Uttar Pradesh, India: a macro-perspective. *Regional Studies, Regional Science*, *1*(1), 221-239 & Kumari, R.2014." *Growing Regional Disparity in Uttar Pradesh: Inter-District Analysis"*. Artha Vijnana, 56(3): 339-360.

and regional disparity, poverty along with huge population pressure on land and other resources. Out-migration will be reduced if workers get good employment opportunities at village itself (Kumar, 2005). UP is India's lagging state as a result of its low growth, high concentration of poor and low human development outcomes (World bank, 2010). With 19.96 crore people in UP out of which 15.51 crore live in rural areas and 4.45 crore in urban areas, is India's most populous state as per census, 2011. It is also most populated sub-national in entire world. Only four countries (China, India, The USA, and Indonesia) have comparatively higher population than UP. As per census, 2011, in UP 44.47 million people lives in urban areas and is second largest urban system (915 cities an towns) in India, but it ranked 30 in level of urbanization out of 35 states and UT's. It is one of the least urbanized states in India. High population density in UP is another major driver of male migration from UP. The population density of UP is 690 persons per square km which is almost double than national average of 329 persons per square km.

Another major driver of male out-migration from UP is lack of diversified source of income along with lack of easy credit accessibility (Majumder, 2015). Ranjan (2009), in their study in rural UP, found that shift from farm employment to non-farm employment is distressed induced in UP. Sources of credit for majority of rural households in UP are well to do cultivators, friends or relatives and credit is offered at very high rate of interest (Srivastava, 1999). This restricts credit accessibility for poor section of rural UP. Land man ratio is also very low in rural UP and is poorest in Jaunpur district triggering huge male exodus from the region. Pandey and Raman (2012) analyzed the role of non-farm employment opportunities in UP in triggering male out-migration. A comprehensive study on UP shows that poor and stagnant economy in UP is not due to any particular factor rather is an outcome of a multitude of socio-economic and political factors rooted in structural-historical and macro economic policies such a poor human capital, weak institutions and poor infrastructure coupled with political instability and social conflict rooted in sectarian politics based on caste, class and division based on ethnicity (Rasul and Sharma, 2014). UP is receiving very less per capita plan allocations from the center for development expenditure than any other state. UP is also disadvantaged by receiving relatively less externally funded projects and financial resources including loans and grants from the centre. Low financial backing from central government along with poor industrial policy is another key reason for backwardness of the state leading to male exodus from region. Another driver for high rate of male out-

migration from rural UP is, poor households who have small and marginal land holdings and have to share their produce have little incentive and impulse to invest in agriculture and this refrain them from being employed in agriculture for long time, because of lack of money and insecure property rights.

Regional disparity and imbalances is another distinct feature of UP (Pandey and Raman 2012; Lanjouw and Stern, 1991;Ranjan, 2009). As per census, 2011, western region with 32.45 percent is most urbanized and eastern region with 13.4 is least urbanized. There is significant inter-regional and inter-village variations in UP (Srivastava, 1999; Khan, 1986). Lack of public services is another reason, which is predominantly because of political factors instead of financial or administrative factors in UP (Lanjouw and Stern, 1991;Lanjouw et al., 2013). Study by Diwakar (2009), found that incidence of poverty is highest in eastern region. The study found that no district in eastern UP and Bundelkhand falls in developed categories. Shafiqullah (2013), in his study found that agriculture growth and changes are not uniform in UP. Eastern UP and Bundelkhand has officially been designated as most backward regions in UP and western and central districts are on higher scale of development on various indicators. Kumari (2012) on the basis of five indicators i.e. agriculture, industry, services, education and health also found that top ten district with best indicators are from western UP and top ten least developed on above mentioned indicators are from eastern UP. Raman and Kumari (2012) also found similar results. In same study it was found that western and central regions of UP are doing well in various development indicators in comparison to other regions because of commercialization and advance technology, whereas eastern region and Bundelkhand region is most lagging region. The study also mentions that condition of farmers in UP especially in Bundelkhand and eastern UP, is very pathetic because of escalating debt, harsh and worsening bio-physical conditions such as low soil fertility along with droughts caused by climate variability. In eastern UP, regional disparities, non-availability of cheap credit and finance, small and fragmented land holdings as a result of huge population pressure and lack of modern technology are forcing rural male to migrate to meet the need of household members.

Family obligations and responsibilities for some and better civic amenities are also among major drivers of migration from UP (Kumar et.al, 2013). In UP landownership, educational attainment and non-farm activities are determined by social group affiliations (Ranjan, 2009; Singh and Tripathi, 1995). Caste based politics is dominant in UP, which has led to conflict and issues between backward and forward

caste since nation got independence. Caste based politics and weak and unstable leadership have undermined political stability in UP. There is strong relationship between caste and land ownership in rural UP (Srivastava, 1999;Paris.et al, 2005). The traditional pattern of land leasing in is very common in rural UP, where large and medium and holders and farmers lease out their land and small and marginal households leasing in land. Good governance, strong leadership and well functioning institutions play very crucial role in growth and development of any state. UP is rated as the most poorly governed state of India (World Bank, 2010). Poor law and order and increased corruption is very common phenomena in UP (Rasul and Sharma, 2014; World Bank, 2010; Pal, 2014). Moreover there is poor physical and economic infrastructure in UP. Public investments in agriculture along with industries have remained very low (Rasul and Sharma, 2014). Infrastructure such as roads, transportation and electricity play important role in attracting investment in state, have always have remained in very bad and pathetic shape in UP. Financial inclusion is a prerequisite for poverty reduction, which is very low in UP (Pandey and Raman, 2012). Education plays very important role in migration patterns of UP, where long term migrants are better educated than short term migrants and are more into white collar high skilled jobs and short term in contrast are more into construction and other non-farm jobs. Lanajouw and Stern (1998) and Singh (2014) highlighted the role of social networks and ability to pay bribes as major determinant to access to better job and attractive non-farm jobs. Study confirms big household size in UP along with low per capita land availability is major reason for male out-migration (Lanjouw and Stern, 1998). World Bank (2010) also found that poor educational attainments, poor health services, and poor performance of service delivery of political and institutional economy are major drivers, which leads to male exodus.

UP is regarded as one of the most underdeveloped states of India in terms of most of the indicators of social and economic development like literacy rates, per capita income, employment rate, infant mortality rate, maternal mortality rate, death rate, life expectancy, medical facilities and electric power supply and so on (Rasul and Sharma, 2014). As mentioned by World Bank report (2010), UP have huge demographic dividend and can be employed in favor of growth and development of rural economy of the state but because of above mentioned various factors there is huge male out-migration from rural UP. Lack of money, education and industrial skills along with non-availability of non-farm jobs often force male to out-migrate in un-organized sector in urban areas (Majumder, 2015). Inter-caste tensions, dominance of particular class in land and

resources ownership and distribution, lack of education, vocational skills, extreme population pressure on land, unemployment and discrimination regarding distribution of resources and assets, lack of big and heavy industries and stagnant and weak agriculture are distinct feature of rural UP which forces male to out-migrate from rural area to meet their livelihoods.

3.4. Patterns and Characteristics of Rural Male out-migration from rural UP: State Level Insights from NSSO Data

UP and Bihar are among leading states in India in male out migration (NSSO) and as mentioned earlier male out-migration from UP has increased manifold as per NSSO in last two decades. The major objective of this chapter is to examine nature and characteristics of rural male out migration from UP, analyzing NSSO data at state level. Current section also confers kind of justification for selecting UP in general and Jaunpur in particular as study area. This section is broadly divided in three sub-sections. Section one is very brief profiling of in-migration scenario in UP and section two is profiling of pattern of male out-migration from rural UP and section three is profiling of socio-economic background and characteristics of male out-migrants from rural UP.

3.4.1 Brief profile of In-Migration in UP

UP is an important source of cheap workforce for various states of the country along with many international courtiers. Although, the major concern is to study male out-migration but NSSO data shows that there is huge in-migration is taking place in UP from neighboring states such as Bihar, MP, and Rajasthan and neighboring countries such as Nepal and Bangladesh. As mentioned previously the source of data for the present study is the NSSO 64th round (2007-08) given by NSSO. This particular round of NSS includes a schedule on employment-unemployment and migration, which provides detailed information on migration as well as other demographic and socio-economic particulars of 572,254 sample household members from all the states. NSSO states 70 districts in UP in 2008. The number of district in UP as per census 2011 has increased to 75. There are seventy districts in UP and dealing with this much number of districts will be quite difficult and also troublesome given the scope, time and financial limit of this research. Thus to make things comparatively easier, district with highest number of male out-migrants have been chosen for the study in succeeding chapters.

Table 3.1 shows percentage share of migrant and non-migrant households in rural and urban UP. Total number of households in rural UP are 1, 35,407,079, out of which migrant and non-migrant households in rural UP are 25.6 percent and 74.4 percent

respectively. Total number households in urban area are 35,430,205. Total number of migrant and non-migrant household in urban UP are 31.0 percent and 69.0 percent respectively. Table 3.1 shows that majority of household resides in rural UP i.e. 79.2 nearly 80 percent and only 20.7 percent of households resides in urban UP. Migration rate is high for urban area is in comparison to rural area in UP.

Table 3.1 Migrants and Non-Migrant Households in UP

Migrants[28] and Non –Migrants Households in Rural and Urban UP (male+female)				
Region	**Migrant Households**	**Non-Migrant Household**	**Total no.of Household**	**Migration Rate (per thousand)**
Rural	34,620,361 (25.6)	100,786,718 (74.4)	1,35,407,079 (100)	255
Urban	11,000,432 (31.0)	24,429,773 (69.0)	35,430,205 (100)	310
Total	45,620,793 (26.7)	125,216,491(73.2)	170,837,284 (100)	267

Source: NSSO 64th Round, Schedule 10.2. Employment & Unemployment and Migration Particulars - (July 2007-2008)
Figures in parenthesis represent percent to total

Table 3.2 shows the distribution of household types[29] in-migrant and non-migrant households.

Table 3.2 Percentage share of Household type in Migrant and Non-migrant Households in Rural UP.

Percentage share of Household type (HHType) in Rural UP				
Household Type	**Migrants Households**	**Non-Migrants Households**	**Total No. of Rural Households**	**Migration Rate ***
Self Employed in Non-Agriculture	5243548 (15.1)	16,220,876 (16.1)	21,464,424 (16.0)	244
Self Employed in Agriculture	18,074,912 (52.2)	50,954,195 (50.2)	69,029,107 (51.0)	261
Agri. Labours	4,947,807 (14.3)	15,739,537 (15.6)	20,687,344 (15.3)	239
Other Labour	2,966,065 (8.6)	9,485,294 (9.4)	12,451,359 (9.0)	238
Others	3,388,029 (9.8)	8,386,816 (8.3)	11,774,845 (8.7)	287
Total	34,620,361 (100)	100,786,718 (100)	135,407,079 (100)	255

Source: NSSO 64th Round, Schedule 10.2. Employment & Unemployment and Migration Particulars - (July 2007-2008)
Figures in parenthesis represent percent to total, *Per thousand persons

Overall data shows that highest numbers of households are in household type self-employed in agriculture and it is similar for both migrant and non-migrant household. The migration rate is highest for household type others followed by self-

[28] As per NSSO a household member whose usual place of residence (UPR), anytime in past is different from the present place of enumeration was considered as a migrant.
[29] As per NSSO household type in rural sector is assigned as follows: if a single source (among five sources of income listed above) contributes 50 percent of households income from economic activities during the last 365 days, it will be assigned that household type.

employed in agriculture. From table 3.2 it can be seen that migration rate is lowest for other labour followed by agricultural labour.

Table 3.3 shows the distribution of migrant and non-migrant households across various household types. It can be seen that highest share in both migrant and non-migrant households is of household type self employed whereas migration rate is highest for household type others followed by regular wage/salary earning with 459 and 388 persons per thousand persons.

Table 3.3 Percentage share of Household type in Migrant and Non-migrant households in Urban UP

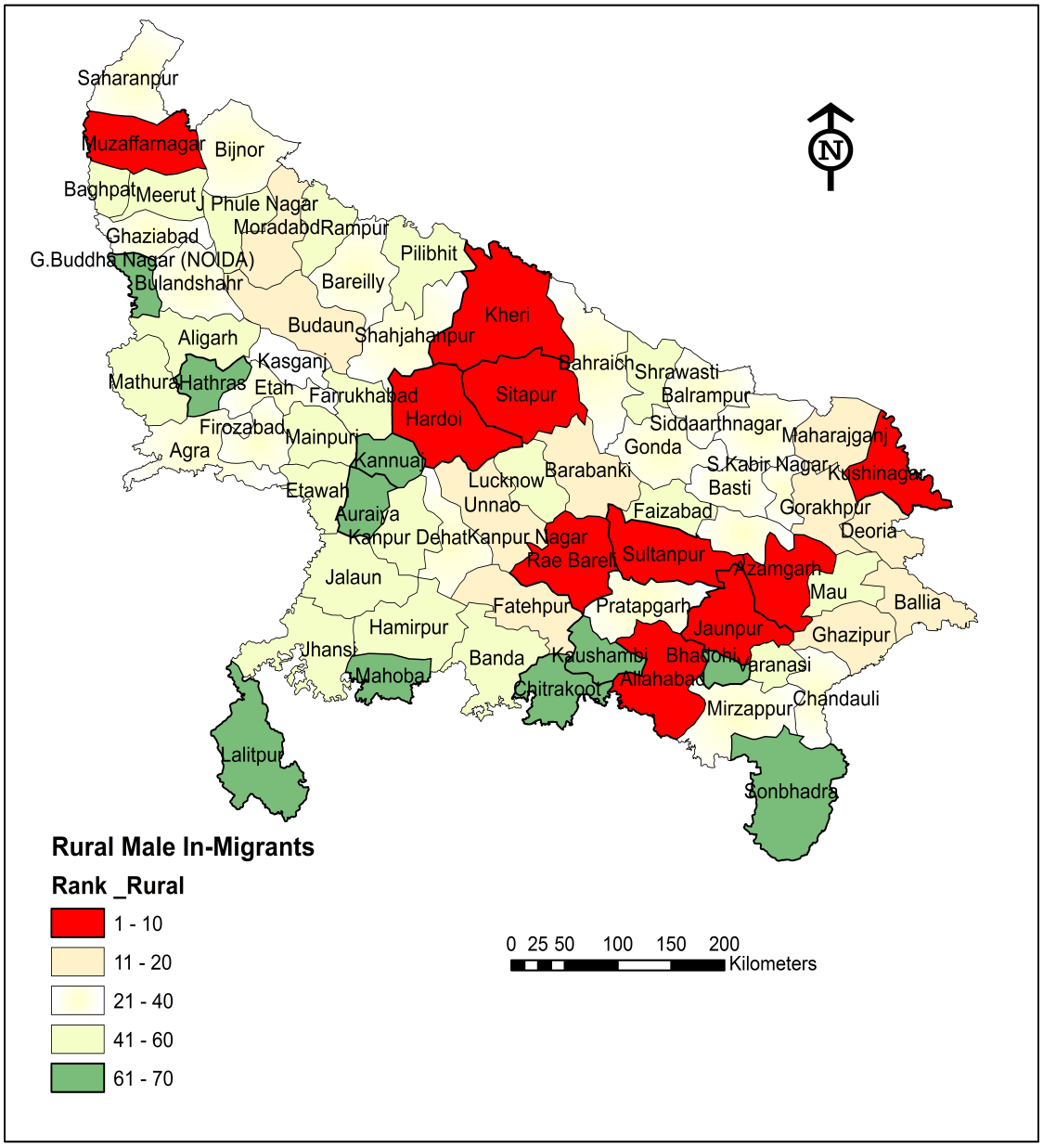
Percentage share of Housheold type in Urban UP				
HH Type (Urban UP)	**Migrants Housheolds**	**Non-Migrants Households**	**Total number of Households**	**Migration Rate (per thousand persons)**
Self-employed	4,991,717 (45.4)	13,730,047 (56.2)	18,721,764 (52.)	266
Regular Wage/Salary Earning	4,338,919 (39.4)	6,855,482 (28.1)	11,194,401 (31.6)	388
Casual Labour	858,223 (7.8)	2,887,427 (11.8)	3,745,650 (10.6)	229
Others	811,573 (7.4)	956,817 (3.9)	1,768,390 (5.0)	459
Total	11,000,432(100)	24,429,773(100)	35,430,205(100)	310

Source: NSSO 64th Round, Schedule 10.2. Employment & Unemployment and Migration Particulars - (July 2007-2008)
Figures in parenthesis represent percent to total

Map 3.1 shows that district with highest male in-migration in rural UP are Jaunpur, followed by Allahabad, Sultanpur, Azamgarh, Hardoi, Sitapur, Kheeri, Muzzafarnagar, Kushinagar and Rae Bareilly. Districts attracting least male in-migration in rural UP are Mahoba, Chitrakoot, Auraiya, Lalitpur and Bhadohi.

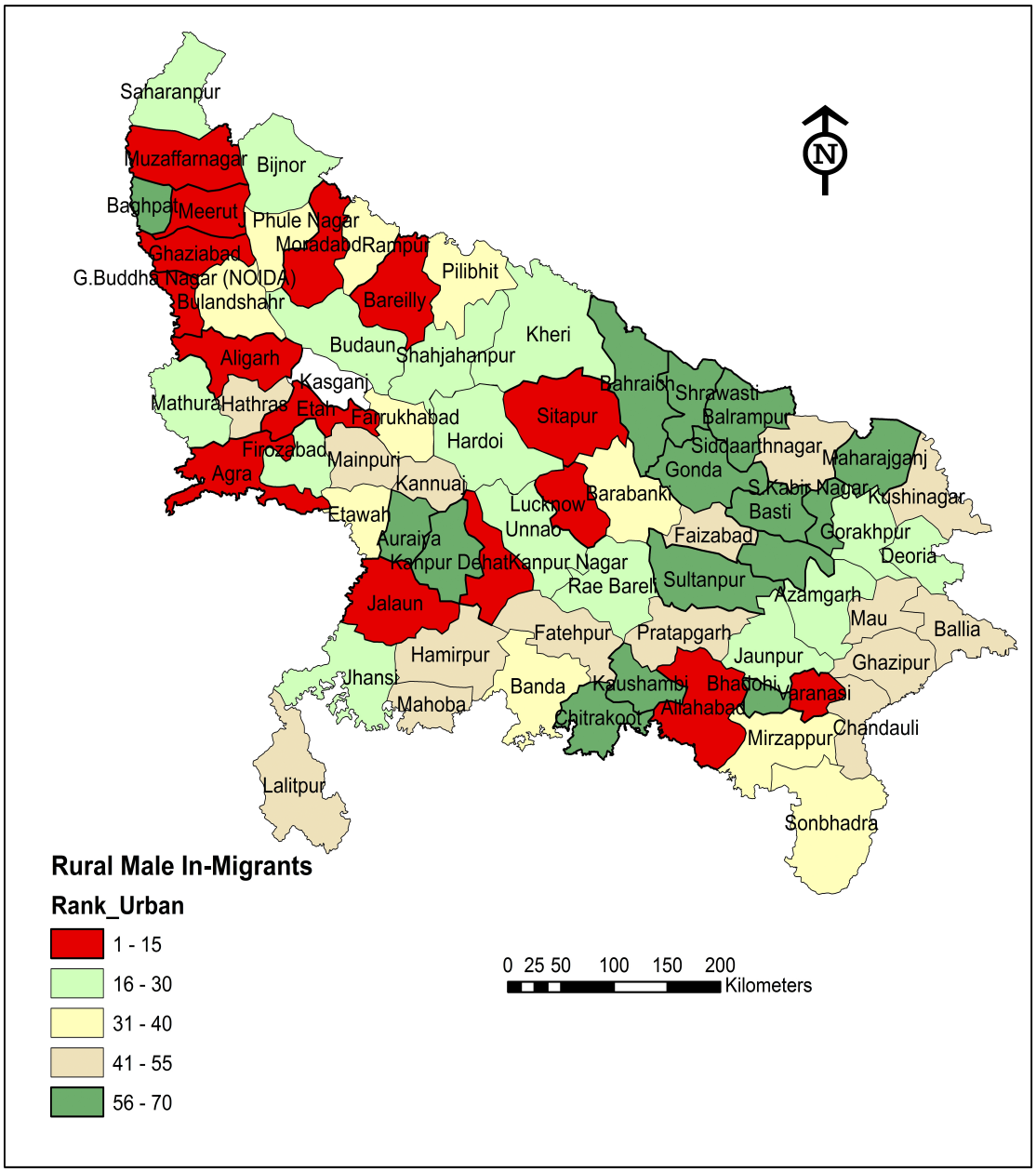
Map 3.2 shows districts with highest male in-migration in urban UP are Ghaziabad, followed by Lucknow, Meerut, Kanpur Nagar, Agra, Varanasi, Allahabad, Gautama Buddha Nagar (NOIDA), Jalaun and Bareilly. 25 percent of total male in-migration in rural UP out of 70 district and 55 percent of total male in-migration in urban out of 70 district are in these major ten districts highlighted in the map 3.1 and 3.2 respectively. In case of urban UP districts receiving least in migration are Shrawasti, Ambedkar Nagar, Maharajganj, Kaushambi and Sant Kabir Nagar.

Map 3.1 Top ten Districts with highest male in-Migration in Rural UP



Source: NSSO 64th Round, Schedule 10.2. Employment & Unemployment and Migration Particulars - (July 2007-2008)

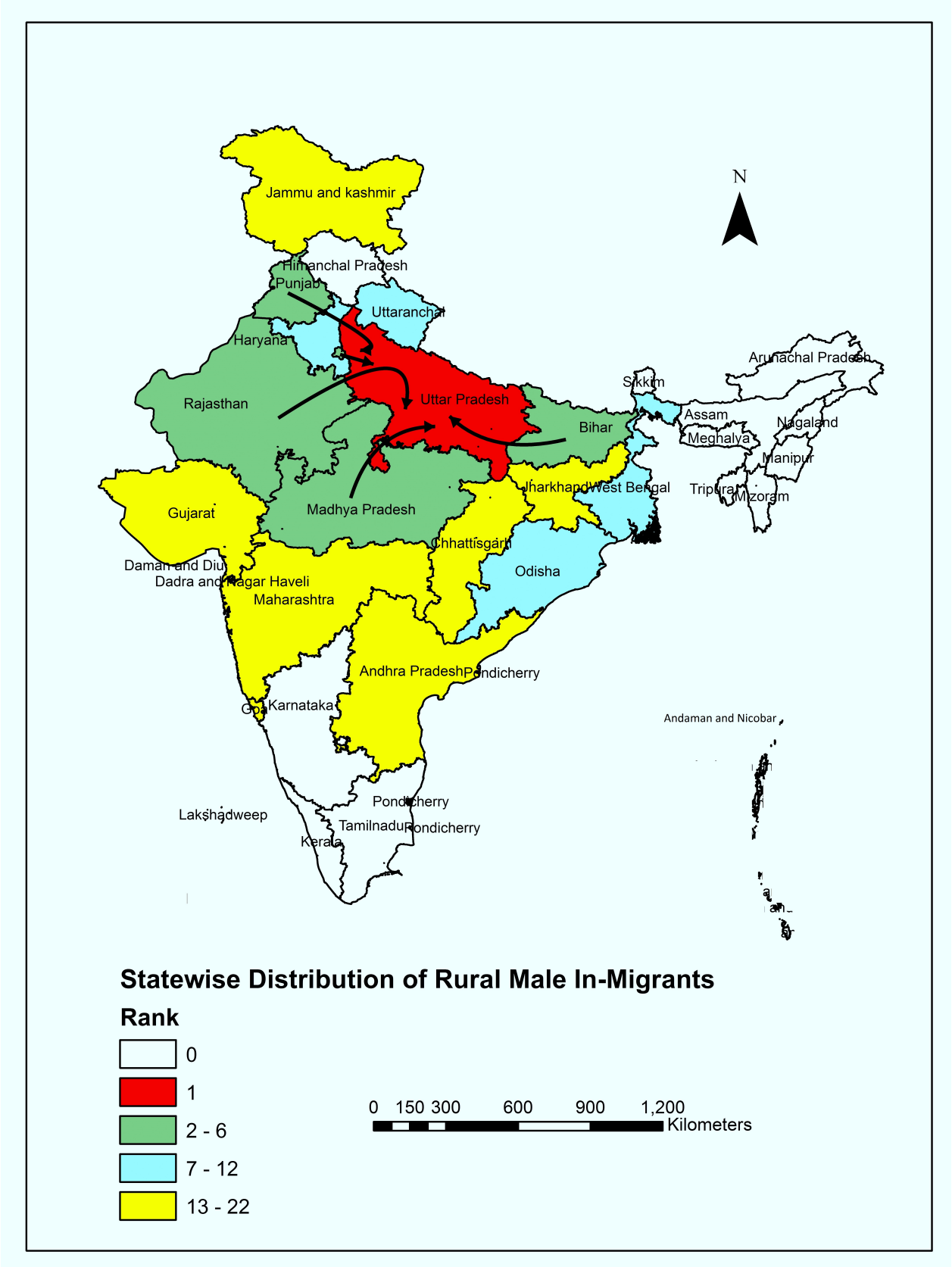
Map 3.2 Top ten Districts with highest male in-Migration in urban UP



Source: NSSO 64th Round, Schedule 10.2. Employment & Unemployment and Migration Particulars - (July 2007-2008)

Map 3.3 shows major states sending male out-migrants in rural UP. Sates with highest number of in-migrants in rural UP are Bihar, Madhya Pradesh, Rajasthan, Punjab and Delhi. Majority of in-migrants are from UP itself.

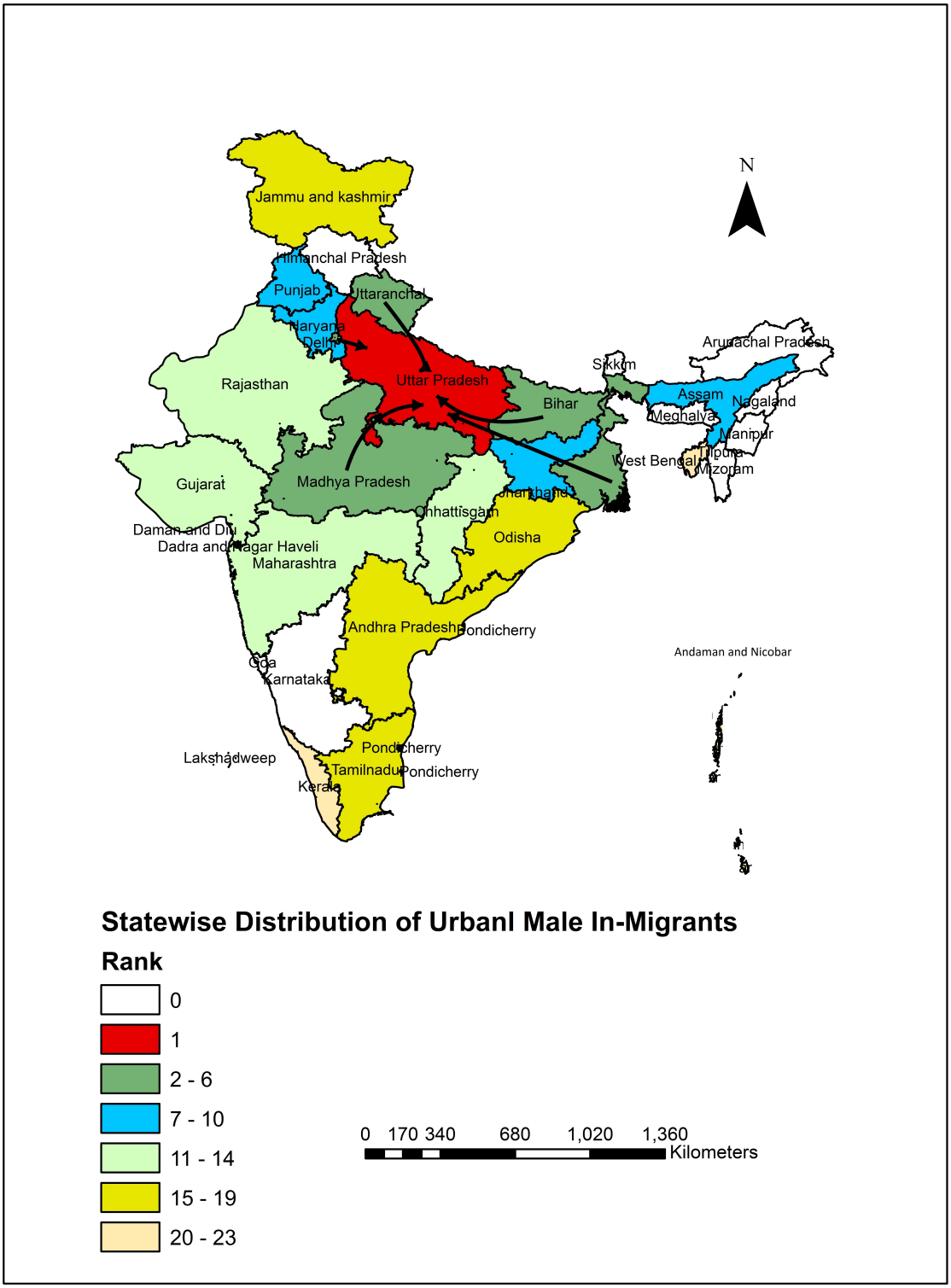
Map 3.3 States sending highest number of Male Migrants in Rural UP



Source: NSSO 64th Round, Schedule 10.2. Employment & Unemployment and Migration Particulars - (July 2007-2008)

In case of urban male in migrants from other states are from Bihar, Delhi, Madhya Pradesh, Uttaranchal and west Bengal. Map 3.3 and 3.4 shows that majority of the in-migrants are from within state itself.

Map 3.4 States sending highest number of male migrants in Urban UP



Source: NSSO 64th Round, Schedule 10.2. Employment & Unemployment and Migration Particulars - (July 2007-2008)

Table 3.4 Distribution (per 1000) of Male in-migrants by location of last UPR[30] for Rural and Urban UP

UP	Rural areas of			Urban areas of			Other countries	All (inlsv.nr)
	Same state		Other states	Same state		Other state		
	Same district	Other district		Same district	Other district			
Rural	385	214	100	65	65	151	20	1000
Urban	195	299	89	89	237	87	2	1000

Source: NSSO Report No.533: Migration in India: July 2007-June2008.

Table 3.4 highlights that majority of male in –migrants in rural and urban UP are from same state. Total numbers of migrants are far high in rural area in comparison to urban areas in UP. It can be seen that within district migration in UP in in-migration category is highest.

3.4.2 Nature and Characteristics of Male out Migration from Rural UP

With a very brief overview of in-migration scenario in UP, current section will deals with nature and characteristics of male out-migrants from rural UP. Total numbers of out-migrants[31] in rural area is 20, 625, 260, out of these male out-migrants are is 8,108,727 and female out-migrants are 12,516,533. In urban UP total number of out-migrants are 3,047,940, in which male out migrants are 928,234 and female out-migrants are 2,119,697. Though the purpose of study is to study male out migration only and that too specifically from rural UP only, forthcoming section will focus on male out migration from rural areas.

Table 3.5 Sex-Wise distributions of Out-Migrants from Rural and Urban UP

Sex-Wise distribution out-migrants from Rural and Urban UP									
Region	Total Population		Number of Out - Migrants		OMR		Percentage of Rural Out-Migrants		
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	(M & F)
Rural	69,906,056	65,501,023	8,108,727	12,516,533	116	191	39	61	100
Urban	18,577,848	16,852,357	928,243	2,119,697	50	126	30	70	100
Total	88,483,904	82,353,380	9,036,970	14,636,230	102	178	38	62	100

Source: NSSO 64th Round, Schedule 10.2. Employment & Unemployment and Migration Particulars - (July 2007-2008)

[30] UPR – as per NSSO last usual place of residence is defined as a place (village or town) where the person had stayed continuously for a period of six months.

[31] As per the NSSO definition, any former member of a household who left the household any time in the past, for stay outside the village/town was considered as out-migrant provided he/she was alive on date of survey.

Table 3.5 highlights total number of out migrants from rural and urban UP, their percentage share and rate of out migration (OMR) for rural and urban male and female. As per NSSO, rate of out migration has been defined as number of out migrants per thousand of persons in that given category[32]. Total number of rural out migrants is 20,625,260 persons out of which 8,108,727 (39 percent) are male and 12,516,533 (61 percent) are female. Total number of urban out-migrants is 3,047,940 out of which 928,243 are male out-migrants and 2,119,697 are female out-migrants. In both rural and urban male and female out migrants out migration rate for female is higher than out migration rate of male. Out migration rate for rural male out migrants from Uttar Pradesh is 116 per thousand persons. Rate of out migration from rural female out migrants are 191 per thousand persons. Rural rate of male out-migration is very high in comparison to rate of out-migration of urban male. Thus male out-migration from rural area is more dominant and play major share in out-migration scenario of UP.

Table 3.6 Sex-wise Distribution of Out-Migrants of Rural UP across various Household Types

Household Type (HH Type)	Total Rural Population		Total Rural Out-Migrants		Out migration Rate (Per Thousand)		Percentage of Rural Out-Migrants		
	Male	Female	Male	Female	M	F	M	F	(Male and Female)
Self-Employed in Non-Agriculture	11,162,823	10,301,601	753,016	1,477,677	68	143	34	66	100
Self-Employed in Agriculture	35,733,799	33,295,308	4,773,269	7,323,789	134	219	39	61	100
Agricultural Labors	10,863,742	9,823,602	301,172	964,565	69	125	38	62	100
Other Labors	6,619,806	5,831,553	1,531,591	1,527,119	46	165	24	76	100
Others	5,525,886	6,248,959	749,679	1,223,383	277	244	50	50	100
Total	69,906,056	65,501,023	8,108,727	12,516,533	116	191	39	61	100

Source: NSSO 64th Round, Schedule 10.2. Employment & Unemployment and Migration Particulars - (July 2007-2008)

[32] As per NSSO rate of out migration is considerably different from migration rates discussed earlier. The estimates of out migrants and migrants are likely to be divergent on many grounds. i) Due to exclusion of those out migrants for which entire household has migrated, ii) in case the parent household from which the out migration of member (s) has taken place, ceased to exist for some reason, the out migration status of former members could not be determined and iii) those who had migrated out any time in the past but had subsequently returned back to the same household, are migrants in that households but are not out migrants.

Table 3.6 shows that highest numbers of male and female are from household type self-employed in agriculture but rate of male out-migration is highest in Others category followed by self employed in agriculture. Table.3.7 highlights male and female out migration from urban areas of UP. As per NSSO household type classification, urban areas are defined in four household types as mentioned earlier. Total numbers of out migrants from Uttar Pradesh from urban areas are 3, 04,940 out of which total number of male out migrants are 928,243 and of female out migrants are 2,119,697.

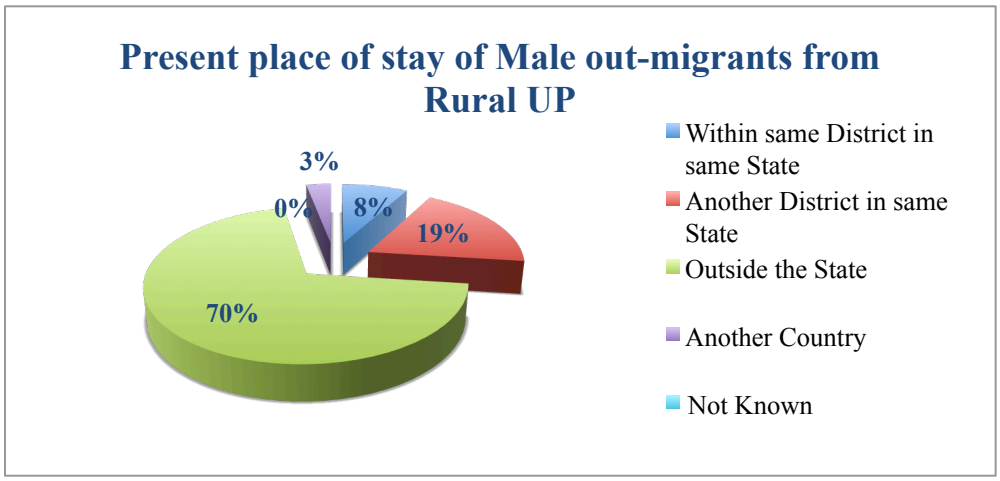
Table 3.7 Sex-wise Distribution of Out-Migrants of Urban UP across various Household Types

Household Type (HH Type)	Total Urban Population		Total Urban Out-Migrants		Out migration Rate (Per Thousand)		Percentage of Rural Out-Migrants		
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	Total (M &F)
Self Employed	9,686,373	9,035,391	350,631	1,061,282	36	117	25	75	100
Regular Wage Salary	6,005,165	5,189,236	244,154	699,203	41	135	26	74	100
Casual Labors	2,038,599	1,707,051	62,801	165,755	31	97	28	73	100
Others	847,711	1,707,051	270657	193,457	319	113	58	42	100
Total	18,577,848	16,852,357	928,243	2,119,697	50	126	30	70	100

Source: NSSO 64th Round, Schedule 10.2. Employment & Unemployment and Migration Particulars - (July 2007-2008)

It can be seen that rate out migration for both male and female are high in rural UP in comparison to urban UP. Rate of male out-migration is highest in Others category followed by Regular wage salary earning. Table 3.5 and table 3.6 shows that male out migration is very from rural area in comparison to male out migration from urban areas.

Figure 3.1 Present Place of Stay of Rural Male Out-migrants from UP

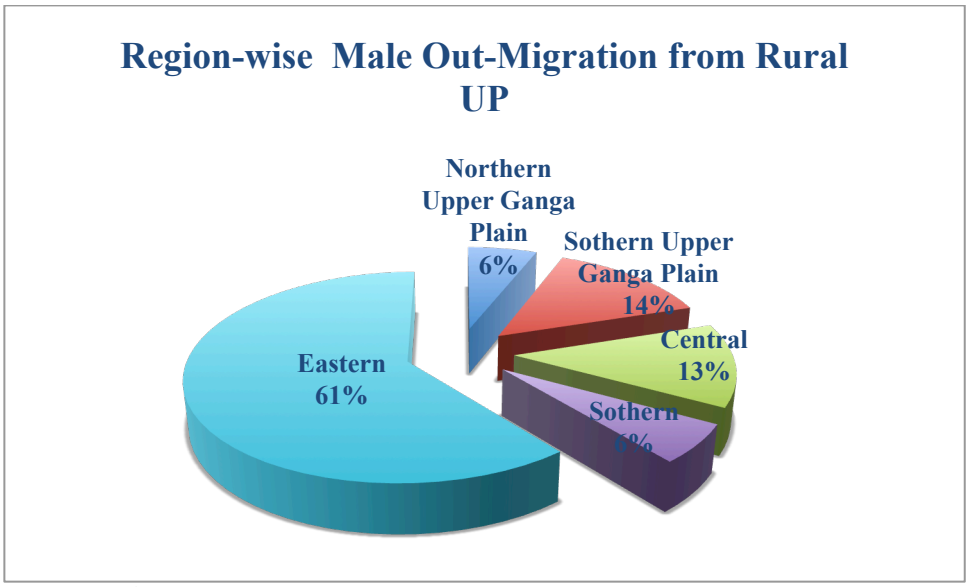


Source: NSSO 64th Round, Schedule 10.2. Employment & Unemployment and Migration Particulars - (July 2007-2008)

Figure 3.1 shows that most of the migrants have migrated outside the state i.e. 70 percent of male from rural area migrated outside the state followed by another district in same state. Male out-migration to another country i.e. international migration is only 3 percent from rural UP.

Figure 3.2 shows region wise male out-migration from rural UP. It can be seen in pie chart that male out-migration form rural UP is highest in Eastern region. 61 percent of total male out-migrants are from eastern region of rural UP.

Figure 3.2 Region wise Male Out-Migration from Rural UP



Source: NSSO 64th Round, Schedule 10.2. Employment & Unemployment and Migration Particulars - (July 2007-2008)

Table 3.8 shows the rate of male out-migration is highest in eastern region of UP followed by Southern region. While doing data analysis it was found that nearly 50 percent of male out-migration in rural UP is from 15 districts and 11 districts out of which is in eastern UP reflecting major share of male out-migrants from eastern UP.

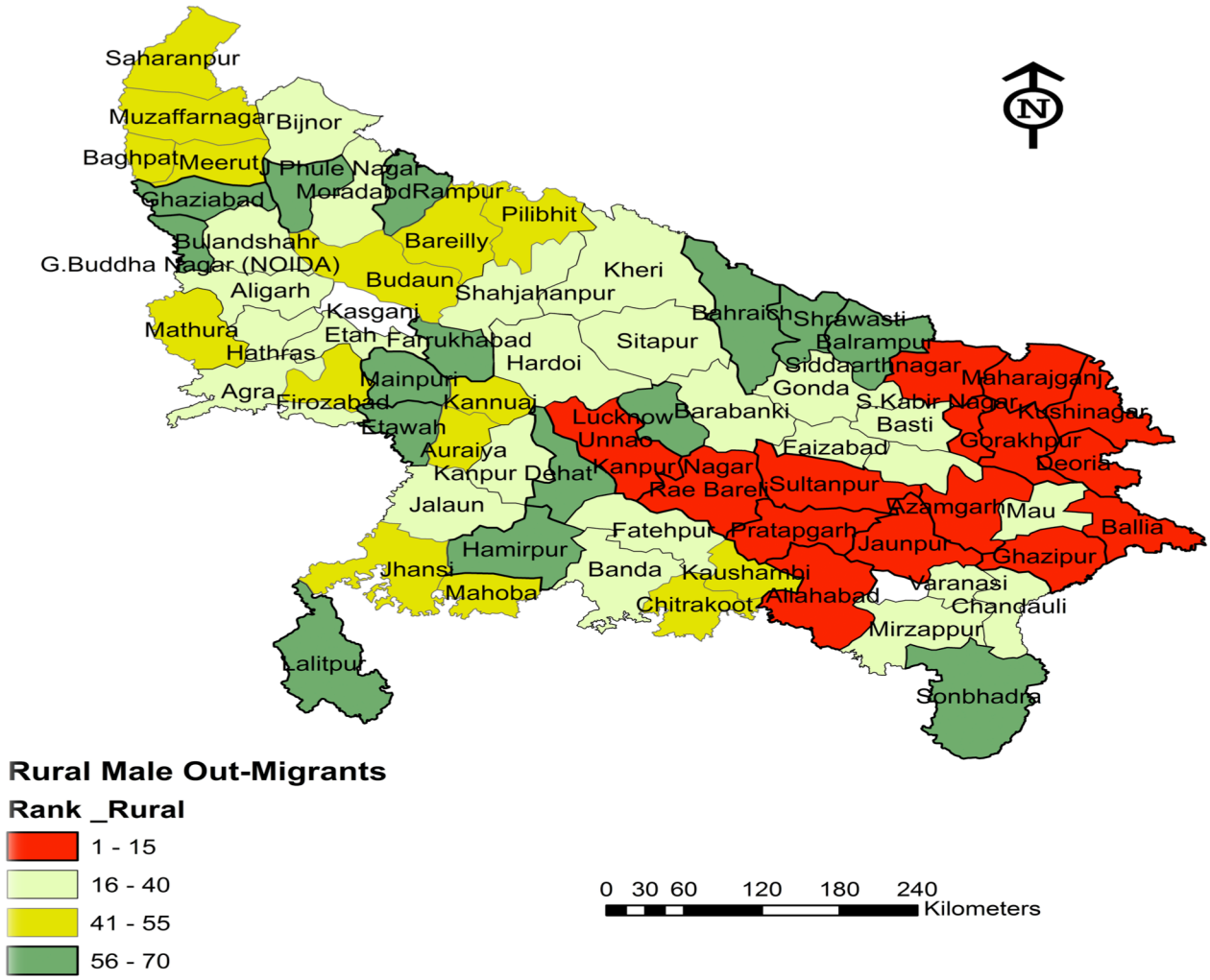
Table 3.8 Region wise Male out-migration rate in Rural UP

Regions of UP	Rural Male Out-Migrant	Total Rural Male Population	Male Out-Migration Rate
Northern Upper Ganga Plains	485,373	9709311.5	50
Central Region	1,054,249	11,295,791	93
Eastern Region	4,974,708	28,936,698	172
Southern Region	477,241	3373604.3	141
Southern Upper Ganga Plains	1,117,156	16,603,771	67
Total	8,108,727	69,919,175	116

Source: NSSO 64th Round, Schedule 10.2. Employment & Unemployment and Migration Particulars - (July 2007-2008)

Map 3.5 shows top districts out of seventy districts with highest and lowest rural male out migration. Eastern region of UP have major share i.e. 51 percent of total rural male out migration is from UP. Rest 55 districts witness only 49 percent of total rural male out migration. Leading districts in rural UP with highest rural male out migration are Azamgarh, Jaunpur, Ghazipur, Gorakhpur, Deoria, Sultanpur, Siddharthanagar and Ballia (Appendix 1) . Out of top fifteen districts with highest rural male out migration eleven districts are from eastern UP. Thus, for further analysis of rural male out migration from UP eastern part has been selected. Highest rural male out migration is form Azamgarh followed by Jaunpur, Ghazipur and Gorakhpur. From data analysis we found that rural Shrawasti witnesses least in migration and out migration. Other districts in rural Uttar Pradesh witnessing least male out migration are Etawah, Gautam Budha Nagar, Hamirpur, J Phule Nagar and Lalitpur. Above mentioned fifteen districts account only for 3 percent of total rural male out migration in out of seventy districts in UP.

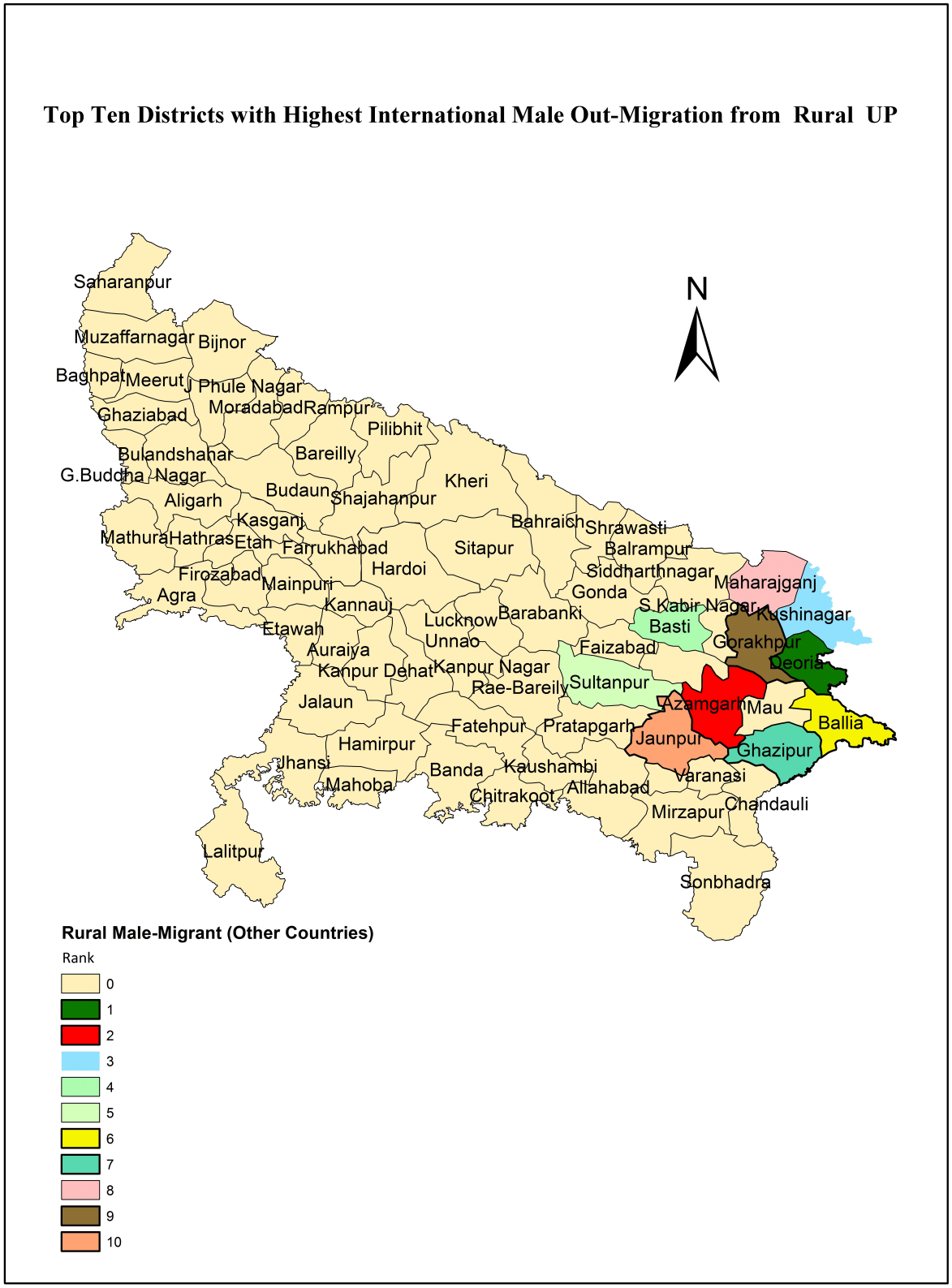
Map 3.5 Districts with Highest Male Out-Migration in Rural UP



Source: NSSO 64th Round, Schedule 10.2. Employment & Unemployment and Migration Particulars - (July 2007-2008)

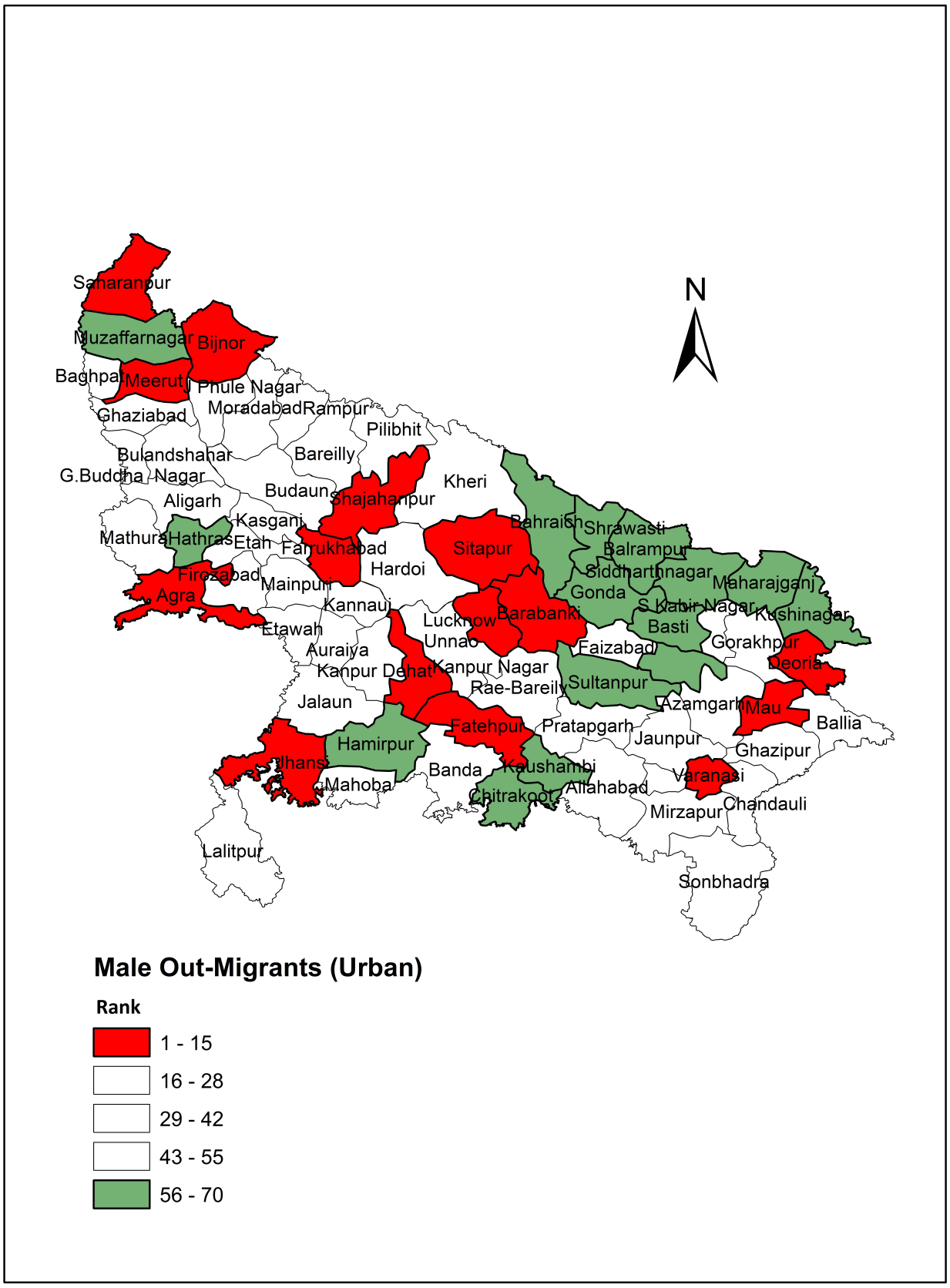
Map 3.6 highlights districts in rural UP with highest male out migration to other countries. Data shows that out of total male migrants from rural UP only 3 percent of male migrants out-migrated to other countries. Districts shown in map 3.4 share in total rural male out migration to abroad are 85 percent. Rest fifteen percent of total rural male out migration is from other 60 districts. Deoria, Azamgarh, Kushinagar , Basti and Sultanpur are leading districts for rural male out migration to other country. It is also clearly visible that rural male out migration to other country is again dominated by eastern Uttar Pradesh.

Map 3.6 Districts with highest Male Out-Migration to another countries from Rural UP



Source: NSSO 64th Round, Schedule 10.2. Employment & Unemployment and Migration Particulars - (July 2007-2008)

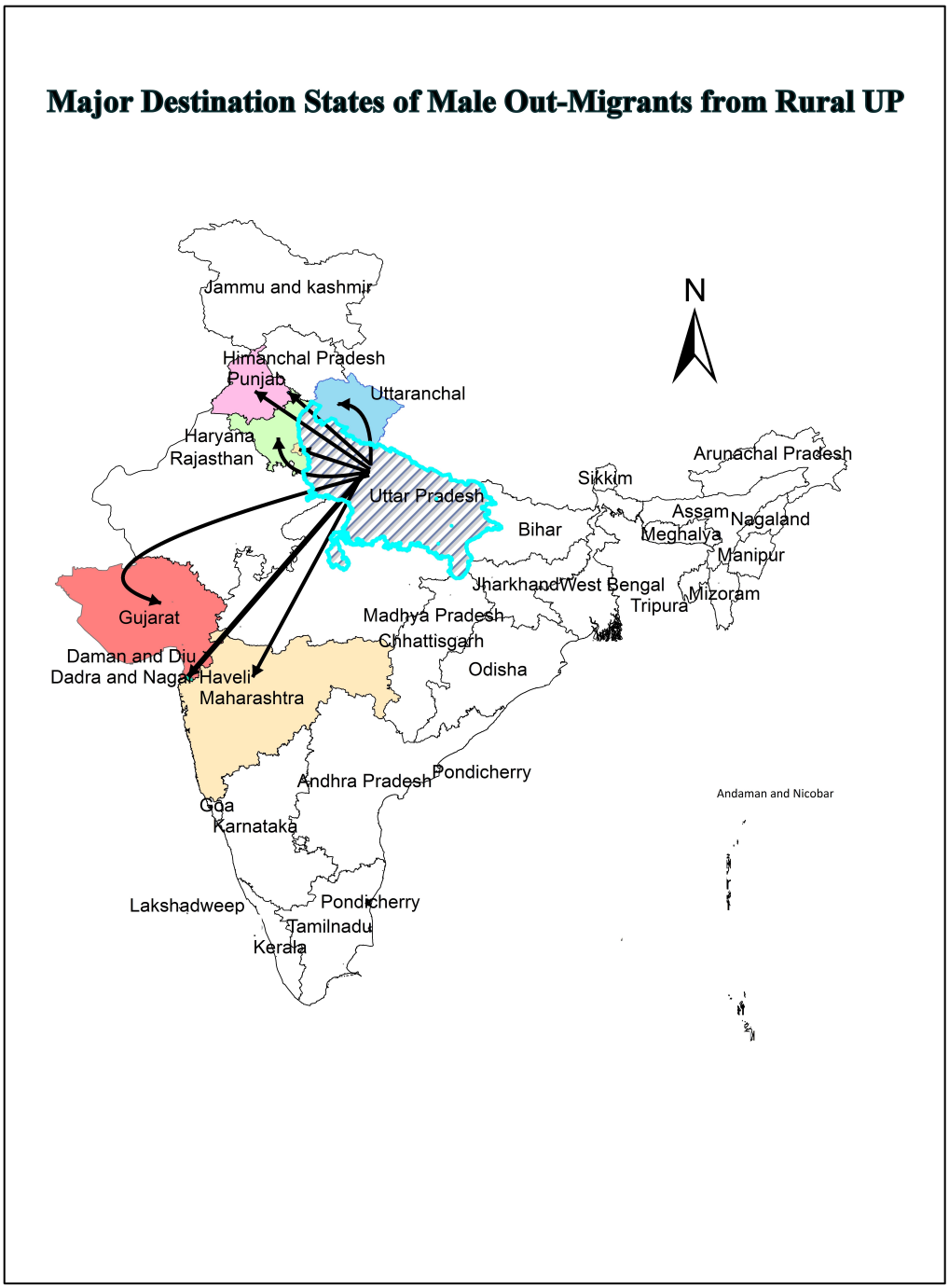
Map 3.7 Top Districts with Highest Male Out-Migration in Urban UP



Source: NSSO 64th Round, Schedule 10.2. Employment & Unemployment and Migration Particulars - (July 2007-2008)

Districts with high male out-migration in Urban UP are Kanpur Nagar, Lucknow, Jhansi, Shahganj, Varanasi and Saharanpur. Districts with least number of male out-migrants in urban UP are from Maharajganj, Siddharthanagar, Gonda, Balrampur, Kaushambi, Chitrakoot and Muzaffarnagar (Appendix 2).

Map 3.8 States with highest number of Male In-Migrants from UP



Source: NSSO 64th Round, Schedule 10.2. Employment & Unemployment and Migration Particulars - (July 2007-2008)

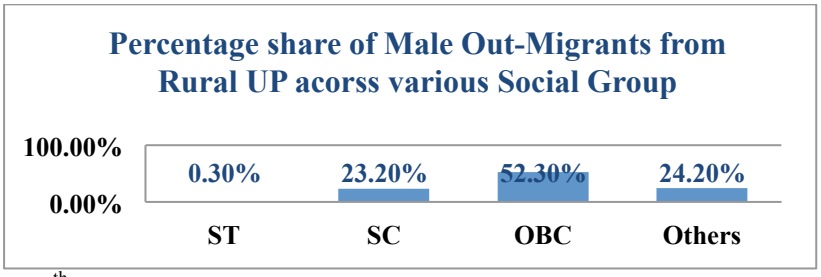
Map 3.8 highlights leading states, which are having highest number of male in migrants from rural UP. Highest number of in male in migrants from UP are in Delhi followed by Maharashtra, Uttaranchal and Gujarat. UP is at top in almost all states, mentioned having highest number of male in migrants. Another major finding of analysis is that urban part of mentioned states witnessed more in migrants form UP in comparison to rural counterpart. Thus we can say that, UP is dominated by rural to urban male out migration. From NSSO data analysis it was found that in Delhi, rural area witness less in migration from UP in comparison to urban counterparts. From total male migrants in Delhi 41 percent of migrants reported their location of last UPR as UP. 19 percent of migrants are from Delhi itself. 20 percent of migrants reported their last UPR as Bihar. Highest numbers of male in migrants in Delhi in both urban and rural areas are from UP, followed by Bihar. In Maharashtra again UP has highest number of in migrants followed by Gujarat. After Delhi, Maharashtra is another top destination for out migrants from UP. Out of total migrants most of the in migrants are form Maharashtra itself i.e. 82 percent. Rest of other states account only for 18 percent in migration to Maharashtra. In that 18 percent 6 percent migrants are from UP itself and 1 percent from Bihar. Out of these 6 percent 2.25 percent are only from Jaunpur (NSSO). Thus two major destinations for male out migration from UP are Delhi and Maharashtra. Another major destination for rural male out-migrants are Haryana, Punjab, Uttaranchal, Gujarat, Daman & Diu and Dadra & Nagar Haveli. From further analysis it was found that major destination in Delhi is north west Delhi, in Maharashtra is Mumbai, in Gujarat it is Surat and Ahmedabad, in Haryana it is Faridabad and Panipat, in Punjab it is Ludhiana and Amritsar and in Uttaranchal it is Dehradun and Udham Singh Nagar.

3.4.3 Socio-Economic Characteristics of Male Out-Migrants from Rural Uttar Pradesh

After having basic idea about major trends and patterns of male out migration from rural UP, this section will highlight socio-economic characteristics of male out migration such as social group, reason for migration, religion, education, married status, land holding size, social group, household size etc.

Social Groups of Male out Migrants from Rural UP

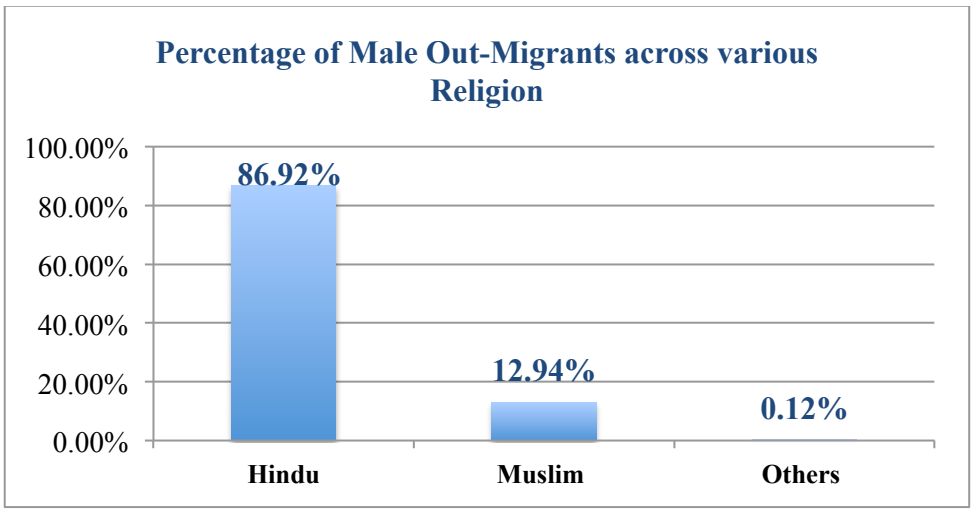
Figure 3.3 Social Groups of Rural Male out -Migrants from Uttar Pradesh Household Type Wise



Source: NSSO 64th Round, Schedule 10.2. Employment & Unemployment and Migration Particulars - (July 2007-2008)

Figure 3.3 highlights the social group of male out migrants. From the Table we can see that majority of male out migrants are form OBC group i.e. 52.3 percent out of total male who migrated out form UP followed by Others i.e. 24.2 percent and SC group i.e. 23.2 percent.

Figure 3.4 Percentage shares of Rural Male Out-Migrants across various Religions



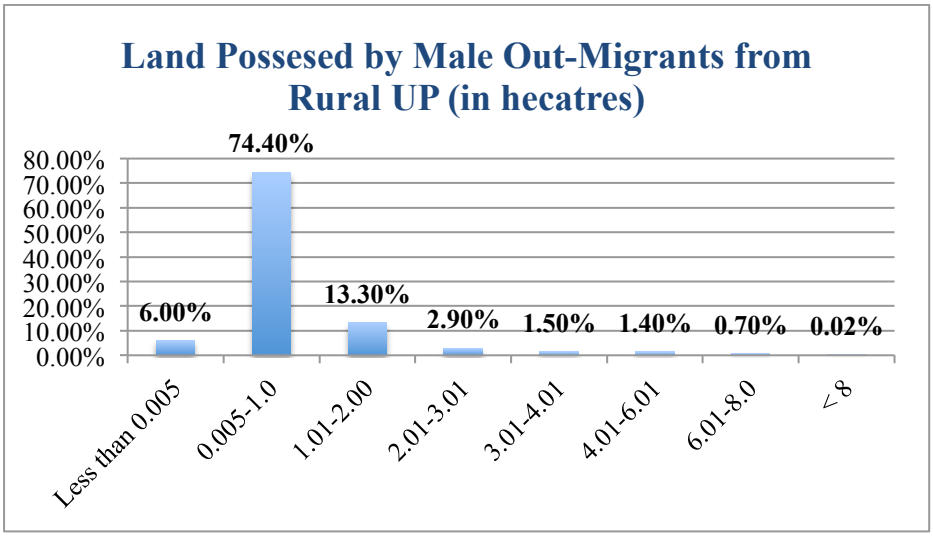
Source: NSSO 64th Round, Schedule 10.2. Employment & Unemployment and Migration Particulars - (July 2007-2008)

From figure 3.4 we can see that majority of male out migrants are of Hindu religion followed by Islam. Thus in a sense we can say that male out migration from rural UP is dominated by Hindu religion followed by Islam. From further analysis it was found that rate of out-migration is high for Hindu migrants i.e. 119 and that of Muslim migrants is 102.

Land possessed by Rural Male Out-Migrants from UP

Figure 3.5 highlights the land possessed by households of rural male out migrants from UP. Land possessed is an important variable in migration decisions.

Figure 3.5 Land possessed by households of Male Out-Migrants in Rural UP



Source: NSSO 64th Round, Schedule 10.2. Employment & Unemployment and Migration Particulars - (July 2007-2008).

Majority of rural male out migrants possess land less than 1 hectare i.e. 74 percent followed by 1-2 hectares i.e. 13 percent. The irony is, from data analysis it was found that is that out of total male out migrants form rural area in UP are from household types self-employed from agriculture i.e. 59 percent, and they are the ones with agriculture as main occupation at origin and majority of them are having less than 1 hectare land. Only 0.2 percent of male out migrants form rural UP have land holding size more than 8 hectares.

Table 3.9 Land Possessed by Male Out-Migrants in Rural UP

Land Possesed	Total Rural Male Population	Rural Male Out-Migrant	Rate of Out-Migration
Less than 0.005	4,76,980	5535989.1	86
0.005-1.0	60,36,251	5,10,18,761	118
1.01-2.00	10,75,637	8853783.4	121.49
2.01-3.01	2,33,701	25,89,650	90.24
3.01-4.01	1,24,592	1029357.8	121.04
4.01-6.01	1,05,937	481,769.4 2	219.89
6.01-8.0	54,304	246226.8	220.54
< 8	1,325	1,63,497	8.1
Total	6,99,19,036	81,08,727	116

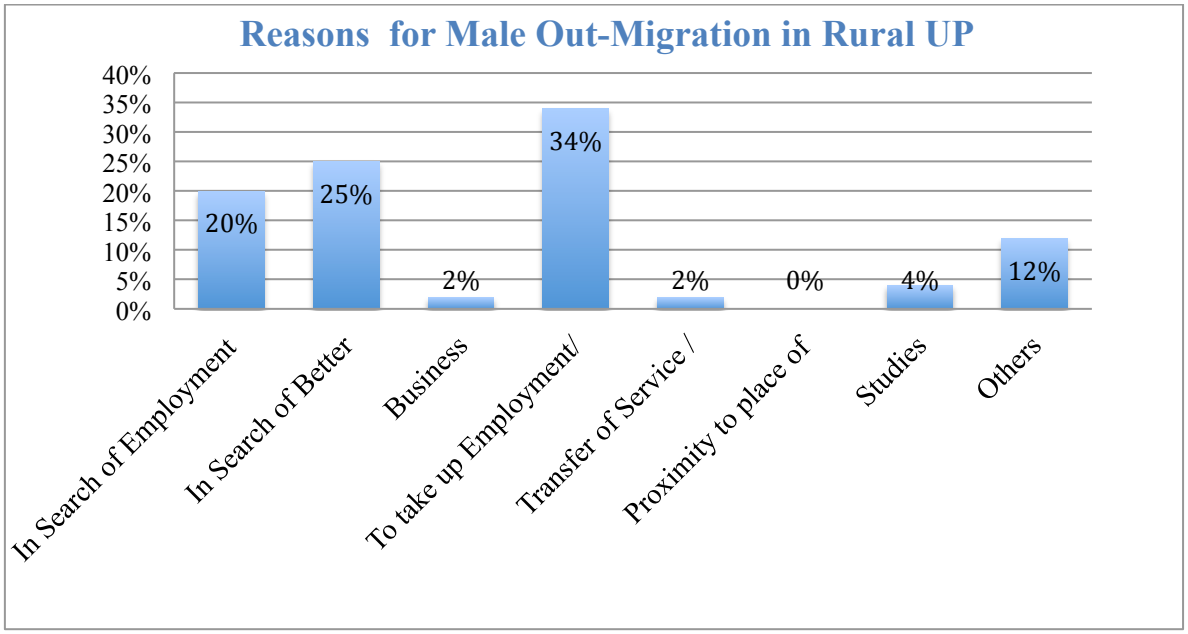
Source: NSSO 64th Round, Schedule 10.2. Employment & Unemployment and Migration Particulars - (July 2007-2008)

Table 3.9 shows rate of male out-migration of rural UP across various land holdings. Rate of out-migration is very high in migrants having land above 4.01 -6.01 hectares. Table shows that land and migration are positively related. Higher the land possessed more chances of out-migration. In villages of rural UP big landlords from upper caste have very most of the land endowment. From above table it can be said that there are two classes, which undertakes migration in rural UP. The succeeding chapters will help in analyzing the determinants and nature of migration of these two classes.

Reasons for Migration

From figure 3.6 it can be seen that major reason for migration of rural male from UP is employment related. Majority of the out migrants migrated out to take up employment i.e. 34 percent followed by In search of better employment i.e. 25 percent and In search of employment i.e. 20 percent. Only 4 percent of the rural male out migrants migrated out for study purpose. From data analysis it can be said that migration is not distressed migration as only 19 percent of migrants moved in search of employment. 33 percent migrated to take up employment in some sense highlights the role of social networks in out migration from UP. 9 percent of migrants also migrated because of migration of parents or earning member of family.

Figure 3.6 Reasons for Migration of Rural Male Out-Migrants Household Type Wise from Uttar Pradesh

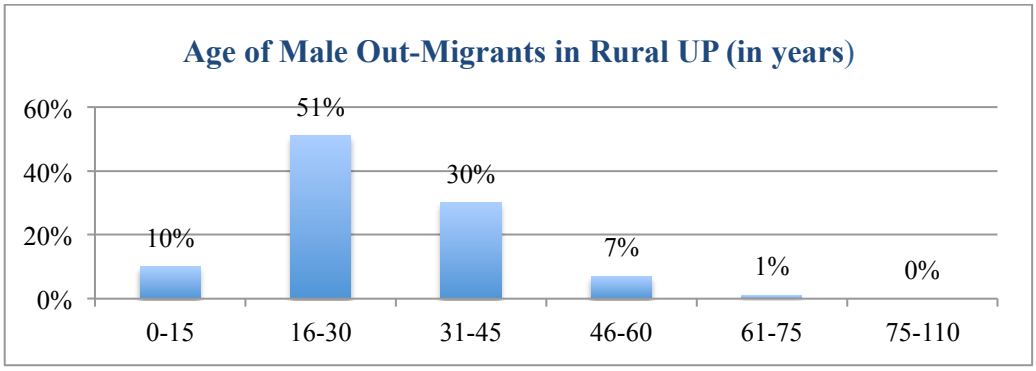


Source: NSSO 64th Round, Schedule 10.2. Employment & Unemployment and Migration Particulars - (July 2007-2008)

Age of Male Out-Migrants form Rural UP

Figure 3.7 shows age of male out-migrants from rural UP. Most of the male out migrants are in between age range 16 to 45. 51 percent of male out migrants are in age range of 13-30 and 30 percent of male out migrants lies in age range 31 to 45.Male out migrants in age range 0-15 is 10 percent only. Thus one can infer this that majority of male out migration in rural area is by adult male in age range of 16 to 45. Above age 45 the percentage share of male out migration is very less in comparison to out migration in age range 16-45.

Figure 3.7 Age of Male Out-Migrants from rural UP.

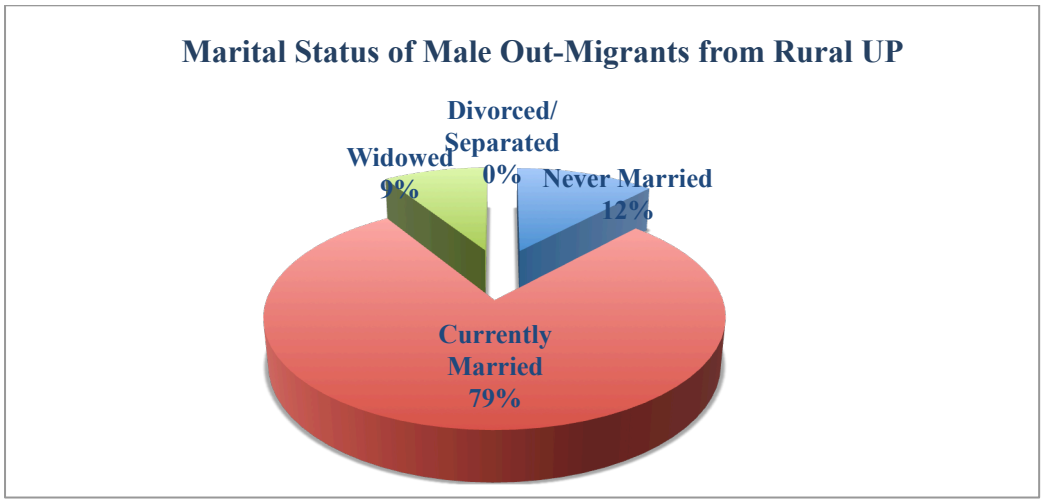


Source: NSSO 64th Round, Schedule 10.2. Employment & Unemployment and Migration Particulars - (July 2007-2008)

Marital Status of Male Out-Migrants from Rural UP

Figure 3.8 shows the marital status of male out-migrants from rural UP. 79 percent of male out-migrants are currently married and 12 percent of out-migrants are not married. This table indicated that migration is mainly adopted my married man in rural UP. Percentage share of divorced and widowed in total male out-migration is very less i.e.9 percent.

Figure 3.8 Marital Status of Male Out-Migrants from Rural UP

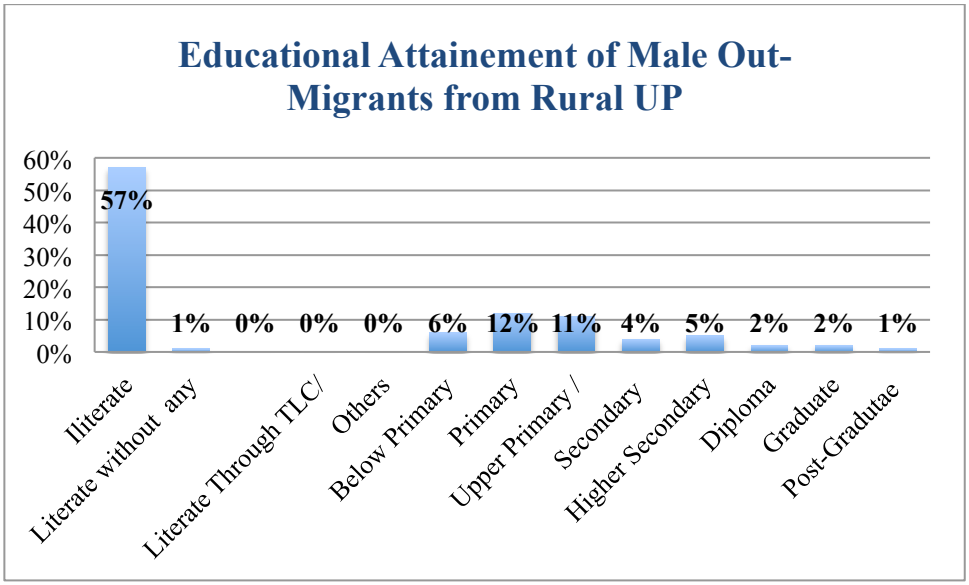


Source: NSSO 64th Round, Schedule 10.2. Employment & Unemployment and Migration Particulars - (July 2007-2008)

Educational Attainments of Male Out-Migrants from Rural UP

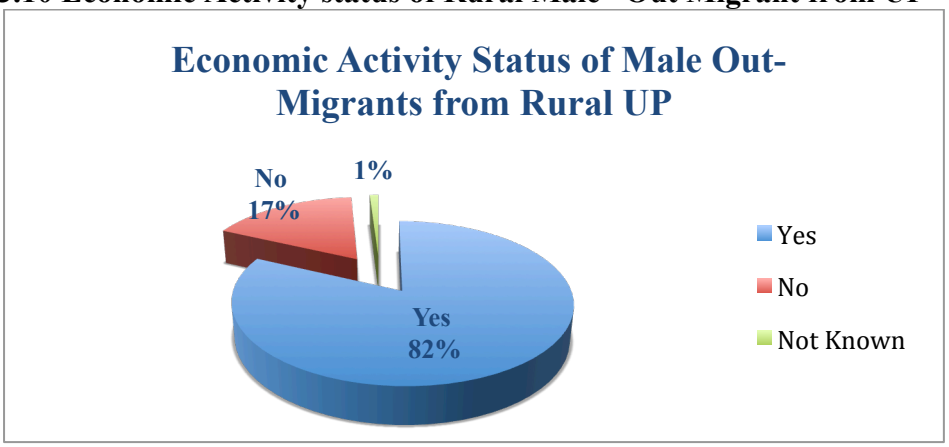
Figure 3.9 shows that 57 percent of male out-migrants from Rural UP are illiterate, 12 percent are having educational attainment up-to primary level, 11 percent of male migrants are having educational attainment up to upper primary/middle level. Figure shows that only 1 percent of male migrants from rural UP are post-graduate and 2 percent are graduates.

Figure 3.9 Educational Attainments of Male Out-Migrants from Rural UP



Source: NSSO 64th Round, Schedule 10.2. Employment & Unemployment and Migration Particulars - (July 2007-2008)

Figure 3.10 Economic Activity status of Rural Male –Out Migrant from UP



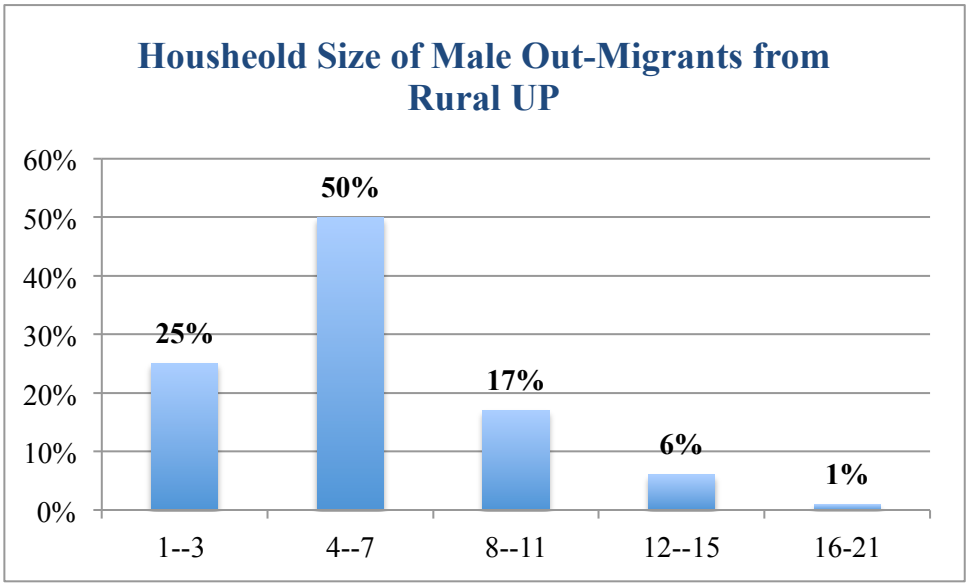
Source: NSSO 64th Round, Schedule 10.2. Employment & Unemployment and Migration Particulars - (July 2007-2008)

82 percent of migrants were engaged in economic activity after out migration from rural UP. Only 17 percent remained unemployed after out migration form rural UP. This Table too supports the positive role played by social networks in facilitating male out migration form rural UP. Figure 3.10 shows that most of the migrants have some work at origin or have something at destination. Thus either they moved for better employment or for taking up employment in destination.

Household Size of Male Out-Migrants from Rural UP

Household size is one of the very important factors in determining migration decisions. Figure 3.11 shows household size of male out-migrants from rural UP. It can be seen that majority of the male out-migrants belong to household size 4 to 7 followed by 1-3

Figure 3.11 Household Size of Male Out-Migrants from Rural UP



Source: NSSO 64th Round, Schedule 10.2. Employment & Unemployment and Migration Particulars - (July 2007-2008)

3.5 Concluding Remarks

Various studies confirm that contexts and drivers of male out-migration from UP, it is true that there isn't any single specific reason. Stagnant agricultural growth, poor infrastructure, lack of basic civic amenities, political unrest and instability, lack on the part of administrative bodies in proper implementation of polices and schemes meant for rural India, prevalent caste system and its repercussions, lack of industrial sector and lack of vocational and educational skills accompanied by lack of easy credit facilities, uneven distribution of land resources and political and land powers in hands of few sections leads to male out-migration. If above-mentioned things could have been established well and working properly in villages, male exodus has not taken place to this large-scale form rural UP.

An attempt has been made to compare nature of migration from UP and all India level in chapter one and it was found that migration particulars of UP shows very distinctive feature. UP is among leading states with high male in migration rates in urban areas. Reasons of least in migration in rural areas are lack of development and unemployment along with very bad agricultural growth and development. UP witness high interstate migration and also its among top states with negative net migration rate which again shows that in migration is comparatively low to out migration to other state in UP. UP is among top five states with high out migration to other states. Majority of in migrants in UP are from same district. One of the interesting finding of the study is district in rural eastern UP witness highest in migration and out migration. Shrawasti is place in UP witnessing least in and out migration. Most of the in migrants are form Bihar.

Major share of male out-migrants are from eastern UP. Azamgarh is the districts with highest number of male out migrants followed by Jaunpur. Major destination for out migrants form UP is Delhi and Maharashtra. Out of seventy districts in UP, 15 districts accounts for half of the male out migration from state and out of that 11 districts are from eastern UP. In case out migration to other country again ten districts from eastern part accounts for 85 percent of male out migration to other countries.

Data analysis also demonstrated that majority of rural male are from household type self-employed in agriculture. It was found that though majority of households are engaged in agriculture as their main source of income but at the same time majority of these households are having marginal land holdings. Though agriculture is main source

of income for rural households but because of small and marginal land holdings, income from agriculture might not be sufficient to meet the demands of daily needs in rural households. Thus high rural male out migration can be attributed to less income in agriculture because of marginal size of land holdings. Another reason for out migration of male from Uttar Pradesh is because of lack of development and lack of employment opportunities in Eastern Uttar Pradesh. Infrastructural development too is in very pathetic condition in rural eastern Uttar Pradesh. There are neither any big industries nor any big development and Infrastructural projects project so that it can engage rural male and reduces financial burden in meeting daily expenses. Another major reason for high rural male out migration from eastern Uttar Pradesh can be because of facilitating role of social networks based on caste, creed or religion.

NSSO 64th Round data analysis on migration particulars gave an overview of major migration trends and patterns at State level in UP. To have deeper understanding of rural male out migration from UP and to meet various objectives of the study comprehensive field survey was conducted at both origin and destination. Next chapter will highlight major trends and patterns of male out-migration from six villages at district level i.e Jaunpur.

Chapter 4

Nature and Determinants of Male Out-Migration from Rural UP: An Investigation of Six Villages in Jaunpur District

4.1 Introduction

With a broad overview of drivers and patterns of male out-migration at state level in previous chapter, this chapter provides detail analysis of socio-economic and demographic background of sample migrant households. The socio-cultural context in which village exists, their composition and distribution in the village affects the rate of out migration and is also affected by out migration of male members of the household. To have better understanding of nature, volume, pattern and causes of out migration, it is necessary to look at some socio-economic and demographic characteristics of out-migrants and migrant households. Studies show that majority of the rural out-migration from UP is under the compulsion of poor living and economic conditions. There are thousands of rural male out –migrants, which leave for work at distant shores (Rasul and Sharma, 2014; Arora, 2006;World Bank, 2010;Majumder, 2015).

Caste plays very important role in determining power relations and accessibility of resources in villages of UP (Rasul and Sharma, 2014;World Bank, 2010;Pal, 2014; Narayan and Singh, 2016). A study of any social phenomena including migration can never be understood completely without taking into consideration social groups. In rural setting in India, caste often determines occupational and social status. Very often, the land ownership is based on caste grouping in villages of India. Kothari (1980) also mentions that caste system is a pivotal point in the stratification of the Indian society and hence, it is an important variable in the study of migration process. Thus, an attempt has been made in present work to analyze nature and determinants of migration across various social groups.

This chapter is divided into six parts. Part one is introduction; part two provides socio-economic characteristics of sample households in surveyed villages, such as percentage of migrant and non-migrant households, social groups and religion, land possessed, source of income, expenditure, educational attainment of head of household, living conditions of migrant households etc. Part three throws light on individual characteristics of male-out migrants, such as age, educational attainment marital status, type of migration, reasons for migration, current place of stay, current occupation etc.

Part four, is analysis of male rate of out-migration in terms of various socio-economic variables. Part five will empirically analyze the determinants of male out-migration from Jaunpur district and also across various social groups using logistic regression model. Social group- wise analyses unravel the linkages between caste and out-migration from rural UP. Part six is concluding remark and discussions.

4.2 Socio-economic and Demographic profile of sample Migrant households in Rural UP

This section provides demographic profile of households in sample villages. This section is divided in two broad categories. One part gives an overview on understanding of socio-economic analysis of sample migrant households, whereas, second section throws light on characteristics of male out-migrants from rural UP. Table 2.11 in chapter 2, reveals that out of total households in selected villages, in Jaunpur district, 68 percent are migrant households and 33 percent are non-migrant households. The number of households with male out migration is almost double than the number of non-migrant households in Jaunpur. Total number of sample households is 370 out of which 247 households reported as household with at least one male out migration and 123 reported as households with no male out migration.

4.2.1 Distribution of Migrants and Non-Migrant Households in Sample Villages in Jaunpur District

Total male aged 15-50 is 829 in all sample villages and male above age 50 is 161. Table 4.1 shows that out-migration rate is highest for Asbaranpur i.e. 56 male out of 100 migrate-out followed by Jarasi where 53 male out of 100 males migrate out of the village. Manecha, Chitkon and Yonouspur have least percentage share of migrant households. From above table, it can be said that Asbaranpur, Chitkon and Rampur Soiri have large number of migrant households in comparison to Manecha and Yonouspur.

Out-migration rate for male aged between 15-50 is high i.e. 46 males per hundred males in comparison to 17 male per hundred male in age 50 and above. Table shows that migration is selective and often undertaken by young male of the family. Adult male out-migration is lowest in Manecha i.e. 27 persons per hundred persons out-migrate.

Table 4.1 Distribution of Migrants and Non-Migrants household in selected sample villages in Jaunpur district (in percentage)

Village Name	Migrant HH	Non-Migrant HH	Total HH Number	Total Male (15-50)	Total Male Out-Mig	Out-Migration Rate	Total Male Over 50	Male Out-Mig Over 50	Rate of Out-Migration**
Chitko	26(10.5)	12 (9.8)	38(10.3)	96	43	44.8	24	0	0
Jarasi	40(16.2)	25 (20.3)	65(17.6)	149	79	53.0	33	2	6.06
Asbaranpur	79(32.0)	16 (13.0)	95(25.7)	247	139	56.3	53	13	24.52
Rampur Soiri	44(17.8)	22 (17.9)	66(17.8)	128	61	47.7	37	10	27.03
Manecha	39(15.8)	35 (28.5)	74(20.0)	159	43	27.0	12	1	8.33
Yunuspur	19(7.7)	13 (10.6)	32(8.7)	50	17	34	2	2	100
Total	**247(100.0)**	**123 (100)**	**370(100.0)**	**829**	**382**	**46.1**	**161**	**28**	**17.4**

Source: Field survey 2016

Figures in parentheses represent percent to total.

** Out-migration rate is defined as number of male out-migrant by total male in given category per thousand persons. In present study it is calculated per hundred persons.

4.2.2 Demographic Profile of sample Migrant Households of Surveyed villages in Jaunpur District

This section will highlight demographic profile of migrant households. Table 4.2 shows socio-demographic characteristics of sample migrant households surveyed in six villages. In total migrant household, 85.8 percent of household's head is male and in 14.2 percent of household's head is female. Household size is an important variable in determining male out-migration in rural families.

Average household size of migrant household is 8. Large household size plays a facilitating role in out-migration. Women left behind look after agriculture and homesteads and male migrate out to diversify sources of income and risks associated with agriculture at place of origin. 85.8 percent of migrant households are Hindu and 14.2 percent of total sample migrant households are Muslim. Chitkon and Rampur Soiri reported 100 percent Hindu in migrant households. Manecha and Yonouspur have high percentage share of Muslim migrant households i.e. 57.9 percent and 38.5 percent respectively.

Table 4.2 (a) Demographic Profile of sample Migrant Households of Surveyed villages in Jaunpur District

Name of Variables	Name of Village						Total
	Chitkon	Jarasi	Asbaranpur	Rampur Soiri	Manecha	Yonouspur	
Head of the HH							
Male	15(57.7)	39(97.5)	70(88.6)	34(77.3)	37(94.9)	17(89.5)	212(85.8)
Female	11(42.3)	1(2.5)	9(11.4)	10(22.7)	2(5.1)	2(10.5)	35(14.2)
Household Size							
1-5	7(26.9)	7(17.5)	17(21.5)	11(25.0)	11(28.2)	2(10.5)	55(22.3)
6-10	15(57.7)	15(37.5)	43(54.4)	22(50.0)	24(61.5)	17(89.5)	136(55.1)
11 & above	4(15.4)	18(45.0)	19(24.1)	11(25.0)	4(10.3)	0	56(22.7)
Average HH size	8.0	9.9	8.9	8.8	6.8	6.3	8.4
Religion							
Hindu	26(100.0)	35(87.5)	75(94.9)	44(100.0)	24(61.5)	8(42.1)	212(85.8)
Muslim	0(0.0)	5(12.5)	4(5.1)	0(0.0)	15(38.5)	11(57.9)	35(14.2)
Social Group							
SC	6(23.1)	13(32.5)	5(6.3)	13(29.5)	5(12.8)	4(21.1)	46(18.6)
ST	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)
OBC	13(50.0)	11(27.5)	31(39.2)	17(38.6)	21(53.8)	10(52.6)	103(41.7)
Upper caste	7(26.9)	16(40.0)	43(54.4)	14(31.8)	13(33.3)	5(26.3)	98(39.7)
Educational Attainment of Head of HH							
Illiterate	3(11.5)	0(0.00)	14(17.7)	16(36.4)	16(41.0)	4(21.1)	53(21.5)
Primary	13(50.0)	7(17.5)	5(6.3)	11(25.0)	0(0)	2(10.5	38(15.4)
Matriculation	2(7.7)	8(20.0)	17(21.5)	10(22.7)	20(51.3)	12(63.2)	69(27.9)
Intermediate	1(3.8)	13(32.5)	12(15.2)	7(15.9)	0(0.0)	1(5.3)	34(13.8)
Graduate	7(26.9)	7(17.5)	31(39.2)	0(0.0)	3(7.7)	0(0.0)	48(19.4)
PG and above	0(0.0)	5(12.5)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	5(2.0)
Total	**26(100)**	**40(100)**	**79(100)**	**44(100)**	**39(100)**	**19(100)**	**247(100.0)**

Source: Field Survey 2016.

*Figures in parenthesis represent percent to total.

Social group is another very crucial determining factor migration decisions, as already mentioned in chapter 3 that villages in India are divided in caste-based segments. SC households have least percentage share on total migrant households i.e. only 18.6 percent. Percentage share of OBC and Other Upper caste is very high in total migrant households i.e. 41.7 percent and 39.7 percent. In sample migrant households there is no household that belongs to ST category in all sample villages. Village wise analysis of social group shows that OBC are migrating more from Manecha, Yonouspur and Chitkon, whereas, migration from Asbaranpur and Jarasi are dominated by Upper caste.

Educational attainment of the head of households play very important role in growth and development of household. It can be one of the determining factors of decision to migrate out. Education helps migrant households to understand information

of his interest and play facilitation role in migration. Propensity of migration increases with increase in education. Educational attainment of the head of the household is very important in influencing educational attainment of other members of the household. 21.5 percent of migrant households head are illiterate. 15.4 percent migrant households reported that the head of the household is having educational attainment up-to primary level. Only 2.0 percent of migrant households reported that the head of household is having educational attainment up to Post graduation level and above. Village-wise it can be seen that Jarasi, Asbaranpur and Chitkon are far better than other villages in terms of educational attainment. Highest numbers of illiterate heads are in Manecha and Rampur Soiri.

Table 4.2 (b) shows various demographic profiles of migrant households according to their social group.

Table 4.2 (b) Demographic Profile of Sample Migrant Households of Surveyed Villages in Jaunpur District according to their Social Group

Name of Variables	Social Group			
	SC	OBC	Upper caste	Total
Head of the HH of Sample Migrant Households				
Male	45(97.8)	90(87.4)	77(78.6)	212(85.8)
Female	1(2.2)	13(12.6)	21(21.4)	35(14.2)
Household Size of Sample Migrant Households				
1-5	8(17.4)	22 (21.4)	25(25.5)	55(22.3)
6-10	29 (63.0)	46 (44.7)	61(62.2)	136(55.1)
11 &above	9(19.6)	35 (33.8)	12(12.4)	56(22.7)
Average No. of Household Size	8.0	9.1	8.0	8.4
Religion				
Hindu	46(100.0)	86(83.5)	80(81.6)	212(85.8)
Muslim	0(0.0)	17(16.5)	18(18.4)	35(14.2)
Village				
Chitkon	6(13.0)	13(12.6)	7(7.1)	26(10.5)
Jarasi	13(28.3)	11(10.7)	16(16.3)	40(16.2)
Asbaranpur	5(10.9)	31(30.1)	43(43.9)	79(32.0)
Rampur Soiri	13(28.3)	17(16.5)	14(14.3)	44(17.8)
Manecha	5(10.9)	21(20.4)	13(13.3)	39(15.8)
Yonouspur	4(8.7)	10(9.7)	5(5.1)	19(7.7)
Educational Status of Head of Household				
Illiterate	20(43.5)	29(28.2)	4(4.1)	53(21.4)
Primary	14(30.4)	17(16.5)	7(7.1)	38(15.4)
Matriculation	5(10.9)	44(42.7)	20(20.4)	69(27.9)
Intermediate	7(15.2)	9(8.7)	18(18.4)	34(13.8)
Graduate	0	4(3.9)	44(44.9)	48(19.4)
PG and above	0	0	5(5.1)	5(2.0)
Total	46(18.6)	103(41.7)	98(39.7)	247(100.0)

Source: Field Survey 2016.

*Figures in parenthesis represent percent to total.

In all social group percentage share of male-headed households is high in comparison to female-headed household i.e. 85.8 percent and 14.2 percent Only in case of Upper caste, percentage share of female-headed household is higher. Average number of household size is the highest in OBC category. Head of the household of migrant household in Upper caste is having higher educational attainment than SC and OBC migrant households. There is huge difference in educational attainment of Upper caste and other social group. Highest educational attainment of head of the household of Upper caste migrant household is PG and above. Study done by Singh and Tripathi (1995), also found that educational attainment of socially better off section is comparatively higher than OBC and SC households.

4.2.3 Land holding size and irrigation details across villages and Social Group

Literature shows that in an economy like India, where majority of the households earn their livelihood from farm activities, land is an important and significant explanatory variable in undertaking migration decisions (Kumar, 2005). Table 4.3 (a) shows land holding size possessed by sample migrant households in surveyed villages. Chitkon, Jarasi and Asbaranpur are land abundant village among all six villages with 1.8, 1.7 hectare and 0.8 hectares average land respectively. Land scarce villages are Manecha and Yonouspur with average land holdings of 0.4 hectares and 0.5 hectares respectively.

Share of landless households is highest in Manecha and Yonouspur. Chitkon, Asbaranpur and Jarasi have reported zero landless households in category of migrant households. Majority of the migrant households have land 0-1 hectares i.e. 53 percent of total migrant households. Average land owned is also high in Chitkon, Jarasi and Asbaranpur with 1.7 hectares, 1.6 hectares and 0.8 hectares respectively. Households, which don't have land, highest in Manecha, Yonouspur and Rampur Soiri. Out of all migrant households 95.6 percent of households have their land irrigated. Major source of irrigation of all migrant households is rented pumping machine i.e. 72.2 percent. Share of self owned pumping machine, as a mode of irrigation is 27.8 percent.

Table-4.3 (a) Land Possessed/holding Size and Irrigation details of Sample Migrants Households in surveyed Villages in Jaunpur District

Name of Variables	Name of Village						(Jaunpur District as whole)
	Chitkon	Jarasi	Asbaranpur	Rampur Soiri	Manecha	Yonouspur	
Average Land Holding Size	1.8	1.7	0.8	0.7	0.4	0.5	0.93
Total Land possessed by Sample Migrant Households (in Hectares)							
Landless	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	3(6.8)	13(33.3)	4(21.1)	20(8.1)
0-1 hectares	14(53.8)	17(42.5)	45(57.0)	26(59.1)	20(51.3)	11(57.9)	133 (53.9)
1-2 hectares	3(11.5)	12(30.0)	25(31.7)	14(31.8)	3(7.7)	4(21.1)	61(24.7)
2-3 hectares	2(7.7)	0(0.0)	9(11.3)	1(2.3)	2(5.1)	0(0.0)	13(5.3)
3- 5 hectares	7(26.9)	11(27.5)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	1(2.6)	0(0.0)	20(8.1)
Average Owned	1.7	1.6	0.8	0.50	0.4	0.4	0.9
Owned land of Sample Migrant Households							
Not owned	7(26.9)	0(0.0)	8(10.1)	14(31.8)	13(33.3)	6(31.6)	48(19.4)
0-1 hectares	9(34.6)	21(52.5)	37(46.8)	18(40.9)	20(51.2)	9(47.4)	114(46.2)
1-2 hectares	2(7.7)	8(20.0)	25(31.6)	12(27.3)	3(7.7)	4(21.1)	54(21.9)
2-3 hectares	1(3.8)	0(0.0)	9(11.4)	0(0.0)	2(5.1)	0(0.0)	12(4.9)
3- 5 hectares	7(26.9)	11(27.5)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	1(2.6)	0(0.0)	19(7.7)
Average Leased in	0.2	0.7	0.0	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.1
Average Leased out	1.6	1.1	0.5	0.1	0.3	0.1	0.6
Average Cultivable Land	1.9	1.5	0.8	0.6	0.4	0.5	0.9
Irrigation status of Sample Migrant Households							
Yes	26(100.0)	40(100.0)	79(100.0)	40(97.6)	16(61.5)	15(100.0)	216(95.2)
No	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	1(2.4)	10(38.5)	0(0.0)	11(4.49)
Modes of Irrigation of Sample Migrant Households							
Dug well	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)
Pumping Machine (Self owned)	7(26.9)	9(22.5)	26(32.9)	11(27.5)	5(31.2)	2(13.3)	60(27.8)
Pumping Machine (Rented)	19(73.1)	31(77.5)	53(67.1)	29(72.5)	11(68.8)	13(86.7)	156(72.2)
Total	**26(10.5)**	**40(16.2)**	**79(32.0)**	**44(17.8)**	**39(15.8)**	**19(7.7)**	**247(100.0)**

Source: Field Survey 2016.

*Figures in parenthesis represent percent to total.

Table 4.3(b) shows land availability and sources of irrigation across social groups. Land holdings in rural economy are very important determinant of migration decisions, as migration often is result of insufficient income from agriculture. Land

abundance, along with good harvest, may result in low male exodus from rural villages of UP. It can be observed from the table that there are huge differences in land owned and possessed across various social groups. Upper caste is better in terms of land availability than SC and OBC migrant households. Another interesting point that has been observed in table 4.3 (b) is, most of the land lies in hands of Upward class and is mostly leased out. Land availability and leased in are very low in SC and OBC category in comparison to Upper caste. It was found that majority of Upper caste migrant households have leased out their land to SC and OBC category. As far as source of irrigation is concerned, migrant households in SC and OBC category usually irrigates their land with rented pumping machine whereas, in Upper caste percentage of households with self pumping machine as source of irrigation is comparatively high.

Table 4.3 (b) Land Possessed/holding Size and Irrigation details of Sample Migrants Households in surveyed Villages in Jaunpur District according to social Group

Name of Variables	Social Group			
	SC	**OBC**	**Upper caste**	**Total**
Total Land Possessed by Migrant Households (in hectares)				
Landless	4(8.7)	16(15.5)	0(0.0)	20(8.1)
0-1	33(71.7)	75(72.8)	25(25.5)	133(53.9)
1-2	8(17.4)	10(9.7)	43(43.9)	61(24.7)
2-3	1(2.2)	1(1.0)	11(11.2)	13(5.3)
3- 5	0(0.0)	1(1.0)	19(19.4)	20(8.1)
Average Land (in hectares)	.3	.3	1.8	0.9
Total Land Owned by sample Migrant Households (in hectares)				
Not owned	16(34.8)	32(31.0)	0(0.0)	48(19.4)
0-1	26(56.5)	63(61.2)	25(25.5)	114(46.2)
1-2	4(8.7)	7(6.8)	43(43.9)	54(21.9)
2-3	0(0.0)	1(1.0)	11(11.2)	12(4.9)
3-5	0(0.0)	0.0	19(19.4)	19(7.7)
Average Land Owned	0.2	0.2	1.8	0.9
Average Land Leased In	0.20	0.09	0.001	0.08
Average Land Leased Out	0.01	0.04	1.51	0.62
Average Cultivable Land	0.35	0.29	1.84	0.92
Land Irrigated				
Yes	39(92.9)	83(95.40)	94(95.9)	216(95.1)
No	3(7.1)	4(4.60)	4(4.1)	11(4.9)
Modes of Irrigation				
Dug well	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)
Pumping machine self owned	1(2.6)	3(3.6)	56(59.6)	60(27.8)
Pumping machine rented	38(97.4)	80(96.4)	38(40.4)	156(72.2)
Total	46(100)	103(100)	98(100)	247(100.0)

Source: Field Survey 2016.

*Figures in parenthesis represent percent to total.

4.2.4 Occupational and Income details of sample Migrants households in Surveyed Villages of Jaunpur district and across villages

Table 4.4(a) shows income, occupational and expenditure details of migrant households in sample villages.

Table.4.4 (a) Occupational and Income details of Sample Migrant Households in Surveyed Villages of Jaunpur District

Name of Variables	Name of Village						Total
	Chitkon	Jarasi	Asbaranpur	Rampur Soiri	Manecha	Yonouspur	
Primary source of Income							
Cultivation	16(61.5)	11(27.5)	32(40.5)	10(22.7)	3(7.7)	0(0.0)	72(29.1)
Non Agriculture Enterprises	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)
Wage/Salaried	0(0.0)	5(12.5)	9(11.4)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	14(5.7)
Remittances	10(38.5)	21(52.5)	26(32.9)	29(65.9)	36(92.3)	19(100.0)	141(5.7)
Others	0(0.0)	3(7.5)	12(15.2)	5(11.4)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	20(57.1)
Secondary Source of Income of Sample Migrant Households							
Cultivation	6(23.1)	16(40.0)	16(20.3)	11(25.0)	3(7.7)	10(52.6)	62(25.1)
Non-Agri Enterprises	1(3.8)	5(12.5)	9(11.4)	0(0.0)	15(38.5)	2(10.5)	32(13.0)
Wage/Salaried	7(26.9)	5(12.5)	0(0.0)	10(22.7)	9(23.1)	5(26.3)	36(14.6)
Remittances	9(34.9)	8(20.0)	40(50.6)	5(11.4)	2(5.1)	0(0.0)	64(25.9)
Others	3(11.5)	6(15.0)	14(17.7)	18(40.9)	10(25.6)	2(10.5)	53(21.5)
Monthly Income of Sample Migrant Households in surveyed villages (in Rupees)							
1-10000	8(30.8)	3(7.5)	0(0.0)	17(38.6)	24(61.5)	4(21.1)	56(22.7)
10001-20000	8(30.8)	8(20.0)	21(26.6)	12(27.3)	8(20.5)	2(10.5)	59(23.9)
20001-30000	1(3.9)	4(10.0)	9(11.4)	7(15.9)	1(2.6)	11(57.9)	33(13.7)
30001-40000	0(0.00)	0(0.0)	10(12.7)	4(9.1)	2(5.1)	2(10.5)	18(7.3)
40001-50000	2(7.7)	4(10.0)	4(5.1)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	10(4.1)
50001& above	7(26.9)	21(52.5)	35(44.3)	4(9.1)	4(10.3)	0(0.0)	71(28.7)
Avg.Monthly Income (in Rs.)*	32,500.00	61,625.00	47,696.2	19,738.64	18,871.00	23,368.42	36,949.4
Total Monthly Expenditure of sample migrant households in surveyed villages (in Rupees)							
1-10000	8(30.8)	4(10.0)	6(7.6)	21(47.7)	25(64.1)	4 (21.05)	68(27.5)
10001-20000	8(30.8)	14(35.0)	29(36.7)	15(34.1)	8(20.5)	6(31.2)	80(32.4)
20001-30000	1 (3.9)	1 (2.5)	1(1.3)	4 (9.1)	2(5.1)	9(47.4)	18(7.3)
30001-40000	2(7.7)	3(7.5)	22(27.6)	0 (0.00)	1(2.6)	0 (0.00)	28(11.3)
40001-50000	0 (0.00)	3(7.5)	13(16.5)	4(9.1)	0(0.0)	0 (0.00)	20(8.1)
50001 and above	7 (26.9)	15 (37.5)	8(10.1)	0 (0.0)	3(7.7)	0 (0.00)	33(13.6)
Average Monthly Expenditure (in Rs.)	24,688.4	37,275.0	29,500.0	14,800.0	14,689.7	18,300.0	24,434.0
Total	**26**	**40**	**79**	**44**	**39**	**19**	**247**

Source: Field Survey 2016.

Figures in parenthesis represent percent to total,*including remittances

In Table 4.4(a) it has been observed that primary source of income of migrant households in most of the villages are remittances itself. Migrant households in Chitkon and Asbaranpur have reported cultivation as their primary source of income. Migrant households in Jarasi, Rampur Soiri, Manecha and Yonouspur have reported remittances a their primary source of income. In Manecha and Yonouspur, remittances are major source of income. Primary source of income as cultivation is very high in Chitkon, Asbaranpur and Rampur Soiri. Form above table it was found that these villages are land abundant villages. Income details of migrant households show that most of the households have monthly income form Rs.1,000-Rs.30,000. Only 28.7 percent of migrant households have monthly income of Rs.50, 000 and above. Village-wise distribution of average monthly income shows that Jarasi, Asbaranpur and Chitkon with Rs.61, 625, Rs.47, 696.2 and Rs. 32,500 respectively are better off in terms of income in comparison to Yonouspur, Rampur Soiri and Manecha with Rs. 23,368.42, Rs. 19,738.6 and Rs.18, 300 respectively. It can be observed that migrant households show huge income-inequality. It is not only poor households, which are migrating, instead households with high monthly income also send male members abroad. Intra household income disparity is one of the major reasons for migration as per NELM approach. There are huge disparities in expenditure as well and trend is similar as monthly income for villages.

Table 4.4 (b) shows income and occupational details of migrant households. Across various social groups, highest percentage share of primary source of income in migrant household is remittances for all groups except Upper caste. In both SC and OBC category, remittances have the highest percentage share as primary income i.e. 68.9 percent and 82.6 percent respectively but for Upper caste, the share is only 32.7 percent.

Upper caste migrant households reported cultivation as their main source of income followed by remittances i.e. 52.0 percent and 32.7 percent respectively. Percentage share of cultivation in SC and OBC migrant households is very small i.e. 8.7 percent and 16.5 percent respectively. Average monthly income is very high in Upper caste i.e. Rs.56, 908.2 followed by OBC i.e. Rs.28, 932 and is very low in SC migrant households i.e. Rs.12, 380.4. The pattern is similar for average monthly expenditure across various social groups. There is huge inequality in monthly income and expenditure across various social groups. Study by Kumar et.al (2013) also shows that it

is not the poorest that migrates, instead people from lower middle income and middle-income households are sending male member out for economic opportunities.

Table. 4.4(b) Occupational and Income details of sample Migrants households in Surveyed Villages of Jaunpur District according to Social Group

Name of Variables	Social Group			
	SC	OBC	Upper caste	Total
Primary source of Income				
Cultivation	4(8.7)	17(16.5)	51(52.0)	72(29.1)
Non agriculture enterprises	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)
Wage/ Salaried Employee	1(2.2)	5(4.9)	8(8.2)	14(5.7)
Remittances	38(82.6)	71(68.9)	32(32.7)	141(57.1)
Others	3(6.5)	10(9.7)	7(7.1)	20(8.1)
Secondary Source of Income				
Cultivation	13(28.3)	27(26.2)	22(22.4)	62(25.1)
Non agriculture enterprises	9(19.6)	22(21.4)	1(1.0)	32(13.0)
Wage/Salaried Employee	8(17.4)	10(9.7)	18(18.4)	36(14.6)
Remittances	4(8.7)	28(27.2)	32(32.7)	64(25.9)
Others	12(26.1)	16(15.5)	25(25.5)	53(21.5)
Monthly Income of sample households of Surveyed villages (in Rupees)				
1-10000	28(60.8)	20(19.4)	20(19.4)	56(22.7)
10001-20000	12(26.1)	39(37.9)	39(37.9)	59(23.9)
20001-30000	4(8.7)	20(19.4)	20(19.4)	33(13.7)
30001-40000	1(2.2)	4(3.9)	4(3.9)	18(7.3)
40001-50000	1(2.2)	5(4.9)	5(4.9)	10(4.1)
50001 and above	0(0.0)	15(14.6)	15(14.6)	71(28.7)
Average monthly Income	12,380.4	28,932.0	56,908.2	36,949.4
Total monthly expenditure of sample households of surveyed villages (in Rupees)				
1-10000	31(67.4)	29(28.2)	8(8.2)	68(27.5)
10001-20000	13(28.3)	48(46.6)	19(19.4)	80(32.4)
20001-30000	2(4.4)	9(8.7)	7(7.1)	18(7.3)
30001-40000	0 (0.0)	7(6.8)	21(21.4)	28(11.3)
40001-50000	0 (0.0)	0(0.00)	20(20.4)	20(8.1)
50001 and above	0 (0.0)	10 (9.7)	23(23.5)	33(13.6)
Average Monthly Expenditures	9,947.8	19,047.6	36,894.9	24,434.0
Total	**46**	**103**	**98**	**247**

Source: Field Survey 2016.
*Figures in parenthesis represent percent to total.

4.2.5 Living conditions of sample Migrants Households Surveyed in Villages

Table 4.5(a) shows that except Chitkon, in each village every migrant household has their own house. While doing field survey, few migrant households reported that they live in a room at their agricultural landlords home and work as full time domestic help in house and agricultural chores

Table. 4.5(a) Living Conditions of sample Migrant Households in Surveyed in Villages

Name of Variables	Name of Village						Jaunpur
	Chitkon	Jarasi	Asbaranpur	Rampur Soiri	Manecha	Yonouspur	
Do you own a house							
Yes	19(73.1)	40(100.0)	79(100.0)	44(100.0)	39(100.0)	19(100.0)	240(97.2)
No	7(26.9)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	7(2.8)
Type of Dwelling							
Katcha	4(21.1)	0(0.0)	8(10.1)	31(70.5)	16(41.0)	2(10.5)	61(25.4)
Semi-Pucca	5(26.3)	0(0.0)	9(11.4)	1(2.3)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	15(6.2)
Pucca	10(52.6)	40(100.0)	62(78.5)	12(27.3)	23(59.0)	17(89.5)	164(68.3)
Housing Characteristics							
Electricity	15(57.7)	18(45.0)	73(92.4)	32(72.2)	31(79.5)	15(78.9)	184(74.5)
Drinking water	24(92.3)	38(95.0)	79(100.0)	36(81.8)	39(100.0)	19(100.0)	235(95.1)
Connection to public sewage	1(3.8)	1(2.5)	1(1.3)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	3(1.2)
Toilets	9(34.6)	20(50.0)	50(63.3)	1(2.3)	9(23.1)	1(5.3)	90(36.4)
Fuel Used							
LPG	10(38.5)	33(82.5)	47(59.5)	15(34.1)	6(15.4)	7(36.8)	118(47.8)
Kerosene	1(3.9)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	3(6.82)	0(0.0)	2(10.5)	6(2.4)
Coal/wood	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	11(13.9)	2(4.6)	28(71.8)	0(0.0)	41(16.6)
Dried Cow dung	17(65.4)	7(17.5)	20(25.3)	26(59.1)	5(12.8)	9(47.4)	84(34.0)
Livestock assets							
No livestock	11(42.3)	19(47.5)	35(44.3)	12(27.3)	5(12.8)	0(0.0)	82(33.2)
Cow	10(38.5)	1(2.5)	34(43.0)	21(47.7)	13(33.3)	3(15.8)	82(33.2)
Buffalo	11(42.3)	17(42.5)	23(29.1)	19(43.2)	11(28.2)	11(57.9)	92(37.3)
Goats	7(26.9)	16(40.0)	14(17.7)	12(27.3)	15(38.5)	16(84.2)	80(32.4)
Others	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	2(4.6)	10(25.6)	0(0.0)	12(4.9)
Assets Possessed							
Radio	11(42.3)	35(87.5)	57(72.2)	18(40.9)	5(12.8)	0.0	126(51.0)
Television	14(53.8)	36(90.0)	57(73.1)	16(36.4)	15(38.5)	16(84.2)	155(63.0)
Mobile	16(61.5)	37(92.5)	74(93.7)	35(79.5)	39(100)	19(100)	220(89.1)
Refrigerator	7(36.9)	29(72.5)	36(45.6)	6(13.6)	38(97.4)	19(100.0)	135(54.7)
Bicycle	16(61.5)	37(92.5)	52(65.8)	25(56.8)	9(23.1)	9(47.4)	148(59.9)
Private Vehicle	7(26.9)	28(70.0)	33(41.8)	1(2.3)	9(23.1)	7(36.8)	85(34.4)
Motorcycle	9(34.6)	27(67.5)	40(50.6)	15(34.1)	7(17.9)	2(10.5)	100(40.5)
AC/Cooler	7(26.9)	19(47.5)	28(35.4)	1(2.3)	6(15.4)	1(5.3)	62(25.1)
Tractor	5(19.2)	14(35.0)	22(27.8)	1(2.3)	5(12.8)	1(5.3)	48(19.4)
Gas stove	9(34.6)	32(80.0)	46(58.2)	13(29.5)	10(25.6)	13(68.4)	123(49.8)
Agriculture Machinery	4(15.4)	3(7.5)	29(36.7)	4(9.1)	5(12.8)	1(5.3)	46(18.3)
Total	**26**	**40**	**79**	**44**	**39**	**19**	**247**

Source: Field Survey 2016.

*Figures in parenthesis represent percent to total.

Majority of migrant households i.e. 68.3 percent of households have Pucca houses. In housing characteristics, very few households mentioned they have toilet facilities i.e. only 36.4 percent. Very few migrant households reported that they use LPG as fuel for cooking and 34.0 percent of households reported that they use dried cow dung as fuel. Asset wise analysis shows that villages with comparatively more assets are Jarasi and Asbaranpur.

Table.4.5 (b) Living Conditions of sample Migrant Households according to their Social Group

Name of Variables	Social Group			
	SC	OBC	Upper caste	Total
Do you own a house				
Yes	46(100.0)	96(93.2)	98(100.0)	240(97.2)
No	0(0.0)	7(6.8)	0(0.0)	7(2.8)
Type of House				
Katcha	16(34.8)	37(38.5)	8(8.2)	61(25.4)
Semi-Pucca	8(17.4)	6(6.2)	1(1.0)	15(6.2)
Pucca	22(47.8)	53(55.2)	89(90.8)	164(68.3)
Housing characteristics				
Electricity	19(41.3)	77(74.8)	88(89.8)	184(74.5)
Drinking Water	38(82.6)	101(98.1)	96(98.0)	235(95.1)
Connection to public Sewage	0(0.0)	1(1.0)	2(2.0)	3(1.2)
Toilets	9(19.6)	22(21.4)	59(60.2)	90(36.4)
Fuel Used				
LPG	15(32.6)	20(19.4)	83(84.69)	118(47.77)
Kerosene	3(6.5)	3(2.9)	0(0.00)	6(2.43)
Coal/wood	7(15.2)	29(28.2)	5(5.10)	41(16.60)
Dried Cow dung	25(54.4)	47(45.6)	12(12.24)	84(34.01)
Livestock assets				
No livestock	15(32.6)	24(23.3)	41(41.8)	82(33.2)
Cow	2(4.4)	49(47.6)	31(31.6)	82(33.2)
Buffalo	18(39.1)	44(42.7)	30(30.6)	92(37.3)
Goats	18(39.1)	38(36.9)	24(24.5)	80(32.4)
Others	3(6.5)	5(4.9)	4(4.1)	12(4.9)
Assets Possessed				
Radio	14(30.4)	29(28.2)	83(84.7)	126(51.0)
TV	17(36.9)	44(42.7)	93(94.9)	154(62.4)
Mobile	31(67.4)	92(89.3)	97(98.9)	220(89.1)
Refrigerator	12(26.1)	48(46.6)	75(76.5)	135(54.7)
Bicycle	19(41.3)	42(40.8)	87(88.8)	148(59.9)
Private car jeep	4(8.7)	18(17.5)	63(64.3)	85(34.4)
Motorcycle	2(4.4)	22(21.4)	76(77.6)	100(40.5)
AC/Cooler	1(2.2)	9(8.7)	52(53.1)	62(25.1)
Tractor	0(0.0)	9(8.7)	39(39.8)	48(19.4)
Gas stove	10(21.7)	24(23.3)	89(90.8)	123(49.8)
Agriculture Machinery	0(0.0)	6(5.8)	40(40.8)	46(18.6)
Total	46(18.6)	103(41.7)	98(39.7)	247(100.0)

Source: Field Survey 2016. *Figures in parenthesis represent percent to total.

Table 4.5 (b) shows living conditions of migrant households across various social groups. In SC migrant households 100 percent of households have their own house, in OBC migrant households 93.2 percent and in Upward category again 100 percent of households reported they have their own house. The reason behind all SC migrant households having Pucca houses is that there are various housing schemes for minorities in UP such as Indira Awaas Yojna, Lohiya Awaas Yojna, Pradhan Mantri Grameen Awaas Yojna etc. that ensures Pucca houses to SC households. Although, SC migrant households are comparatively worse off in terms of socio-economic variables but every households have their own home. It can be attributed to various housing programme run and implemented by government to provide shelter to weaker section of society. In all other variables mentioned in table 5.2 Upper caste is comparatively better off than OBC and SC households.

4.3 Characteristics of Male Out-Migrants from sample Migrant Households

Section 4.2 gave an overview on income, occupational and demographic details of sample migrant households surveyed in villages. This section will look into individual characteristics of male out-migrants from sample migrant households such as age, education, marital status, type of migration, current place of stay and occupation etc.

4.3.1 Socio-Demographic details of Male Out-Migrants from sample migrant Households in Surveyed Villages of Jaunpur district and across social groups

Table 4.6(a) shows that most of the male out-migrants are aged 15-50. This implies that male migration is selective and young male member of family often undertakes migration. As far as educational attainment of male out-migrants are concerned, majority of them are primary level educated.

Table 4.6 (a) Socio-Demographic details of Male Out-Migrants from sample migrant Households in Surveyed Villages of Jaunpur District

Demographic Characteristics	Name of Village						Total
	Chitkon	Jarasi	Asbaranpur	Rampur Soiri	Manecha	Yonouspur	
Age in years							
15-30	22(51.16)	29(35.80)	85(55.92)	37(52.11)	3(6.82)	2(10.53)	178(43.41)
30-50	21(48.84)	50(61.73)	54(35.53)	24(33.80)	40(90.91)	15(78.3)	204(49.76)
50 and above	0(0.00)	2(2.47)	13(8.53)	10(14.08)	1(2.27)	2(10.53)	28(6.83)
Average age	33	36	32	33	41	43	35
Educational Attainment							
Illiterate	0(0.00)	10(12.35)	22(14.47)	1(1.41)	2(4.55)	2(10.53)	37(9.02)
Primary	19(44.19)	17(20.99)	16(10.53)	18(25.35)	3(6.82)	0(0.00)	73(17.80)
Matriculation	5(11.63)	18(22.22)	39(25.66)	29(40.85)	25(56.82)	8(42.41)	124(30.24)
Intermediate	9(20.93)	14(17.28)	17(11.18)	11(15.49)	7(15.91)	7(36.84)	65(15.85)
Graduation	10(23.26)	15(18.52)	45(29.61)	12(16.90)	7(15.91)	2(10.53)	91(22.20)
Post Graduate &Above	0(0.00)	7(8.64)	13(8.55)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	20(4.88)
Marital Status							
Married	22(51.16)	69(85.19)	125(82.24)	57(80.28)	40(90.91)	17(89.53)	330(80.49)
Unmarried	21(48.84)	12(14.81)	27(17.76)	14(19.72)	4(9.09)	2(10.53)	80(19.51)
Relation of male out-migrants with Head of the Household							
Self	10(23.26)	13(16.05)	8(5.26)	6(8.45)	14(31.82)	9(47.37)	60(14.63)
Spouse of Head	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	4(5.63)	3(6.82)	0(0.00)	7(1.71)
Son	32(74.42)	68(83.95)	125(82.24)	36(50.70)	27(61.36)	6(31.58)	294(71.71)
Grand Child	1(2.33)	0(0.00)	5(3.29)	6(8.45)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	12(2.93)
Brother	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	14(9.21)	19(26.76)	0(0.00)	4(21.05)	37(9.02)
Others	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)
Total	**43**	**81**	**152**	**71**	**44**	**19**	**410**

Source: Field Survey 2016.
Figures in parenthesis represent percent to total.

Majority of the out-migrants are married and have migrated without family for more than 4 years. Percentage share of migrants, who migrated out with family is highest in Upper caste category. Percentage share of migrants, migrating out without family is highest in SC migrant households.

Table 4.6 (b) highlights individual characteristics of male out-migrants across various social groups. Age-wise majority of the out-migrants are in between age 15-50 years. Only in Upper caste there are also male migrants from age 50 and above i.e. 12.7 percent and percentage share of other groups in same category is very less. Across all social groups, majority of male out-migrants are married. Majority of male out-migrants are son of the head of the households in all-social groups.

Table 4.6 (b) Characteristics of Male out-migrants from sample migrant HH in Jaunpur district according to their Social Group

Demographic Characteristics of Rural Male Out -Migrant	Social Group		
	SC	OBC	Other Upper caste
Age in years			
15-30	38(55.9)	69(37.5)	71(44.5)
30-50	30(44.1)	107(58.2)	67(42.4)
50 and above	0(0.0)	8(4.4)	20(12.7)
Average age	32	35	36
Educational Attainment			
Illiterate	10 (14.7)	27 (14.7)	0 (0.0)
Primary	15 (22.1)	42 (22.8)	16 (10.1)
Matriculation	32 (47.1)	49 (26.6)	43 (27.2)
Intermediate	8 (11.8)	42 (22.8)	15 (9.5)
Graduation	3(4.4)	24 (13.0)	64 (40.5)
Post Graduate &Above	0(0.0)	0 (0.0)	20 (12.7)
Marital Status			
Married	51(75.0)	149(81.0)	130(82.2)
Unmarried	17(25.0)	35(19.0)	28(17.7)
Relation of Male Out-Migrants with Head of the Households			
Self	10(14.7)	30(16.3)	20(12.7)
Spouse of Head	3(4.41)	4(2.2)	0(0.0)
Son	55(80.9)	140(76.1)	99(62.7)
Grand Child	0(0.0)	1(0.5)	11(6.7)
Brother	0(0.0)	9(4.9)	28(17.7)
Others (Cousin brother etc.)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)
Total	**68**	**184**	**158**

Source: Field Survey 2016.
Figures in parenthesis represent percent to total.

4.3.2 Migration Related particulars of Male Out-Migrants from Sample Migrant Household in Surveyed Villages

This section provides migration related particulars of male migrants such as type of migration, reasons for migration, whether working in village before migrating out etc.

Table 4.7 (a) shows that major reason reported by households for male out-migration is economic in nature. Major reasons for out-migration, are in search of better employment 69.3 percent followed by to take up employment 56.1 percent and lack of non-farm employment 53.7 percent. Another major reason for male out-migration reported by households, is lack of access to credit facilities. Educational attainment across various social groups also shows huge disparity in human capital in sample households of rural UP. Upper caste male out-migrants are much better off in terms of educational attainment followed by OBC migrants and SC migrants. Education of migrants is very crucial in getting decent job at destinations. Less educated migrants such as SC migrants often end up in informal jobs in urban areas.

Table 4.7(a) Migration Related particulars of Male Out-Migrants from Sample Migrant Household in Surveyed Villages

Demographic Characteristics	Name of Village						Total
	Chitkon	Jarasi	Asbaranpur	Rampur Soiri	Manecha	Yonouspur	
Migration with family							
Family	8(18.6)	25(30.9)	85(55.9)	38(53.5)	4(9.1)	2(10.5)	162(39.5)
Single	35(81.4)	56(69.1)	67(44.1)	33(46.5)	40(90.9)	17(89.6)	248(60.5)
Type of migration							
Short Term (less than 6 months)	0(0.00)	0(0.0)	1(0.7)	1(1.4)	6(13.6)	8(42.1)	16(3.9)
Temporary (Less than 12 months)	2(4.7)	0(0.0)	4(2.6)	6(8.5)	0(0.0)	2(10.5)	14(3.4)
Long term (1-3 years)	8(18.6)	0(0.0)	12(7.9)	9(12.7)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	29(7.1)
Permanent (more than 4 years)	33(76.7)	81(100.0)	135(88.8)	55(77.5)	38(86.4)	9(47.4)	351(85.6)
Reasons for Migration*							
1	16(37.2)	14(17.3)	15(9.9)	6(8.5)	1(2.3)	1(5.3)	53(12.9)
2	22(51.2)	46(56.8)	101(66.5)	55(77.5)	41(93.2)	19(100.0)	284(69.3)
3	23(53.5)	42(51.9)	91(59.9)	34(47.9)	24(54.6)	16(84.2)	230(56.1)
4	21(48.8)	58(71.6)	69(45.4)	34(47.9)	34(77.3)	4(21.0)	220(53.7)
5	1(2.3)	21(25.9)	39(25.7)	33(46.9)	11(25.0)	11(57.9)	116(28.3)
6	22(51.2)	27(33.3)	47(33.9)	18(25.4)	14(31.8)	6(31.8)	134(32.7)
7	5(11.6)	5(6.2)	17(11.2)	10(14.1)	2(4.6)	0(0.0)	39(9.5)
8	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	(0.0)	4(5.6)	1(2.3)	0(0.0)	5(1.2)
Working before migration in village							
Yes	12(27.91)	62(76.54)	59(38.8)	31(43.6)	33(75.00)	17(89.47)	214(52.2)
No	31(72.09)	19(23.46)	93(61.2)	40(56.4)	11(25.00)	2(10.53)	196(47.8)
If yes							
Agricultural Labors	10(83.3)	42(67.7)	39(66.1)	30(96.8)	13(39.4)	5(29.4)	139(65.0)
Others (Teacher, Tailor, Construction worker, Mechanic etc.)	2(16.7)	20(32.3)	20(33.9)	1(3.2)	29(60.6)	12(70.6)	75(35.0)
If Not working before migration, were you studying							
Yes	31(100)	19(100)	93(100)	40(100)	11(100)	2(100)	196(100)
No	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)
Total	**43**	**81**	**152**	**71**	**44**	**19**	**410**

Source: Field Survey 2016.

Figures in parenthesis represent percent to total.

*1- In Search of Employment, 2- In Search of better employment /low wages/low farm income,3- To take up Employment,4- Lack of Low/Non-farm Income,5- Better Civic Amenities,6- Lack of Access to credit Facilities /High rate of interest, 7- Studies, 8- Others.

Better civic amenities are another major reason reported by households for out-migration in Upper caste. 28.3 percent. 52.2 percent of households reported that they were working in village before migration and 47.8 percent were not working and were studying before out-migrating from village. Only 9.5 percent of male out-migrants migrated out for studies.

Table 4.7(b) show reasons for migration are different for various social groups. Major reason of male out-migration for SC households is lack of access to credit facilities (76.5), for OBC it is in search of better employment (84.2) followed by lack of non-farm income i.e. 72.8 percent and lack of access to credit facilities i.e. 38.6 percent. Major reason reported by Upper caste is to take up employment i.e., 61.4 percent followed by better civic amenities i.e. 56.3 percent. Percentage share of lack of access to credit as major reason is very low in Upper caste and better civic amenities is very low in SC categories and OBC categories. Studies also shows that members of upper caste are migrating in large numbers which is evident at both village and macro level studies (Brass, 1995; Chakravarty, 2001). Another study found that migration in UP is distress induced and is an outcome of lack of non-farm employment opportunities (Ranjan, 2009).

Table 4.7(b) Migration Related particulars of Male Out-Migrants from Sample Migrant Households across Social Groups

Demographic Characteristics of Rural Male Out -Migrant	Social Group		
	SC	OBC	Other Upper caste
Age in years			
15-30	38(55.9)	69(37.5)	71(44.5)
30-50	30(44.1)	107(58.2)	67(42.4)
50 and above	0(0.0)	8(4.4)	20(12.7)
Average age	32	35	36
Marital Status			
Married	51(75.0)	149(81.0)	130(82.2)
Unmarried	17(25.0)	35(19.0)	28(17.7)
Relation of Male Out-Migrants with Head of the Households			
Self	10(14.7)	30(16.3)	20(12.7)
Spouse of Head	3(4.41)	4(2.2)	0(0.0)
Son	55(80.9)	140(76.1)	99(62.7)
Grand Child	0(0.0)	1(0.5)	11(6.7)
Brother	0(0.0)	9(4.9)	28(17.7)
Others (Cousin brother etc.)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)
Migration with family			
Family (1)	10(14.7)	61(33.1)	91(57.6)
Single (2)	58(85.3)	123(66.9)	67(42.4)
Type of migration			
Short Term (less than 6 months)	3(4.4)	8(4.3)	5(3.2)
Temporary (Less than 12 months)	5(7.4)	7(3.8)	2(1.3)
Long term (1-3 years)	0(0.0)	18(9.8)	11(7.0)
Permanent (more than 4 years)	60(88.2)	151(82.1)	140(88.5)
Reasons for Migration**			
1	7(10.3)	41(22.3)	5(3.2)
2	43(63.2)	155(84.2)	86(54.4)
3	32(47.1)	101(54.9)	97(61.4)
4	49(72.1)	134(72.8)	37(23.4)
5	11(16.2)	16(8.7)	89(56.3)
6	52(76.5)	71(38.6)	11(7.0)
7	3(4.4)	10(5.4)	26(16.5)
8	0(0.0)	1(0.5)	4(2.5)
Were you working before migration in village			
Yes	45(60.3)	106(57.1)	69(43.0)
No	23(39.7)	79(42.9)	89(57.0)
If Yes, Major Occupation			
Agricultural labour	26(57.8)	75(70.8))	43(62.3)
Other Labors	19(42.2)	31(29.2)	26(37.7)
If no, Student	23(100)	79(100)	89
Total	**68**	**184**	**158**

Source: Field Survey 2016.

Figures in parenthesis represent percent to total.

**1- In Search of Employment, 2- In Search of better employment /low wages/low farm income,3- To take up Employment,4- Lack of Low/Non-farm Income,5- Better Civic Amenities,6- Lack of Access to credit Facilities /High rate of interest, 7- Studies, 8- Others.

4.3.3 Current place of Stay and Current Occupation

Table 4.8(a) shows current place of stay of male out-migrants from sample villages.

Table 4.8 (a) Current Place of Stay of Male Out-Migrants from Surveyed Migrant Households in Sample Villages

Current Place	Name of the Village						
	Chitkon	**Jarasi**	**Asbaranpur**	**Rampur Soiri**	**Manecha**	**Yonouspur**	**Total**
Mumbai	25(58.1)	49(60.5)	76(50.0)	34(47.9)	16(36.4)	8(42.1)	208(50.7)
Varanasi	8(18.6)	11(13.6)	22(14.5)	11(15.5)	9(20.5)	6(31.6)	67(16.3)
Delhi	2(4.7)	3(3.7)	8(5.3)	7(9.9)	1(2.3)	0(0.0)	21(5.1)
Saudi Arabia	0(0.0)	3(3.7)	8(5.3)	2(2.8)	2(4.6)	0(0.0)	15(3.7)
Surat	2(4.7)	1(1.2)	8(5.3)	2(2.8)	3(6.8)	1(5.3)	17(4.2)
Dubai	1(2.3)	3(3.7)	3(1.9)	0(0.0)	5(11.4)	0(0.0)	12(2.9)
Bangalore	2(4.7)	0(0.0)	3(1.9)	4(5.6)	1(2.3)	0(0.0)	10(2.4)
Allahabad	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	5(3.3)	2(2.8)	0(0.0)	1(5.3)	8(1.9)
Mirzapur	1(2.3)	2(2.5)	0(0.0)	1(1.4)	4(9.1)	0(0.0)	8(1.9)
Chandauli	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	3(1.9)	1(1.4)	0(0.0)	3(15.8)	7(1.7)
Ahmedabad	0(0.0)	2(2.5)	2(1.3)	2(2.8)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	6(1.5)
Australia	1(2.3)	3(3.7)	0(0.0)	1(1.4)	2(4.6)	0(0.0)	7(1.71)
Muscat	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	2(1.3)	1(1.4)	1(2.3)	0(0.0)	4(0.9)
Patiala	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	4(2.6)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	4(0.9)
Kota	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	4(2.6)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	4(0.9)
Haridwar	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	3(1.9)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	3(0.7)
Israel	0(0.0)	1(1.2)	1(0.7)	1(1.4)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	3(0.7)
Baroda	0(0.0)	1(1.2)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	1(0.2)
Goa	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	1(1.4)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	1(0.2)
Iran	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	1(1.4)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	1(0.2)
Kolkata	1(2.33)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	1(0.2)
Kuwait	0(0.00)	1(1.2)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	1(0.2)
Nagpur	0(0.00)	1(1.2)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	1(0.2)
Total	**43(100.0)**	**81(100)**	**152(100.0)**	**71(100.0)**	**44(100.0)**	**19(100.0)**	**410(100.0)**

Source: Field Survey 2016.
*Figure in parenthesis represent percent to total.

Major destination for male out-migrants is Mumbai i.e. 50.7 percent followed by Varanasi 16.3 percent and Delhi 5.1 percent. Study by Singh (1992) also shows that metropolitan and large cities such as Mumbai, Delhi and Bangalore offer wide range of employment opportunities for rural migrants.Major international destinations are Saudi Arabia and Dubai. From further analysis, it was found that Jarasi has international out-migrants and prominently in high skilled and for education purposes. Migrants from Manecha are in Dubai and Saudi Arabia. One reason for male out-migration to gulf countries from Manecha can be attributed to its neighboring district Azamgarh, which is having very high Muslim male out-migration to gulf countries. While conducting survey,

it was found that Kheta Sarai is a place in Azamgarh, which is Muslim dominated area, and each household has male out-migrants to Gulf countries especially semi-skilled workers such as construction workers and oil companies.

Table 4.8(b) Current Place of Stay of Male Out-Migrants from Surveyed Migrant Households in Sample Villages across Social Groups

Current place	Name of social group		
	SC	**OBC**	**Others**
Mumbai	35(51.5)	106(57.6)	67(42.4)
Varanasi	25(36.7)	24(13.0)	18(11.4)
Delhi	4(5.9)	2(1.1)	15(9.5)
Saudi Arabia	0(0.0)	12(6.5)	3(1.9)
Surat	2(3.1)	10(5.4)	5(3.2)
Dubai	1(1.5)	3(1.6)	8(5.1)
Bangalore	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	10(6.3)
Allahabad	0(0.0)	8(4.4)	0(0.0)
Mirzapur	0(0.0)	8(4.4)	0(0.0)
Chandauli	0(0.0)	1(0.5)	6(3.8)
Ahmedabad	0(0.0)	1(0.5)	5(3.2)
Australia	0(0.0)	1(0.5)	6(3.8)
Muscat	1(1.5)	1(0.5)	2(1.3)
Patiala	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	4(2.5)
Kota	0(0.0)	4(2.2)	0(0.0)
Haridwar	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	3(1.9)
Israel	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	3(1.9)
Baroda	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	1(0.6)
Goa	0(0.0)	1(0.5)	0(0.0)
Iran	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	1(0.6)
Kolkata	0(0.0)	1(0.5)	0(0.0)
Kuwait	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	1(0.6)
Nagpur	0(0.0)	1(0.5)	0(0.0)
Total	**68(100)**	**184(100)**	**158(100)**

Source: Field Survey 2016.
*Field in parenthesis represent percent to total.

Table 4.8(b) shows current place of stay i.e. current destination of male out-migrants across various social groups. Mumbai is major destination for all male migrants from sample villages irrespective of social groups followed by Varanasi and Delhi. There are no international migrants in SC group showing that SC households are most the poor section of the village and cannot afford the cost associated with international migration. In OBC households, however, major international destinations are Dubai, Saudi Arabia and Muscat. For Upper caste major international destinations are Dubai, Australia and Iran. Within national boundaries major destination for all social groups are same i.e. Mumbai, Varanasi and Delhi.

Table 4.9(a) shows current occupation of male out-migrants from surveyed households in sample villages. Major occupation of male out-migrants is transport sector such as taxi/auto driving (18.5) followed by construction workers (8.5) and dairy unit (7.8). 9.5 percent of male out-migrants as reported by households are students. Village wise there is huge differences in occupational status of male out-migrants. Jarasi and Asbaranpur are having high number of migrants in high skilled jobs such as bank services, software engineers etc. Other govt jobs such as BHU, accountant, teacher, post office, lecturer, clerk, best govt. buses, telephone company etc. accounts for 7.6 percent and others category which includes own coaching centre, electrician, flour chakki, furniture shop, store supervisor, tyre company, airport have 6.1 percent share in occupational status of total male out-migrants.

Table 4.9 (a) Current Occupation of Male Out-Migrants from Surveyed Households in Sample Villages

Current Occupation	Chitkon	Jarasi	Asbaranpur	Rampur Soiri	Manecha	Yonouspur	Total
Taxi/Auto Driver/Chauffer/owner	0(0.0)	22(27.2)	20(13.2)	20(28.2)	11(25.0)	3(15.8)	76(18.5)
Student	5(11.6)	5(6.2)	17(11.2)	10(14.1)	2(4.6)	0(0.0)	39(9.5)
Construction	0(0.0)	6(7.4)	2(1.3)	11(15.5)	11(25.0)	5(26.3)	35(8.5)
Dairy unit	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	28(18.4)	4(5.6)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	32(7.8)
Steel Company	8(18.6)	0(0.0)	19(12.5)	2(2.8)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	29(7.1)
Carpenter	8(18.6)	0(0.0)	9(5.9)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	17(4.2)
Bank service	0(0.0)	4(4.9)	7(4.6)	2(2.8)	2(4.6)	0(0.0)	15(3.7)
Truck driver/owner	1(2.3)	14(17.3)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	15(3.7)
Software engineer	4(9.3)	7(8.6)	1(0.6)	1(1.4)	1(2.3)	0(0.0)	14(3.4)
Plumber	0(0.0)	5(6.2)	0(0.0)	3(4.2)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	8(1.9)
Tailor	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	4(2.6)	0(0.0)	4(9.1)	0(0.0)	8(1.9)
Own garage	0(0.00)	3(3.7)	5(3.3)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	8(1.9)
Pan shop	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	4(2.6)	3(4.2)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	7(1.7)
Wiring work	7(16.3)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	7(1.7)
Glass factory	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	7(9.6)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	7(1.7)
Brick kiln	1(2.3)	1(1.2)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	4(9.1)	0(0.0)	6(1.5)
Police Dept.	0(0.00)	0(0.0)	6(3.9)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	6(1.5)
Barber shop	0(0.00)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	5(26.2)	5(1.2)
Vegetable shop	0(0.00)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	1(1.4)	1(2.3)	3(15.8)	5(1.2)
Cloth Mill/store	1(2.33)	0(0.0)	4(2.6)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	5(1.2)
Jewelry store	0(0.00)	0(0.0)	5(3.3)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	5(1.2)
Oil Company	0(0.00)	2(2.5)	1(0.6)	0(0.0)	2(4.6)	0(0.0)	5(1.2)
Other Govt. Employee/Jobs	0(0.00)	11(13.6)	10(6.6)	4(5.6)	5(11.4)	1(5.2)	31(7.6)
Others	8(18.6)	1(1.2)	10(6.6)	3(4.2)	1(2.3)	2(10.5)	25(6.1)
Total	**43(100.0)**	**81(100.0)**	**152(100.0)**	**71(100.0)**	**44(100.0)**	**19(100.0)**	**410(100.0)**

Source: Field Survey 2016

* Figures in parenthesis represent percent to total.

Jarasi and Asbaranpur are highly educated villages among all sample villages surveyed in Jaunpur district and majority of migration in high skilled category and for studies are from these two villages. Manecha and Yonouspur have high percentage of male out-migrants in construction sector. Majority of taxi and auto drivers are from Jarasi, Rampur Soiri and Manecha. Villages, which are comparatively better off in terms of, educational attainment, level of income and other socio-economic variables are having more migrants in high skilled jobs and as student. Studies by Srivastava (1999) in his study also confirms above mentioned findings that laborers with very low asset migrate as seasonal and circular migrant, with some asset end up in petty self employment and those with assets and are fortunate ones, often end up with lucrative and high skilled jobs. Study also shows that many of season workers often get employed in brick kiln, transport sector, construction sector or processing industries.

Table 4.9 (b) Current occupations of male out-migrants across various social groups of migrant households in surveyed villages

Current Occupation	SC	OBC	Others
Taxi/Auto Driver/Chauffer and owner	15(22.1)	33(17.9)	28(17.7)
Student	3(4.4)	10(5.4)	26(16.5)
Construction worker/company	16(23.5)	8(4.3)	11(6.9)
Dairy unit	0(0.0)	31(16.9)	1(0.6)
Steel Company	8(11.8)	19(10.3)	2(1.3)
Carpenter	3(4.4)	13(7.1)	1(0.6)
Bank service	0(0.0)	1(0.5)	14(8.9)
Truck driver/owner	0(0.0)	11(6.0)	4(2.5)
Software engineer	0(0.0)	1(0.5)	13(8.2)
Plumber	5(7.4)	3(1.6)	0(0.0)
Tailor	1(1.5)	5(2.7)	2(1.3)
Own garage	0(0.0)	7(3.8)	1(0.6)
Pan shop	1(1.5)	0(0.0)	6(3.8)
Wiring work	0(0.0)	7(3.8)	0(0.0)
Glass factory Head	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	7(4.4)
Brick kiln	1(1.5)	5(2.7)	0(0.0)
Police Dept.	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	6(3.8)
Barber shop	0(0.0)	5(2.7)	0(0.0)
Vegetable shop	1(1.5)	2(1.1)	2(1.3)
Cloth Mill/store	0(0.0)	5(2.7)	0(0.0)
Jewelry store	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	5(3.2)
Oil Company	0(0.0)	3(1.6)	2(1.3)
Other Govt. Employee/Job (.)	5(7.4)	11(6.0)	15(9.5)
Others (t)	9(13.2)	4(2.2)	12(7.6)
Total	68	184	158

Source: Field Survey 2016

* Figures in parenthesis represent percent to total.

Table 4.9 (b) shows occupation of male out-migrant across various social groups. Majority of SC migrants are construction workers (23.5 percent) followed by taxi, driver 22.1 percent and steel company i.e. 11.8 percent. For OBC migrants, taxi driving and dairy unit are the major occupations. From analysis, it was found that Upper caste out-migrants are more into high skilled jobs and are more into studies at various national and international destinations. Category other employment jobs such as accountant, teacher, post office employee, lecturer, clerk, best govt. buses employee, telephone company employee etc. are highest in Upper caste whereas other jobs such as own coaching centre, electrician, flour chakki, furniture shop, store supervisor, tyre company, airport etc. are having majority of migrants from SC households. High skilled jobs such as bank service, software engineers are highest in Upper caste whereas SC migrants are more into construction sector. Major occupations of OBC male migrants are taxi/auto driving, dairy unit and steel company.

4.4 Out-migration Rate of Socio-Economic Variables across Villages and Social Groups

This section deals with rate of out-migration across various variables. Male out-migration rate of various socio economic backgrounds have been calculated and analyzed for each sample villages and also for each social group.

Table 4.10 (a) shows rate of out-migration across various socio-demographic variables of sample households in surveyed villages. It can be observed that Hindu witness high rate of out-migration in comparison to Muslim households. Across social groups OBC is having highest rate of out-migration followed by Upper caste and SC. Low rate of out-migration from SC can be attributed to lack of financial resources to afford the cost of out-migration. From analysis of previous tables in these chapters, it was shown that SC households very poor in comparison to OBC and Upper caste households. Another reason for low out-migration form SC migrants households are SC male are often engaged in MNREGA and other govt. schemes job in village itself and are also willingly involved into low and menial jobs in villages which otherwise is rarely opted by Upper caste and OBC male. Male out-migration from SC households is often distressed one, as they lack even basic amenities and needs of life and thereby can't afford the cost of migration.

Table 4.10(a) Out-migration rate of Rural Male across various Socio-Demographic Backgrounds for Jaunpur District

Male Out-Migration Rate across Socio-Demographic Variables			
Variables	**Total Male**	**Total Male Out Migrants**	**Out Migration Rate***
Religion			
Hindu	697	331	47.5
Muslim	132	51	38.6
Social Group			
SC	211	68	32.2
OBC	320	176	55.0
Upper caste	298	138	46.3
Head of the Households			
Male	706	336	47.6
Female	123	46	37.4
Total Number of Household members			
1-5	172	66	38.4
6-10	417	173	41.5
11 and above	240	143	59.9
Total adult male (15-50)	829	382	46.1
Male over 50	161	28	17.4
Education of Head of Households			
Illiterate	174	37	21.3
Primary	132	73	55.3
Matriculation	234	115	49.1
Intermediate	119	61	51.3
Graduate	150	83	55.3
PG & above	20	13	65.0
Total	**829**	**382**	**46.1**

Source: Field Survey 2016.

*Rate of out-migration is calculated is per hundred persons

Out-migration rate of head of household is almost same for male and female head. Total number of households show positive relationship with male out-migration i.e. higher the number of household members in the household higher the chances of male out-migration. Literature also shows that family size plays an important role in migration decisions and migrants tend to come from larger families (Rogaly 1998; Demurger et al. 2010;Upton 1967). Male aged 15-50 have higher rate of out-migration in comparison to male above age 50. In age between 15-50, 46 male out of 100 out migrate and in age 50 and above only 17 out of 100. Educational attainment of head of the household, play an important role in migration decisions. Studies also confirm that educational attainment and skills also play important role in migration decisions (Demurger et al .2010; Konsiega, 2005; Gisbert 2007,Lucas, 1997). Rate of out-migration is high for literate head in comparison to illiterate head and is highest for postgraduate and above.

Table 4.10 (b) Out-migration Rate of Rural Male across various Socio-Demographic background for Jaunpur District across Social Groups

Variables	SC			OBC			Upper caste		
	Total		OMR	Total		OMR	Total		OMR
	Male	Male Out Migrant		Male	Male Out Migrant		Male	Male Out Migrant	
Religion									
Hindu	209	68	32.5	245	148	60.4	243	115	47.3
Muslim	2	0	0	75	28	37.3	55	23	41.8
Head of the Households									
Male	193	68	35.2	277	156	56.3	236	112	47.5
Female	18	0	0	43	20	46.5	62	26	41.9
Total Number of HH members									
1-5	57	8	14.0	58	30	51.7	57	28	49.1
6-10	118	39	33.1	122	59	48.4	177	75	42.4
11 and above	36	21	58.3	140	87	62.1	64	35	54.7
Total adult male	211	68	32.2	320	176	55.0	298	138	46.3
Education of head of Households									
Illiterate	64	26	40.6	94	52	55.3	16	4	25
Primary	57	18	31.6	52	26	50.0	23	16	69.6
Matriculation	61	7	11.5	122	71	58.2	51	29	56.9
Intermediate	26	17	65.4	20	15	75.0	73	32	43.8
Graduate	0	0	0.0	32	12	37.5	118	50	42.4
PG & above	3	0	0.0	0	0	0	17	7	41.2
Total	**211**	**68**	**32.2**	**320**	**176**	**55.0**	**298**	**138**	**46.3**

Source: Field Survey 2016.

Table 4.10 (b) shows that among all social groups, rate of out-migration is highest for Hindu. As far as head of the household is concerned, rate of out-migration is higher for female-headed households in Upper caste. Across all social groups rate of out-migration is highest for household with household size 11 and above. In SC and OBC class rate of out-migration is highest for households with household head having educational attainment of intermediate, followed by illiterate. In Upper caste households although rate of out-migration is high in primary level, but out-migration rate across all educational attainments is quite similar.

Table 4.11(a) Male Out-Migration Rate for Jaunpur across various Economic Variables

Variables	Total Male	Total Male Out Migrant	Out Migration Rate
Total land (in hectares)			
Landless	117	20	17.1
0-1	421	231	54.9
1-2	185	92	49.7
2-3	49	14	28.6
3-5	57	25	43.9
Total land owned (in hectares)			
Not Owned	213	73	34.3
0-1	362	192	53.0
1-2	167	81	48.5
2-3	33	13	39.4
3-5	54	23	42.6
Own house			
Yes	815	368	45.2
No	14	14	100.0
Type of house			
Katcha	261	82	31.4
Semi-Pucca	81	27	33.3
Pucca	473	259	54.8
Primary Source of Income			
Cultivation	219	113	51.6
Non Agriculture Enterprises	30	1	3.3
Wage/Salaried Employee	158	22	13.9
Remittances	334	211	61.3
Others	88	35	39.8
Total Monthly Income (in Rupees)			
1-10	219	46	21.0
11-20	186	113	60.8
21-30	137	56	40.9
31-40	35	11	31.4
41-50	45	28	62.2
50 & Above	207	128	61.8
Total Expenditure (in Rupees)			
1-10	307	87	28.3
11-20	219	127	58.0
21-30	52	21	40.4
31-40	76	45	59.2
41-50	57	30	52.6
50 & Above	118	72	61.0
Total	**829**	**382**	**46.1**

Source: Field Survey 2016.

Table 4.11(a) shows rate of out-migration across living standards of sample households. Rate of out-migration is lowest for landless and is highest for households having land up-to 1 hectares. In land owned category as well, out-migration for male belonging to household with no land owned is lowest and is highest for households owning land up-to

1 hectares. Primary source of income as cultivation has highest rate of male out-migration, among all sources of income. In case of total income, male with Rs 11,000-20,000 and Rs.41, 000 and above both have high rate of out-migration. Lowest income and expenditure category has lowest rate of male out-migration indicating migration is not adopted by poorest section of society because of cost associated to it. Out migration, in present study, in sample households is often undertaken by middle and upper income households.

Table 4.11(b) shows male out-migration rate for various economic variables across social groups. Out-migration rate of SC households is highest in households having land less than 1 hectares, in OBC households it is highest for households having land 1-2 hectares followed by 3-5 hectares. In Upper caste, rate of out-migration is higher for 1-2 hectares followed by 3-5 hectares. It can be noticed from above analysis that as landholding size increases in SC and OBC households, migration decreases.

Monthly income reveals a lot about economic status of the households. In SC households rate of out-migration is the highest for households with monthly income Rs.11, 000 to Rs.20, 000 income, for OBC it is highest for households having monthly income Rs.41, 000-Rs.50, 000. For Upper caste male rate of out-migration is highest for households having monthly income of Rs.50, 000 and above. Above tabular analysis of rate of out-migration reveals lot about nature and patterns of male out-migration from rural UP in sample villages and among various social groups. Nature and pattern of male out-migration is different in different villages and also varies across various social groups. From above analysis, it can be said that there are two classes of labour migration in rural UP as members from poorest households rarely migrate. Medium and richer section of villages demonstrates high male out-migration indicating rich and poor both are migrating from UP but motives and determinants of both labour classes are different from each other. Studies also show that education, skills, age, marital status, occupation and labour, market status and human capital and endowments strongly affect migration decisions (Kurekova, 2010;Skeldon, 1997). The one of the finding of this section, that poorest rarely migrate is also similar to finding of the study done by Taylor and Wyatt (1996), which reveals that poorer households of the villages rarely undertake migration decisions as they cant afford the cost associated with migration and credit constraints along with uncertainties often discourage these households from sending member abroad.

Table 4.11(b) Male Out-Migration Rate for Jaunpur across various Economic Variables across various Social Groups

Variables	SC			OBC			Upper caste		
	Total		OMR	Total		OMR	Total		OMR
	Male	Male Out-Migrant		Male	Male Out-Migrant		Male	Male Out-Migrant	
Total land (in hectares)									
Landless	35	4	11.4	81	16	19.8	1	0	0
0-1	133	51	38.3	203	138	68.0	85	42	49.4
1-2	39	12	30.8	22	17	77.3	124	63	50.8
2-3	4	1	25	11	3	27.3	34	10	29.4
3-5	0	0	0	3	2	66.7	54	23	42.6
Total land owned (in hectares)									
Not Owned	63	18	28.6	145	55	37.9	5	0	0
0-1	123	46	37.4	154	104	67.5	85	42	49.4
1-2	25	4	16.0	18	14	77.8	124	63	50.8
2-3	0	0	0	3	3	100	30	10	33.3
3-5	0	0	0	0	0	0	54	23	42.9
Own house									
Yes	211	68	32.2	306	162	52.9	298	138	46.3
No	0	0	0	14	14	100	0	0	0
Type of house									
Katcha	87	20	22.9	134	47	35.1	40	15	37.5
Semi-Pucca	23	12	52.2	47	12	25.5	11	3	27.3
Pucca	101	36	35.6	126	103	82.4	247	120	48.6
Primary Source of Income									
Cultivation	9	9	100	52	29	55.8	158	75	47.5
Non-Agriculture Enterprises	15	0	0	9	0	0	6	1	16.7
Wage/Salaried Employee	75	0	0	55	15	27.3	28	7	25.0
Remittances	78	56	71.8	177	110	62.1	79	45	56.9
Others	34	3	8.8	27	22	81.5	27	10	37.0
Total Monthly Income (in Rupees)									
1-10	114	22	19.3	78	15	19.2	27	9	33.3
11-20	55	39	71.0	96	58	60.4	35	16	45.7
21-30	31	3	9.7	55	41	74.5	31	12	38.7
31-40	8	3	37.5	14	3	21.4	33	5	15.2
41-50	3	1	33.3	12	11	91.7	33	16	48.5
50 & Above	0	0	0	65	48	73.8	139	80	57.6
Total Expenditure (in Rupees)									
1-10	150	38	25.3	118	40	33.9	33	9	27.3
11-20	45	27	60.0	115	70	60.9	65	30	46.2
21-30	16	3	18.8	16	12	75.0	20	6	30.0
31-40	0	0	0	21	21	100.0	55	24	43.6
41-50	0	0	0	0	0	0	57	30	52.6
50 & Above	0	0	0	50	33	66.0	68	39	57.4
Total	**211**	**68**	**32.2**	**320**	**176**	**55.0**	**298**	**138**	**46.3**

Source: Field Survey 2016.

4.5 Empirical analysis: Determinants of male out-migration from sample villages in Jaunpur District

This section empirically analyzes the determinants of the male out-migration. Logistic regression model has been employed. For each social group and for Jaunpur as whole two models have been run, one taking into account household monthly income with remittances and another model taking into household monthly income without remittances.

4.5.1 Logistic Regression for Jaunpur District

Below mentioned are the equations for logistic regression for all sample villages. Equation I depict determinants of male out-migration by considering total monthly household income including remittances and equation II depicts determinants of male out-migration by considering total monthly household income without remittances.

P (Y=1) = β_0 + β_1 (Head of the household)+ β_2 (Religion)+ β_3 (Social group) + β_4 (Household size) + β_5 (Number of adult males between 15-50) + β_6 (Educational attainment of head of the household) + β_7 (Total land possessed) + β_8 (Total monthly income with remittances) + u_i ... *Equation - I*

P (Y=1) = β_0 + β_1 (Head of the household)+ β_2 (Religion)+ β_3 (Social group) + β_4 (Household size) + β_5 (No of adult male aged 15-50) + β_6 (Educational attainment of Head of the household) + β_7(Total land possessed) + β_8(Total monthly income without remittances) + u_i ... *Equation – II*

Where Y is dependent variable and is decision whether male member will out-migrate or not. It has binary values, to out-migrate=1, no out-migration -0. Set of independent or explanatory variables are head of the household, religion, social group, household size, educational attainment of head of the household, total land possessed, total monthly income with and without remittances and u_i random or stochastic error terms.

Table 4.12 (a) Logistic Regression: Determinants of Male Out-Migration from Sample Villages in Jaunpur district

Logistic Regression Model: Determinants of Male Out-Migration from Jaunpur District		
Dependent Variable: Out-Migration=1, No Out-Migration=0		
Statistical Method: Logit		
Model	**I**	**II**
No. of Observations	370	370
Log Likelihood	-161.2391	-187.7996
Prob (Chi^2)	0.0000	0.0000
Pseudo R^2	0.3147	0.2018
Explanatory Variables	**Coefficients (p value)**	
Head of Household		
Female®		
Male	0.9947(0.002)***	0.7598(0.042)**
Religion		
Muslim®		
Hindu	-0.3421(0.462)	-0.1531(0.711)
Social Group		
SC®		
OBC	1.1732(0.010)**	1.3021(0.000)***
Upper caste	-0.2279(0.603)	0.3745(0.349)
Household Size		
1-5®		
6-10	0.9033(0.005)***	0.9728(0.001)***
11 & above	1.4201(0.024)**	1.9540(0.001)***
Male between age 15-50	0.2063(0.230)	01.3044(0.404)
Educational Attainment of Head of Household		
Literate ®		
Illiterate	0.5772(0.083)*	0.3575(0.256)
Total Land Possessed (in hectares)	-0.5345(0.011)**	0.0032(0.986)
Total Monthly Income in Rs. (with/without remittances)	0.0000(0.000)***	0.0000(0.000)***
® Reference group; ***p<=0.01, **p<=0.05, *p<=0.10		

Source: Field survey 2016.

Major findings of the logistic regression while analyzing determinants of male out-migration are, as follows: covariates such as OBC in social group, household size and total income with and without remittances is highly significant in determining whether to migrate or not in both models. Thus, in comparison to other social groups, OBC households have more chances of sending male members abroad. As household size increases migration, increases as well. It can be observed household size i.e. number of household members in household is very significant factor in deciding whether to migrate or not. Total household income also plays crucial role in decision to migrate. As household income increases migration increases as well.

In model-I head of the household is significant as well along with total land possessed. Households that are having male as head household have higher chances of male out-migration in comparison to households with female head. Educational attainment of head of the households are significant at ten percent level of significance i.e. households head who are literate, have more chances of sending male members from family in comparison to illiterate household head. Land possessed by household is also significant variable in determining whether to migrate or not. As land increases, migration decreases. As most of the households primary occupation is cultivation. Land size plays very important role in earnings of rural livelihood. Because of huge population pressure and poverty, land availability has reduced leading to male exodus form rural area.

Model II considers total monthly household income excluding remittances. Model shows that Upper caste is also significant at ten percent level of significance. Household size is very detrimental in deciding whether to migrate or not. Higher the households size higher the chances of male out-migration. Adult male is not significant. Logit results show that number of adult males in family doesn't affect migration decisions. Total income without remittances is highly significant. As income increases, migration increases as well. Land possessed is not significant in model II.

4.5.2 Logistic Regression across various Social Groups

To have better understanding of the role of social group in deciding whether to migrate or not, an attempt has been made to do descriptive analysis of male out-migration across various social groups in previous section of this chapter. Logistic regression model has been employed to analyze the significance of various variables in determining whether male out-migration will take place or not. Again two model for each social group have been employed, model I considering total monthly household income with remittances and model II considering total monthly household income without remittances. Below mentioned are the equations, for logit model across various social groups.

$P(Y=1) = \beta_0 + \beta_1$ (Head of the household) $+ \beta_2$ (Religion) $+ \beta_3$ (Household size) $+ \beta_4$ (No of male aged between 15-50) $+ \beta_5$ (Educational attainment of Head of household) $+ \beta_6$ (Total land possessed) $+ \beta_7$ (Total monthly household income with remittances) $+ u_i$ ... *Equation - III*

$P(Y=1) = \beta_0 + \beta_1$ (Head of the household) $+ \beta_2$ (Religion) $+ \beta_3$ (Household size) $+ \beta_4$ (No of male between 15-50) $+ \beta_5$ (Educational attainment of Head of household) $+ \beta_6$ (Total land

possessed) + β_7 (Total monthly household income without remittances) + u_i ... *Equation - IV*

Where, Y is dependent variable that implies decision whether male member will out-migrate or not. It has binary values, to out-migrate=1, no out-migration =0. Set of independent or explanatory variables are head of the household, religion, household size, educational attainment of head of household, total land possessed, total monthly income with and without remittances, total monthly expenditure with and without remittances and u_i random or stochastic error terms. Both equations have been analyzed across various social groups. i.e. equation *I* is analyzed for social group SC, OBC and Upper caste. Similar logit model has been run for equation two for each social group. Descriptive summary statistics of variables have been given in Appendix 3.1-3.4.

Table 4.12 (b) Logistic Regression: Determinants of Male Out-Migration from Sample Villages in Jaunpur district across various Social Groups

Logistic Regression Model: Determinants of Rural Male Out-Migration from Jaunpur District						
Dependent Variable: Out-Migration=1, No Out-Migration=0						
Statistical Method: Logit						
Social Group	**SC**		**OBC**		**Upper caste**	
Model (I with Remittances, II-without remittances	**I**	**II**	**I**	**II**	**I**	**II**
No. of Observations	90	90	135	135	133	133
Log Likelihood	-50.6596	-45.7182	-44.3529	-56.5288	-39.7069	-54.2332
Prob (Chi^2)	0.0022	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
Pseudo R^2	0.1689	0.2499	0.4001	0.2354	0.4820	0.2925
Explanatory Variables	**Coefficients (p value)**		**Coefficients (p value)**		**Coefficients (p value)**	
Head of Household						
Female®						
Male	1.5811 (0.175)	1.0892 (0.348)	1.4503 (0.074)*	1.0803 (0.091*)	-0.7981 (0.404)	-0.4205 (0.617)
Religion						
Muslim®						
Hindu	-	-	1.5377 (0.050**)	0.8843 (0.195)	-2.0275 (0.018**)	-1.4394 (0.040**)
Household Size						
1-5®						
6-10	1.4473 (0.010***)	1.7036 (0.006***)	1.3837 (0.048**)	1.8183 (0.003***)	0.8416 (0.272)	0.7392 (0.219)
11 & above	-	-	2.5678 (0.108)	4.3650 (0.003***)	0.7110 (0.497)	0.1825 (0.834)
Male aged 15-50	-0.4057 (0.320)	-0.9728 (0.020)**	-0.1822 (0.576)	-0.4430 (0.109)	0.5503 (0.186)	0.7515 (0.030**)
Educational Attainment of Head of Household						
Literate ®						
Illiterate	1.3268 (0.014**)	1.1732 (0.040**)	-0.4472 (0.466)	-0.8060 (0.137)	0.0770 (0.952)	-5782 (0.621)
Total Land Possessed (in hectares)	1.7299 (0.018**)	2.5074 (0.001***)	-0.9114 (0.041**)	-05384 (0.156)	-1.1947 (0.003**)	-0.4366 (0.092*)
Total Monthly Income	-0.0000 (0.679)	-0.0001 (0.009)	0.0001 (0.000***)	0.0000 (0.285)	0.0001 (0.000***)	0.0000 (0.000***)
® Reference Category; *** p <=0.01, **p<=0.05, *p<=0.10 level of significance						

Source: Field Survey 2016

Findings of the logit model, with above-mentioned covariates for SC group shows that covariates, which are significant in both models in determining whether to migrate or not are household size 6-10, educational attainment of head of the households

and total land possessed. Households with literate head have more chances of male out-migration than illiterate head. Total land possessed shows positive relationship between migration and land i.e. as land increases migration increases as well. Total monthly income with and without remittances doesn't play any significant role in determining whether to migrate or not. There is no Muslim household in migrant category, and in migrant household category with household size 11 and above in SC households there in none household.

For OBC group, covariates, which are significant for both models i.e. model with total income including remittances and total income excluding remittances, are religion, household size 6-10 and total monthly income. Model one shows that Hindu households have more chances of sending male member out of household than Muslim households. Land is also significant variable in model and it has negative relationship with migration. As land increases, migration decreases. Total monthly income is also significant variable in determining migration decisions. In model two significant factors are religion, household size, total monthly income with and without remittances. Head of household also plays role in decision to migrate and is significant at 10 percent level of significance.

For Upper caste covariates that are significant for both models is only land possessed and total monthly household income with and without remittances. In model I religion Hindu is highly significant. Total land possessed monthly income with and without remittances also plays determining role in decision to migrate. Total land possessed has negative relationship with out-migration. As land in Upper caste household increases migration decreases. In model II number of adult male is highly significant and have positive relationship with decision to out-migrate.

Part 4.6 Conclusions and Discussion

Migration is not an outcome of any single factor, rather is an outcome of various socio-demographic and economic factors at place of origin. Household size, head of household, educational attainment of head of the household, social group, land possessed, source of primary and secondary income, monthly income of the household and living condition at household level play crucial role in migration decisions. Along with household characteristics personal characteristics of the prospective male migrant also plays very important role in deciding whether to migrate or not. Personal characteristics such as age, education, marital status, relation of male out-migrant with head of the households, reason for migration etc. also play an important role in migration as discussed in detail in above sections of this chapter. Social group plays detrimental role in migration in six

villages of UP. Migrants from lower class are basically into lower category jobs and upper classes are in well-paid and reputed jobs.

Moreover, from above analysis, it was found that there is huge difference in terms of land, income, living conditions and occupation of migrants from various groups. SC migrants belong to the poorest section of households whereas OBC in middle and most of the assets and resources are owned by Upper caste. In all social groups rate of out-migration is highest for OBC and monthly income with and without remittance is highly significant in migration decisions. Educational attainment of the head of the household is also an important factor in male migrations from rural UP. Land holding also plays crucial role, as UP predominantly is an agriculture economy. In UP, weak and stagnant economy along with low non-farm income opportunities often results in male exodus. Moreover, land size is very small in sample villages, pushing small and medium farmers to out-migrate. As it was observed from analysis, that male from both poor and rich households are migrating out. Studies also found the similar result that migration from both rich and poor income households have similar tendency of migration however nature of migration depends on the available resources in these two groups (Connell et al., 1976;Sovani, 1966). Upper caste is migrating out for better civic amenities and job opportunities. The higher incidences of migration among Upper caste can be attributed to their high socio-economic status at village. Educational attainment of better off migrants along with high income and land possessed often land migrants from these sections at better place in respective destination. Studies show that majority of male out-migrants from UP are from lower caste (Deshingkar and Start, 2003) but current study shows that SC households are least migratory in comparison to other social groups. Reason for migration across social group also depict nature of migration from UP. Major reasons for SC households are lack of access to credit facilities followed by search of better employment. Major reasons for OBC households are search of better employment followed by lack of non-farm income. For Upper caste major reason is to take up employment followed by better civic amenities. Along with social group disparities, there are also huge differences across villages. Chitkon, Jarasi and Asbaranpur are comparatively better off in terms of land possessed, monthly income, educational attainment and living condition in comparison to Manecha, Yonouspur and Rampur Soiri. Migrants from Jarasi and Asbaranpur are more educated and are engaged in high paid jobs, whereas, migrants from Manecha and Yonouspur migrants are engaged in low paid jobs and are less educated. To meet the objective of this research, with a detail

outline of nature and patterns of male out-migration from sample migrant households of six villages surveyed in Jaunpur district, next chapter will analyze whether migration is risk diversification, distress or accumulation strategy adopted by rural households in UP.

Chapter 5
Is Migration Risk and Income Diversification (NELM[33]) Strategy for Rural Households in Uttar Pradesh?

5.1. Introduction

Male out-migration in rural areas is often perceived as distress-induced and evokes imprudent images in sedentary rural life (de Haan, 1999). In chapter three, it has been noticed that widespread poverty, scarce non-farm employment and income opportunities, huge population pressure on resources along with inter district disparities are major drivers of male out-migration from rural households in UP. Household mutually decides to send male members abroad as a part of diversified (ex-ante) household strategy (Ghobadi et al.2005). Studies confirm that remittances increase household liquidity and contribute to reduce binding credit constraints (Katz and Stark, 1986;Paulson 2003; Mendola, 2008; Mincer, 1978). Studies show that social capital has positive impact on migration (Haug 2008, Faist 1997; Pries 2004; Fawcett, 1989). Internal migration is an important way out of poverty for households in rural area that can no longer rely solely on agriculture for their livelihood (WDR, Agriculture for Development 2008).

Previous chapter gave an overview of nature and determinants of male out-migration from Jaunpur district. To meet another objective of the study, this chapter will discuss in detail NELM approach and will try to analyze whether migration is survival strategy, income diversification strategy or accumulation strategy by rural households in Jaunpur district of UP. This chapter is broadly divided in six parts.

Section one is Introduction; section two deals with detail understanding of NELM approach, section three will descriptively analyze whether rural male migration is risk diversification strategy or not across various social groups and district as whole by analyzing field data. Section four is empirical analysis of the determinants of male out migration taking into considerations, variables as per NELM approach, section five is analysis of whether migration is beneficial to rural households in UP or not. Section six is concluding remarks.

Another major objective of the study is to assess whether male out migration is survival, risk or income diversification or accumulation strategy by rural households in

[33] New Economics of Labour Migration

UP in Jaunpur District. Objective has been further categorized in three sub-objectives and are as follows:

i) Is it true that wider the income inequality higher the propensity to migrate.

ii) Do credit constraints i.e. capital market imperfections in sample villages play any role in migration decisions?

iii) Is Migration beneficial to migrant households in rural UP?

Major hypothesis for the above mentioned objectives and sub-objectives is Migration is risk diversification and income diversification strategy for OBC households and accumulating strategy for Upper caste households in rural UP.

Sub Hypothesis

i) Greater the income inequality higher the propensities to out-migrate.

ii) Credit constraints plays important role in migration decisions.

iii) Migrant households are better off than non-migrant households.

Apart from above mentioned sub-objectives, other major propositions of NELM approach are, migration is household decision, migration is ex-ante strategy adopted by rural households, remittances increases liquidity and reduce credit constraints in rural households, migrant maintains strong linkages with their family at origin and facilitating role of social network in migration have been descriptively analyzed from field data.

5.2. Migration as a Risk and Income Diversification (NELM Approach): A detailed Discussion [34]

This section deals with existing literatures on migration as a risk, poverty reduction and income diversification strategy adopted by rural households in developing economies. Migration is one of many strategies poor take up to reduce future uncertainties and shocks associated with agriculture and capital markets in rural areas of developing economies. NELM approach proposes that migration from rural areas is not always result of urgency and shocks. In recent era, migration instead, has become foremost way to diversify economic resources. Oded Stark developed NELM approach, in 1980s in cooperation with David.E.Blooom, Eliakim Katz, Edward Taylor and Mark Rosenzweig. NELM is only perspective that deals with positive aspects of migration

[34] Major part of this section have been taken from Stark,Oded, and Davi E.Bloom.1985."The New Economics of Labor Migration". *American Economic Review*, 75(2): 173–78.

decisions via remittances (Taylor, 1999). This approach is an inside criticisms of micro version of neo-classical theory, or as a variant of it refines and augments it with a number of amendments and additions (Arango, 2000). Advances in empirical studies and theoretical studies in migration have challenged the unrealistic assumptions of neo-classical as well as structuralists perspectives (De Haas, 2010). NELM approach rejects individualistic assumption of neo-classical model.

In this respect, Stark and Levhari (1982:191-192) argued that

…"During the last decade or so, the ruling economic explanations for rural-to-urban migration taking place in less developed countries (LDCs) have been the response to inter-sectoral expected incomes differential…. This is somewhat surprising, especially since during the very same period both risks and (especially) risk avoidance have assumed major significance in mainstream economics… the way variability in alternative rural earnings and in future urban earnings must figure in migrants' calculations is beyond the grasp of the expected income hypothesis…. It is suggested that an optimizing, risk averse small-farmer family confronted with subjectively risk-increasing situation mangers to control the risk through diversification of its income portfolio via the placing of its best-suited member in the urban sector, which is independent from agricultural production."…

Stark and Bloom (1985) have discussed in detail about theoretical and empirical issues of the approach. This is one of the pioneering and basic papers to have better and in-depth understanding of NELM approach. The author mentions that migration of labor has experienced an exciting and significant transformation during past few years. Migration studies, both empirical and theoretical have widened its domain and have encompassed social entities and interaction as well, instead of only focusing on wage and income differentials.

To actively summarize, the ideas of the new economics of labor migration (NELM) is major aim of this section. NELM highlights that interesting research is associated with migration within and from developing economies as consequence of wage differentials, migration tend to be offset by unemployment compensation programs and other fiscal policies in developed economies (Stark, 1985). The major underlying central idea of this approach is relative deprivation. People often involve in interpersonal income comparisons with their reference group. This kind of comparative assessment generates psychic costs or benefits, feelings of relative deprivation or relative satisfaction and person may migrate to change his relative position in same reference group. This

approach assumes that more relatively deprived, stronger incentive to migrate than the person who is relatively less deprived. Thus, a reference group characterized by more income inequality is likely to spawn more relative deprivation and therefore high propensities to migrate. As a particular individual migrate from the household, the relative deprivation felt by non-migrant households may change, thereby creating second round of migration. For example, if relative deprivation is initiated through inter group comparison of income in reference group, migration by relatively deprived i.e. with low income will trigger more further migration and thereby increases propensity of migration by other individuals who become relatively deprived. Stark (1985) assumes that migration is positively related to Gini coefficient i.e. higher the income inequality higher the chances of migration.

Another major idea of NELM approach is, rural areas of developing economies are often characterized by capital market imperfections. Set of markets and financial institutions in these economies are imperfect, moreover markets are far from free of asymmetries whereas in developed economies capital and insurance market are perfect. For example in words of Stark (1985)

…"a family in rural area of developed country can capitalize on the industrial development of Califorinia's Silicon valley by buying shares in New York stock exchange but in LDCs entry to specific labor market is often barred by constraints in capital, commodity or financial markets. These characteristics tend to encourage migratory behaviors that would not have arisen if information were completely symmetric, if financial capital (insurance and credit) institutions functioned smoothly"…

Another major assumption of this approach is that migration is a household decision and is ex-ante strategy. Migrant is not the decision-making entity rather household as whole undertakes migration decisions. Various implicit and explicit inter-family exchanges such, as remittances are thus integral to migration (Stark 1991). This approach assumes that migration via remittances reduce investment constraints faced by rural households in imperfect capital market in developing economy. Migration via remittances, therefore, increases liquidity and diversifies income of the households. Taylor (1999) cites many empirical evidences that remittances play positive role in economic development of rural economies. Remittances as per this approach are considered as inter-temporal contractual arrangement between the prospective migrants and family left behind as the result of purely altruistic considerations. Theory explains that family enters voluntarily with mutually beneficial contractual arrangement with each

other rather than with a third party. This approach highlights comparative advantage to family. NELM shifts focus of migration from individual independence (optimization against nature) to mutual interdependence (optimization against one another). Therefore, migration decision undertaken by households as per this approach is calculated strategy to minimize risks associated with capital market and agriculture in rural areas and diversify income. It is not an outcome of desperation or boundless optimism. Migration is warranted as it reduces family risks via diversification of income sources. The insurance motives for migration has been emphasized by NELM, according to which greater income uncertainty may encourage out migration as a risk and income diversification strategy (Stark and Bloom, 1985).

However, while considering migration as a household decision, this approach assumes that head of the family keeps perfect control over the migrant or that a cooperative arrangement is struck between the two decisions makers. Stark and Bloom (1985), mentions that households in rural economies tries to attain scale of economies by sending one or more family members into a sector where earnings are negatively correlated, statistically independent or not highly positively correlated with earnings in origin sector. Migration is beneficial to both, sending households and migrants as it provides co-insurance. (Stark and Katz, 1986) mentions, information in developing countries is very spare and costly because of lack of infrastructure and modern technology and it is true for future market in these economies as well. This incompleteness results in incapability of person to recognize and assess the current set of market and full potential value of his future wealth.

Stark and Katz (1986), assumes that in rural economy, characterized by imperfections in capital and future markets potential migrant might have credit accessibility through local credit providers but this may require him to work as unpaid labor the local moneylender at peak season of agriculture, which undermines his social status and to accept collateral valuation of his land, animals etc. below given by relevant local asset market. This further will undermine his initial wealth. In such cases sending member abroad may be a strategy adopted by households to escape the institutional complexities and asymmetric bargaining power that character the incipient fragmented capital markets in rural areas of developing economies. This approach talks about given level of initial wealth. If there is a change in level of wealth, there might be modifications in behaviors of individual even his preferences are same. For example, if

there is increase in level of wealth, it will lead to weakening in consequences of capital market constraints and may lead to reduction in his preference for migration.

NELM also highlights the facilitating role of kinship and network capital in migration as those who have migrated earlier assist new prospective migrants. The arrival of new migrants confers benefits upon earlier migrants and it is one of the major reasons that migrants tend to form clusters. As per this approach, migration can be looked upon as process of innovation, adoption and diffusion (Stark, 1991). There exists some prior belief that one particular destination is better than others, as social networks offer valuable information, which reduces future uncertainty of prospective migrants in destination.

In conclusion, low income and risks associated with agriculture, capital and future markets along with no other means of social protection, the households undertakes migration decisions to send one or more member to the labour market to far off places that is negatively related to local labor market in origin. Migrants and households therefore co-insure each other by diversifying their income and labour portfolio. The aim of undertaking migration decisions and sending member abroad is not only to improve household income in absolute terms but also to increase household income relatively to other households (reference groups) and hence to lessen relative deprivation felt by household in comparison with some reference group.

Thus basically this approach as propounded by Stark (1991), attempts to explain labor migration in light of three premises:

i) Even though entities that engage in migration are often individual agents, there is more to labor than individualistic optimizing behavior. Families or households make migration decisions together and not an individual alone.

ii) There is more to labor migration than a response to wage differentials. Thus migration in the absence of (meaningful) wage differentials, or the absence of migration in presence of significant wage differential, doesn't imply irrationality. NELM induces consideration of new variables such as income uncertainty, relative deprivation and invites the study of associated phenomena such as pooling of risks etc. thus this approach perceives migration as risk sharing strategy.

iii) Many migrations would not have occurred if the sets of market and financial institutions were perfect and complete. Furthermore markets are usually far free of asymmetries.

The new economics of labor migration presents several improvements over neo-classical theory. To begin with importance given by neo-classical to wage differentials have been downplayed. From above discussion it can be said that wage and income differential in absolute terms cannot be the only reason for migration. Moreover, this approach is also an improvement over pervious approaches, as it highlights the role of family and households, positive impact of remittances and take into consideration information and market failures in rural areas while undertaking migration decisions. Although this approach have some advantage over existing approaches but this should not be seen in seclusion to other migration theories. This approach also faces some severe limitations. This approach assumes that migration is strategy adopted by households to overcome local constraints therefore contributes in production and development in origin area (De Haas, 2010), whereas Lipton (1985) opines that it leads to more inequality in sending areas. Another major limitation of this model is that this approach assumes household as monolithic, altruistic unit taking unanimous decisions to advantage of whole group (Carling 2005). The approach deals only with cause of migration indirectly at the sending side. NELM extends the migration decision and include risk and insurance considerations, household decision-making and links to migration causes to the consequences. Therefore, it is more realistic and useful theory, even though it is still quite abstract and stylized and has some strong assumptions, like rationality. It is suspicious that whether the unrelated ingredients those take up the new economics of labor migration are sufficiently woven and logically integrated as to constitute a coherent theory (Arango, 2000). Moreover it draws empirical evidences from very small number of rural villages in Mexico.

5.3 Descriptive Analysis of whether Migration is Risk or Income Diversification Strategy or not: Evidences from Six villages in Uttar Pradesh

After having a discussion about what are the major assumptions, contributions and limitations of NELM, an attempt have been made to analyze whether rural male migration is risk and income diversification strategy or not in Jaunpur district. The analyses have been done for Jaunpur district as whole and across various social groups. Villages and social groups have been analyzed taking into consideration various variables as per NELM approach.

5.3.1 Migration as Risk and Income Diversification Strategy

This section shows whether or not migration is an ex-ante or ex-post strategy adopted by households in rural UP. It will also provide details on various types of shock for households who have reported migration as ex-post strategy.

Table 5.1(a) Migration as Risk and Income Diversification Strategy: An analysis of sample migrant households of surveyed villages

NELM and Villages	Name of Village						
	Chitkon	**Jarasi**	**Asbaranpur**	**Rampur Soiri**	**Manecha**	**Yonouspur**	**Total**
Migration Ex-post or Ex-ante strategy							
Ex-post	10(38.5)	3(7.5)	4(5.1)	6(13.6)	10(25.6)	4(21.0)	37(14.9)
Ex-ante	16(61.5)	37(92.5)	75(94.9)	38(86.4)	29(74.4)	15(79.0)	210(85.1)
If Ex-post, Type of Shocks							
Agricultural shocks (crop failure, bad weather)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	3(50.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	3(7.3)
Livestock Shocks (death or illness)	1(10.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)
Shocks to other Assets (due to theft or fire)	2(20.0)	0 (0.0)	3(75.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	5(12.2)
Natural shocks Calamities (famines, flood, drought etc.)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	10(100)	2(50.0)	14(34.1)
Health shocks (illness, injury, death of HH members)	7(70.0)	0 (0.0)	1(25.0)	3(50.0)	0 (0.0)	2(50.0)	16(39.0)
Residual Shock Category.	0 (0.0)	3(100)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	3(7.3)
Does Migrant posses any Asset at Destination							
Yes	7(26.9)	12(30.0)	24(30.4)	10(22.7)	3(7.7)	4(21.1)	60(24.3)
No	19(73.1)	28(70.0)	55(69.6)	34(77.2)	36(92.3)	15(78.9)	187(75.7)
Where would Out-migrant like to Invest or buy Land assets etc.							
Destination	7(26.9)	28(70.0)	21(25.6)	5(11.3)	13(33.3)	7(36.9)	81(32.8)
Village	19(73.1)	12(30.0)	58(73.4)	39(88.6))	26(66.7)	12(63.1)	166(67.2)
Is Migration Individual or Household Decision							
Household	26(100)	36(90.0)	79(100)	40(90.9)	39(100)	19(100)	239(96.8)
Individual	0 (0.0)	4(10.0)	0 (0.0)	4(9.1)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	8(3.2)
Changes felt by Migrant Households after Migration							
Increase in Status	19(73.1)	21(52.5)	59(74.7)	29(65.9))	36(92.3)	18(94.7)	182(73.7)
Increase in income	25(96.2)	35(87.5)	77(97.5)	38(86.4)	39(100.0)	18(94.7)	232(93.9)
Increase in Assets	2(7.7)	10(25.0)	36(45.6)	6(13.6)	2(5.1)	13(68.0)	69(27.9)
Increase in Expenditure	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	11(13.9)	613.6)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	17(6.9)
Investment in agri.	8(30.8)	7(17.5)	45(56.9)	14(31.8)	3(7.7)	0(0.0)	77(31.1)
Increase in Skills	24(92.3)	37(92.5)	11(13.9)	12(27.3)	24(61.5)	16(84.2)	124(50.2)
No change	0 (0.0)	11(27.5)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	11(4.5)
Others	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	11(25.0)	0 (0.0)	9(47.4)	20(8.1)
Total	**26(100)**	**40(100)**	**79(100)**	**44(100)**	**39(100)**	**19(100)**	**247(100)**

Source: Field Survey 2016.
Figures in parenthesis represent percent to total.

Table 5.1(a) shows whether migration is risk diversification strategy or not using NELM variables across sample villages. 85 .1 percent of migrants reported that migration adopted by rural households is ex-ante strategy and only 14.9 percent of migrants reported that migration is ex-post strategy. Major shocks mentioned by rural households are health shocks followed by natural shocks. Majority of the migrants do not own asset at destination and wish invest in village maintaining strong tie with origin. As far as changes felt by migrant households are concerned major change felt by migrant households is increase in income i.e. 93.9 percent. Another major change felt by households are increase social status is 73.7 percent, and increase in skills i.e. 50.2 percent. 27.9 percent of households reported migration has increased investment in agriculture and 27.9 percent of sample migrant households reported male migration led to increase in assets. As far as migration decision is concerned ,96.8 percent of household reported male migration is a household decision.

Table 5.1(b) shows various variables of NELM across various social groups. Majority of households in all social groups reported that male migration is an ex-ante strategy. Migration is a household decision across all social groups. Literature also shows that migration is household decision (De Haas, 2011;Massey et al. 1993; Yeoh et al., 2005, Stark and Bloom, 1985; Mincer, 1978). Asset possession analysis at destination shows that percentage share of Upper caste is higher than other two groups, implying households of Upper caste are having more assets at destination and are also showing highest percentage of willingness in investing at destination. In case of SC and OBC category percentage of migrants, owning assets at destination and investing at destination is very low in comparison to households of Upper caste. Migrants from SC and OBC households therefore maintain more strong and close ties with their family at origin in comparison to migrants from Upper caste households. Study also shows that those without any asset migrate as seasonal worker, with some asset opt for petty employment while the one with assets are fortunate get lucrative jobs (Srivastava, 1999).

Table 5.1 (b) Migration as Risk and Income Diversification Strategy: An analysis of Migrant Households according their social group

NELM and Villages	Social Group			
	SC	OBC	Upper caste	Total
Migration Ex-post or Ex-ante Strategy				
Ex-post	10(21.7)	22(21.4)	5(5.1)	37(14.9)
Ex-ante	36(78.2)	81(78.6)	93(94.1)	210(85.1)
If Ex-post Strategy, Type of Shocks				
Agricultural shocks (crop failure, bad weather)	0 (0.00)	3(13.6)	0(0.0)	3(8.1)
Livestock Shocks (death or illness)	0 (0.00)	1(4.5)	0 (0.0)	1 (2.7)
Shocks to other Assets (due to theft or fire)	2(20.0)	1(4.5)	0.0	3(8.1)
Natural shocks Calamities (famines, flood, drought etc.)	5(50.0)	3(13.6)	4(80.0)	12(32.4)
Health shocks (illness, injury, death of HH members)	3(30.0)	12(54.5)	0 (0.0)	15(40.5)
Residual Shock Category	0 (0.0)	2(9.1)	1(20.0)	3(8.1)
Does Male Out- migrant posses any asset at destination				
Yes	1(2.2)	16(15.5)	43(43.9)	71(28.7)
No	45(97.8)	87(84.5)	55(56.1)	176(71.3)
Where would Out-migrant like to invest or buy land assets etc.				
Destination	3(6.6)	23(22.3)	55(56.2)	81(32.8)
Village	43(93.4)	80(77.7)	43(43.8)	166(67.2)
Is out migration Individual or Household Decision				
Household	42(91.3)	102(99.0)	95(96.9)	239(96.8)
Individual	4(8.7)	1(1.0)	3(3.1)	8(3.2)
Changes felt by Migrant Households after Migration				
Increase in Social status at Origin	43(93.5)	93(90.3)	46(46.9)	182(73.7)
Increase in Household income	43(93.5)	98(95.1)	91(92.9)	232(93.9)
Increase in Assets	1(2.2)	20(19.4)	48(48.9)	69(27.9)
Increase in Expenditure	3(6.5)	1(0.9)	13(13.2)	17(6.9)
Increased investment in agriculture	1(2.2)	26(25.2)	50(51.0)	77(31.2)
Increase in skills	23(50.0)	60(58.3)	41(41.8)	124(50.2)
No change	1(2.2)	7(6.7)	3(3.1)	11(4.5)
Others	8(17.4)	11(10.7)	1(1.0)	20(8.1)
Total	**46(18.6)**	**103(41.7)**	**98(39.7)**	**247(100)**

Source: Field Survey 2016.
Figures in parenthesis represent percent to total.

5.3.2 Remittances Analysis: Amount and Uses

To meet the objective this section will analysis remittances amount and uses. NELM approach assumes that migration via remittances diversify income resources and reduce liquidity constraints (Katz & Stark, 1986;Paulson, 2003; Mendola, 2008; Mincer, 1978;Taylor, 1999). Remittances provide households with an additional income to mitigate risks associated with agriculture and other capital and insurance market imperfections prevalent in rural economy of less developed countries (Stark and Levhari,1982; Geisbert ,2007;Arango,2000;Kinnanet.al,2012;Lindstorm et al.,2012; De Brauwet.al.,2011;Ghobadi et al,2005; Ellis,2003;Waddington,2003). Lower class

households are more dependent on remittances in comparison to upper caste households (Datta, 2016). For landless and marginal farmers who are in vicious circle of poverty and debt migration is only option for survival and livelihood. Migration is an outcome of lack of diversified source of income (Olimova and Kuddusov, 2007). Although, there are few public employment programs such as MNREGA, but it has little impact on male out-migration as its implementation and monitoring is very poor in UP. The implementation of MGNREGA is reported to have declined seasonal out-migration of mostly women, at least of a distress kind (Kalkoti 2014) but it is true for women in SC households. Migration is a short-term measure and it is mainly due to need to supplement income in order to fill the gaps of seasonal employment. Rural population, if provided with sustainable livelihood will not go for migration (Kumar, 2014). Positive associations have been found in labor mobility and economic growth (World Bank, pp-162).

Table 5.2(a) shows remittance analysis across all sample villages and Jaunpur as whole. Out of total male migrants, 86.6 percent of male out-migrants remit money and co-insure the households. In Yonouspur, all migrant households reported that all male out-migrants remit money. 80.6 percent of migrants remit money on monthly basis and remaining 19.4 percent of migrants remit on yearly basis. Majority of the migrants remit money up-to Rs.10, 000.

From table 5.2(a) it can be seen that migrants sending remittances above Rs.10, 000 are very few and the percentage of migrant households receiving large amount of remittances are high in Yonouspur and Jarasi. In chapter 4, it was found that Jarasi is comparatively better of in terms of income, education and land availability and is also the village receiving large amount of remittances resulting in increased income whereas, Yonouspur is among poorest village, in terms of land endowment and income level. The share of remittances in in household income in Yonouspur is very high. Most of the male out-migrants either remit by bank i.e. 47 .4 percent or self i.e. 50.5 percent. Average amount of remittances per month for all sample villages is Rs.7, 172.8. Average amount of remittances per month is highest in Yonouspur i.e. Rs. 17,210.5 followed by Jarasi i.e. 10,273.97. A lowest average monthly remittance remitted by male out-migrants is lowest in Rampur Soiri i.e. Rs.4120.3. 71.9 percent of migrants reported they remitted large amount on demand by households and 28.2 percent of migrants didn't remitted any large amount ever. Major reasons for sending large amount, as per reported by households, are marriage of children, siblings and other family members of households and health concerns.

Table 5.2(a) Remittances Analysis of Sample Migrant Households in Surveyed Villages

Remittances Analysis	Name of Village						Total
	Chitkon	Jarasi	Asbaranpur	Rampur Soiri	Manecha	Yonouspur	
Households Receive Remittances							
Yes	34(89.5)	73(96.1)	113(83.1)	44(71.0)	40(95.2)	19(100.0)	323(86.6)
No	4(10.5)	3(3.9)	23(16.9)	18(29.0)	2(4.8)	0(0.0)	50(13.4)
If Yes, Frequency of Remittances received							
Monthly	24(70.6)	56(76.7)	87(76.9)	40(90.9)	37(92.5)	19(100.0)	263(80.6)
Yearly	10(29.4)	17(23.3)	26(23.0)	4(9.1)	3(7.5)	0(0.0)	60(19.4)
Amount of Remittances received per Month (in Rupees)							
<3000	16(47.1)	8(11.0)	57(50.4)	18(40.9)	10(25.0)	0(0.0)	109(33.8)
3001-5000	4(11.8)	13(17.8)	19(16.8)	18(40.9)	9(22.5)	4(21.1)	67(20.7)
5001-10000	14(41.2)	35(48.1)	24(21.2)	7(15.9)	18(45.0)	2(10.5)	100(31.0)
10001-15000	0(0.0)	8(11.1)	5(4.4)	1(2.3)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	14(4.3)
15001-20000	0(0.0)	5(6.9)	5(4.4)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	6(31.6)	16(4.9)
20001-40000	0(0.0)	4(5.5)	3(2.6)	0(0.0)	3(7.5)	7(36.8)	17(5.3)
Average Monthly Remittances (in Rupees)	4317.6	1027.97	5323	4120.3	7775	17210.53	7172.8
If ever received Large amount on demand or in need							
Yes	32(84.2)	59(77.6)	95(70.1)	45(75.3)	21(50.0)	16(80.0)	268(71.9)
No	6(13.8)	17(22.4)	40(29.63)	17(27.4)	21(50.0)	4(20.0)	105(28.15)
Reason for large amount -Marriage and Health issues dominate							
Mode of Receiving Remittances							
Self	24(70.6)	16(21.9)	60(53.1)	27(61.4)	32(80.0)	4(21.1)	163(50.5)
Friends/relatives	0(0.0)	3(4.1)	0(0.00)	4(9.1)	0(0.0)	0(0.00)	7(2.2)
Bank/money Order	10(29.4)	54(74.0)	53(46.9)	13(29.6)	8(20.0)	15(78.9)	153(47.4)
Others	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)
Total No of individual sending remittances	34(100.0)	73(100.0)	113(100.0)	44(100.0)	40(100.0)	19(100.0)	323(100.0)

Source: Field Survey 2016.

Figures in parenthesis represent percent to total.

Table 5.2 (b) shows that percentage share of migrant households receiving remittances is highest in SC households followed by OBC and Upper caste households with 98.5 percent, 90.8 percent and 75.2 percent respectively and patter is nearly same in frequency of receiving remittances. Majority of SC and OBC migrant households receive money on monthly basis whereas, in Upper caste the share of migrant households receiving remittances per month is low in comparison to SC and OBC households. As far as average amount of remittances received by migrants is concerned, it is highest for Upper caste followed by OBC and SC migrant households with Rs.10, 375, Rs.6, 372.2 and Rs, 4,192 respectively. In previous chapters it was observed that Upper caste is far better in terms of level of income, implying that these households are already better off in comparison to other two groups, and large amount of remittances received by households just added more to their accumulation. For OBC households, remittances play very crucial role and help in diversifying income and risks associated with agriculture. For SC households migration is often adopted survival strategy. SC households as mentioned in last chapter as well, are comparatively worse of than Upper caste and OBC on various socio-economic backgrounds. Large amount of remittances are highest in Upper caste category. Percentage share of OBC migrants is highest in receiving large amount on demand by households at origin and is lowest for Upper caste. Majority of SC migrants remit money by self i.e. 70.7 percent, in OBC majority of migrants remit money back by self-followed by banks and friends and relatives. In Upper caste category migrants remit money via banks.

Table 5.2 (b) Remittances analysis of sample migrant households according to their Social Groups

Remittances analysis	Social Group			Total
	SC	OBC	Upper caste	
Households receive Remittances				
Yes	65(98.5)	158(90.8)	100(75.2)	323(86.6)
No	1(1.5)	16(9.2)	33(24.8)	50(13.4)
If Yes, Frequency of Remittances received				
Monthly	57(87.7)	138(87.3)	68(68.0)	263(81.4)
Yearly	8(12.3)	20(12.7)	32(32.0)	60(80.6)
Amount of Remittances received per Month (in Rupees)				
<3000	27(41.5)	57(36.1)	25(25.0)	109(33.8)
3001-5000	31(47.7)	24(15.2)	12(12.0)	67(20.7)
5001-10000	3(4.6)	61(38.6)	36(36.0)	100(31.0)
10001-15000	3(4.6)	4(2.5)	7(7.0)	14(4.3)
15001-20000	1(1.5)	7(4.4)	8(8.0)	16(5.0)
20001-40000	0(0.0)	5(3.2)	12(12.0)	17(5.3)
Average monthly Remittances (in rupees)	4192.3	6372.2	10375.0	7172.8
If ever received Large amount on Demand or in Need				
Yes	40(60.6)	154(88.5)	74(55.6)	268(71.9)
No	26(39.4)	20(11.5)	59(44.4)	105(28.15)
Major reason for large amount- Health and Marriage related				
Mode of receiving Remittances				
Self	46(70.7)	95(60.1)	22(22.0)	163(50.5)
Friends/relatives	0	6(3.8)	1(1.0)	7(2.2)
Bank/money order	19(29.2)	57(36.1)	77(77.0)	153(47.4)
Others	0	0	0	0
Total	**65(98.5)**	**158(90.8)**	**100(75.2)**	**323(86.6)**

Source: Field Survey 2016.
Figures in parenthesis represent percent to total.

Table 5.3(a) shows use of remittances by sample migrant households across various social groups. Majority of households reported that remittances are used in daily household expenses i.e. 83.8 percent followed by health care i.e. 89.4 percent. Another major use of remittances is in education of children i.e. 63.9 percent and to repay debts i.e. 61.1 percent. Marriage and dowry along with investment in agriculture is another major use of remittances received by sample migrant households. Improvement in housing conditions and deposits and saving accounts for very less percentage shares in overall use of remittances. Village-wise analysis shows, investment in housing expenditure, saving and deposits and for improving housing conditions is highest in Jarasi and Asbaranpur.

Table: 5.3 (a) Use of remittances by Sample migrant households in Surveyed Villages

Remittances Analysis	Name of Village						Total
	Chitkon	Jarasi	Asbaranpur	Rampur Soiri	Manecha	Yonouspur	
Use of Remittances *							
1	18(94.7)	22(59.5)	55(80.9)	35(100.0)	34(89.5)	17(89.5)	181(83.8)
2	16(84.2)	16(43.2)	31(45.6)	24(68.6)	34(89.5)	17(89.5)	138(63.9)
3	16 (84.2)	22(59.5)	19(27.9)	23(65.7)	34(89.5)	18(94.7)	132(61.1)
4	2(10.5)	10(27.0)	25(36.8)	1(2.9)	5(13.2)	3(15.8)	46(21.3)
5	6(31.6)	10(27.0)	45(66.2)	20(57.1)	8(21.1)	16(84.2)	105(48.6)
6	12(63.2)	21(56.8)	42(61.8)	11(31.4)	4(10.5)	2(10.5)	92(42.6)
7	18(94.7)	33(89.2)	59(86.8)	34(97.1)	38(100.0)	10(52.6)	193(89.4)
8	2(10.5)	13(35.1)	13(19.1)	0 (0.0)	5(13.2)	4(21.1)	37(17.1)
9	0 (0.0)	6(16.2)	2(2.9)	0 (0.0)	1(2.6)	0 (0.0)	9(4.2)
Total no of households	34(100.0)	73(100.0)	113(100.0)	44(100.0)	40(100.0)	19(100.0)	323(100.0)

Source: Field Survey 2016.
Figures in parenthesis represent percent to total.
*1- For day to day HH expenses, 2- Education of Children, 33- To repay debts, 4- For improving housing conditions (major repairs, purchase of land or building), 5- Marriage dowry and Other Ceremonies, 6- Expenditure Investment in farm activities (land improvement, input costs, machineries, etc.), 7- Health Care, 8- Deposit/Savings in Banks, 9- Others

Table 5.3(b) Use of Remittances by households at origin across various social groups

Use of Remittances	Social Group			Total
	SC	OBC	Upper caste	
For day to day HH Expenses	44(95.7)	91(91.0)	46(46.9)	181(83.8)
Education of Children	36(78.3)	78(78.0)	24(24.5)	138(63.9)
To repay Debts	41(89.1)	75(75.0)	16(16.3)	132(61.1)
For Improving Housing Conditions (major repairs, purchase of land or building)	0(0.0)	6(6.0)	40(40.8)	46(21.3)
Marriage dowry and Other ceremonies	19(41.3)	52(52.0)	34(34.7)	105(48.6)
Expenditure Investment in farm activities (Land improvement, input costs, machineries, etc.)	11(23.9)	34(34.0)	47(47.9)	92(42.6)
Health Care	43(93.5)	94(94.0)	56(57.1)	193(89.4)
Deposit/savings in banks	0	3(3.0)	31(31.6)	37(17.1)
Others	0	0	9(9.2)	9(4.2)
Total	**65(100.0)**	**158(100.0)**	**100(100.0)**	**323(100.0)**

Source: Field Survey 2016.

Table 5.3 (b) shows use of remittances by sample migrant households receiving remittances as per their social group. Major use of remittances in SC households is in

daily household expenses followed by health care and to repay debts. In OBC migrant households majority of remittances are used in health care followed by daily expenses and education of children. In Upper caste, remittances are majorly used in health care followed by expenditure in investment in farm activities, major housing repair etc. and deposits and savings etc. Use of remittances as saving and deposit is highest in Upper caste. In SC households, remittances are used for repaying debts. Migration through remittances makes migrant households better off in all social groups. Literature also shows that migration is beneficial to all irrespective of social affiliation (Kumar et al., 2012). In all villages and social groups, major reason for sending large amount is health care and marriage related.

5.3.3 Migrants Linkages with Origin

NELM approach assumes that migrants maintain strong linkages with their native place and often remit back as co-insurance mechanism. From above tables 5.3(a) and 5.3(b) it was found that migrants send remittances to their households at monthly basis. This section will delve into the linkages migrants maintain with their family back at origin. The analyses have been done at two levels as done earlier, one across villages and other across social groups. Table 5.4(a) shows migrant linkages with their place of origin. 82.9 percent of migrants, as per reported by households intend to move back to village. In Yonouspur village, all migrants reported that they wish to move back to village. Geography, WDR (2009), mentions that migrant workers often leave their family behind but they help them coming out of poverty. Instead they enter into agglomeration economics in which being near to other people produces huge benefits. Average number of times migrants visit village is three times in a year. Reasons for moving back to village as mentioned by households are family motive and attachment and look after family and homestead along with lack of space and pathetic condition in Mumbai, family conflict and fights. Major reason for those who don't want to move back to village are better civic amenities and job opportunities.

Table 5.4 (a) Migrants Linkages with their native place in Surveyed Villages

Migrant Linkages	Name of Village						
	Chitkon	**Jarasi**	**Asbaranpur**	**Rampur Soiri**	**Manecha**	**Yonouspur**	**Total**
Migrant want to move back to Village							
Yes	34(79.1)	62(76.5)	133(87.5)	54(76.1)	38(86.4)	19(100)	340(82.9)
No	9(20.9)	19(23.5)	19(12.5)	17(23.9)	6(13.6)	0(0.0)	70(17.1)
Average no. of times of visiting in a year	2.1	1.9	2.2	7.9	2.7	4.4	3.3
Purpose of visiting Village							
Supervising the land/in peak seasons to work in farm	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	26(17.1)	27(38.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	53(12.9)
To meet family members	29(67.4)	24(29.6)	49(32.2)	13(18.3)	0(0.0)	12(63.2)	127(30.9)
Festivals, ceremonies and illness	13(30.2)	57(70.3)	76(50.0)	31(43.7)	42(95.5)	7(36.8)	226(55.1)
Others	1(2.3)	0(0.0)	1(0.6)	0(0.0)	2(4.5)	0(0.0)	4(0.9)
Average Days of stay	7.0	11.3	16.0	13.1	7.3	9.8	12.4
Have migrant ever-asked money from Household?							
Yes	38(88.4)	46(56.8)	85(55.9)	55(77.5)	13(29.6)	19(100)	256(62.4)
No	5(11.6)	35(43.2)	67(44.1)	16(22.5)	31(70.5)	0(0.0)	154(37.7)
If yes, Average How many times	1.6	1.1	1.4	1.9	1.1	1.5-	1.5
Total	**43**	**81**	**152**	**71**	**44**	**19**	**410**

Source: Field Survey 2016.
Figures in parenthesis represent percent to total.

Table 5.4(b) shows reasons of coming back to village for SC and OBC is to look after family and homestead and for Upper caste reason for not coming back to village is better civic amenities and opportunities. Major reasons reported for visiting village by migrants, are festivals, ceremonies and illness. 62.4 percent of migrants asked money from households. From table 5.4(a) it can be observed that migrants maintain close ties and linkages with households at origin. Migration, therefore, as per NELM is co-insurance strategy adopted by family as whole. Both migrants and household left behind maintains close tie with each other and co-insure each other against risks.

Table 5.4 (b) Migrants Linkages with their native place across various Social Groups

Origin Migrant linkages	Social Group			
	SC	OBC	Upper caste	Total
Migrant want to move back to Village				
Yes	65(95.6)	172(93.5)	103(65.2)	340(82.9)
No	3(4.4)	12(6.5)	5(34.8)	70(17.1)
Avg. no. of times of visiting Village in a year	6.7	2.8	2.3	3.3
Purpose of visiting Village				
Supervising the land/in peak seasons to work in farm	11(16.18)	40(21.7)	2(1.3)	53(12.9)
To meet family members	45(66.18)	52(28.2)	30(19.0)	127(30.9)
Festivals, ceremonies and illness	11(16.1)	91(49.4)	124(78.5)	226(55.1)
Others	1(1.5)	1(0.5)	2(1.3)	4(0.9)
Average Days of Stay	10.6	15.8	9.1	12.4
Have Migrant ever asked money from Household?				
Yes	44(64.7)	107(58.2)	105(66.5)	256(62.4)
No	24(35.3)	77(41.9)	53(33.5)	154(37.6)
If yes, Average How many times	1.2	1.4	1.6	1.5
Total	68	184	158	410

Source: Field Survey 2016.
Figures in parenthesis represent percent to total.

Table 5.4(b) shows linkages of male out-migrants with their households at origin across various social groups. Social groups wise it can be seen from table 5.4(b) that SC migrants and OBC migrants want to move back to village whereas percentage share of migrants who wants to move back to village is less in Upper caste migrants. Majority of male out-migrants of SC and OBC households want to move back to origin because of family attachment and look after homestead, whereas migrants from Upper caste who don't want to move back to origin reported reason for not coming back as better civic amenities and job opportunities at destination. Average number of times migrants visiting home is highest in SC category and lowest in Upper caste. Major reasons for visiting village for SC is to meet family members i.e. 66.2 percent followed by supervising the land in peak season. Major purpose of visiting village for migrants of Upper caste is festivals, ceremonies and illness. In all social groups migrants asked money once or more than once post migration. Major reasons for SC, for asking for money from home are daily expenses and to bear migration related expenses. For Upper caste it is for buying flat, deposit for rent, for pursuing higher studies and buying car etc. OBC migrants asked money for their work related expenses such as buying an auto, setting a garage etc. It can be seen from above tables that migration works as co-insurance strategy for migrants and

households where demand of money in often met bu each other in case of need and emergency.

Emigration now days are outcome less of desperation and more of integration (Geography,WDR,2009,pp-150). Migrants who move to cities, to leading areas, or to leading countries are rarely disconnected from their home places. Most migrants maintain strong and active links with their home community and send remittances. They do more than remitting capital. Migrants send back information and technical assistance, and when a place is ready, they often bring back ideas, knowledge, and expectations of good governance, and links to leading markets (Geography, WDR, 2009 pp-159).

5.3.4 Role of Social network in Male Out-Migration

Social network plays very important role in facilitating migration and reduces the cost associated with migration. Literature also shows the positive impact of social networks on migration (Haug 2008, Faist 1997; Pries 2004; Fawcett 1987;Dekker and Engberson, 2014;Massey etal.1993; Rees, 1966;Anjos and Campos, 2010;Glitz, 2013;Schumtte, 2011). This section provides and analysis of the role of the social network in male out-migration across the sample villages and the social groups in Jaunpur district.

Table 5.5(a) shows the role of social networks in facilitating migration from sample migrant households in surveyed villages. Table 5.5 (a) shows that majority of migrants got their job with the help of friends and relatives i.e. 69.3 percent followed by family. 7.6 percent of migrants got their job through campus placements and 8.1 percent of migrants got their job through government advertised jobs. None of the migrants from sample households have paid any cost for out-migration. In Chitkon and Jarasi, percentage share of getting jobs through campus placements and government advertised job is very high in comparison to other villages reflecting high skilled migration from the area. Regarding financing migration, majority of migrant's financed their migration through own/family savings. Majority of migrant households mentioned that social networks helped them in finding job, housing assistance, documents related assistance, encouragement for migration etc. 86.8 percent of migrants reported that they live in proximity with the people form same origin place.

Table 5.5 (a) Role of Social Networks in Out-Migration from Rural household in surveyed villages in Jaunpur District

Role of Social Networks	Name of Village						Total
	Chitkon	Jarasi	Asbaranpur	Rampur Soiri	Manecha	Yonouspur	
Migrant Job Source							
Family	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	20(14.8)	16(26.2)	5(11.9)	7(36.8)	48(12.9)
Friends/Relatives	34(89.5)	56(73.7)	87(64.4)	40(65.6)	29(69.1)	11(57.9)	257(69.3)
License/unlicensed recruiting agencies	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)
Walk in interview	4(10.5)	8(10.5)	9(6.7)	2(3.3)	5(11.9)	0	28(7.6)
Government agencies and advertised jobs	0(0.0)	8(10.5)	15(11.1)	3(4.9)	3(7.1)	1(5.3)	30(8.1)
Others	0(0.0)	4(5.5)	4(3.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	8(2.2)
Paid any Fees for Out-Migration							
Yes	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)
No	38(100)	76(100)	135(100)	61(100)	42(100)	19(100)	371(100)
If yes, What was the cost?	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Source of Finance for Out-migration							
Own savings/family	27(71.1)	47(61.8)	100(74.1)	55(90.2)	3(7.1)	6(31.6)	238(64.2)
Selling/renting land or livestock's	0(0.0)	5(6.6)	4(3.0)	0(0.0)	33(78.6)	10(52.6)	52(14.1)
From earnings from crop sale.	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)
Loan/obtained from relatives or friends	6(15.8)	8(10.5)	9(6.7)	6(9.8)	0(0.0)	3(15.8)	32(8.6)
Expenses borne/met by employer	5(13.2)	16(21.1)	22(16.3)	0(0.0)	6(14.3)	0(0.0)	49(13.2)
Role of Social Networks*							
1	33(86.8)	56(73.7)	104(77.0)	61(100)	36(85.7)	19(100.0)	309(83.3)
2	33(86.8)	43(56.6)	16(11.9)	10(16.4)	17(14.5)	11(57.9)	130(35.0)
3	33(86.8)	58(76.3)	111(82.2)	60(98.4)	40(95.2)	19(100.0)	321(86.5)
4	33(86.8)	56(73.7)	120(88.9)	61(100.0)	38(90.5)	19(100.0)	327(88.1)
5	33(86.8)	58(76.3)	120(88.9)	61(100.0)	40(95.2)	19(100.0)	331(89.2)
6	34(89.5)	58(76.3)	115(85.2)	61(100.0)	40(95.2)	19(100.0)	327(88.1)
7	0(0.0)	3(4.0)	2(1.5)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	2(10.5)	7(1.9)
Migrant live proximity with people from same origin							
Yes	34(89.5)	60(79.0)	115(85.2)	56(91.8)	38(90.5)	19(100.0)	322(86.8)
No	4(10.5)	16(21.0)	20(14.8)	5(8.2)	4(9.5)	0(0.0)	49(13.2)
Found work immediately							
Yes	23(60.5)	67(88.2)	114(84.4)	37(60.7)	24(57.1)	11(57.9)	276(74.4)
No	15(39.5)	9(11.8)	21(15.6)	24(39.3)	18(42.9)	8(42.1)	95(25.6)
Engaged in any Economic activity?							
Yes	38(100.0)	76(100.0)	135(100.0)	61(100.0)	42(100.0)	19(100.0)	371(100.0)
No	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)
Total	**38**	**76**	**135**	**61**	**42**	**19**	**371**

Source: Field Survey 2016.

Figures in parenthesis represent percent to total.

*1- Provided information regarding job, 2- Funding/Financing of Migration (lending money), 3- Housing assistance (arrangement of stay), 4- Assistance in finding first job, 5- Documents related assistance, 6- Encouragement for out-migration, 7- Act as entry barrier (caste, region).

Table 5.5 (b) Role of Social Networks in Out-Migration from Jaunpur District from Rural household across various Social Groups

Role of Social Networks	Social Group			Total
	SC	OBC	Upper caste	
Migrant Job Source				
Family	3(4.6)	25(14.4)	20(15.2)	48(12.9)
Friends/Relatives	58(89.2)	136(78.2)	63(47.7)	257(69.3)
License/unlicensed recruiting agencies	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)
Walk in interview/campus placements/PPO	0(0.0)	2(1.2)	26(19.7)	28(7.6)
Government agencies and advertised jobs	1(1.5)	10(5.8)	19(14.4)	30(8.1)
Others	3(4.6)	1(0.6)	4(3.0)	8(2.2)
Paid any Fees for Out-Migration				
Yes	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)
No	65(100)	174(100)	132(100)	371(100)
If yes, What was the cost	-	-	-	-
Source of Finance for Out-Migration				
Own savings/family	41(63.1)	127(73.0)	70(53.0)	238(64.2)
Selling/renting land or livestock's	10(15.4)	31(17.8)	11(8.3)	52(14.1)
From earnings from crop sale.	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)
Loan/obtained from relatives or friends	14(21.5)	8(4.6)	10(7.6)	32(8.6)
Expenses borne/met by employer	0(0.0)	8(4.6)	41(31.1)	49(13.2)
Role of Social Networks				
Provided information regarding job	64(98.5)	153(87.9)	92(69.7)	309(83.3)
Funding/Financing of Migration (lending money)	25(38.5)	77(44.2)	28(21.2)	130(35.0)
Housing assistance (arrangement of stay)	64(98.5)	162(93.1)	95(72.0)	321(86.5)
Assistance in finding first job	64(98.5)	163(93.7)	100(75.7)	327(88.1)
Documents related assistance	64(98.5)	163(93.7)	104(78.8)	331(89.2)
Encouragement for out-migration	64(98.5)	163(93.7)	100(75.7)	327(88.1)
Act as entry barrier (caste, region)	0(0.0)	1(0.6)	6(4.6)	7(1.9)
Migrant lives in proximity with people from same origin				
Yes	64(98.5)	166(95.4)	92(69.7)	322(86.8)
No	1(1.5)	8(4.6)	40(30.3)	49(13.2)
Found work immediately				
Yes	50(76.9)	121(69.5)	105(79.5)	276(74.4)
No	15(23.1)	53(30.5)	27(20.5)	95(25.6)
Engaged in any Economic activity?				
Yes	65(100.0)	174(100.0)	132(100.0)	371(100.0)
No	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)
Total	65	174	132	371

Source: Field Survey 2016.
Figures in parenthesis represent percent to total.

Table 5.5(b) shows role of social network in facilitating migration across various social groups. In SC and OBC households, majority of households reported that migrant got job with the help of friends and family. Percentage share of migrants getting job with help of friends and family is comparatively low in Upper caste migrants. Percentage share of walk in interview and government advertised job is comparatively very high in Upper caste than other two social groups. None of the migrants in any social group paid

any fees for out-migration. Regarding financing out-migration, majority of migrants in SC and OBC households financed their migration with own savings. In case of Upper caste percentage of expenses borne by employer is comparatively high. In SC category migration is also financed by loan obtained from relatives and friends. Role of social network is clearly visible in all social groups in facilitating out-migration. Though role of social networks is clearly visible across all social groups, share of Upper caste migrants are comparatively less in using social networks for out-migration. SC and OBC migrants live in proximity to the people form same origin.

5.3.5 Accessibility and Sources of Credit for Sample Migrant Households

This section will deal with accessibility and sources of credit for sample households in villages of Jaunpur district. Same analyses have been done across various social groups as well. NELM approach opines that credit constraints in rural areas of developing economies results in male exodus. Lack of credit accessibility often leads to male out-migration in order to overcome risks associated with credit constraints in order to reduce liquidity and credit constraints. Literature also shows that migration in developing economy is strategy adopted to overcome credit constraints (Fink et al, 2014; Delpierre, 2012; Stampini and Davis, 2009; Mesnard, 2004; Rapoport, 2002; Stark and levhari,1982;Morduch, 1995;Besley, 1995).

Table 5.6 (a) Credit Access and Sources of Credit of Sample Households of surveyed Villages (Migrants Households)

Name of Variables	Name of Village						Total
	Chitkon	Jarasi	Asbaranpur	Rampur Soiri	Manecha	Yonouspur	
Is Household Income Sufficient							
Yes	10(38.5)	21(52.5)	34(43.0)	14(31.8)	3(7.7)	1(5.3)	83(33.6)
No	16(61.5)	19(47.5)	45(57.0)	30(68.2)	36(92.3)	18(94.7)	164(66.4)
Do you have Easy Access to Credit?							
Yes	10(38.5)	23(57.5)	52(65.8)	18(40.9)	7(17.9)	11(57.9)	121(49.0)
No	16(61.5)	17(42.5)	27(34.2)	26(59.1)	32(82.1)	8(42.1)	126(51.0)
Household need Loan for							
Daily expenses	16(61.5)	15(37.5)	9(11.4)	23(52.3)	33(84.6)	8(42.1)	104(42.1)
Education	16(61.5)	10(25.0)	0(0.0)	7(15.9)	34(87.2)	8(42.1)	75(30.4)
Marria	1(3.8)	18(45.0)	71(89.9)	41(93.2)	0(0.0)	16(84.2)	147(59.5)
Health Issues	19(73.1)	31(77.5)	64(81.0)	38(86.4)	2(5.1)	19(100)	173(70.0)
Out-Migration	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	5(6.3)	9(20.5)	34(87.2)	12(63.2)	60(24.3)
Others (Purchase of bike, care etc.)	9(34.6)	9(22.5)	14(17.7)	0(0.0)	5(12.8)	0(0.0)	37(15.0)
Household prefers Formal or Informal borrowing?							
Formal	10(38.5)	24(60.0)	42(53.2)	10(22.7)	10(25.6)	9(47.4)	105(42.5)
Informal	16(61.5)	16(40.0)	37(46.8)	34(77.3)	29(74.4)	10(52.6)	142(57.5)
Usually get credit from							
Formal	9(34.6)	24(60.0)	42(53,2)	10(22.73)	6(15.4)	9(47.4)	100(40.5)
Informal	17(65.4)	16(40.0)	37(46.8)	34(77.3)	33(84.6)	10(52.6)	147(59.5)
Formal Credit agencies							
Cooperative Societies	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)
Commercial Banks	9(34.6)	24(60.0)	42(53.1)	9(20.5)	6(15.4)	9(47.4)	99(40.1)
Others	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.0)
Informal Credit Agencies							
Landlord	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)
Agricultural moneylender	12(46.2)	8(20.0)	17(21.5)	15(34.1)	7(17.9)	8(42.1)	67(27.1)
Professional Moneylenders	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	1(1.3)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	1(1.0)
Traders	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.00)
Relatives and Friends	5(19.2)	8(20.0)	19(24.1)	20(45.5)	26(66.7)	2(10.5)	80(32.4)
Did Informal Credit require any Collateral?							
Yes	13(76.5)	9(56.2)	27(73.0)	30(85.7)	33(100.0)	10(100.0)	122(82.4)
No	4(23.5)	7(43.8)	10(27.0)	5(14..3)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	26(17.6)
If, yes which form							
Land	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	5(16.7)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	5(4.1)
Future harvest	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)
Livestock	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	6(22.2)	1(3.3)	2(6.1)	0(0.0)	9(7.4)
Jewelry	6(46.2)	9(100.0)	21(77.8)	24(80.0)	26(78.9)	10(100.0)	96(78.9)
Guarantee from group lenders	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	1(3.0)	0(0.00)	1(0.8)
Others	7(53.8)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	4(12.1)	0(0.0)	11(9.0)
Is Household having Crop Insurance							
Yes	0(0.0)	3(7.5)	12(15.2)	4(9.1)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	19(7.7)
No	26(100.0)	37(92.5)	67(84.8)	37(84.1)	26(66.7)	15(78.9)	208(84.2)
No Land	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.)	3(6.8)	13(33.3)	4(21.1)	20(8.1)
Total	**26(10.5)**	**40(16.2)**	**79(32.0)**	**44(17.8)**	**39(15.8)**	**19(7.7)**	**247(100.0)**

Source: Field Survey 2016, *Figures in parenthesis represent percent to total.

Table 5.6(a) shows sources and accessibility of credit of migrant households. 66.4 percent of migrants reported that their household income is insufficient and only 33.6 percent of migrant households reported that household income is sufficient. 51.0 percent of migrant households reported that they don't have easy access to credit. In Asbaranpur the percentage share of households having sufficient income and easy access to credit is comparatively high in comparison to other villages. Majority of households reported that they need loans for health issues followed by marriage and other ceremonies, and daily expenses. Only 15 percent of migrant households reported that they need loans for purchase of bike car etc. Percentage share of migrant households requiring loan for purchase of bike car etc. is highest in Jarasi and Asbaranpur in comparison to other sample villages. Informal source of credit is preferred by majority of migrant households. Major source of credit in migrant households is commercial banks followed by loan obtained from friends and relatives and agricultural moneylender. Commercial bank as major source of income is comparatively very high in Jarasi and Asbaranpur. These two villages are better off in terms of income, education and land availability and are also showing high financial inclusion in comparison to other sample villages.

82.4 percent of migrant households reported that informal loan require collateral and major form of collateral required is jewellery and livestock. Major problem as per reported by migrant households in access to formal credit is documentation delays, its time taking nature and bribe at every step. Major problem mentioned for informal loan, moneylender charges very high rate of interest and also household members have to work in credit lenders farmland in peak season as a punishment of not paying the debts. 84.2 percent of sample migrant households reported that they don't have crop insurance for their land. Major reason as per reported by households for not having crop insurance is lack of money and information. Most of the migrant households reported that major problem faced by them while opting for formal source of credit is documentation and time taking and 32.7 percent of households reported that they don't face any problem in access to formal credit.

Table. 5.6 (b) Credit Access and Sources of Credit of Sample Migrants Households of surveyed Villages according to their Social Group

Name of Variables	Social Group			Total
	SC	OBC	Upper caste	
Is household Income Sufficient of Sample Migrant Households				
Yes	3(6.5)	17(16.5)	63(64.3)	83(33.6)
No	43(93.5)	86(83.5)	35(35.7)	164(66.4)
Does household have Easy access to Credit?				
Yes	4(8.7)	30(29.1)	87(88.8)	121(49.0)
No	42(91.3)	73(70.9)	11(11.2)	126(51.0)
Household need loan for				
Daily expenses	37(80.4)	53(51.5)	14(14.3)	104(42.1)
Education of child	23(50.0)	42(40.8)	10(10.2)	75(30.4)
Marriage and Other Ceremonies	30(65.2)	57(55.3)	60(61.22)	147(59.5)
Health Issues	41(89.1)	81(78.7)	51(52.0)	173(70.0)
Out-Migration	17(37.0)	35(34.0)	8(8.2)	60(24.3)
Others (Purchase of bike, care etc.)	0(0.0)	2(1.9)	35(35.7)	37(15.0)
Household prefers Formal or Informal borrowing?				
Formal	4(8.7)	22(21.4)	79(80.6)	105(42.5)
Informal	42(91.3)	81(78.6)	19(19.4)	142(57.5)
Usually get Credit from				
Formal	4(8.7)	17(16.5)	57(75.0)	100(40.5)
Informal	42(91.3)	86(83.5)	19(25.0)	147(59.5)
Type of credit agencies, If formal				
Cooperative societies	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)
Commercial banks	4(8.7)	16(15.5))	79(80.6)	99(40.1)
Others	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)
Informal				
Landlord	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)
Agricultural moneylender	20(43.5)	41(39.8)	6(6.1)	67(27.1)
Professional moneylenders	1(2.2)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	1(1.0)
Traders	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)
Relatives and Friends	21(45.7)	46(44.7)	13(13.3)	80(32.4)
Informal Credit require any Collateral				
Yes	29(69.0)	75(86.2)	18(94.7)	122(82.4)
No	13(31.0)	12(13.8)	1(5.3)	26(17.6)
If Yes, which form				
Land	3(10.3)	2(2.7)	0(0.0)	5(4.1)
Future harvest	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)
Livestock	2(6.9)	7(9.3)	0(0.0)	9(7.4)
Jewelry	24(82.8)	58(77.3)	14(77.8)	96(78.9)
Guarantee from group lenders	0(0.00)	1(1.3)	0(0.00)	1(0.8)
Others	0(0.0)	7(9.3)	4(22.2)	11(9.0)
Household have Crop Insurance				
Yes	1(2.2)	0(0.0)	18(18.4)	19(7.7)
No	41(93.2)	87(84.5)	80(81.6)	208(84.2)
No Land	4(9.1)	16(15.5)	0(0.0)	20(8.1)
Total	46(18.6)	103(41.7)	98(39.7)	247(100.0)

Source: Field Survey 2016.

*Figures in parenthesis represent percent to total.

Table 5.6 (b) shows accessibility and sources of credit across social group of sample households. It can be observed from table 5.6(b) that in Upper caste migrant household, majority of migrant households reported that their household income is sufficient, whereas in SC and OBC migrants majority of households reported that household income is insufficient. The percentage share of households in SC group reporting household income sufficient is lowest in all social groups. Upper caste is having high percentage share in easy accessibility of credit in comparison to other social groups. In OBC and SC households, 70.9 percent of migrant households and 91.3 percent of migrant households reported they don't have easy accessibility of credit. In Upper caste major reason for loan required is marriage and other ceremonies followed by health issues and purchase of bike, car etc. The percentage share of loan required for purchase of bike, car etc. is a negligible in SC and OBC households. Majority of households in SC category reported that they need loans for out-migration followed by daily expenses. SC and OBC group prefer and get loan from informal source of credit whereas, Upper caste prefer to take credit from formal sources and often get credit from formal sources. Percentage share of commercial bank is very high as source of credit in Upper caste and is very low in SC and OBC group. In SC and OBC group majority of the migrants households take credit from relatives and friends followed by agricultural moneylender. In all social groups households reported that informal source of credit requires collateral and major form of collateral across all social groups are jewellery followed by livestock. Most of the migrant households have not insured their crops i.e. agricultural produce. Social group-wise Upper caste migrants are having comparatively higher percentage of having their land insured.

Table 5.7 (a) Source and Accessibility of Credit and Male Out-Migration Rate of Jaunpur District

Out-migration Rate for various Variables			
Variables	**Total male**	**Total Male Out Migrant**	**Out Migration Rate**
Income sufficient			
Yes	252	126	50.0
No	577	256	44.4
Easy access to credit			
Yes	386	193	50.0
No	443	189	42.7
Usually get credit from Formal or Informal source of credit			
Formal	312	147	47.1
Informal	517	235	45.5
Crop Insurance			
Yes	65	30	46.2
No	647	332	51.3
No land	117	20	17.1
Total	**829**	**382**	**46.1**

Source: Field Survey 2016.

Table 5.7(a) shows that rate of out-migration is for those who have sufficient income and have easy access to credit. Source of credit doesn't affect rate of out-migration much as rate of out-migration for bot formal and informal is nearly same. Rate of out-migration is high for households with no crop-insurance in comparison to households with insured crop produce.

Table 5.7(b) Credit Accessibility and Male Out-Migration Rate across Various Social Groups

	SC			**OBC**			**Upper caste**		
Variables	**Total**		**OMR**	**Total**		**OMR**	**Total**		**OMR**
	Male	**Male Out-Migrant**		**Male**	**Male Out-Migrant**		**Male**	**Male Out-Migrant**	
Income sufficient									
Yes	9	2	**22.2**	63	43	**68.3**	180	81	**45.0**
No	202	66	**32.7**	257	133	**51.8**	118	57	**48.3**
Easy access to Credit									
Yes	25	4	**16.0**	101	63	**62.4**	260	126	**48.5**
No	186	64	**34.4**	219	113	**51.6**	38	12	**31.6**
Usually get Credit from Formal or Informal source									
Formal	32	3	**9.4**	57	38	**74.5**	229	106	**46.3**
Informal	179	65	**36.3**	269	138	**51.3**	69	32	**46.4**
Crop Insurance									
Yes	10	0	**0**	0	0	**0**	55	30	**54**
No	166	64	**38.6**	239	160	**66.9**	242	108	**44.6**
No land	35	4	**11.4**	81	16	**19.8**	1	0	**0**
Total	**211**	**68**	**32.2**	**320**	**176**	**55.0**	**298**	**138**	**46.3**

Source: Field Survey 2016.

As far as credit constraint is concerned, households with no easy accessibility of credit are higher in SC, and almost equal in OBC class. Households with sufficient income have less rate of out-migration in SC households. In SC households rate of male out-migration is high for households with no easy accessibility to credit and households with insufficient income. In OBC and other households, rate of male out-migration is high for households with easy accessibility of credit and sufficient income.

5.4 Is Migration beneficial to Migrant Households: A Comparative Analysis of Migrant and Non-Migrant Households

Migration has various socio-economic, cultural, political and demographic impacts on sending as well as receiving areas. Studies show that migration reduces inequality and poverty, leads to accumulation of household wealth, improves condition of family left behind and contributes in growth and development of both origin as well as destination (Narayana and Singh, 2016;Murrugarra et al.2011; Srivastava, 2005; Ajaero and Onokola, 2013). Migration also helps in transfer of knowledge and skills along with economic transfers. Views on impact of migration is mixed. One school of thought highlights positive impact (Stark, 1995; Taylor and Lopez, 2010; Erfe and Mahajan, 2007) of remittances whereas the other school, negates the positive impact of remittances (Rozelle et al, 1999; McKenzie and Rapport, 2007; Adams et.al, 2008). Migration and income inequality are strongly associated with each other. Impact of migration on income inequality is again a debatable issue. Few authors opine that migration reduces income inequality whereas, other set opines it has either no impact on income inequality or it increases income inequality. Studies show mix result of impact of migration via remittances on income inequality. Migration via remittances reduces income inequality (Stark, 2006;David and Rappaport, 2006). NELM approach mentions that Gini is positively associated with migration i.e. as Gini increases propensity to migrate increases as well. Stark (2006), provide behavioral and analytical explanation for positive relationship between income inequality and Gini co-efficient. Some researchers have examined the distributional impacts of migrant remittances by comparing income distributions including and excluding remittances (Barham and Boucher, 1998; Oberai and Singh, 1980; Knowles and Anker, 1981) or by using income-source decompositions of inequality measures (Stark et al., 1986, 1988; Adams, 1989, 1991; Adams and Alderman, 1992). These studies offer conflicting results about the impact of remittances on inequality.

There are also studies which shows migration increases the interpersonal and

inter-household inequality within and between villages as migrants often come from wealthier background (Lipton, 1980). Stark et.al (1986), in their work uses the extended Gini inequality index to examine the impact of migrant remittances on the distribution of household income by size to different value judgments when measuring inequality. The study found that impact differs for different types of migration and for different periods in a village migration history. Study reveals that remittances from migrants abroad increase rural income inequalities slightly, while remittances from internal migrants are income equalizers. Migrant remittances do not contribute to local development, while result in 'real estate bubbles and rising food prices" in the country (Marat 2009).

With above given background this section will deal with comparative analysis of migrant and non-migrants households across various socio-economic variables. An attempt have been made to analyze whether or not, migration is beneficial to migrant households. Are migrant households better off than non-migrants households in sample villages of Jaunpur district? Socio-demographic variables, income and occupational variables etc. have been analyzed. From analysis of various tables in previous section of this chapter, it was found that for social group OBC migration is risk and income diversification strategy. For SC household's migration is very low is mostly distressed migration whereas for Upper caste migration is accumulating strategy.

This section deals with comparative analysis of migrant and non-migrant households. It will give insights on whether migration migrant households are better off or worse off than non-migrants. NELM approach assumes that migrant households are better of post migration as compared to pre migration.

5.4.1 Socio-Demographic Background Characteristic of surveyed Households by Migration status

Table 5.8 shows comparative analysis of various socio-demographic variables for migrant and non-migrant households in Jaunpur district. Average household size of migrant household is higher than non-migrant household. In data analysis it was found that maximum number of household member is migrant household is 21 and in non-migrant household is 12. Social group OBC are more migratory than other social group followed by Upper caste.

Table 5.8 Socio-Demographic Background Characteristic of surveyed households by Migration status

Variables	Migrant Households	Non-Migrant Households	Total
Head of the Household			
Male	212 (85.8)	101(82.1)	313 (84.6)
Female	35 (14.2)	22 (17.9)	57(15.4)
Average Household Size	9	6	8
Average Adult Male	2.45	1.90	2.27
Average Adult Female	2.23	1.64	2.04
Social Group of the Household			
SC	46(18.6)	56(45.5)	102(27.6)
ST	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)
OBC	103(41.7)	32(26.0)	135(36.5)
Upper caste	98(39.7)	35(28.5)	133(35.9)
Total land Possessed (in Hectares)			
Landless	20(8.1)	26(21.1)	46(12.4)
0-1	133 (53.9)	75(61.0)	208(56.2)
1-2	61(24.7)	11(8.9)	72(19.5)
2-3	13(5.3)	8(6.5)	21(5.7)
3-5	20(8.1)	3(2.4)	23(6.2)
Average Land Possessed (in hectares)	0.9	0.5	0.8
Total Land Owned (in Hectares)			
Not owned	48(19.4)	32(26.0)	80(21.6)
0-1	114(46.2)	78(63.4)	192(51.9)
1-2	54(21.9)	8(6.5)	62(16.7)
2 -3	12(4.9)	2(1.6)	14(3.8)
3-5	19(7.7)	3(2.4)	22(6.0)
Average Land Owned (in hectares)	0.9	0.3	0.7
Irrigation Status			
Yes	216(95.2)	93(95.9)	309(95.4)
No	11(4.49)	4(4.1)	15(4.6)
Educational Attainment of Head of the Household			
Illiterate	53(21.5)	32(26.0)	85(23.0)
Primary	38(15.4)	17(13.8)	55(14.9)
Matriculation	69(27.9)	44(35.8)	113(30.5)
Intermediate	34(13.8)	21(17.1)	55(14.9)
Graduate	48(19.4)	6(4.9)	54(14.6)
PG and above	5(2.0)	3(2.4)	8(2.2)
Total	**247**	**123**	**370**

Source: Field Survey 2016.
Figures in parenthesis represent percent to total.

Landless households are more in non-migrating groups indicating poorest cant afford the cost of migration. Literature on relationship between land availability and migration is ambiguous. Afsar (2006), in his work argued that migration is induced by limited access to land resource. Kuhn (2000) argues that landholders are less migratory in

nature in comparison to landless households. The finding of the present study that poorest do not migrate, as they cant afford cost of migration is similar to findings of study done by Hossain (2001). His study found that those with large land holdings migrate more in comparison to those with small land holdings, as in rural communities those who are having large land holdings are wealthy and are able finance the migration. Average land possessed and owned is also comparatively high in migrant households than non-migrant households. Educational attainment of the head of the household is comparatively better in migrant households. Literature also shows that education plays very important role in migration decisions (Richter and Taylor, 2006;Ackah and Mahadev, 2010). Whereas when we look at illiterates head of household Percentage of illiterate is high in non-migrant households indicating human capital plays very important role in facilitating migration and also migration via remittances increases human capital of household.

5.4.2 Income, Occupational and Expenditure details of Migrants and Non-migrants Households of Surveyed villages in Jaunpur District

Table 5.9(a) shows income and occupational details of sample households according to their migration status. Non-migrant households are more into wage/salaried jobs in comparison to migrant households. It can be said that households, which are having primary occupation as, wage and salaried jobs are having less propensity to out-migrate, as they have source of livelihood at origin itself. Thus, these households do not rely solely on agriculture. Primary source of income of migrant households is other sources of income which incudes income from livestock, pension, other non-agricultural activity and other sources. Migrant households lack diversified source of income at origin and migration thus is result of lack of diversified income sources at origin. Income is one off the important determinant of migration decisions, as it has been observed in chapter four. Literature also shows that income is one the major determinant of undertaking migration decisions by households in rural areas. Migration is associated with financial cost of moving out, thus is not undertaken by poorest households and if in case they migrate out, they move internally that too to short distances (Geest, 2011).

Table 5.9 (a) Income, Occupational and Expenditure details of Migrant and Non-Migrant Households of Surveyed villages in Jaunpur District

Variables	Migrant Households	Non-Migrant Households	Total
Primary Source of Income			
Cultivation	72(29.1)	28(22.8)	100(27.0)
Non Agriculture Enterprises	0(0.00)	18(14.6)	18(4.9)
Wage/Salaried Employee	14(5.7)	62(50.4)	76(20.5)
Remittances	141(57.1)	0 (0.0)	141(38.1)
Others	20(8.1)	15(12.2)	35(9.5)
Average Monthly Income with Remittances (in Rs.)	36,949.4	12,304.8	28,756.0
Min	4,000	1,000	1000
Max	1,00,000	90000	100000
Average Monthly Income without Remittances (in Rs.)	27,565.4	12,304.8	22,434.2
Min	0	1,000	0
Max	1,00,000	90,000	100,000
Average MPCI with Remittances (in Rs.)	4,957.4	2,016.5	3979.8
Max	26,666.7	10,000	26666.7
Min	57.4	200	200
Average MPCI without Remittances (in Rs.)	3,680.1	2,016.5	3117.4
Max	23,333.3	10,000	23,333.3
Min	0	200	0
Average Monthly Expenditure with Remittances (in Rs.)	24,434.0	10,346.3	19,723.9
Min	3,800	1,000	1,000
Max	90,000	39,000	90,000
Average Monthly Expenditure without Remittances (in Rs.)	15,203.9	10,346.3	13530.9
Min	-10,000	1.000	-10000
Max	59,000	39,000	59,000
Average MPCE with Remittances (in Rs.)	3,202.9	1,697.0	2,702.3
Min	526.3	200	200
Max	12,000	6,400	1,200
Average MPCE without Remittances (in Rs.)	1,967.6	1,697.0	1,867.9
Min	-1250	200	-1250
Max	11,800	6,400	11,800
Total No. Of Households	**247**	**123**	**370**

Source: Field Survey 2016.
Figures in parenthesis represent percent to total.

Average monthly income of migrant households including and excluding remittances is comparatively higher than non-migrant households. It can be said that migrant households are better off in terms of average income. Monthly average income of non-migrant household is Rs.12,304.8 while of migrant households including remittances is Rs.36,949.4 and excluding remittances is Rs. 27,565.4. In previous

chapters, it was noticed that there was huge income differences with and without remittances across various social groups. Social group Upper caste is far better in terms of income level than other social groups. To have better understanding of average income of migrant and non-migrant households, income analyses across various social groups have been done in table 5.9(b). In terms of average monthly expenditure as well, migrant households are better off than non-migrant households. Comparing migrant households income and expenditure with and without remittances it can be seen that migration is beneficial for migrant households. Migrant's income and expenditure have increased by including migration and reduce significantly when we exclude remittances, indicating migration has increased income of households. While analyzing descriptively as well, in table 5.1(a&b) it was found that majority of households reported their household income have increased.

From Table 5.9(b) it can be seen that major source of primary income as cultivation is highest in Upper caste followed by OBC. None of the household in SC category, in non-migrant households reported cultivation as primary source of income. Cultivation as primary source of income is highest in Upper caste in both migrant and non-migrant households. In SC migrants households major source of income is remittances and in non-migrant households is wage/salaried jobs. In field survey, it was found that SC households are often engaged in many casual and MNREGA jobs in village itself, thus do not undertake migration. Remaining SC population is extremely poor to afford the cost of migration. Major source of primary income for migrant and non-migrant households of Upper caste is cultivation as these households are land abundant and have easy access to irrigation facilities as well.

There is huge difference between average income of migrant and non-migrant households across various social groups. It can be seen that difference between average income of migrant and non-migrant household is highest in OBC category. It can be interpreted that migration is highly beneficial to OBC households as average monthly income with and without remittances is almost double in migrant households in comparison to non-migrant households. Average income with and without remittances is almost double in migrant households in social group OBC and SC households. It is true for average monthly expenditure with and without remittances for migrant households as well.

Table 5.9 (b) Social group wise Income, Occupational and Expenditure details of Migrants and Non-migrants Households of Surveyed villages in Jaunpur District

Variable	SC		OBC		Upper caste	
	M HH	NM HH	M HH	NM HH	M HH	NM HH
Primary occupation/Primary Source of Income						
Cultivation	4(8.7)	0 (0.0)	17(16.5)	7(21.9)	51(52.0)	21(60.0)
Non Agriculture Enterprises	0(0.0)	7(12.5)	0(0.0)	7(21.9)	0(0.0)	4(11.4)
Wage/Salaried Employee	1(2.2)	41(73.2)	5(4.9)	17(53.1)	8(8.2)	4(11.4)
Remittances	38(82.6)	0(0.00)	71(68.9)	0(0.00)	32(32.7)	0(0.0)
Others	3(6.5)	8(14.3)	10(9.7)	1(3.1)	7(7.1)	8(22.8)
Average Monthly Income with Remittances (in Rs.)	12,380.4	9,660.7	28,932.0	7,765.6	56,908.2	18,371.4
Min	4,000.0	1,500	5,000	1,500	6,000	1,000
Max	50,000.0	35,000	1,00,000	25,000	1,00,000	40,000
Average Monthly Income without Remittances (in Rs.)	6,456.5	9,660.7	19,205.3	7,765.6	46,260.2	1,8371.4
Min	0(0.0)	1,500	1,000	1,500	2,000	1,000
Max	30,000	35,000	95,000	25,000	1,00,000	40,000
Average MPCI with Remittances (in Rs.)	1,650.9	1,723.4	3,159.6	1,311.6	8,399.0	3,130.0
Min	571.4	250	818.2	200	857.1	333.3
Max	10,000	10,000	16,666.7	5,000	26666.7	7,000
Average MPCI without Remittances (in Rs.)	854.9	1,723.4	1,898.0	1,311.6	6,879.4	3,130.0
Min	0(0.0)	250	66.7	200	333.3	333.3
Max	6,000	10,000	10,000	5,000	23,333.3	7,000
Average Monthly Expenditure with Remittances	9,947.8	8,657.1	19,047.6	6,703.1	36,894.9	16,380
Min	3,800	1,500	5,000	1,500	6,000	1,000
Max	24,000	30,000	57,000	20,000	90,000	39,000
Average Monthly Expenditure without Remittances	**4,034.7**	**8,657.1**	**9,369.4**	**6,703.1**	**26,578.6**	**16,380**
Min	-45,000	1,500	-1,000	1,500	-10,000	1,000
Max	24,000	30,000	50,000	20,000	59,000	39,000
Average Monthly Per capita Expenditure with Remittances	**1,334.4**	**1,403.9**	**2,114.8**	**1,158.1**	**5,191.9**	**2,658.6**
Min	526.3	250	545.5	200	857.1	333.3
Max	4,800	4750	6,666.7	333.3	12,000	6,400
Average monthly Per capita expenditure without remittances	**538.9**	**1,403.9**	**937.2**	**1,158.1**	**3,721.1**	**2,658.6**
Min	-236.8	250	-125	200	-1250	333.3
Max	4,800	4,750	6,666.7	333.3	11,800	6,400
Total no. of Households	**46**	**56**	**103**	**32**	**98**	**35**

Source: Field Survey 2016.

Figures in parenthesis represent percent to total.

The study by World Bank (2010) on living condition and human development in UP, found that wages of migrants tend to be higher than that those of non-migrants. As found in the present study, study by Srivastava (1999) also shows that SC and backward caste predominates among lessees while upper and intermediate castes are among lessor. Migration helps in improving well-being of the households (Awumbila et al.2105).

5.4.3 Accessibility and Sources of Credit of sample households according to their Migration Status

Credit constraints are one of the major reasons for migration from rural households according to NELM approach. Literature also shows the same as mentioned in previous sections of this chapter. This section will very briefly analyze accessibility and sources of credit for both migrant and non-migrant households. Comparative analysis will give an insight on credit accessibility and sources for migrant and non-migrant households. Table 5.10 (a) shows sources and accessibility of credit according to their migration status of sample households in Jaunpur district.

It can be observed from above table, that income sufficiency of household is same for households, irrespective of their migration status. There is no difference in sources and accessibility of credit across migrant and non-migrant households. Crop insured is almost same for migrant ad non-migrant households. Majority of households get credit from informal sources. Major source of credit for migrant households is commercial banks and for non-migrant households is agricultural moneylender. It can be seen that for both migrants and non-migrants households major source of credit is informal source of credit.

Table 5.10(b) shows accessibility and sources of credit across various social groups. Comparative analysis across social groups will give more in depth understanding of credit accessibility and sources in sample households.

Table 5.10 (a) Accessibility and Sources of Credit of Sample Households according to their Migration Status

Variable	Migrant Households	Non-Migrant Households	Total
Household Income sufficient			
Yes	83(33.6)	19(15.5)	102(27.6)
No	164(66.4)	104(84.6)	268(72.4)
Easy access to Credit			
Yes	121(48.9)	42(34.2)	163(44.1)
No	126(51.1)	81(65.8)	207(55.9)
Prefer Formal or Informal			
Formal	105(42.5)	23(18.7)	128(34.6)
Informal	142(57.5)	100(81.3)	242(65.4)
Usually get Credit from			
Formal	100(40.5)	23(18.7)	123(33.2)
Informal	147(59.5)	100(81.3)	247(66.8)
Type of Credit Agencies, if Formal			
Cooperative Societies	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)
Commercial Banks	99(40.1)	23(18.7)	122(33.0)
Others	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)
Informal			
Landlord	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)
Agricultural Moneylender	67(27.1)	60(48.8)	127(34.3)
Professional Money lender	1(1.0)	1(0.8)	2(1.0)
Traders	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	119(32.2)
Relatives/Friends	80(32.4)	39(31.7)	117(35.1)
Crop Insurance			
Yes	19(7.7)	6(6.2)	25(6.8)
No	208(84.2)	91(93.8)	299(80.8)
No Land	20(8.1)	26(21.1)	46(12.4)
Total	**247**	**123**	**370**

Source: Field Survey 2016.
Figures in parenthesis represent percent to total

Table 5.10 (b) Accessibility and Sources Credit of various Social Groups according to their Migration Status

Variable	SC Households		OBC Households		Upper caste Households	
	Migrant	Non-Migrant	Migrant	Non-Migrant	Migrant	Non-Migrant
HH Income sufficient						
Yes	3(6.5)	4(7.1)	17(16.5)	0(0.0)	63(64.3)	15(42.9)
No	43(93.5)	52(92.9)	86(83.5)	32(100.0)	35(35.7)	20(57.1)
Easy Access to Credit						
Yes	4(8.7)	12(21.4)	30(29.1)	6(18.8)	87(88.8)	24(68.6)
No	42(91.3)	44(78.6)	73(70.9)	26(81.3)	11(11.2)	11(31.4)
Prefer Formal or Informal						
Formal	4(8.7)	6(10.7)	22(21.3)	0(0.00)	79(80.6)	17(48.6)
Informal	42(91.3)	50(89.3)	81(78.6)	32(100.0)	19(19.3)	18(51.4)
Usually get Credit from						
Formal	4(8.7)	6(10.7)	17(16.5)	0(0.00)	79(80.6)	17(48.6)
Informal	42(91.3)	50(89.3)	86(83.5)	32(100.0)	19(19.4)	18(51.4)
Types of Credit Agencies, if Formal						
Cooperative Societies	0(0.00)	0(0.0)	0(0.00)	0(0.0)	0(0.00)	0(0.0)
Commercial Banks	4(8.7)	6(10.7)	16(15.5)	0(0.0)	79(80.6)	17(48.6)
Others	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.00)	0(0.0)	0(0.00)	0(0.0)
Informal						
Landlord	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.00)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)
Agricultural Moneylender	20(43.5)	43(76.8)	41(39.8)	14(43.8)	6(6.1)	3(8.6)
Professional Money lenders	1(2.2)	0(0.0)	0(0.00)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	1(2.9)
Traders	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.00)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)
Relatives/Friends	21(45.7)	7(12.5)	46(44.7)	18(56.3)	13(13.3)	14(40.0)
Crop insurance						
Yes	1(2.4)	5(11.6)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	18(18.4)	1(2.9)
No	41(97.6)	38(88.4)	87(100.0)	20(100.0)	80(81.6)	33(97.1)
No Land						
Total	**46**	**56**	**103**	**32**	**98**	**35**

Source: Field Survey 2016.
Figures in parenthesis represent percent to total

Table 5.10(b) shows that percentage share of sufficient household income is highest in Upper caste followed by OBC and SC households. Both SC and OBC households irrespective of their migration status, prefers and get credit from informal sources. Upper caste migrant households prefer and get loan from formal sources and non-migrant households in same group prefer and get credit from informal sources. Major source of credit for SC migrant households are friends and relatives and for non-migrant households is agricultural moneylender. In OBC households major source of credit for both migrant and non-migrant household is friends and relatives. In Upper caste households major source of credit for both migrant and non-migrant household is formal

source i.e. commercial bank. Credit sources and accessibility reveals lot about socio-economic conditions of households in rural villages.

5.5 Empirical Analysis

This section will empirically analyze whether male migration is risk and income diversification strategy adopted by rural households or not. Above mentioned tables and their analysis shows that migration is risk and income diversification strategy for migrant households in rural Jaunpur district. The major findings from tabular analysis are as follows; migration is an outcome of income inequality as there is huge differences in income across villages as well across various social groups, migration is a household decision as it is taken by family as whole, social networks play very crucial role and accessibility of credit is important factor in migration decisions. Three sub-objectives of this chapter, whether migration is positively related to income inequality, does credit constraints plays any role in determining migration decisions and is migration beneficial to migrant households have been descriptively analyzed in previous sections of this chapter. This section will empirically analyze these three objectives. To have better understanding of relationship between migration and income inequality and to support the findings from primary data analysis Gini co-efficient with and without remittances have been calculated for sample villages and for various social groups. Lorenz curve have been made for better pictorial representation of income inequalities across villages and social groups. Another method adopted to empirically analyze another objective of this chapter that whether credit constraints play any role in migration decisions of rural households logistics regression model have been employed. It was found in descriptive analysis that income sufficiency, easy accessibility and source of credit plays important role in deciding whether to migrate or not. Logit model has been employed to support the findings from descriptive analysis of tables. Third objective is to analyze whether migration is beneficial to the migrant households. Comparative analysis shows that migrant households are better of in terms of various socio-economic indicators than non-migrant households. To empirically analyze and to support the findings from primary data, wealth score for both migrant and non-migrant households have been calculated and analyzed using principal component analysis. Wealth quintiles have been calculated to assess the percentage of population in migrant and non-migrant households and in social groups.

5.5.1 Migration and Income Inequality

As mentioned earlier in this chapter literature does not provide the straightforward relationship between migration and income inequality. As per NELM approach, migration via remittances reduces income inequality. Gini coefficient shows income inequality and Lorenz curve is graphical representation of Gini coefficient. Zero Gini coefficient represents perfect equality i.e. all households have same income. A Gini coefficient of 1 i.e. 100 percent represents perfect inequality among all values i.e. for a larger number of households only one household has all the income and all other households have none. From table 5.11(a) it can be seen that Gini coefficient for all villages is 0.57302 i.e. inequality is very high among sample villages. Village wise analysis shows that Gini coefficient is highest in Manecha i.e. 0.60968 followed by Chikton 0.56656 and is lowest for Yonouspur. Chitkon and Manecha are showing high inequality. The analysis has been done on total income without remittances to have better understanding of income inequality without share of remittances in total income. From table 5.11(a) in precious chapter it was found that rate of male out-migration is highest in Asbaranpur followed by Jarasi and Rampur Soiri with 56, 53 and 47 persons per hundred persons. Rate of out-migration is lowest for Manecha followed by Yonouspur with 27 and 34 persons per hundred persons. Thus village-wise it is not true that migration is positively related to Gini coefficient i.e. income inequality.

Table 5.11(a) Gini Co-efficient with and without Remittances for Sample Villages

Gini Coefficient	Chitkon	Jarasi	Asbaranpur	Rampur Soiri	Manecha	Yonouspur	Total
With Remittances	0.47565	0.42211	0.39568	0.44540	0.57289	0.41400	0.51991
Without Remittances	0.56656	0.45840	0.41707	0.51769	0.60968	0.20688	0.57302

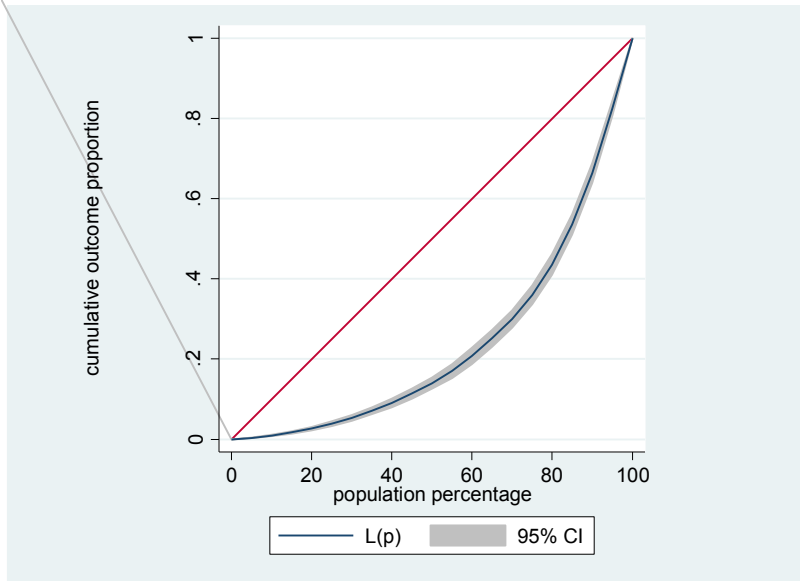
Source: Field Survey 2016 (Own Work)

NELM approach assumes that higher the income inequality higher the propensity to migrate. From descriptive analysis tables 4.4(a) and 4.4(b) in previous chapter, it was found that there are huge income inequalities in sample villages and among various social groups. Monthly household income with remittances is comparatively high for each village and social group in comparison to income without remittances. Gini coefficient calculated across villages in table 5.11(a) also depicts the similar result. Income inequality has been reduced in Gini with remittances except in Asbaranpur and Yonouspur where there are more income equality excluding remittances. In Asbaranpur and Yonouspur migration via remittances have increased income inequality in sample

households. Migration has reduced income inequality in villages via remittances and thus is beneficial for migrating households. Income inequality of all sample households in Jaunpur district has reduced when we include share of remittances in total monthly income of the households.

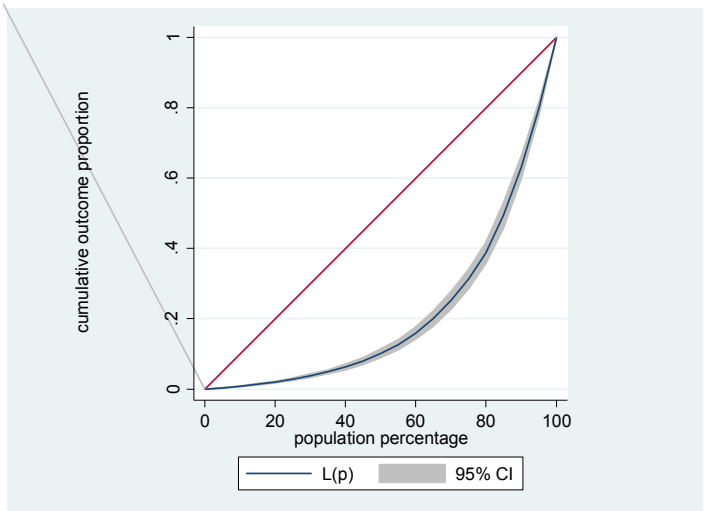
Figure 5.1 shows graphically represents income inequality by Lorenz Curve taking into considerations remittances as well.

Figure 5.1 Lorenz curve (with remittances) of sample households in Jaunpur District



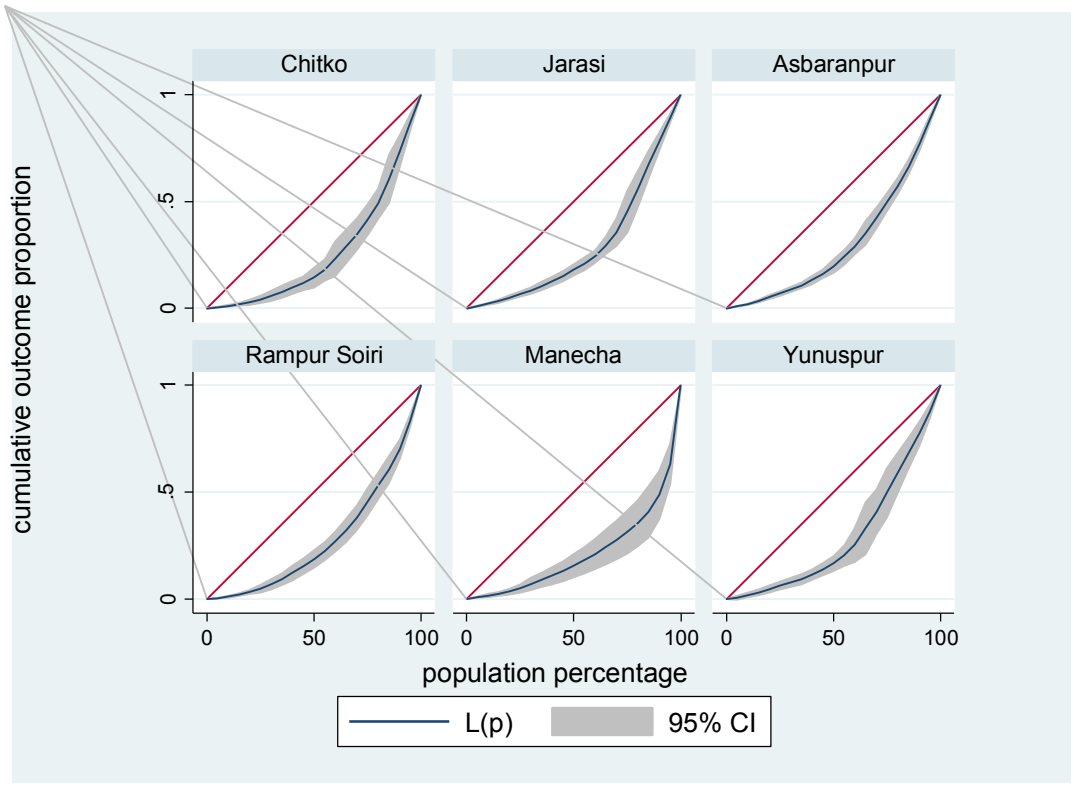
Source: Field Survey 2016 (Own Work)

5.2 Lorenz curve (without remittances) of sample households in Jaunpur District



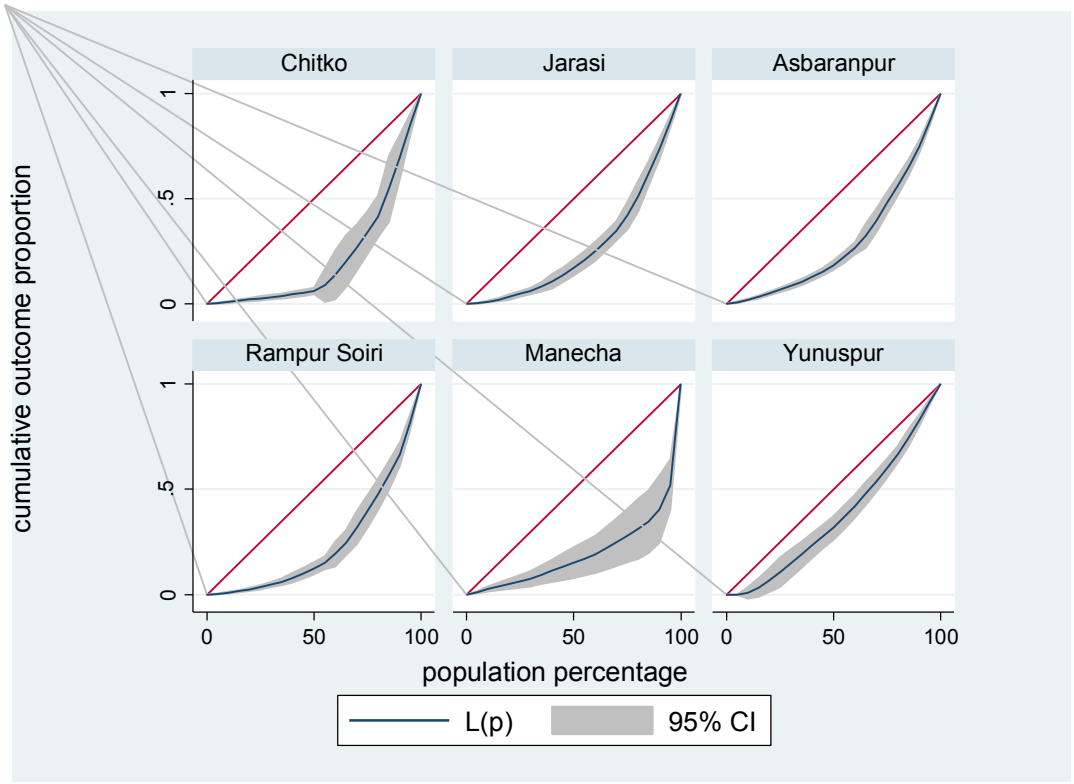
Source: Field Survey 2016 (Own Work)

Figure 5.3 Lorenz curve with Remittances Village wise



Source: Field Survey 2016 (Own Work)

Figure 5.4 Lorenz curve without Remittances in Sample Villages



Source: Field Survey 2016 (Own Work)

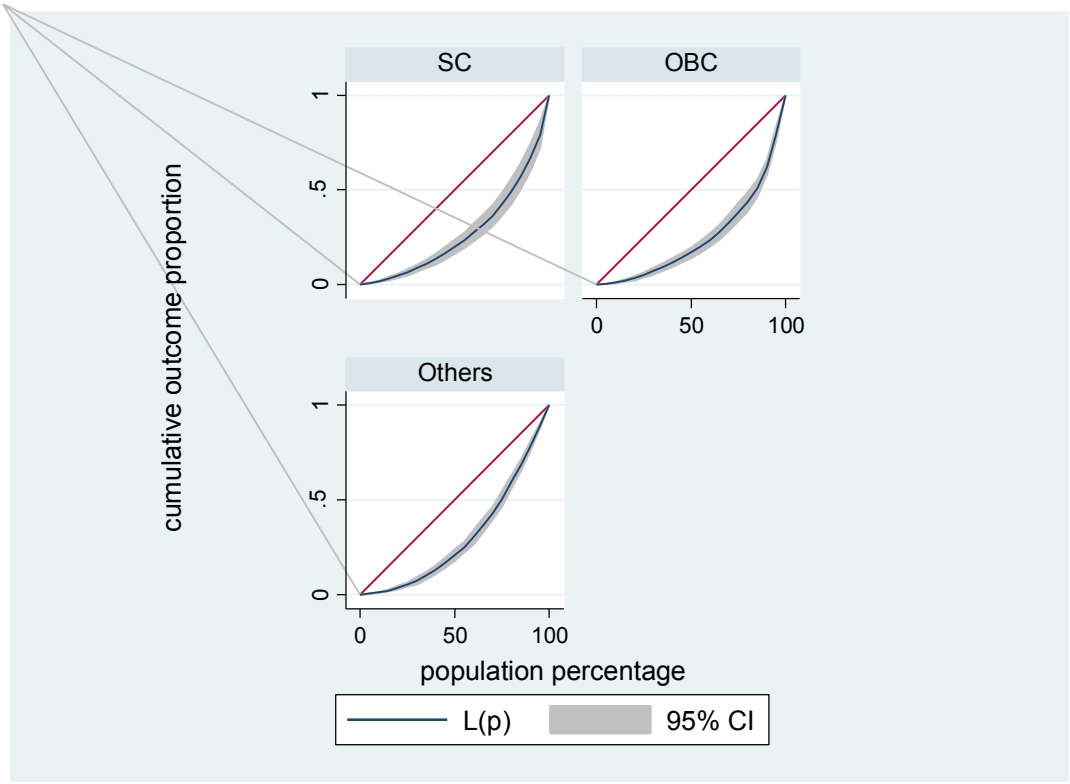
Table 5.11 (B) Gini coefficient across various Social groups in Sample Households of Jaunpur district.

Gini Coefficient	SC	OBC	Upper caste	Total
With Remittances	0.45260	0.50411	0.38924	0.51991
Without Remittances	0.52113	0.57518	0.42815	0.57302

Source: Field Survey 2016.

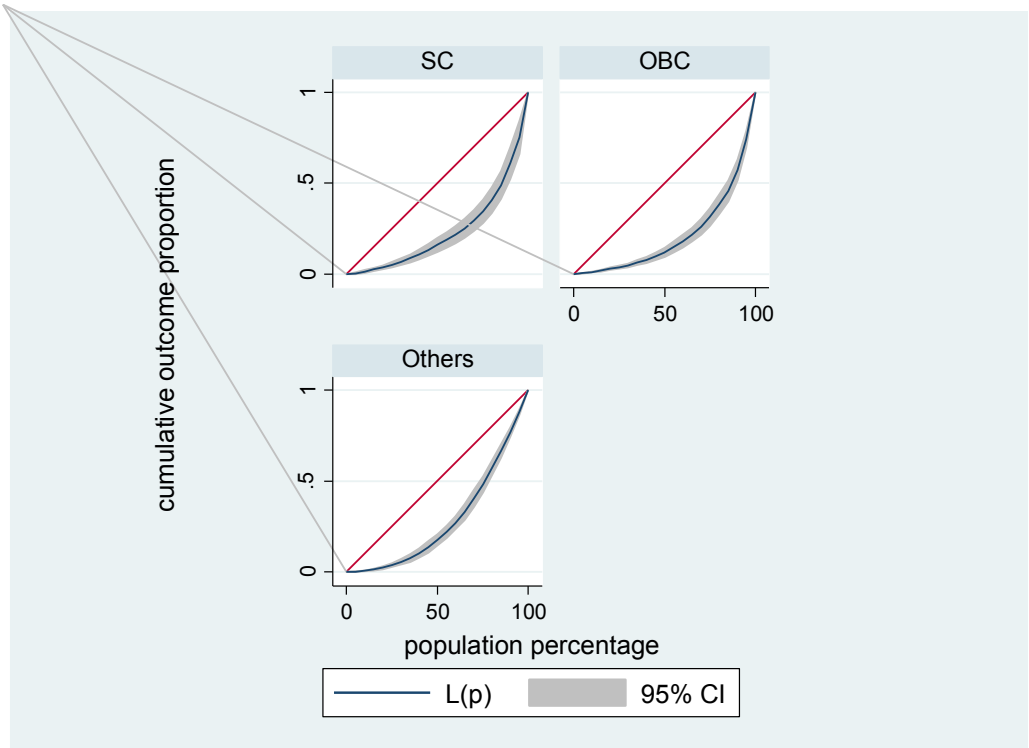
Table 5.11(b) shows Gini coefficient with and without remittances across various social groups. From table 5.11(b) it can be observed that migration has reduced income inequality in all social groups. Income inequality is highest for OBC group and is lowest for Upper caste. Figure 5.5 also shows that Lorenz curve is flatter for OBC group, indicating higher income inequality and thereby, leading to more rural male out-migration. In all social groups migration via remittances have reduced income inequality. Share of the migration, in no migration counter scenario is difficult to measure as its difficult to measure various forms of income such as agricultural income etc. Moreover, the migration duration of migrants in sample household is 15-20 years, thus measuring money migrants could have earned at the time of leaving home is entirely different from what they could have earned today. Another major issue of not having no-migration scenario income is prevalence of disguised employment and also many of migrants while leaving home to work abroad where student.

Figure 5.5 Lorenz curve (with remittances) of sample households across various Social Groups



Source: Field Survey 2016 (Own Work)

Figure 5.6 Lorenz curve (without remittances) of various Social Groups



Source: Field Survey 2016 (Own Work)

Figure 5.5 and 5.6 shows that income inequality is highest in OBC households in both categories with and without remittances followed by SC. Upward category shows lowest income inequality. Thus Gini and Lorenz curve also supported that migration is risk and income diversification strategy by OBC households in sample villages of Jaunpur district.

5.4.2 Logistic Regression analysis of Migration as Risk and Income Diversification Strategy

To support the findings of primary data analysis and to empirically analyze whether credit constraints play any role in migration decisions logistic regression model has been used. Two models have been employed in analyzing migration as NELM approach. Model one takes into account total monthly income of households with remittances and model two takes into account total monthly income of households without remittances. Below mentioned are two logit models:

Model I $P(Y=1) = \beta_0 + \beta_1$ (Primary source of income)$+ \beta_2$ (Villages) $+ \beta_3$(Wealth score) $+ \beta_4$(Social group) $+ \beta_5$ (Income sufficiency)$+ \beta_6$ (Crop insurance) $+ \beta_7$ (Source of credit) $+ \beta_8$ (Easy access to credit) $+ \beta_9$(Total monthly household income with remittances) $+ \beta_{10}$(Total land possessed) + *ui... Equation –1*

Model II $P(Y=1) = \beta_0 + \beta_1$ (Primary source of income)$+ \beta_2$ (Villages) $+ \beta_3$(Wealth score) $+ \beta_4$(Social group) $+ \beta_5$ (Income sufficiency)$+ \beta_6$ (Crop insurance) $+ \beta_7$ (Source of credit) $+ \beta_8$ (Easy access to credit) $+ \beta_9$ (Total monthly household income without remittances) $+ \beta_{10}$(Total land possessed) + *ui…. Equation –II*

Where Y is dependent variable and is decision to out-migrate or not by rural male in Jaunpur district. It has binary values, whether male out-migration takes place i.e. to out-migrate=1 and no male out-migration i.e. not to out-migrate=0.Set of independent or explanatory variables are Primary source of income, Villages, Wealth score, Social group, Income sufficiency, Crop insurance, Source of credit, Easy access to credit, Total monthly household income with and without remittances, Total land possessed and *ui* random or stochastic error term. Table 5.12 shows logistic regression results. Definition and Summary statistics of used variables have been given in Appendix 4.

Table 5.12 Logistic Regression Model: Migration as risk and income diversification strategy

Logistic Regression Model: Determinants of Rural Male Out-Migration as per NELM approach		
Dependent Variable: Male Out-Migration=1, No Male Out-Migration=0		
Statistical Method: Logit		
Model	**I**	**II**
No. of Observations	370	370
Log Likelihood	-138.1099	-187.9472
Prob (Chi^2)	0.0000	0.0000
Pseudo R^2	0.4130	0.2012
Explanatory Variables	**Coefficients (p value)**	**Coefficients (p value)**
Primary Source of Income		
Others®		
Cultivation	-4.097(0.397)	-0.7294(0.054*)
Village		
Chitko	0.3487(0.624)	-0.0408(0.946)
Jarasi	-2.2107(0.002***)	-0.7855(0.155)
Asbaranpur	0.6449(0.333)	0.8270(0.127)
Rampur Soiri	1.5074(0.018**)	0.8155(0.124)
Manecha	0.1372(0.807)	-0.3924(0.415)
Yonouspur®		
Wealth Score	0.1347(0.323)	0.3816(0.000***)
Social Group		
SC®		
OBC	0.6325(0.097*)	1.4086(0.000***)
Upper caste	0.1571(0.777)	0.0182(0.968)
Income Sufficient		
No®		
Yes	-2.2683(0.004***)	-0.3325(0.541)
Crop Insurance		
No®		
Yes	0.8910(0.311)	-0.1267(0.831)
Source of Credit		
Formal®		
Informal	1.1595(0.041**)	-0.1304(0.766)
Easy Access to Credit		
No®		
Yes	-3.1115(0.000***)	-1.2616(0.002***)
Total Monthly income (With-Without remittances)	0.0002(0.000***)	0.0000(0.009***)
Total Land Possessed	-0.5314(0.075*)	0.1464(0.452)
® Reference category, ***p<0.01, **p<0.05, *p<0.1 level of significance		

Source: Field Survey.2016
Note: Wealth Score calculations have been discussed in detail in next section.

The findings of the logistic regression model are as follows. Covariates such as social group OBC, easy accessibility of credit and total income with and without remittances is significant in both the models. Easy accessibility of credit and total income with and without remittances is highly significant at 0.01 level of significance indicating credit

accessibility and total income plays very important role in determining whether to migrate or not in rural households of Jaunpur districts. Those households, which don't have easy accessibility of credit, have more chances of male out-migration than those having easy accessibility of credit. Moreover social group OBC is significant in both the models indicating that rural male out-migration is risk and income diversification approach for OBC households.

In model I major variables significant at 0.01 level of significance are village Jarasi, income sufficiency, easy accessibility of credit and total income with remittances. Households with insufficient income have more chances of sending male member abroad in comparison to those with sufficient income. The result is similar for those households who are having easy accessibility of credit. Households, which are having easy accessibility of credit, have less, chances of out-migration in comparison to household, which don't have easy accessibility of credit. Covariates, which are significant at 0.05 level of significance in model, I are village Rampur Soiri, and source of credit. In comparison to Yonouspur Rampur Soiri have more chances of male out-migration. Source of credit also plays determining role in deciding whether to migrate or not as households with informal source of credit have more probability of male out-migration than households with formal source of income.

Mohapatra (2014) in his study also found that migration in India is result of lack of credit facilities. Covariates significant at 1 percent level of significance are social group OBC and land possessed. In compared to SC households, OBC households have more probability of male out-migration. Land is also significant and shows negative sign, thus as land possessed increases migration decreases. Bhandari (2004) also found that individuals from households with relatively less access to cultivated land are more likely to migrate in search of work compared to those from a relatively well-off household with more land holdings.

In model II major highly significant covariates are wealth score, social group OBC, accessibility of credit and total monthly income of the households. Wealth score is highly significant, which shows as household wealth score i.e. household assets, increases male out-migration increases but the wealth score taken into account is post migration scenario in this study. Literature also shows that wealth status is an important factor in deciding whether to migrate or not (Mazzucato et al.2008;Geest,2011). McKenzie and Rapoport (2007) also in their study found that indicates that individuals without assets do have a lower probability of moving but can alleviate asset constraints

through networking. Mendola (2008) also found the same result in their study that poorest households are considerably less likely to have male member out-migrated. Total monthly income excluding remittances is also highly significant in determining migration decisions. Households, which do not have easy accessibility of credit in sample villages of Jaunpur district, have higher probability of male out-migration in comparison to those with easy accessibility of credit. Primary source of income is also significant at ten percent level of significance. Households having primary source of occupation as cultivation has less probability of male out-migration in comparison to other sources of primary income.

5.5.3 Is Migration beneficial to Migrant Households: Wealth Score Analysis

Wealth score have been calculated using principal component analysis for sample households in Jaunpur district. Although one of the easiest ways to measure and compare living standards is through monetary income, however as discussed in chapter two, income is very deceptive and is hard to measure income. While field survey it was found that many people were not ready to truthfully report their incomes in survey setting, as they feel embarrassed to report how much income they earn or don't earn. Respondents also found it difficult to remember all sources of income and found it difficult to quantify income few times such as income in kind and of economic activity such a agricultural labour. Moreover income often is volatile and some forms of wealth are not properly represented by monetary income. For above-mentioned reasons, wealth index have been used to measure living standards of households. Wealth asset based measures depicts long run economic status of households and therefore doesn't necessary account for short term fluctuations in economic well-being of households (Filmer and Pritchett ,2001). Study shows that households characteristics in many instances may be considered to be a better or more valid reflection of living standards than monetary income, as they capture long-term wealth and consider both monetary and non-monetary income (Rutstein & Johnson 2004). Following Filmer and Pritchett, many research studies, especially in the fields of economics and public policy, have used and recommend the use of principal component analysis for estimating wealth effects (Minujin and Bang 2002; McKenzie 2005; Vyass and Kumaranayake 2006; Labonne et al., 2007).

The estimation of relative wealth using PCA is based on the first principal component. The wealth index is based on set of household characteristics and asset ownership and was explicitly designed to overcome acknowledged challenges in measuring income (Filmer & Pritchett, 2001).

The wealth index in the present study is estimated for 370 sample households and is based on the twenty items, as no single asset can define whether household is poor, or not. Thus, wealth score is based on variety of assets and that are relevant for study and household (Appendix 5-6). Twenty assets are as follows: Radio, TV, Mobile, Refrigerator, Bicycle, Private four wheeler, Motorcycle, AC/Cooler, Tractor, Gas stove, Big Agricultural Machinery, Electricity, Drinking water, Connection to public sewage, Toilet, LPG, Cow, Buffalo, Goats, Household type (Pakka).

All variables were first dichotomized (1=Yes, 0=No) to indicate the ownership of each household asset. Weights (effectively defined by factor scores) for each asset were computed. Then, a "relative wealth" variable was created in the dataset. Thus, the wealth index takes into account the distribution of assets in rural areas in order to reflect each household's economic conditions in all sample households of Jaunpur district and across various social groups. It is generally assumed that the first principal component is measure of economic status (Houweling et al.2003). Generally a variable with a positive factor score is associated with higher socio economic status and variable with negative factor score is associated with lower socio economic status.

Table 5.13 summarizes the results of the PCA (Eigen Vectors) for 370 sample households in Jaunpur district.

Table 5.13 Results from Principal Component Analysis (Eigen vectors)

Variable	Observation	Component 1	Mean	Std Dev.	Min	Max
Radio	370	0.3117	0.3837838	0.4869648	0	1
TV	370	0.2844	0.5621622	0.4967926	0	1
Mobile	370	0.1453	0.8918919	0.3109374	0	1
Refrigerator	370	0.1906	0.5081081	0.5006112	0	1
Bicycle	370	0.2405	0.5702703	0.4957078	0	1
Car/Jeep	370	0.2967	0.2702703	0.4447007	0	1
Motorcycle	370	0.3184	0.3459459	0.4769198	0	1
AC/Cooler	370	0.3044	0.1918919	0.3943217	0	1
Tractor	370	0.2745	0.1486486	0.3562235	0	1
Gas stove	370	0.3018	0.4297297	0.4957078	0	1
Agricultural Machinery	370	0.2287	0.1540541	0.3614894	0	1
Electricity	370	0.0966	0.6756757	0.4687557	0	1
Drinking Water	370	0.0800	0.9459459	0.2264305	0	1
Public Sewage	370	0.0410	0.0081081	0.0898007	0	1
Toilet	370	0.2490	0.2864865	0.4527316	0	1
LPG	370	0.2801	0.3837838	0.4869648	0	1
Livestock Cow	370	-0.0017	0.3567568	0.4869648	0	1
Livestock Buffalo	370	-0.0050	0.4108108	0.4926472	0	1
Livestock Goats	370	-0.0776	0.3756757	0.4849527	0	1
Pucca House	370	0.2051	0.6837838	0.4656281	0	1

Source: Field Survey 2016

One easiest way of looking at relative poverty in-migrant and non-migrant households is to divide population into equal quintiles. A quintile is fifth (20 percent) of the population. One of the major purposes for creating quintiles and dividing population into wealth quintiles is to look at how equitably other indicators are distributed by wealth status. For example, in 370 households each quintile would have nearly 73-75 households. Lowest quintile will be considered as poorest quintile and highest quintile will be considered as wealthiest quintile.

Table 5.14 (a) Wealth index quintile for sample households in Jaunpur district (Migrants + Non Migrants)

Variables	(N)	Mean	SD	Min	Max
Wealth Score	370	0.0000000123	2.630211	-3.583601	5.208136
Poorest	75	-2.867078	0.4037249	-3.583601	-2.335496
Poor	73	-1.981186	0.2039721	-2.318335	-1.712366
Medium	75	-0.6910543	0.5832933	-1.688463	0.3026886
Wealthy	73	1.2554	0.647864	0.3170333	2.423204
Wealthiest	74	4.322193	0.793473	2.452325	5.208136

Source: Field Survey 2016.
Figures in parenthesis represent percent to total.

Maximum wealth score of 370 sample households in all sample villages in Jaunpur district is 5.208136 and minimum is -3.583601. To answer this question, whether migrants are better off than non-migrant households, wealth score have been analyzed for both households. Although, it could have been more accurate and useful to compare the mean incomes of wealth scores of migrant households with that of non-migrant households in Jaunpur districts and across various social groups prior to male out-migration, but as it was difficult to get information on wealth score and income levels prior to migration post migration data have been analyzed.

Table 5.14(b) shows the wealth score for migrant and non-migrants households across various social groups. Average wealth score for all social groups in migrant households is better than non-migrants households. Thus, migrant households in all social group are better off than non-migrants. OBC have benefited most from migration, as wealth score of migrant household is very high than non-migrant households. Studies also show that migration contributes positively in improvement of well being of migrant households via remittances (Awumbila et al.2015; Guzman et al., 2008). Study by Castaldo (2001) also shows that internal remittances play important role in improving welfare of the households and in reducing poverty in Ghana and in India.

Table 5.14(b) Wealth Index for sample Households in Jaunpur district across various Social Groups

Average Wealth Score				
Household	**SC**	**OBC**	**Upper caste**	**Total**
Migrant Household	-1.465421	-.8573565	2.886586	.5148518
Non-Migrant Household	-1.510378	-1.896556	0.517216	-1.033889
Total (Migrant +Non-Migrants)	-1.490103	-1.103685	2.263068	-0.0000000123

Source: Field Survey 2016.
Figures in parenthesis represent percent to total.

In SC household, migration does not make much difference, as there is small difference in wealth score of migrant and non-migrant households in SC households. Overall wealth score of migrants and non-migrants households also depicts that migrant's households are better off than non-migrants in terms of wealth index.

Table 5.15(a) shows that migrant households are in better position in terms of assets than non-migrants. Mean wealth score of migrant households is positive and higher than mean wealth score of non-migrant households. Average non-migrants wealth score is negative. In poorest quintile average wealth score of migrant and non-migrant household is almost similar. It can be said that migration by poorest household is lowest, as this group cannot afford cost of migration. Even if there is migration from the poorest section of sample household, it is distressed migration. In poor quintile i.e. quintile II average wealth score of migrant household is lower than non-migrant households indicating households with low wealth score migrates more.

In higher quintiles i.e., households with high wealth score and socio-economic status, wealth score of migrant households are higher than average wealth score of non-migrant households. From above table it can be said that except poor section of sample population migrant households are better off than non-migrants in wealth index. Above wealth score have been calculated post migration scenario as it was quite difficult to assess and measure households assets pre and post migration. Thus, post migration migrant households are better off than non-migrants and migration is beneficial to migrant households in sample population. For minimum and maximum wealth score across various social groups of migrant and non-migrant households see Appendix 7.

Table 5.15(a) Wealth score of Migrants and Non Migrants sample households of Jaunpur District according to their migration status

Variables	(N)	Mean	SD	Wealth Score Minimum	Wealth Score Maximum
Migrant Wealth Score	247	0.5148518	2.750952	-3.583601	5.208136
Non Migrant Wealth Score	123	-1.033889	2.012523	-3.57357	5.006103
Migrant (Poorest)	40	-2.870039	0.4120228	-3.583601	-2.335496
Non Migrant (Poorest)	35	-2.863694	0.4000015	-3.57357	-2.387291
Migrant (Poor)	47	-2.009309	0.2230397	-2.318335	-1.736617
Non Migrant (Poor)	26	-1.930349	0.1552825	-2.175227	-1.712366
Migrant (Medium)	34	-0.5728142	0.6558894	-1.688463	0.3026886
Non Migrant (Medium)	41	-0.7891071	0.5027739	-1.510402	0.2649859
Migrant (Wealthy)	62	1.243107	0.6125964	0.3170333	2.404452
Non Migrant (Wealthy)	11	1.324692	0.8524382	0.3799842	2.423204
Migrant (Wealthiest)	64	4.356415	0.800003	2.452325	5.208136
Non Migrant (Wealthiest)	10	4.103176	0.7517246	2.625168	5.006103

Source: Field Survey 2016.
Figures in parenthesis represent percent to total.

Table 5.15(b) gives wealth score quintiles of migrant and non-migrant households across various social groups. Social group-wise wealth quintile analysis of migrant and non-migrant households provides an insight of living standard and asset condition of migrants and non-migrant across various social groups

Table 5.15(b) Wealth Score Quintiles of Migrants and Non Migrants Households of Jaunpur district according to their Migration Status across various Social Groups

Quintiles	SC		OBC		Upper caste		Total		Total
	M	**NM**	**M**	**NM**	**M**	**NM**	**M**	**NM**	**M+N**
Poorest	18 (39.1)	21 (37.5)	2 1(20.4)	13 (40.6)	1 (1.0)	1 (2.9)	40 (16.2)	35 (28.6)	75 (20.3)
Poor	6 (13.0)	14 (25.0)	37 (35.9)	5 (15.6)	4 (4.1)	7 (20.0)	47 (19.0)	26 (21.1)	73 (19.7)
Medium	14 (30.4)	13 (23.2)	18 (17.5)	13 (40.6)	2 (2.0)	15 (42.9)	34 (13.8)	41 (33.3)	75 (20.3)
Wealthy	8 (17.4)	7 (12.5)	17 (16.5)	1 (3.1)	37 (37.8)	3 (8.6)	62 (25.1)	11 (8.9)	73 (19.7)
Wealthiest	0 (0.0)	1 (1.8)	10 (9.7)	0 (0.0)	54 (55.1)	9 (25.7)	64 (25.9)	10 (8.1)	74 (20.0)
Total	**46 (100)**	**56 (100)**	**103 (100)**	**32 (100)**	**98 (100)**	**35 (100)**	**247 (100)**	**123 (100)**	**370 (100)**

Source: Field Survey 2016.
Figures in parenthesis represent percent to total.

It will also give an in depth idea on for which social group male out-migration is beneficial and for which for which social group migration is not beneficial.

Wealth score for each quintile have been calculated for migrant and non-migrant households for each group. In SC households in poorest quintiles number of migrant household is almost similar to non-migrants indicating poorest rarely move. In upper quintiles, migrant households are better off. There are no households in wealthiest category in migrant households. Majority of SC households, in both migrants and non-migrants households are in poorest, poor and medium quintiles, indicating SC population is having major share in lower quintiles. In OBC households, percentage of poorest is very high in non-migrants group in comparison to migrant households. This shows that in migrant households poorest quintile is very low. In upper quintiles there are more migrant households in comparison to non-migrant households. In OBC households there are households in wealthy and wealthiest quintile are migrant households. In Upper caste migrants are households are from upper quintiles. Although, migrant households in Upper caste has high share in high quintiles in comparison to non-migrants but in comparison to all groups the share of Upper caste in higher quintiles is highest. Majority of the households in upper caste belongs to wealthy and wealthiest quintile.

5.6 Conclusion

Descriptive analysis, Gini coefficient along with Lorenz curves and logit model shows that migration is a risk and income diversification approach propounds by Stark, 1985. Exhaustive literature on NELM approach also mentions that migration is risk and income diversification strategy. Migration is an outcome of income inequality, lack of diversification sources and lack of easy accessibility of credit. It was also found that migration is ex-ante strategy adopted by rural households to avoid future risks and uncertainties and is household decision. Social network also plays very important role in male out-migration from Jaunpur district. The study shows that migrant households do better than non-migrants in various socio-economic indicators. However, these data reflect post migration economic outcomes and alone cannot be used to infer pre-migration differentiated propensities to migrate. Thus, whereas previous studies have pointed out that poorest households are often least able to migrate because of their inability to bear the initial costs of migration (Connell et all.,1976), which in turn increases the intra-village inequality among the households (Lipton,1980), Present study in Jaunpur whereas, shows that migration reduced income inequality via remittances. Migrant households have more creditworthiness because of having one member in city.

Migrant household are better in terms of wealth index in all-social groups. Migration is beneficial for all households but is most beneficial to OBC and least beneficial to SC households. For Upper caste migration is accumulation strategy as majority are better off than other groups and migration just made them comparatively more better off in comparison to non-migrants. For OBC households, migration is risk and income diversification strategy and for SC households, migration is distress induced.

Chapter 6

NELM Approach: Migrants Perspectives and Experiences at Destination

6.1 Introduction

Migration in search of livelihood is a reality in many rural households in developing countries. In India, numbers of internal migrants who are drawing their earnings from seasonal and short-term migration are nearly 100 million (Geography, WDR, 2009). Migration has huge impact on sending and receiving areas as it alters socio-economic conditions at both sending and receiving ends. Although, migration via remittances increases liquidity and is beneficial for households but studies show that migrants at their respective destinations, specially low and semi-skilled, often confront problem of caste, linguistic discrimination, disrespect at work place, low wages, often live in very dusty and unhygienic conditions and are often denied of even basic civic amenities (Kainth 2009; Pais 2006;Mukherjee et.al 2011; Newland 2007;Benach et.al.2011; Bansode, 2011).

Previous chapters dealt in detail with migration processes and its characteristics in origin area i.e. Jaunpur district. To understand the dynamics and process of migration as whole, it is necessary to have understanding of migrant's perspectives and experiences at destination as well. Although, major focus of the current study is to look at determinants of migration at origin with emphasis on NELM approach but an attempt also has been made to descriptively analyze migration as risk and income diversification strategy from migrants' perspectives and experiences. This research makes and attempt to understand and analyze migration patterns by analyzing both origin and destination migration processes. Study at destination will give an insight and will substantiate and support the findings of previous chapters. Moreover, migrant's destinations and experience reveals more about their socio-economic conditions. As mentioned in Geography, WDR (2009, pp-1) the best predictor of income in the world today is not what or whom you know, but where you work. Same questionnaire with few extra set of questions have been surveyed on migrants in Mumbai for taxi/auto drivers, in Varanasi for construction drivers and telephonic interviews have been arranged for majority of high skilled workers. The migrants have been chosen from the same households that have been surveyed at origin in various villages. Thus, the objective of this chapter is to analyze whether migration is risk and income diversification strategy with special

reference to migrant's point of view at destination. Given the time constraints and financial limits of this research very brief profiling have been done at destination with very small number of migrants. Literature shows that occupation and caste are correlated in rural villages of UP (Datta, 2006; Srivastava, 1999; Goli et al., 2014). To have better understanding of NELM from migrants perspectives, the descriptive analysis of socio-economic condition of migrant workers with respect to their social group affinity and occupation have been done.

Few studies have been done on migrants experiences at destination but there is dearth of literature for the same in UP (Kainth, 2009;Pais, 2006;Mukherjee et.al, 2011;Ali, 2013). The primary objective of this chapter is to analyse and substantaite the findings from origin i.e. whether migration is risk diversification or accumulation startegy for rural households in Jaunpur district or not. One of the major finding of the study at origin is that migration is risk diversification stargey for OBC migrants and accumulation stargey for Upper caste. As far as SC migrant housheolds are concerend migration is survival strategy or in other words is distress induced migration.

This chapter is broadly divided in six parts. Section one is Introduction; section two is very brief profiling of socio-economic and demographic background of migrant households at origin from migrant's perspective. Section three gives a brief overview of individual characteristics of male migrants. Section four will assess and analyze whether migration is risk and income diversification strategy by rural households. Section five is very short notes on living conditions of migrants at their respective destination. Section six will be concluding remark.

Three major occupations as found in analysis of origin data, with highest number of migrats have been selecetd for further study and later those selected sample migrants have been categoriesd as per their social group affliation. Table 6.1(a) shows total number of migrants surveyd occupation wise and table 6.1(b) shows total number of migrants survyed at various destination as per their social group. Study shows that change in direction of migration have taken place over time. Initially migrants migrate to big cities but there has been recent shift to Varanasi as several big projects are undertaken in the city recently.

Table 6.1(a) Number of surveyed Migrants: Destination and Occupation

Occupation	Destination Name	Total Number
Construction Worker-Casual Wage Paid Labor	Varanasi	25
Taxi Drivers-Semi-skilled Workers	Mumbai	25
Skilled Migrants -High skilled white collar jobs	Other Places such as Bangalore, Gujarat, Varanasi and Delhi etc	25
Total		**75**

Source: Field Survey 2016.

Table 6.1(a) shows the number of male out-migrants at destination as per their occupation. Three categories of occupation have been analyzed i.e. construction workers have been considered in casual wage paid labors, taxi and auto drivers have been considered as skilled workers and software engineers, government employees are considered as high skilled workers in the current study.

Table 6.1(b) Number of Migrants: Destination and Social Group

Social Group	Major Destinations	Total Number
SC	Varanasi	19
OBC	Mumbai	27
Upper caste	Delhi, Mumbai, Banaglore, Gujarat, Austarlia, Saudi Arabia	29
Total		75

Source: Field Survey 2016.

Total number of SC in total migrants surveyed is 19, OBC is 27 and Other Upper caste is 29. Major destinations for SC migrants are Varanasi, for OBC migrant it is Mumbai and for Upper caste it is in various parts of India and abroad.

6.2 Socio-Economic and Demographic Background of Migrants Households: Migrant's perspective

This section of the study will analyze various demographic, social and economic characteristics of migrant's households at origin and migrants at destination. As mentioned above few migrants from the same households, which are surveyed in origin, have ben tracked in destination and survey has been done on them as per their occupation.

6.2.1 Demographic and Social Profile of Male Migrants households at Origin surveyed across various Social group and Occupation

Majority of the migrants in all groups belong to male-headed households. Over all 88 percent of migrants reported they belong to male-headed households and 12 percent of migrants reported they belong to female-headed household.

Table 6.2 Demographic and Social Profile of Male Migrants households at Origin surveyed across various Social group and Occupation

Name of Variables	Social Group			Occupation at Destination			
	SC	OBC	Upper caste	Construction Workers	High-Skilled Migrants	Taxi Drivers	Total
Head of the HH							
Male	19(100.0)	26(96.3)	21(72.4)	25(100.0)	18(72.0)	23(92.0)	66(88.0)
Female	0(0.0)	1(3.7)	8(27.6)	0(0.0)	7(28.0)	2(8.0)	9(12.0)
Average no. of HH size	5.89	8.85	7.93	7.24	7.60	8.62	7.75
Religion							
Hindu	19(100.0)	24(88.9)	27(93.1)	23(92.0)	24(96.0)	23(92.0)	70(93.3)
Muslim	0(0.0)	3(11.1)	2(6.9)	2(8.0)	1(4.0)	2(8.0)	5(6.7)
Village							
Chitkon	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	4(13.8)	0(0.0)	4(16.0)	0(0.00)	4(5.3)
Jarasi	1(5.3)	6(22.2)	8(27.6)	0(0.00)	11(44.0)	4(16.0)	15(20.0)
Rampur Soiri	14(73.7)	3(11.1)	2(6.9)	15(60.0)	0(0.0)	4(16.0)	19(25.3)
Asbaranpur	0(0.0)	11(40.7)	13(44.8)	0(0.00)	7(28.0)	17(68.0)	24(32.0)
Manecha	4(21.1)	7(25.9)	2(6.9)	10(40.0)	3(12.0)	0(0.0)	13(17.3)
Yonouspur	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)
Educational Status of Head of Household							
Illiterate	13(68.4)	7(25.9)	0(0.0)	16(64.0)	3(12.0)	1(4.0)	20(26.7)
Primary	0(0.0)	5(18.5)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	5(20.0)	5(6.7)
Matriculation	5(26.3)	5(18.5)	2(6.9)	9(36.0)	2(8.0)	1(4.0)	12(16.0)
Intermediate	1(5.3)	8(29.6)	7(24.1)	0(0.0)	6(24.0)	10(40.0)	16(21.3)
Graduate	0(0.0)	2(7.4)	18(62.1)	0(0.0)	12(48.0)	8(32.0)	20(26.7)
PG and above	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	2(6.9)	0(0.0)	2(8.0)	0(0.0)	2(2.7)
Total	**19(25.3)**	**27(36.0)**	**29(38.7)**	**25 (100)**	**25(33.3)**	**25(28.0)**	**75(100.0)**

Source: Field Survey 2016.
*Figures in parenthesis represent percent to total.

Average number of household's size of SC migrant's household is 6, of OBC migrant's household is 9 and of Upper caste is 8. Religion of majority of migrants is Hindu.The percentage share of Muslim population is comparatively high in OBC

migrants. Lowest percentage share of Muslim migrants is in highly skilled migrants i.e. only 4 percent of total highly skilled migrants reported that they belong to Muslim religion.

Village wise analysis of migrants shows that 73.7 percent of SC migrants reported that they belong to Rampur Soiri, followed by Manecha and Jarasi i.e. 21.1 percent and 5.3 percent. SC households of Chitkon are in very bad and poor condition as found from field survey in origin. Therefore, reason for less migration of SC male is their inability to bear the cost of migration as discussed in chapter five. As far as OBC migrants are concerned, they are spread all over the villages and highest number of migrant is from Asbaranpur i.e. 40.7 percent followed by Manecha i.e. 25.9 percent and Jarasi i.e. 22.2 percent respectively. In case of Other Upper caste migrants most of the migrants are from Asbaranpur and Jarasi i.e. 44.8 percent and 22.2 percent respectively. In surveyed migrants, none reported they belong to Yonouspur village. Occupation wise analysis of village shows that most of the casual workers are form Rampur Soiri and Manecha i.e. 60 percent and 10 percent respectively. In case of High skilled workers most of the migrants reported that they belong to Jarasi i.e. 44 percent followed by Asbaranpur i.e. 28 percent and Chitkon i.e. 16 percent. In taxi drivers category most of the migrants are from village Asbaranpur followed by Rampur Soiri. In chapter four it was found that Chitkon, Jarasi and Asbaranpur are comparatively better in terms of income level, land endowment and educational attainment. Therefore, it is obvious to have highest number of skilled migrants from these villages.

Educational status of head of household of migrants play very important role in determining migration decisions. Highest number of illiterate head of household are reported by SC migrant i.e. 68.4 percent followed by OBC i.e. 25.9 percent. None of the head of household head is illiterate in Upward category. Sharp differences can be seen from table 6.2 on educational attainment of head of household in all three social groups. Occupation wise it can be seen that educational attainment of head of the households of high skilled migrants is far better than casual workers and taxi and auto drivers.

The findings of the survey on migrants at destination are nearly similar to findings of analysis of households across their social groups in origin

6.2.2 Land Possessed and Irrigation Details

Table 6.3 shows the land possessed and sources of irrigation of migrants at their households in origin across various social groups and occupations. Land possessed shows the economic asset of households. It has been discussed in chapter four that

availability of less land can be one the major hindrance in growth and development especially in rural areas where major source of income for rural households is agriculture.

From Table 6.3 it can be seen that land distribution is very unevenly distributed across various social groups and occupation. Land accessibility and holdings reveal a lot about socio-economic status of households in rural villages of UP. Those who are having more land are considered to be more powerful as land often is associated with power in rural India. From average land holdings across social groups, it can be observed from table 6.3 that land distribution is very uneven across various social groups. SC possesses only .3 hectares, .7 hectares by OBC and 3.8 hectares by Upper caste category. Occupation wise land details shows that migrants in skilled jobs are having more land at origin in comparison to other occupations. Land owned by households of SC migrants is very less in comparison to Upward households and OBC households.

Table.6.3 Land Possessed and Irrigation details of Migrants Households at origin across various Social groups and Occupation

Name of Variables	Social group and Occupation						
	SC	**OBC**	**Upper caste**	**Construction Workers**	**Skilled Migrants**	**Taxi drivers**	**Total**
Average Land size	0.3	0.7	3.8	0.4	4.1	0.9	1.8
Average Land owned**	.05	0.5	3.8	0.1	4.0	0.9	1.7
Average Leased in	0.3	0.1	0.0	0.3	0.1	0.01	0.1
Average Leased out	0.0	0.1	3.5	0.0	3.7	0.4	1.4
Irrigated							
Yes	13 (86.7)	22 (95.7)	29 (100.0)	14 (82.4)	25 (100.0)	25 (100.0)	64 (95.5)
No	2(13.3)	1(4.3)	0(0.0)	3(17.6)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	3(4.5)
Modes of Irrigation							
Dug well	0(0)	0(0.0)	1(3.4)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	1(4.0)	1(1.6)
Pumping machine self owned	0(0.0)	4(18.2)	20(69.0)	0(0.0)	16(64.0)	8(32.0)	24(36.4)
Pumping machine	13(100)	18(81.8)	8(27.6)	14(100)	9(36.0)	16(64.0)	39(60.9)
Total	19(25.3)	27(36.0)	29(38.7)	25	25	25	75(100.0)

Source: Field Survey 2016.

*Figures in parenthesis represent percent to total, ** Land in hectares

Upper caste category is much better off in land holding terms than other two groups. Occupation wise as well migrants in skilled migrants category are much better than other two groups. Average land leased in, is highest SC migrant households and lowest in Upper caste. Average land leased out, is highest in Upper caste followed by OBC migrants' households. In leased out category none of the surveyed SC migrants reported that they lease out their land. In category whether land is irrigated or not Upper caste migrants reported 100 percent, OBC migrants reported 95.7 percent and SC households reported 86.7 percent. Findings from origin also reveal the same result that Upper caste are better off in many socio-economic indicators in comparison to other two social groups.

6.2.3 Occupational and Income details of Migrant's Households at Origin across various Social Groups and Occupation

Table 6.4. Shows the occupational and income details of migrant's households at origin across various occupation and social group. In SC migrants' category remittances is the primary source of income and secondary source of income is others category i.e. 47.4 percent and wage paid labors i.e. 31.6 percent. In OBC migrant categories primary source of income is remittances followed by cultivation. i.e. 59.3 percent of migrants reported the main source of income at households is remittances and 29.6 percent of migrants mentioned primary source of income of their households is cultivation. OBC migrants as well, reported remittances as their secondary source of income. In case of Upper caste primary source of income is Cultivation and secondary source of income is remittances i.e. 69 percent of the Upper caste migrants reported that primary source of income in their household is cultivation and secondary source of income is remittances.

Our analysis in previous chapter and above section shows that Upper caste are better off in land availability, irrigation status which is one of the major reason for primary source of income as cultivation. Average income of SC migrant's household is Rs 10,973.68, which is very lower than Upper caste, and OBC group. Average income of OBC is Rs. 36,666.67 and of Upper caste is Rs.77,758.62. Monthly income, occupation wise, shows that average income of casual workers households is Rs.9.420, of OBC is 41,120 and of Upper caste is Rs. 87,600. There are huge differences in monthly income of households of casual, skilled and taxi drivers. It can be seen that average monthly expenditure of SC migrants' households is Rs.7, 726, OBC migrant's households Rs.27, 218 and that of Upper caste is Rs.43,431.

Table 6.4 Occupational and Income details of Migrant's Households at Origin across various Social Groups and Occupation

Name of Variables	Social group and occupational distribution						
	SC	OBC	Upper caste	Construction Workers	Skilled Migrants	Taxi drivers	Total
Primary source of Income							
Cultivation	0(0.0)	8(29.6)	20(69.0)	0(0.0)	12(48.0)	16(76.2)	28(37.3)
Wage/Salaried	0(0.0)	3(11.1)	3(10.3)	0(0.0)	6(24.0)	0(0.0)	6(8.0)
Remittances	19(100.0)	16(59.3)	5(17.2)	29(100.0)	6(24.0)	5(23.8)	40(53.3)
Others	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	1(3.4)	0(0.0)	1(4.0)	0(0.0)	1(1.3)
Secondary Source of Income							
Cultivation	2(10.5)	4(14.8)	5(17.2)	7(24.1)	3(12.0)	1(4.8)	11(14.7)
Non Agriculture Enterprises	2(10.5)	4(14.8)	0(0.0)	6(20.7)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	6(8.0)
Wage /Salaried	6(31.6)	5(18.5)	7(24.1)	6(20.7)	11(44.0)	1(4.8)	18(24.0)
Remittances	0(0.0)	10(37.0)	11(37.9)	0(0.0)	9(36.0)	12(57.1)	21(28.0)
Others	9(47.4)	4(14.8)	6(20.7)	10(34.5)	2(8.0)	7(33.3)	19(25.3)
Average Monthly Income **	10,973.68	36,666.67	77,758.62	9,420.00	87,600.00	41,120.00	46,046.67
Average monthly Expenditure	77,26.32	27,218.52	43,431.03	8,488.00	42,240.0	34,920.00	28,549.33
Total	19(25.3)	27(36.0)	29(38.7)	25	25	25	75(100.0)

Source: Field Survey 2016.
*Figures in parenthesis represent percent to total.
** Average Monthly income and expenditure presented in the table have included remittances as well and it is in rupees.

Huge income differences along with other social disparity, it can be opined that migration is survival strategy for casual workers among which most of them are SC migrants, is risk and income diversification strategy for taxi drivers in which major share is of OBC migrants and is accumulation strategy for Upper caste households. It was found in empirical analysis in pervious chapter that migration reduces income inequality via remittances.

6.3 Brief Overview of Characteristics of Male Out-Migrants

This section gives a brief overview of individual characteristics of male out-migrants across various social groups and selected destinations. Socio-demographic characteristics and migration particulars have been descriptively analyzed.

6.3.1 Socio-Demographic Characteristics of Male out-migrants

Table 6.5 shows characteristics of male migrants. In all social groups and in all occupation majority of migrants are of age between 21-50. Thus, migration is basically highest in age 21-40 indicating youth migration from rural villages of Jaunpur district. As far as marital status of migrants is concerned, most of the migrants in all social groups and occupation are married. In all social group and occupation migrants reported their relation with head of the households as son followed by self and spouse of the head. 100 percent of SC and casual workers reported that they migrated out without family; in OBC and Upper caste nearly half of the migrants reported that they migrated with family. In high skilled workers category, 64 percent of migrants reported that they migrated without family and in taxi drivers 76 percent of migrants migrated with family. Table 6.5 also shows reasons for migration across various social groups and occupations. 84 percent of SC migrants reported that they migrated out in search of better employment, followed by lack of access to credit and lack of non-farm employment in origin with 78.9 percent and 73.7 percent respectively. In OBC migrants, major reason for out migration is lack of non-farm employment i.e. 81.5 percent followed by in search of better employment and to take up employment with 77.8 and 59.3 percent respectively.

Table 6.5 Socio-Demographic Characteristics of Male out-migrants from sample migrant HH in Jaunpur district

Variables	Social group and Occupation						
	SC	**OBC**	**Upper caste**	**Construction workers**	**Skilled migrants**	**Taxi driver**	**Total**
Age in years							
Lowest to 20	4(21.1)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	4(16.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	4(5.3)
21 to 30	6(31.6)	5(18.5)	8(27.6)	6(24.0)	8(32.0)	5(20.0)	19(25.3)
31 to 40	4(21.1)	11(40.7)	11(37.9)	8(32.0)	7(28.0)	11(44.0)	26(34.7)
41 to 50	5(26.3)	11(40.7)	11(40.7)	7(28.0)	5(20.0)	9(36.0)	21(28.0)
51 and above	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	5(17.2)	0(0.0)	5(20.0)	0(0.0)	5(6.7)
Marital Status							
Married	15(78.9)	26(96.3)	24(82.8)	21(84.0)	20(80.0)	24(96.0)	65(86.7)
Unmarried	4(21.1)	1(3.7)	5(17.2)	4(16.0)	5(20.0)	1(4.0)	10(13.3)
Relation of Male Out-Migrants with Head of the Households							
Self	4(21.1)	6(22.2)	5(17.2)	7(28.0)	4(16.0)	4(16.0)	15(20.0)
Spouse	3(15.8)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	3(12.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	3(4.0)
Son	12(63.2)	21(77.8)	21(72.4)	15(60.0)	18(72.0)	21(84.0)	54(72.0)
Grand Child	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	1(3.4)	0(0.0)	1(4.0)	0(0.0)	1(1.3)
Brother	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	2(6.9)	0(0.0)	2(8.0)	0(0.0)	2(2.7)
Others	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)
Mode of Migration							
With family	0(0.0)	14(51.9)	14(48.3)	0(0.0)	9(36.0)	19(76.0)	28(37.3)
Single	19(100.0)	13(48.1)	15(51.7)	25(100.0)	16(64.0)	6(24.0)	47(62.7)
Avg. years	4.84	11.04	11.31	6.04	8.76	14.04	9.55
Reasons for Migration *							
1	7(36.8)	5(18.5)	0(0.0)	8(32.0)	0(0.0)	4(16.0)	12(16.0)
2	16(84.2)	21(77.8)	13(44.8)	22(88.0)	4(16.0)	24(96.0)	50(66.7)
3	10(52.6)	16(59.3)	24(82.8)	11(44.0)	25(100.0)	14(56.0)	50(66.7)
4	14(73.7)	22(81.5)	10(34.5)	19(76.0)	5(20.0)	22(88.0)	46(61.3)
5	1(5.3)	3(11.1)	16(55.2)	1(4.0)	13(52.0)	6(24.0)	20(26.7)
7	15(78.9)	7(25.9)	1(3.4)	21(84.0)	0(0.0)	2(8.0)	23(30.7)
7	0(0.0)	1(3.7)	1(3.4)	0(0.0)	1(4.0)	1(4.0)	2(2.7)
8	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	7(24.1)	0(0.0)	4(16.0)	3(12.0)	7(9.3)
Were you working before migration in village							
Yes	19(100.0)	16(59.3)	7(24.1)	25(100.0)	7(28.0)	10(40.0)	42(56.0)
No	0(0.00)	11(40.7)	22(75.86)	0(0.00)	18(72.0)	15(60.0)	33(44.0)
Average Monthly Income	10,357	23,000	68,275	8,632	68,275.8	15,680	37,304
Do You get more Wages at Destination in comparison to origin							
Yes	19(100.0)	16(100.0)	7(100.0)	25(100.0)	7(100.0)	10(100.0)	42(100.0)
No	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)
Total	**19(25.3)**	**27(36.0)**	**29(38.7)**	**25**	**25**	**25**	**75(100.0)**

Source: Field Survey 2016.
Figures in parenthesis represent percent to total.

*1-In search of employment, 2- In Search of better employment /low wages/low farm income, 3- To take up Employment, 4- Lack of Low/Non-farm Income,5- Better Civic Amenities,6- Lack of Access to credit Facilities /High rate of interest,7- Studies,8- Others
** since leaving Households

In case of Upper caste, majority of migrants moved out to take up employment i.e. 82.8 percent followed by better civic amenities 55.2 percent. 3.4 percent migrants in Upper caste reported they migrated out because of lack of access to credit. Occupation wise analysis shows that majority of migrants in casual work migrated out in search of better employment i.e. 88 percent followed by lack of access to credit i.e. 84 percent. Only 4.0 percent of migrants in SC category reported that they migrated out because of better civic opportunities. In high skilled migrants majority of migrants reported that they migrated out to take up employment i.e. 100 percent followed by better civic opportunities i.e. 52.0 percent. In case of taxi and auto drivers, most of the migrants reported that they migrated out in search of better employment and lack of non-farm employment i.e. 96 percent and 88 percent respectively followed by to take up employment by 56 percent. In SC migrants and casual workers migrants none of the migrants reported that migrants migrated out for studies. All SC migrants and all casual workers reported that they were working before migrating out whereas, only 59.2 percent in OBC category and 40 percent in taxi drivers reported that they were working before migrating out. In Upper caste and high skilled migrants only 24.1 percent and 28 percent of migrants reported that they were working before migrating out.

6.4. NELM and Migrants Perspectives: Insights from Destination

In chapter five it was seen that migration is risk diversification strategy for rural poor specially OBC households in UP. A household analysis at origin in previous chapters shows that migration is distressed induced for SC households, risk and income diversification for OBC households and is accumulation strategy for households belonging to Upper caste. This section will substantiate the findings of analysis of origin from migrant's perspectives at destinations. To meet the objective an attempt has been made to analyze NELM from migrant's perspectives at various destinations.

6.4.1 Living conditions of Migrant's Households at origin across various Social Groups and Occupation

Table 6.6 shows living conditions of migrants across their social groups and occupations. From table 6.6 it can be seen that there is direct relationship between migrant's social affiliation and occupation. All migrants of all categories reported that

they have their own house in origin. Number of migrants belonging to households having Pucca houses at origin is highest in Upper caste followed by OBC and SC with 96.6 percent, 66.7 percent and 21.1 percent respectively.

Table. 6.6 Living conditions of Migrant's Households at origin across various Social Groups and Occupation

Name of Variables	Social group and occupation details						
	SC	**OBC**	**Upper caste**	**Construction Workers**	**Skilled migrants**	**Taxi drivers**	**Total**
House in Origin							
Yes	19(100.0)	27(100.0)	29(100.0)	25(100.0)	25(100.0)	25(100.0)	75(100.0)
No	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)
Type of Dwelling							
Katcha	15(78.9)	7(25.9)	1(3.4)	20(80.0)	1(4.0)	2(8.0)	23(30.7)
Semi-Pucca	0(0.0)	2(7.4)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	2(8.0)	2(2.7)
Pucca	4(21.1)	18(66.7)	28(96.6)	5(20.0)	24(96.0)	21(84.0)	50(66.7)
Housing Characteristics							
Electricity	10(52.6)	16(59.3)	22(75.9)	14(48.3)	14(56.0)	20(95.2)	48(64.0)
Drinking water	13(68.4)	25(92.6)	27(93.1)	22(75.9)	23(92.0)	20(95.2)	65(86.7)
Connection to public sewage	0(0.0)	3(11.1)	6(20.7)	1(3.4)	5(20.0)	3(14.3)	9(12.0)
Toilets	0(0.0)	10(37.0)	22(75.9)	4(13.8)	19(76.0)	9(42.9)	32(42.7)
Fuel Used							
LPG	0(0.0)	10(37.0)	29(100.0)	0(0.0)	20(80.0)	19(76.0)	39(52.0)
Kerosene	0(0.0)	1(3.7)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	1(4.0)	1(1.3)
Coal/wood	4(21.1)	6(22.2)	0(0.0)	10(40.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	10(13.3)
Dried Cow dung	15(78.9)	10(37.0)	0(0.0)	15(60.0)	5(20.0)	5(20.0)	25(33.3)
Livestock assets							
No livestock	9(47.4)	5(18.5)	16(55.2)	9(36.0)	9(36.0)	12(48.0	30(40.0)
Cow	0(0.0)	11(40.7)	10(34.5)	4(16.0)	9(36.0)	8(32.0)	21(28.0)
Buffalo	5(26.3)	10(37.0)	1(3.4)	6(24.0)	5(20.0)	5(20.0)	16(21.3)
Goats	3(15.8)	0(0.0)	2(6.9)	3(12.0)	2(8.0)	0(0.0)	5(6.7)
Others	2(10.5)	1(3.7)	0(0.0)	3(12.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	3(4.0)
Assets Possessed							
Radio	3(15.9)	12(44.4)	29(100)	2(8.0)	24(96.0)	18(72.0)	44(58.7)
Television	2(10.5)	15(51.9)	28(96.6)	1(4.0)	25(100)	18(72.0)	44(58.7)
Mobile	15(78.9)	26(96.3)	28(96.6)	20(80.0)	25(100)	24(96.0)	69(92.0)
Refrigerator	3(15.8)	4(14.8)	22(75.9)	2(8.0)	22(88.0)	5(20.0)	29(38.7)
Bicycle	4(21.1)	16(59.3)	29(100)	9(36.0)	22(88.0)	18(72.0)	49(65.3)
Private Car	1(5.3)	4(14.8)	19(65.5)	0(0.00)	22(88.0)	2(8.0)	24(32.0)
Motorcycle	1(5.3)	11(40.7)	29(100)	0(0.00)	22(88.0)	19(76.0)	41(54.7)
AC/Cooler	1(5.3)	5(18.5)	21(72.4)	0(0.00)	22(88.0)	5(20.0)	27(36.0)
Tractor	1(19.0)	5(18.5)	21 (72.4)	0(0.00)	22(88.0)	5(20.0)	27(36.0)
Gas Stove	1(5.3)	7(25.9)	27(93.1)	0(0.00)	20(80.0)	15(60.0)	35(46.7)
Agricultural Machinery	0(0.00)	3(11.1)	15(51.7)	0(0.00)	16(64.0)	2(8.0)	18(24.0)
Total	**19**	**27**	**29**	**25**	**25**	**25**	**75**

Source: Field Survey 2016.

*Figures in parenthesis represent percent to total.

Occupation wise percentage share of migrants having Pucca houses at origin is highest in high skilled workers followed by taxi drivers and construction workers with 96.0 percent, 84.0 percent and 20.0 percent respectively. As far as, housing characteristics is concerned, again Upper caste is at better position followed by OBC and SC migrants. In asset possessed category by various migrants at their household in origin it can be seen that households of Upward category comparatively are comparatively better than OBC and OBC are in better position than SC migrants households. Occupational analysis also shows that migrants who are engaged in high skilled jobs are having more assets than those who are engaged in taxi and auto driving are having more assets than migrants who are engaged in casual i.e. construction workers.

6.4.2 Access and Sources of Credit of Migrant's Households at Origin across Social groups and Occupation

Table 6.7 shows sources and accessibility of credit. Credit accessibility and sources will give an insight, whether migration is NELM strategy as propounded by Stark, 1985 or is distress induced. Whether household income is sufficient at origin or not, 94.7 percent of migrants belonging to SC category reported it is not sufficient.63.0 percent of OBC migrants reported that the household income is not sufficient whereas, in Upper caste 100 percent of migrants reported that household income at origin is sufficient. In case of casual workers all 100 percent of migrants reported that household income at origin is not sufficient, 88 percent of skilled migrants reported that household income is sufficient and 72 percent of taxi drivers reported that household income is sufficient.

Reasons for credit required are different for various groups and occupation. For SC migrant households, credit is required majorly for health issues followed by daily expenses and marriage and other ceremonies. Credit required for OBC migrant household is majorly used in health issues, marriage and other social ceremonies. For Upper caste loan required is 0.0 percent for daily expenses, and is highest for other purchases such as purchase of bike, car etc. Considering credit required as per occupation, it can be observed from table 6.7 that casual workers require loan for health issues followed by daily expenses and out-migration. Credit for out-migration is highest in SC migrants households followed by OBC and in casual workers followed by taxi drivers. Credit required for out-migration is lowest i.e. almost 0 percent for Upper caste and High skilled migrant workers. Credit required by high skilled migrants is basically used for other purchases such as purchase of bike, car etc. followed by health issues and

in taxi drivers its used for marriage and other ceremonies and health issues. Almost all groups and migrants of all occupation preferred informal source of credit except Upper caste and High skilled migrants who prefer formal source of credit over informal source of credit. SC migrant's household takes credit from relatives and friends i.e. 63.2 percent and 36.8 percent takes credit from agricultural moneylender.

In OBC migrants households as well majority of households takes credit form friends and relatives followed by commercial banks i.e. 68.0 percent and 24.0 percent. In Upper caste households most of the credit is accessed from commercial bank i.e. 95.2 percent followed by relatives and friends i.e. 4.8 percent. Occupation wise, households in which migrants are in casual jobs i.e. construction workers access the credit from relatives and friends followed by agricultural moneylender with 64 percent and 36 percent respectively. Those in high skilled jobs access the credit from commercial banks i.e. 70.8 percent followed by friends and relatives i.e. 29.2 percent. Taxi drivers access credit from formal source is 56.2 percent and from friends and relatives i.e.43.8 percent.

Collateral as a security of credit provided is very prevalent in villages of India. Except SC and Casual workers group all other migrants mentioned that percentage share of households reporting collateral required is less than households mentioning collateral not required.

Table 6.7 Credit Access and Sources of Credit of Migrant's Households at Origin across Social groups and Occupation

Name of Variables	Social group and occupational details						
	SC	OBC	Upper caste	Construction Workers	High Skilled	Taxi drivers	Total
Is household Income Sufficient							
Yes	1(5.3)	10(37.0)	29(100.0)	0(0.0)	22(88.0)	18(72.0))	40(53.3)
No	18(94.7)	17(63.0)	0(0.0)	25(100)	3(12.0)	7(28.0)	35(46.7)
Household have easy access to Credit							
Yes	8(42.1)	16(59.3)	6(20.7)	12(48.0)	6(24.0)	12(48.0)	30(40.0)
No	11(57.9)	11(40.7)	23(79.3)	13(52.0)	19(76.0)	13(52.0)	45(60.0)
Why does Household need loans?							
Daily expenses	16(84.2)	7(25.9)	0(0.0)	23(79.3)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	23(30.7)
Education	7(36.8)	8(29.8)	0(0.0)	14(48.3)	1(4.0)	0(0.0)	15(20.0)
Marriage and Other Ceremonies	11(57.9)	14(51.9)	3(10.3)	11(37.9)	9(36.0)	8(38.1)	28(37.3)
Health Issues	19(100.0)	23(85.2)	3(10.3)	29(100.0)	8(32.0)	8(38.1)	45(60.0)
Out-Migration	9(47.4)	7(25.9)	0(0.0)	15(51.7)	1(4.0)	0(0.0)	16(21.3)
Others **	0(0.0)	3(11.1)	13(44.8)	0(0.0)	16(64.0)	0(0.0)	16(21.3)
What do you prefer most formal or informal borrowing?							
Formal	0(0.0)	8(29.6)	24(82.8)	1(4.0)	17(68.0)	14(56.0)	32(42.7)
Informal	19(100.0)	19(70.4)	5(17.2)	24(96.0)	8(32.0)	11(44.0)	43(57.3)
You usually get credit from?							
Formal	0(0.0)	6(22.2)	20(69.0)	0(0.0)	17(68.0)	9(36.0)	26(34.7)
Informal	19(100.0)	21(77.8)	9(31.0)	25(100)	8(32.0)	16(64.0)	49(65.3)
Formal Source of Credit							
Cooperative Societies	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)
Commercial Banks	0(0.0)	6(24.0)	20 (95.2)	0(0.0)	17(70.8)	9(56.2)	26(40.0)
Others	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)
Informal Source of Credit							
Landlord	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)
Agricultural Moneylender	7(36.8)	2(8.0)	0(0.0)	9(36.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	9(13.8)
Professional Moneylenders	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)
Traders	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)
Relatives and Friends	12(63.2)	17(68.0)	1(4.8)	16(64.0)	7(29.2)	7(43.8)	30(46.2)
Did informal credit require any Collateral?							
Yes	16(84.2)	11(40.7)	1(3.4)	23(92.0)	3(12.0)	2(8.0)	28(37.3)
No	3(15.8)	16(59.3)	28(96.6)	2(8.0)	22(88.0)	23(92.0)	47(62.7)
If, which form							
Land	3(18.8)	1(9.1)	0(0.0)	3(13.0)	0(0.0)	1(50.0)	4(14.3)
Future harvest	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)
Livestock	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)
Jewellery	9(56.2)	4(36.4)	1(100.0)	10(43.5)	3(100.0)	1(50.0)	14(50.0)
Guarantee from group lenders	4(25.0)	6(54.5)	0(0.0)	10(43.5)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	10(35.7)
Others	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)
Do you have crop insurance?							
Yes	0(0.0)	2(7.4)	8(27.6)	0(0.0)	2(8.0)	8(32.0)	10(13.3)
No	19(100.0)	25(92.6)	21(72.4)	25(100.0)	23(92.0)	17(68.0)	65(86.7)
Total	**19**	**27**	**29**	**25**	**25**	**25**	**75**

Source: Field Survey 2016.

Figures in parenthesis represent percent to total,** Purchase of bike Cars etc.

6.4.3 Migration as NELM strategy

Table 6.8 shows whether migration is risk diversification strategy or accumulation strategy or is distress induced. All SC migrants and all casual workers reported that they want to move back to village. In OBC and taxi drivers 96 percent of migrants reported that they want to move back to village. In Upper caste and High skilled workers only 55.2 and 48 percent of migrants reported they want to move back to village.

This shows that OBC, SC and casual and semi-skilled migrants maintain close ties with their native place in origin. NELM approach proposes that migration is an ex-ante strategy i.e. migration is adopted by households to diversify income and avoid risks associated with various capital market imperfections and agricultural shocks. Majority of migrants reported that migration is ex-ante strategy. High skilled Upper caste have major share is asset possession at destination and is lowest in SC and casual worker migrants.

Investing in destination or village can reflect migrants intentions and feeling towards going back to village or staying in destination itself in long run. It can be assumed that migrants who want to buys assets or would like to invest in village have desire and intention of going back to village but those who are in favor of investing in destination itself may reflect that they want to stay in destination itself in long run as well. Most of the SC migrants and casual workers reported that they wish to invest in village, whereas majority of Upper caste and high skilled migrants reported that they want to invest in destination.

Table 6.8 Migration as NELM Strategy by Rural Households in UP.

NELM and Villages	Social group and occupation						
	SC	**OBC**	**Upper caste**	**Construction workers**	**Skilled migrants**	**Taxi driver**	**Total**
Want to move back to Village							
Yes	19(100.0)	26(96.3)	16(55.2)	25(100.0)	12(48.0)	24(96.0)	61(81.3)
No	0 (0.00)	1(3.7)	13(44.8)	0(0.00)	13(52.0)	1(4.0)	14(18.7)
Out-Migration Ex-post or Ex-ante Strategy							
Ex-post	6(31.6)	2(7.4)	0 (0.00)	7(28.0)	0 (0.00)	1(4.0)	8(10.7)
Ex-ante	13(68.4)	25(92.6)	29(100.0)	18(72.0)	25(100.0)	24(96.0)	67(89.3)
Posses any Asset at Destination							
Yes	0(0.00)	8(29.6)	14(48.3)	0(0.00)	15(60.0)	7(28.0)	22(29.3)
No	19(100.0)	19(70.4)	15(51.7)	25(100.0)	10(40.0)	18(72.0)	53(70.7)
Would like to Invest or buy Land assets etc. in							
Destination	5(26.3)	14(51.8)	18(62.1)	10(40.0)	21(84.0)	6(24.0)	37(49.3)
Village (origin)	14(73.7)	13(48.1)	11(37.9)	15(60.0)	4(16.0)	19(76.0)	38(50.7)
Out-migration Individual or household decision?							
Individual	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	2(6.9)	0(0.00)	2(8.0)	0(0.00)	2(2.7)
Household	19(100.0)	27(100.0)	27(93.1)	25(100.0)	23(92.0)	25(100.0)	73(97.3)
Changes felt by Migrant at Destination							
Increase in Social status at Origin	18(94.7)	19(70.4)	8(27.6)	0(0.00)	24(96.0)	6(24.0)	30(40.0)
Increase in Household income	19(100.0)	26(96.3)	26(89.7)	25(100.0)	25(100.0)	21(84.0)	71(94.7)
Increase in Assets	0(0.00)	8(29.6)	20(69.0)	0(0.00)	19(76.0)	9(36.0)	28(37.3)
Increase in Expenditure	1(5.3)	1(3.7)	3(10.3)	1(4.0)	0(0.00)	4(16.0)	5(6.7)
Increased investment in agriculture	1(5.3)	11(40.7)	14(48.3)	0(0.00)	15(60.0)	11(44.0)	26(34.7)
Increase in skills	18(94.7)	16(59.3)	16(55.2)	24(96.0)	17(68.0)	9(36.0)	50(66.7)
No change	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)
Others	1(5.3)	2(7.4)	3(10.3)	0(0.00)	6(24.0)	0(0.00)	6(8.0)
Total	**19**	**27**	**29**	**25**	**25**	**25**	**75**

Source: Field Survey 2016.
Figures in parenthesis represent percent to total.

Changes felt by migrants after migration have been analyzed as well in table 6.8. 94.7 percent of SC migrants reported that migration has increased social status at origin and all migrants reported that i.e. is 100 percent of migrants reported increase in income of household after migration. 94.7 percent of SC migrants reported increase in skills post migration. In case of OBC migrants as well, 96.3 percent of households reported that

household income have increased post migration and 70.4 percent of migrants reported increase in status of household at origin. 59.3 percent reported increase in skills and 29.6 percent of migrants reported increase in assets at origin post migration. In Upper caste most of the migrants reported increase in household income i.e. 89.7 percent followed by increase in assets i.e. 69 percent and increase in agricultural investment i.e. 48.3 percent. In casual workers 100 percent of migrants reported increase in household income followed by increase in skills i.e. 96 percent. In high skilled migrants all migrants i.e. 100 percent of migrants reported increase in household income followed by increase in status at origin i.e. 96 percent followed by increase in assets i.e. 76 percent. In taxi and auto drivers major change felt by migrants are increase in household income followed by increased investment in agriculture and increase in skills and social status.

6.4.4 Remittances Analysis: Amount and Uses

Datta (2016) in her study, found that migrants remittances plays important role in livelihoods of sending households and found that households in the lower quintiles (castes and classes) have a disproportionately higher dependence on remittances than those in the better off social categories. Migration is a natural outcome of inequality in the distribution of resources and lack of diversified sources of income (Olimova and Kuddusov,2007). Study by Srivastava (1999) also shows similar results that those without any assets end up in seasonal employment, those with bit of assets and resources end up in petty employment and those who are having enough resources often get opportunity in lucrative highly paid jobs.

Table 6.9 shows remittances analysis of migrants. It shows frequency, amount and uses of remittances across various social groups and various occupations. It can be observed from table 6.9 that in SC and casual workers category all migrants remit money back, in OBC and taxi drivers 100 percent and 96.0 percent of migrants respectively remit money back. In case of Upper caste and high skilled migrants 72.4 and 72 percent of migrants respectively remit money back.

In SC migrant category all migrants remit monthly, In OBC 85.2 percent of migrants remit monthly and in Upper caste only 61.9 percent of migrants remit monthly and 38.1 percent of migrants remit annually. In casual workers category 96.0 percent of migrants remit monthly and 96.0 percent of taxi drivers remit monthly. As far as high skilled migrants are concerned only 44.4 percent of migrants remit monthly and 55.6 percent of migrants remit annually. Average monthly remittances of SC migrants are Rs.5631, of OBC migrant is Rs.8, 481, and of Upper caste is Rs.14,047. Average

remittances of casual worker are Rs.5, 240, of high skilled workers are Rs.15, 833 and of taxi drivers is Rs.8, 958.Reason for sending large amount varies across social groups and occupation.

Table 6.9 Remittances Analysis: Amount and Uses

Remittances analysis	Social Group and Occupational details						
	SC	**OBC**	**Upper caste**	**Construction Workers**	**Skilled Migrants**	**Taxi Driver**	**Total**
Remittances Sent							
Yes	19(100.0)	27(100.0)	21(72.4)	25(100.0)	18(72.0)	24(96.0)	67(89.3)
No	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	8(27.6)	0(0.0)	7(28.0)	1(4.0)	8(10.7)
If Yes, no. of times							
Monthly	19(100.0)	23(85.2)	13(61.9)	24(96.0)	8(44.4)	23(95.8)	55(82.1)
Yearly	0(0.0)	4(14.8))	8(38.1)	1(4.0)	10(55.6)	1(4.2)	12(17.9)
Average Monthly Remittances sent	5,631.58	8,481.48	14,047.62	5,240.00	15,833.33	8,958.33	9,417.91
If ever Remitted large amount on demand or in need							
Yes	5(26.3)	20(74.1)	13(44.8)	8(32.0)	7(28.0)	23(92.0)	38(50.7)
No	14(73.7)	7(25.9)	16(55.2)	17(68.0)	18(72.0)	2(8.00)	37(49.33)
Reason for sending Large Amount							
Agricultural Investment	0(0.0)	4(20.0)	1(7.69)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	5(21.7)	5(12.82)
Buying Land	0(0.0)	1(5.00)	2(15.38)	0(0.00)	3(42.85)	0(0.00)	3(7.69)
Buying Tractor	0(0.0)	0(0.00)	1(7.69)	0(0.00)	1(14.28)	0(0.00)	1(2.5)
Health Issues	5(100.0)	11(55.0)	3(23.07	7(77.77)	3(42.85)	9(39.13)	19(50.0)
Home Renovation	0(0.0)	1(5.0)	0(0.00)	1(14.28)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	1(2.56)
Marriage	0(0.0)	3(15.0)	6(46.15)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	9(39.13)	9(23.07)
Use of Remittances by Households at Origin							
For day to day HH expenses	19(100.0)	23(85.2)	11(37.9)	25(100.0)	5(20.0)	23(92.0)	53(70.7)
Education of Children	8(42.1)	16(59.3)	1(3.4)	15(60.0)	3(12.0)	7(28.0)	25(33.3)
To repay debts	19(100.0)	8(29.6)	0(0.0)	25(100.0)	1(4.0)	1(4.0)	27(36.0)
For improving housing conditions **	0(0.0)	7(25.9)	17(58.6)	0(0.0)	12(48.0)	12(48.0)	24(32.0)
Marriage dowry and other ceremonies	4(21.1)	15(55.6)	13(44.8)	3(12.0)	10(40.0)	19(76.0)	32(42.7)
Expenditure investment in farm activities ***	0(0.0)	9(33.3)	16(55.2)	0(0.0)	12(48.0)	13(52.0)	25(33.3)
Health Care	19(100.0)	24(88.9)	11(37.9)	25(100.0)	12(48.0)	17(68.0)	54(72.0)
Deposit/savings in banks	0(0.0)	5(18.5)	12(41.4)	0(0.0)	12(48.0)	5(20.0)	17(22.7)
Others	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)
Mode of Sending Remittances							
Self	18(94.7)	12(44.4)	0(0.0)	25(100.0)	3(16.7)	2(8.3)	30(44.8)
Friends/relatives	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)
Bank/money order	1(5.3)	15(55.6)	21(100.0)	0(0.0)	15(83.3)	22(91.7)	37(55.2)
Others	0 (0.0)	1(3.7)	3(10.3)	0(0.0)	4(16.0)	0 (0.0)	4(5.3)
Total	**19(100)**	**27(100)**	**29(100)**	**25(100)**	**25(100)**	**25(100)**	**75(100)**

Source: Field Survey 2016.

*Figures in parenthesis represent percent to total, **(major repairs, purchase of land or building), ***(land improvement, input costs, machineries, etc.)

Large amount sent by SC migrants is used in health issues, by OBC have been used in health issues followed by agricultural investment and marriage. Amount sent by Upper caste is used in buying tractor followed by marriage and other ceremonies and buying land. In casual workers category, most of the amount is used in health issues. In high skilled migrants category large amount sent by migrants is used in buying land, health issues and buying tractor. In taxi drivers category amounts are used in marriage, health issues and agricultural investment.

Table 6.9 also shows various uses of remittances at origin by household across various social groups and various occupations. In SC and casual migrants most of the remittances are used in day-to-day expenses, repaying debts, and health care. In OBC and taxi driver category of migrants, most of the migrants reported that remittances are used in health care, daily expenses, education of children and marriage dowry and other ceremonies. In high skilled migrants and Upper caste migrants, most of the migrants reported that in improving housing conditions followed by investment in farm activities, marriage dowry and another ceremonies and saving and investment in banks.0.0 percent of migrants in Upper caste reported that remittances are used for repaying debts. Mode of sending remittances shows that SC and casual worker migrants remit through self and all other groups prefer to remit via bank.

6.4.5 Migrants Linkages with their Native place

Table 6.10 shows the linkages of migrants with their native places. As it has been observed in origin part that as per NELM approach, migrants maintain strong ties with their native place. Migrants who wish to go back to village are highest in SC migrants and migrants who are employed in casual works category i.e. all 100 percent of migrants reported that they intend to move back to village. 96 percent of OBC migrants and taxi drivers also mentioned that they intend to go back to village in long run. Almost half of the Upper caste migrants and migrants who are employed in high skilled jobs have no intention to go back to village in long run.

Average number of visit of SC migrants is 17 times, of OBC migrants is 4 times and of Upper caste migrant is 2 times in a year. Occupation wise, it can be observed that casual worker and taxi driver migrants visit 14 times and 4 times in a year whereas, high skilled migrants visit 2 times in a year. Thus frequency of home visit is highest for SC and casual workers followed by OBC and taxi drivers and are lowest for Upper caste and high skilled migrants. Purpose of visit also varies as per social groups and occupations. Most of the migrants in all groups and across all occupations visited their home in

festivals and ceremonies and illness of family members. Only in SC and casual workers category migrants also visit their home in order to supervise their land and farming in peak season. Although there are few migrants in OBC and taxi drivers as well who visit their home for same purpose but the percentage share is very low in comparison to SC and casual workers.

Table 6.10 Migrants Linkages with their Native place

Linkages with Native place	Social group and occupational details						
	SC	OBC	Upper caste	Construction Workers	Skilled Migrants	Taxi Drivers	Total
Want to Move back to Village							
Yes	19(100.0)	26(96.3)	16(55.2)	25(100.0)	12(48.0)	24(96.0)	61(81.3)
No	0 (0.00)	1(3.7)	13(44.8)	0 (0.00)	13(52.0)	1(4.0)	14(18.7)
Avg. no. of Visit	16.95	4.19	2.17	14.08	2.20	3.64	6.64
Purpose of visiting Village**							
1	10(52.6)	1(3.7)	1(3.4)	11(44.0)	0(0.0)	1(4.0)	12(16.0)
2	13(68.4)	11(40.7)	11(37.9)	14(56.0)	6(24.0)	15(60.0)	35(46.7)
3	16(84.2)	24(88.9)	26(89.7)	22(88.0)	19(76.0)	25(100.0)	66(88.0)
4	3(15.8)	3(11.1)	0(0.0)	6(24.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	6(8.0)
Avg. Stay	4.00	8.78	7.34	4.68	7.24	9.12	7.01
Ever asked money from home?							
Yes	9(47.4)	6(22.2)	19(65.5)	10(40.0)	17(68.0)	7(28.0)	34(45.3)
No	10(52.6)	21(77.8)	10(34.5)	15(60.0)	8(32.0)	18(72.0)	41(54.7)
Total	**19(100)**	**27(100)**	**29(100)**	**25(100)**	**25(100)**	**25(100)**	**75(100)**

Source: Field Survey 2016.

*Figures in parenthesis represent percent to total, ** 1- Supervising the land/in peak seasons to work in farm,2- To meet family members,3- Festivals, ceremonies and illness,4-Others

6.5.6 Role of Social Networks in Out-Migration

Table 6.11 shows role of social network in facilitating migration. In SC migrants 94.7 percent of migrants got their job with the help of social networks i.e. family friends and 100 percent of casual workers got their job with the help of family and friends. In OBC and taxi drivers category, majority of the migrants got their job through friends and families. In OBC category there are few migrants who got their job with the help of government advertised jobs and agencies.

In Upper caste and skilled workers, share is huge of migrants who got their job through walk in interview, campus placements and government advertised post and jobs. In Upper caste as well there is 48.3 percent of migrants who reported that they got their first job through friends and relatives.

Table 6.11 Role of Social Networks in Out-Migration from Jaunpur District

Social Networks	Social group and occupational details						
	SC	OBC	Upper caste	Construction Workers	Skilled Migrants	Taxi Drivers	Total
How did you get the Job?							
Family	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	2(6.9)	0(0.0)	0(00)	2(8.0)	2(2.7)
Friends/Relatives	18(94.7)	20(74.1)	14(48.3)	25(100.0)	5(20.0)	22(88.0)	52(69.3)
License/unlicensed recruiting agencies	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)
Walk in interview/campus placements/PPO	0(0.0)	1(3.7)	10(34.5)	0(0.0)	11(44.0)	0(0.0)	11(14.7)
Government agencies and advertised jobs	0(0.0)	3(11.1)	3(10.3)	0(0.0)	5(20.0)	1(4.0)	6(8.0)
Others	1(5.3)	3(11.1)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	4(16.0)	0(0.0)	4(5.3)
Paid any fees for Out-Migration							
Yes	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	0(0.00	0(0.00)	0(0.000	0(0.00)
No	19(100.0)	27(100.0)	29(100.0)	25(100.0)	25(100.0)	25(100.0)	75(100.0)
How did you financed Out-Migration							
Own savings/family	14(77.8)	14(58.3)	11(45.8)	15(60.0)	1(6.2)	23(92.0)	39(59.1)
Selling/renting land or livestock's	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	0(0.00	0(0.00)	0(0.000	0(0.00)
From earnings from crop sale.	4(22.2)	6(25.0)	0 (0.00)	10(40.0)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	10(15.2)
Loan/obtained from relatives or friends	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	1(4.2)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	1(4.0)	1(1.5)
Expenses borne/met by employer	0 (0.00)	4(16.7)	12(50.0)	0 (0.00)	15(93.8)	1(4.0)	16(24.2)
Role of Social Networks							
Provided information regarding Job	18 (94.7)	15 (55.6)	12(52.2)	25(100.0)	1 (5.3)	19(76.0)	45(65.2)
Funding/Financing of Migration (lending money)	3(15.8)	10(37.0)	3 (13.0)	5(20.0)	1(5.3)	10(40.0)	16(23.2)
Housing Assistance (arrangement of stay)	18(94.7)	20(74.1)	14(60.9)	25(100.0)	3(15.8)	24(96.0)	52(75.4)
Assistance in finding first Job	18(94.7)	20(74.1)	13(56.5)	25(100.0)	2 (10.5)	24(96.0)	51(73.9)
Documents Related Assistance	18(94.7)	20(76.9)	14(60.9)	25(100.0)	3(16.7)	24(96.0)	52(76.5)
Encouragement for Out-Migration	18(94.7)	20(75.1)	14(60.9)	25(100.0)	3(15.8)	24(96.0)	52(75.4)
Act as entry barrier	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0 (0.00)
Waiting period for finding a Job							
0 days	19(100.0)	27(100.0)	29(100.0)	25(100.0)	25(100.0)	25(100.0)	75(100.0)
1-15 days	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)
16-30 days	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)
30 days and above	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)
Do you live in proximity with people from same origin							
Yes	18(94.7)	23(85.2)	13(44.8)	25(100.0)	5(20.0)	24(96.0)	54(72.0)
No	1(5.3)	4(14.8)	16(55.2)	0(0.0)	20(80.0)	1(4.0)	21(28.0)
Total	**19(100.0)**	**27(100.0)**	**29(100.0)**	**25(100.0)**	**25(100.0)**	**25(100.0)**	**75(100.0**

Source: Field Survey 2016.

Figures in parenthesis represent percent to total.

Thus, in all categories except in high skilled migrants friends and relatives are playing crucial role in facilitating migration from rural villages of Jaunpur district. All migrants in all groups mentioned that they haven't paid any fees for out-migration.

From table 6.1, it can be observed that most of the migrants funded their migration with their own or family savings and earning from crop sales. In high skilled migrants and Upper caste migrants, expenses are borne by employers i.e. 93.8 percent and 50.0 percent respectively. The percentage share of migrants reporting expenses met by employer is 0 percent in SC and casual workers migrants. Looking in more details across various social groups it can be seen that 94.7 percent of SC migrants and 100 percent of casual workers reported that they have been provided information by social networks, 55.6 percent of OBC migrants and 76 percent of taxi drivers reported that they got information regarding the job from social networks. 52.2 percent of Upper caste migrants and 5.3 percent of skilled migrants mentioned that they got information regarding job from social network. Social networks role in funding of migration is highest in OBC migrants and in taxi drivers. All migrants except those engaged in high skill jobs reported that social networks have helped them in housing assistance. Majority of migrants in SC, casual works, OBC and taxi drivers and to some extent Upper caste migrants also reported that they got assistance in finding their first job from social networks. Pattern is similar for documents related assistance and encouragement for out-migration. All the migrants surveyed at destinations, got their job at day one in destinations. Majority of migrants live in proximity to the people from same origin but the percentage share for the same in Upper caste and Skilled migrants is comparatively low than other groups and occupations.

6.5 Brief Note on Living Conditions of migrants at Their Respective Destinations

This section briefly and descriptively delves into living conditions of migrants at their respective destinations. Group discussion methods have been used for this section. The aim of this section is not to give detailed analysis of living conditions of migrants at destination rather to give a brief insight. The comparative analysis of living conditions of migrants across social groups and occupations at destination will support and substantiate the findings of the literature and analysis at origin.

A brief discussion has been done on wages migrants receive in villages, for those migrants who were working in village as well prior to migration. 100 percent of migrants reported in all class and occupation that they receive more wages in destination in comparison to villages. From detailed discussion and observation regarding living

conditions it was found that migrants in Varanasi who are casual workers have better place to live and constructor provides basic civic amenities. Taxi drivers who are majorly OBC migrants and stay in Mumbai resides in comparatively bad and unhygienic conditions in slums of Mumbai. None of the migrants have reported that they own a room/flat in Mumbai. They reside in sharing room in suburbs of Mumbai. In a small room of 170-200 square meters 3-4 migrants stay together, share common kitchen in room itself and use public toilets on daily payment basis. In case of high skilled and Upper caste migrants majority of them have their own flat at their respective destinations and those who don't have, reside in good township in nice area in highly rented apartments. In terms of asset as well, these migrants are far better than other categories of migrants. The analysis of migrants living conditions at origin done in chapter four and at destination dealt in brief in this chapter support our findings and hypothesis that migration is risk and income diversification strategy for OBC and taxi driver migrants, is accumulation strategy for Upward and high skilled migrants and is purely distress induced and survival strategy for migrants belonging to SC household and are engaged in construction sector.

6.6 Conclusion

Migration, as mentioned in the beginning of the chapter is multifaceted and very diverse phenomenon. Reasons and implications of migration vary across time and context. Migration may be beneficial to particular section at particular time and may be only strategy for livelihood at same time to other section of people. From previous chapters, it was found that migration and social group are strongly linked with each other, and studies show social group and occupation are related to each other. Particular group of society seek particular kind of job while other section looks and opt for some other kind of job. From study, it was found that migrants from lower segment of villages and from poor section opt for low paid and menial jobs. These migrants often lack educational and vocational skills moreover their asset in origin and destination is very poor in comparison to other groups. Comparatively better off and Upper caste migrants are in high paid jobs and are also from better to do households. While doing field survey, it was found that people from Upper caste are also migrating out in search of better job opportunities as a result of low land per capita and stagnant agriculture. Majority of Upper caste people who are also having high resource endowments migration is accumulation strategy. For OBC households, who are comparatively better than SC households, migration is risk and income diversification strategy. Migration is an

outcome of lack of non-farm employment opportunities and stagnant agriculture. Reason for migration, use of remittances along with occupation reveals that migration for Upper caste is for better civic amenities along with accumulative motive whereas for SC households it is purely distress induced. Current chapter support and substantiate the findings based on analysis at origin from previous chapters.

Chapter 7
Conclusion

This study titled "Nature and determinants of male out-migration from rural UP: A study of six villages in Jaunpur District" was undertaken with a view to analyze the drivers and determinants of male out-migration from rural UP. The work started with the observation and argument that despite, evidence of high male out-migration from rural UP, little attention has been given to understanding the dynamics and process of migration in rural UP. Although, migration has become most opted livelihood diversification strategy for rural households in UP but literature on it remains scarce. It was also discussed at the very beginning of this research work how villages in India are segmented into various groups based on their social group affiliations. Moreover, literature on migration and its linkages with social groups is also scarce for UP. The work started with proposition that migration is risk and income diversification strategy (NELM approach) by rural households in UP. Along with linkages between migration and social groups, there is also dearth of literature on migration as a risk diversification strategy in UP. In the preceding six chapters, attempts were made to highlight these connections using primary data from the case study district of Jaunpur in Eastern UP, India. The analysis was done at two levels. Firstly, the analysis was carried out at the place of origin. In second stage, migrants from the same households were tracked and surveyed at their respective destinations. The study found that migration, as a risk diversification strategy doesn't hold true for all groups. In alignment with the major objectives of this research work, the previous chapters have been developed with a view to generate holistic insights of nature and determinants of migration and to develop an analysis for same, based on the social affiliation of migrant households.

Using a case study approach, involving s survey of a strategically selected and representative sample of 370 households from six randomly selected villages and 75 migrants belonging to district with highest number of male out-migration i.e. Jaunpur in Eastern UP, the current research work made an attempt to highlight and contextualize less investigated relationships. The results and findings of the primary survey of the research study in rural hinterlands of UP provided important insights about matters of local and national significance that need attention. Therefore, in this final chapter, I bring together all the findings and insights of this study in order to highlight the key findings that may have policy significance and comment on direction of future research.

The highlights of major the findings of previous chapters are discussed briefly in this chapter. Although, each chapter does list the major findings and conclusions, but it is imperative to integrate and highlight major findings and conclusion of the work and provide quick overview of the results and findings.

The first chapter presented the statement of the problem, a brief overview of migration in India, and an overview of the theoretical background of migration followed by other relevant literature surveys on thematic basis. The chapter also provided the rational for and context of this research work. It also highlighted the research gaps and the contribution of the study. Further, this chapter listed the objectives and hypothesis of the study as well as the chapter scheme.

Chapter two provided a detailed analysis of the database, area of study and research methodology adopted. This chapter showed the rationale behind selecting the Indian state of UP and Jaunpur as the study area, followed by description of the sample design of the household surveys, sources, and tools of data collection. The research methodology adopted and introduction to the study area were discussed in detail in the latter part of the chapter. Insights from the field on demographic and socio-economic profile of the randomly selected villages have been presented in brief.

Chapter three briefly illustrated the context and drivers of male out-migration from rural UP at the state level. The chapter is based on secondary data (NSSO, 64th round). It gives a brief profile of the historical overview of migration followed by the drivers of male migration from rural UP. Profiling of in-migration in brief followed by detail descriptive analysis of male out-migrants from rural UP are presented. It was found that rural UP have major share in male out-migration from UP. The rate of male out-migration is the highest in the 'others' category followed by 'self-employed in agriculture' household type. Another interesting finding of the secondary data analysis is that 70 percent of male out-migrants migrate to other states from rural UP, whereas for India as whole, the major movement of migrants is within the same district. Eastern UP accounts for 61 percent of male migrants from rural UP. Mumbai and Delhi are the major destinations for male out-migrants from rural UP. The main reasons for male out-migration are found to be were economic in nature. Although, UP is primarily an agricultural economy but secondary data analysis reveals that majority of the households in rural UP possessed marginal land. Huge population pressure in rural UP has led to low per capita availability of land. These factors have diminished the motivations to invest in agriculture and resulted in huge exodus of male laborers from UP. The latter part of the

chapter deals with the individual characteristics of male migrants. The chapter ends with the concluding remark that there is no single specific reason for male migration from rural UP, but set of factors working to drive the exodus.

The next two chapters provide empirical insights on the main objectives of the research work. To achieve the first objective, i.e. to identify the nature and determinants of male out-migration from rural UP, chapter 4 tried to briefly analyze situation at the district level. This chapter is based entirely on field survey data. It provides detail outline of the socio-economic and demographic profile of migrant households in six randomly selected villages and across social group such as SCs, OBCs and Upper castes. Empirical analysis was done to understand determinants of male out-migration from six villages of Jaunpur district. The major findings of the analysis are as follows: Of the 370 households, 67 percent households out of 370 households are migrant households i.e., households with at least one male out-migrant and 33 percent of households are non-migrant households. Out-migration rate is the highest for Asbaranpur village i.e. 56 males per 100 males followed by Jarasi with 53 males per hundred males. The major destination for migrants is Mumbai followed by Varanasi. Majority of migrants are engaged in taxi driving and also work in dairy units and the construction sector. The rate of male out-migration is highest in OBC households and lowest in SC households. It was found that majority of male out-migrants from SC households are in low paid jobs and OBC migrants work in transport sector i.e., as auto or taxi drivers or are engaged in dairy units, whereas, migrants from the Upper caste are more into high-skilled white collar jobs as such bank services, government jobs and software jobs.

Household size was found to be positively related to migration. SC households posses negligible land and the OBC and Upper caste migrants are comparatively better off in terms of land endowment. As far as monthly income is concerned, the rate of out-migration in low in the poorest class and high in upper middle and high-income households, as the poorest section cannot afford migration. Migration by the rich is also prevalent in rural UP. In the empirical analysis, factors such as land possessed, total monthly income, religion, social group OBC, households head of education are highly significant in determining migration. The analysis has been done social group-wise as well and the significance level of covariates was found to vary with social affiliation. Asbaranpur and Rampur Soiri are comparatively better off in terms of land, income and educational status in comparison to other villages while, Manecha and Yonouspur are the

villages with low average land, less educational endowment followed and low monthly income.

Chapter five meets the next objective of the research work i.e, to determine whether male out-migration is a risk and income diversification strategy or whether it is accumulation or distress induced. The key findings of this chapter are as follows: income inequality is positively related to migration, i.e. Gini co-efficient is positively related to migration for social groups. Income inequality and rate of out-migration is the highest among OBC households. There is huge difference in monthly income with and without remittances in all-social groups and the difference is highest in the OBC group. The Lorenz curve shows that migration has reduced income inequality across social groups. The wealth score quintiles analysis shows that migrant households are in a better position than non-migrant households. The wealth score is high for migrant households in Jaunpur as whole and across various social groups as well. To overcome risk and uncertainties, rural households tend to send members to work in occupations that are negatively related to agriculture. Remittances reduce liquidity constraints for OBC households and are an accumulative strategy for Upper caste migrants. Another major finding is that social networks play a facilitating role in male out-migration from rural UP. It was also found that credit accessibility is a significant factor in migration decisions.

Remittances use and amount varies across various social groups. SC households use remittances to meet daily needs and to repay debts, whereas OBC households use remittances for day-to-day expense followed by health care. Among the Upper castes, remittances are used for deposits and savings in banks followed by purchase of land and buildings etc. Empirical analysis shows that wealth score, social group OBC, crop insurance, accessibility to credit and monthly income with and without remittances are significant in determining migration. Comparative descriptive analysis of migrant and non-migrant households on various backgrounds was done followed by empirical analysis of the same to analyze the third objective of the study- whether migration is beneficial to migrant households or not. The descriptive analysis found that migrant households are better off than non-migrants in terms of various indicators such as land endowment, income level and educational attainment etc. Another major finding was that migration is beneficial for all groups but that OBCs benefit the most.

While preceding chapters discussed the data set at place of origin, chapter six deals with deals with migrant's perspectives and experiences at place of destination.

Migrants from the same households surveyed in the sample villages of Jaunpur districts were tracked and interviewed at their respective destinations. The aim of this chapter was not to empirically analyze migration as a NELM strategy but to provide an insight from the migrant's perspectives. As the analysis so far have been revealed that occupation and caste affiliation are strongly linked, this chapter made an attempt to analyze migration as a risk and income diversification considering occupational analysis at the various destinations of the migrants. Occupational analysis along with caste-based analysis would support and substantiate the findings from origin. Socio-demographic characteristics of migrant households were analyzed followed by the individual characteristics of male migrants.

The major findings of the chapter are as follows: the occupational analysis showed that the majority of casual low paid workers are from SC households and are comparatively worse of than the other groups in terms of level of income, land endowment and educational attainment. Taxi and auto driving are the key occupation of OBC migrants. The occupational and social group analysis showed that OBC migrants and taxi/auto drivers are comparatively better off than migrants from SC households and causal wage laborers. High-skilled workers are mostly from the Upper caste and they are better off in terms of income, education and land possessed than the other two groups. The primary source of income for the Upper caste and high skilled workers is cultivation whereas for the other two groups, remittances are the major source of income. For SC migrants and casual workers, remittances are the only source of primary income revealing their distressed nature of their migration. There are huge differences in monthly income across occupations and social groups. Living conditions at place of origin and destination also show that migrants belonging to Upper caste and high skilled workers came from a financially strong background followed by OBCs, taxi drivers, SCs and casual workers. The findings of the study at the destination substantiate the findings in the place of origin and are in line with the major findings of the study done at origin across six villages and social groups.

Studies and secondary data show that the majority of males migrate to nearby states for economic reasons. The major findings of the study are that for landless and poor farmers who lack access to credit and non-farm income sources, migration is the only livelihood strategy. The nature of migration for this poorest section is distress induced. There is huge income inequality in the sample villages and among social groups. Households with lowest income are less migratory in nature and those with

comparatively high income are highly migratory in nature. Though, there are differences in the nature of male migration in the two latter classes. Distribution of land is unbalanced and big landholdings are with the Upper castes. SC households migrates the least, as they cannot afford the cost of migration.

One of the major hypotheses of the study was that the determinants of migrants are different for various social groups. Another hypothesis was that migration is a risk and income diversification strategy for rural households in UP. The major propositions of this approach is that; migration is positively related to the Gini coefficient, migration is a household decision rather than an individual one, migration is an ex-ante strategy rather than ex-post strategy, migrants maintain strong linkages with their families, remittances increase the liquidity of the households and credit constraints encourage migration.

The study also hypothesized that migrant households are better off than non-migrant households. In chapter four an attempt was made to analyze the context, drivers and determinants of male out-migration from sample villages across various groups. Logit results show that the determinants of migration vary across social groups.

From the descriptive analysis of six sample villages and across various social groups, it was found that migration is household decision and is an ex-ante strategy. It was also found that social networks play facilitating role and encourage migration in six sample villages and across various social groups. Upper caste and high skilled workers are far better n terms in land endowment; educational attainment and income followed by OBC and SC migrant households. There are huge differences in the living conditions of migrant households at place of origin and migrants at the destination, which supports the above, mentioned findings. Village wise this result is true for Jarasi; Chitkon and Asbaranpur are accumulating villages; in Rampur Soiri migration was found to be a risk and income diversification strategy. Manecha and Yonouspur showed distress induced migration. The empirical analysis found that credit constraints are very significant in migration decisions. Those with easy accessibility to credit have less chances of male out-migration in comparison to those households that do not have easy accessibility to credit.

Another major hypothesis of the study was that migration is beneficial to migrant households. Comparative analysis of migrant and non-migrant household shows that migrant households are better off than non-migrants on various accounts, such as land,

income, educational attainment, living conditions, credit accessibility and assets. The wealth score computed by principal component analysis also reveals the same.

Out-migration has become very common phenomenon in rural UP. The migration from UP, as found in literature and secondary data, shows that out-migration from UP in the past decades has shown a manifold increase. Although, it is beneficial to the majority of the households in rural UP by reducing liquidity and credit constraints via remittances, migration is not the final and only solution for accelerating and overcoming poverty and stagnation in the economy of rural UP. On the one hand, the male exodus from the rural areas, leads to shortage of the workforce in area and increases the work burden on women at the place of origin and on the other hand, it pushes male migrants into the informal and unorganized market and poor living conditions at destinations. Therefore, rural male out-migration is not the most appropriate and only strategy to ameliorate the conditions and underdevelopment of the rural areas in UP. For males migrating out of poverty and to diversify their household income due to lack of non-farm employment, credit accessibility etc., the solution lies in providing appropriate employment and adequate wages. This can promote the growth and development in well being of the households. There is dire need for creating and promoting non-farm job opportunities to meet the huge employment demand of UP's huge rural population.

MNREGA schemes can curb migration to some extent and can be considered as solution and substitute for the male exodus in the rural households. Although, the main aim of MNREGA is to enhance and improve the livelihood of rural poor by guaranteeing them with hundred days of employment, this objective was rarely met in rural villages of UP. Lack of proper implementation and heavy corruption worsened the condition of poor households of rural UP, leaving them with only the option of out migration to big cities. Therefore, there is need to implement and promote the above mentioned schemes and informed suggestions effectively in the rural areas of Jaunpur district to reduce distress-induced migration and migration aimed at diversifying resources due to lack of non-farm employment opportunities in rural UP.

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Appendices

Appendix 1. District-wise Male Out-Migration from Rural UP

Regional Classification	District	Total Rural Male Population	Total Rural Male Out-Migrants	Out-Migration Rate (Rural Male)	Rank of Out-Migration Rural Male (Rate of Out-Migration)	Sum of Total Rural Male Population	Percent of Total Rural Male in Each District	Rank Out-Migraton Male (Numebr of Migrants)
Northern Upper Ganga Plain	Saharanpur	14,20,809	47,725	34	61	6,99,06,056	2%	47
	Muzaffarnagar	14,69,424	48,586	33	63	6,99,06,056	2%	45
	Bijnor	11,63,398	1,32,722	114	31	6,99,06,056	2%	24
	Moradabad	14,39,894	67,387	47	53	6,99,06,056	2%	39
	Rampur	6,89,041	33,857	49	51	6,99,06,056	1%	57
	J Phule Nagar	6,89,858	20,978	30	65	6,99,06,056	1%	66
	Meerut	8,93,249	48,165	54	49	6,99,06,056	1%	46
	Baghpat	5,32,986	40,658	76	39	6,99,06,056	1%	55
	Ghaziabad	9,31,064	27,278	29	67	6,99,06,056	1%	63
	G.Buddha Nagar	4,77,695	18,017	38	58	6,99,06,056	1%	68
Southern Upper Ganaga Plain	Bulandshahar	10,73,241	1,25,960	117	30	6,99,06,056	2%	25
	Aligarh	11,63,122	67,971	58	45	6,99,06,056	2%	38
	Hathras	4,89,355	77,246	158	20	6,99,06,056	1%	35
	Mathura	8,88,227	60,171	68	40	6,99,06,056	1%	42
	Agra	12,53,751	1,65,292	132	28	6,99,06,056	2%	16
	Firozabad	7,72,913	46,086	60	44	6,99,06,056	1%	50
	Etah	12,14,467	1,25,187	103	33	6,99,06,056	2%	26
	Mainpuri	9,38,244	27,015	29	68	6,99,06,056	1%	64
	Budaun	13,08,911	49,769	38	57	6,99,06,056	2%	44

Southern Upper Ganga Plain	Bareilly	13,09,648	44,373	34	60	6,99,06,056	2%	51
	Pilibhit	7,45,586	42,569	57	47	6,99,06,056	1%	53
	Shajahanpur	12,91,803	77,537	60	43	6,99,06,056	2%	34
	Kheri	15,36,796	64,011	42	55	6,99,06,056	2%	40
Central	Sitapur	17,06,762	1,04,340	61	42	6,99,06,056	2%	32
	Hardoi	16,35,904	1,54,431	94	35	6,99,06,056	2%	19
	Unnao	12,66,840	2,01,856	159	19	6,99,06,056	2%	13
	Lucknow	8,16,768	27,314	33	62	6,99,06,056	1%	62
	Rae-Bareily	13,89,947	2,47,415	178	15	6,99,06,056	2%	9
Southern Upper Ganga Plain	Farrukhabad	7,03,080	36,997	53	50	6,99,06,056	1%	56
	Kannauj	8,08,104	46,926	58	46	6,99,06,056	1%	49
	Etawah	5,96,259	17,856	30	66	6,99,06,056	1%	69
	Auraiya	5,07,276	42,190	83	38	6,99,06,056	1%	54
Central	Kanpur Dehat	8,35,033	71,750	86	37	6,99,06,056	1%	37
	Kanpur Nagar	7,87,902	31,229	40	56	6,99,06,056	1%	58
Southern	Jalaun	4,98,868	1,05,620	212	10	6,99,06,056	1%	30
	Jhansi	5,14,746	62,743	122	29	6,99,06,056	1%	41
	Lalitpur	5,26,837	22,157	42	54	6,99,06,056	1%	65
	Hamirpur	5,54,335	19,476	35	59	6,99,06,056	1%	67
	Mahoba	3,12,070	47,630	153	24	6,99,06,056	0%	48
	Banda	6,01,851	1,63,671	272	2	6,99,06,056	1%	18
	Chitrakoot	3,64,094	55,944	154	22	6,99,06,056	1%	43
	Fatehpur	12,68,123	1,38,899	110	32	6,99,06,056	2%	22
Eastern	Pratapgarh	11,28,521	2,05,628	182	14	6,99,06,056	2%	12
	Kaushambi	6,41,119	42,642	67	41	6,99,06,056	1%	52
	Allahabad	19,63,566	2,01,584	103	34	6,99,06,056	3%	14
	Barabanki	15,86,653	77,015	49	52	6,99,06,056	2%	36

Eastern	Faizabad	7,23,074	1,39,977	194	13	6,99,06,056	1%	21
	Ambedkar Nagar	9,40,518	1,33,385	142	26	6,99,06,056	1%	23
	Sultanpur	16,96,498	2,94,587	174	17	6,99,06,056	2%	6
	Bahraich	12,16,357	30,756	25	69	6,99,06,056	2%	59
	Shraswati	6,63,029	13,112	20	70	6,99,06,056	1%	70
	Balrampur	8,89,340	27,362	31	64	6,99,06,056	1%	61
	Gonda	11,71,813	1,02,549	88	36	6,99,06,056	2%	33
	Siddharthnagar	10,08,266	2,60,864	259	4	6,99,06,056	1%	7
	Basti	9,83,197	1,53,331	156	21	6,99,06,056	1%	20
	S.Kabir Nagar	7,22,843	2,43,912	337	1	6,99,06,056	1%	10
	Maharajganj	10,33,688	1,81,615	176	16	6,99,06,056	1%	15
	Gorakhpur	13,30,202	3,26,543	245	6	6,99,06,056	2%	4
	Kushinagar	15,04,142	2,20,306	146	25	6,99,06,056	2%	11
	Deoria	12,40,544	3,11,126	251	5	6,99,06,056	2%	5
	Azamgarh	16,97,767	4,56,541	269	3	6,99,06,056	2%	1
Eastern	Mau	6,34,479	1,06,623	168	18	6,99,06,056	1%	29
	Ballia	11,58,472	2,55,891	221	9	6,99,06,056	2%	8
	Jaunpur	17,68,615	4,05,739	229	8	6,99,06,056	3%	2
	Ghazipur	13,39,540	3,26,976	244	7	6,99,06,056	2%	3
	Chandauli	8,05,774	1,23,176	153	23	6,99,06,056	1%	27
	Varanasi	7,97,889	1,64,316	206	11	6,99,06,056	1%	17
	S.R.Nagar (Bhadohi)	5,59,745	1,11,542	199	12	6,99,06,056	1%	28
	Mirzapur	7,64,277	1,04,401	137	27	6,99,06,056	1%	31
	Sonbhadra	5,47,847	30,224	55	48	6,99,06,056	1%	60

Source: NSSO 64th Round, Schedule 10.2.Employment & Unemployment and Migration Particulars (July 2007-08)

Appendix 2 District-wise Male Out-Migrants from Urban UP

Regional Classification	District Name	Total Urban Male	Total No. of Urban Male Out-Migrants	Rank of Out-Migrants as %age share in each District	Migrants %age	Rate of Out-Migration	Rank of Districts as per Rate of Out-Migration	Total No. of Urban Males
Northern Upper Ganga Plain	Saharanpur	3,80,649	43,284	4	4.66%	114	13	1,85,77,848
	Muzaffarnagar	3,60,705	2,380	63	0.26%	7	70	1,85,77,848
	Bijnor	4,21,204	21,748	14	2.34%	52	39	1,85,77,848
	Moradabad	4,93,837	11,930	31	1.29%	24	63	1,85,77,848
	Rampur	2,25,465	3,902	54	0.42%	17	67	1,85,77,848
	J Phule Nagar	1,50,274	15,547	22	1.67%	103	15	1,85,77,848
	Meerut	7,92,225	28,309	7	3.05%	36	55	1,85,77,848
	Baghpat	64,298	4,105	53	0.44%	64	26	1,85,77,848
	Ghaziabad	15,27,342	13,822	27	1.49%	9	69	1,85,77,848
	G.Buddha Nagar	2,60,902	4,610	49	0.50%	18	66	1,85,77,848
Southern Upper Ganga Plain	Bulandshahar	2,17,141	12,145	29	1.31%	56	32	1,85,77,848
	Aligarh	6,08,687	16,225	20	1.75%	27	62	1,85,77,848
	Hathras	1,00,989	3,684	56	0.40%	36	51	1,85,77,848
	Mathura	2,49,772	20,873	16	2.25%	84	20	1,85,77,848
	Agra	12,35,414	26,568	8	2.86%	22	65	1,85,77,848
	Firozabad	2,22,093	3,807	55	0.41%	17	68	1,85,77,848
	Etah	1,66,756	14,410	25	1.55%	86	19	1,85,77,848
	Mainpuri	1,27,598	4,637	48	0.50%	36	52	1,85,77,848
	Budaun	3,07,163	15,380	23	1.66%	50	43	1,85,77,848
	Bareilly	5,37,753	14,983	24	1.61%	28	60	1,85,77,848

Southern Upper Ganga Plain	Pilibhit	1,80,566	11,516	33	1.24%	64	27	1,85,77,848
	Shajahanpur	2,54,237	29,104	5	3.14%	114	12	1,85,77,848
	Kheri	1,17,748	13,380	28	1.44%	114	14	1,85,77,848
Central	Sitapur	2,08,418	24,389	10	2.63%	117	11	1,85,77,848
	Hardoi	1,54,584	9,900	36	1.07%	64	25	1,85,77,848
	Unnao	2,31,030	11,663	32	1.26%	50	42	1,85,77,848
	Lucknow	16,69,402	45,300	2	4.88%	27	61	1,85,77,848
	Rae-Bareily	1,56,964	19,315	17	2.08%	123	10	1,85,77,848
Southern Upper Ganga Plain	Farrukhabad	1,59,654	22,073	13	2.38%	138	8	1,85,77,848
	Kannauj	1,86,365	5,676	44	0.61%	30	58	1,85,77,848
	Etawah	1,40,711	6,132	42	0.66%	44	48	1,85,77,848
	Auraiya	81,471	4,609	50	0.50%	57	31	1,85,77,848
Central	Kanpur Dehat	47,409	4,222	52	0.45%	89	17	1,85,77,848
	Kanpur Nagar	14,80,790	75,213	1	8.10%	51	40	1,85,77,848
Southern	Jalaun	3,18,280	14,398	26	1.55%	45	45	1,85,77,848
	Jhansi	2,60,677	44,524	3	4.80%	171	3	1,85,77,848
	Lalitpur	50,190	7,829	39	0.84%	156	5	1,85,77,848
	Hamirpur	80,584	2,893	60	0.31%	36	54	1,85,77,848
	Mahoba	90,535	4,917	46	0.53%	54	36	1,85,77,848
	Banda	1,11,255	7,333	40	0.79%	66	24	1,85,77,848
	Chitrakoot	55,688	2,816	62	0.30%	51	41	1,85,77,848
	Fatehpur	1,11,540	24,149	11	2.60%	217	1	1,85,77,848
Eastern	Pratapgarh	1,31,740	10,218	35	1.10%	78	21	1,85,77,848
	Kaushambi	39,520	1,178	69	0.13%	30	59	1,85,77,848
	Allahabad	5,95,836	18,266	18	1.97%	31	57	1,85,77,848
	Barabanki	1,63,015	23,922	12	2.58%	147	7	1,85,77,848
	Faizabad	1,68,207	5,301	45	0.57%	32	56	1,85,77,848

Eastern	Ambedkar Nagar	66,504	3,642	57	0.39%	55	35	1,85,77,848
	Sultanpur	53,191	2,856	61	0.31%	54	38	1,85,77,848
	Bahraich	50,105	2,981	59	0.32%	59	29	1,85,77,848
	Shraswati	8,920	407	70	0.04%	46	44	1,85,77,848
	Balrampur	46,210	2,050	66	0.22%	44	47	1,85,77,848
	Gonda	86,991	1,964	67	0.21%	23	64	1,85,77,848
	Siddharthnagar	50,447	2,256	65	0.24%	45	46	1,85,77,848
	Basti	47,210	3,415	58	0.37%	72	22	1,85,77,848
	S.Kabir Nagar	57,275	9,325	37	1.00%	163	4	1,85,77,848
	Maharajganj	29,645	1,812	68	0.20%	61	28	1,85,77,848
	Gorakhpur	2,36,565	16,863	19	1.82%	71	23	1,85,77,848
	Kushinagar	64,381	2,337	64	0.25%	36	53	1,85,77,848
	Deoria	1,88,030	28,330	6	3.05%	151	6	1,85,77,848
	Azamgarh	2,29,040	9,264	38	1.00%	40	50	1,85,77,848
Eastern	Mau	2,17,110	21,572	15	2.32%	99	16	1,85,77,848
	Ballia	69,294	11,996	30	1.29%	173	2	1,85,77,848
	Jaunpur	2,80,762	15,628	21	1.68%	56	34	1,85,77,848
	Ghazipur	52,118	6,988	41	0.75%	134	9	1,85,77,848
	Chandauli	77,582	4,323	51	0.47%	56	33	1,85,77,848
	Varanasi	6,16,563	26,081	9	2.81%	42	49	1,85,77,848
	S.R.Nagar(Bhadohi)	66,761	5,848	43	0.63%	88	18	1,85,77,848
	Mirzapur	2,03,681	11,036	34	1.19%	54	37	1,85,77,848
	Sonbhadra	82,780	4,684	47	0.50%	57	30	1,85,77,848

Source: NSSO 64th Round, Schedule 10.2.Employment & Unemployment and Migration Particulars (July 2007-08)

Appendix 3.1 Definition and Summary Statistics of used Variables for Determinants of Male Out-Migration from Jaunpur District

Variables Name and Definition	No of Observations	Mean	Std. dev.	Min	Max
d_outmigrate: dummy (if outmigrated=1,if not outmigrated =0)	370	0.6676	0.4717	0	1
Head of Households					
d_Female®					
d_Male (if male=1,rest=0)	370	0.8459	0.3615	0	1
Religion					
d_Muslim®					
d_Hindu (if Hindu=1,Rest=0)	370	0.8568	0.3508	0	1
Social group					
SC®					
d_OBC (if OBC=1, Rest =0)	370	0.3649	0.4820	0	1
d_Upward caste (if upward caste =1, Rest=0)	370	0.3594	0.48.4	0	1
Household Size					
d_1-5®					
d_6-10 (if 6-10=1, Rest=0)	370	0.5135	0.5004	0	1
d_11 & above (if 11& above =1, Rest=0)	370	0.1756	0.3810	0	1
Male between 15-50 years of age	370	2.2405	1.2358	0	8
Educational attainment of Head of Households					
d_Literate ®					
d_Illiterate (if Illiterate=1, Rest=0)	370	0.2297	0.4212	0	1
Total Land Possessed (in hectares)	370	0.7895	1.1594	0	5
Total monthly income (with remittances)	370	28537.84	2914.88	1000	100000
Total monthly income (without remittances)	370	22215.27	25578	0	100000
d_Dummy Variables, and ® Reference Category Notes: for dummy variable the means give the number of positive values and Std dev Standard Deviation					

Source: Own Work

Table 3.2 Definition and Summary Statistics of used Variables for Determinants of Male Out-Migration from Jaunpur District for SC Group

Variables Name and Definition	No of Observations	Mean	Std. dev.	Min	Max
d_outmigrate:dummy (if outmigrated=1,if not outmigrated =0)	102	0.4509	0.5000	0	1
Head of Households					
d_Female®					
d_Male (If male=1,rest=0)	102	0.8921	0.3117	0	1
Religion					
d_Muslim®					
d_Hindu (if Hindu=1,Rest=0)	102	0.9706	0.1698	0	1
Household Size					
d_1-5®					
d_6-10 (if 6-10=1, Rest=0)	102	0.5588	0.4989	0	1
d_11 & above (11& above =1, Rest=0)	102	0.0882	0.2850	0	1
Male between 15-50	102	2.068	1.074	0	6
Educational attainment of Head of Households					
d_Literate ®					
d_Illiterate (if Illiterate=1, Rest=0)	102	0.3627	0.4831	0	1
Total Land Possessed (in hectares)	102	0.2514	0.4245	0	2.02
Total monthly income (with remittances)	102	10887.25	9136.99	1500	50000
Total monthly income (without remittances)	102	8215.69	8433.05	0	35000
d_Dummy Variables and ® Reference Category Notes: for dummy variable the means give the number of positive values , Std Dev Standard Deviation					

Source: Own Work

Appendix 3.3 Definition and Summary Statistics of used Variables for Determinants of Male Out-Migration from Jaunpur District for OBC Group

Variables Name and Definition	No. of Observations	Mean	Std. dev.	Min	Max
d_outmigrate: dummy (if outmigrated=1, if not outmigrated =0)	135	0.7629	0.4268	0	1
Head of Households					
d_Female®					
d_Male (If male=1,rest=0)	135	0.8444	0.3637	0	1
Religion					
d_Muslim®					
d_Hindu (if Hindu=1,Rest=0)	135	0.8296	0.3773	0	1
Household Size					
d_1-5®					
d_6-10 (if 6-10=1, Rest=0)	135	0.4222	0.4957	0	1
d_11 & above (if 11& above =1, & Rest=0)	135	0.2666	0.4438	0	1
Male between 15-50	135	2.3703	1.4748	0	8
Educational attainment of Head of Households					
d_Literate ®					
d_Illiterate (if Illiterate=1, Rest=0)	135	0.3111	0.4646	0	1
Total Land Possessed (in hectares)	135	03705	0.5625	0	3.02
Total monthly income (with remittances)	135	23914.81	25878.05	1500	100000
Total monthly income (without remittances)	135	16493.7	21111.37	1000	95
d_Dummy Variables and ® Reference Category Notes: for dummy variable the means give the number of positive values , Std Dev Standard Deviation					

Source: Own Work

Appendix 3.4 Definition and Summary statistics of used variables for determinants of male out-migration from Jaunpur district for Upward Caste Group

Variables Name and Definition	No of observations	Mean	Std. dev.	Min	Max
D_outmigrate: dummy(if outmigrated=1, if not outmigrated =0)	133	0.7368	0.4420	0	1
Head of Households					
d_Female®					
d_Male (If male=1,rest=0)	133	0.8120	0.3921	0	1
Religion					
d_Muslim®					
d_Hindu (if Hindu=1,Rest=0)	133	0.7969	0.4037	0	1
Household Size					
d_1-5®					
d_6-10 (if 6-10=1, Rest=0)	133	0.5714	0.4967	0	1
d_11 & above (11& above =1, Rest=0)	133	0.1503	0.3587	0	1
Male between 15-50	133	2.2406	1.0670	1	7
Educational attainment of Head of Households					
d_Literate ®					
d_Illiterate (if Illiterate=1, Rest=0)	133	0.0451	0.2083	0	1
Total Land Possessed (in hectares)	133	1.6275	1.4791	0	5
Total monthly income (with remittances)	133	46766.92	32156.9	1000	100000
Total monthly income (without remittances)	133	38759.4	29348.2	1000	100000
d_Dummy Variables and ® Reference Category Notes: for dummy variable the means give the number of positive values , Std Dev Standard Deviation					

Source: Own Work

Appendix 4 Definition and Descriptive Statistics of used Variables for NELM Approach

Variables Name & Definition	No of Observations	Mean	Std dev.	Min	Max
d_outmigrate: dummy (if outmigrated=1,if not outmigrated =0)	370	.6676	.4717	0	1
Primary source of income					
Others®					
Cultivation	370	.2702	.4447	0	1
Village					
Yonouspur®					
Chitko	370	.1027	.3039	0	1
Jarasi	370	.1756	.3810	0	1
Asbaranpur	370	.2567	.4374	0	1
Rampur Soiri	370	.1783	.3833	0	1
Manecha	370	.2000	.4005	0	1
Wealth score	370	-0.0000	2.6302	-3.583601	5.208136
Social Group					
SC®					
OBC	370	.3648	.4820	0	1
Upward caste	370	.3594	.4804	0	1
Income sufficiency					
No®					
Yes	370	.2757	.4475	0	1
Crop Insurance					
No®					
Yes	370	.0676	.2513	0	1
Source of credit					
Formal®					
Informal	370	.6676	.4717	0	1
Easy access to credit					
No®					
Yes	370	.4405	.4971		
Total monthly household income with remittances	370	28537.84	29148.88	1000	100000

Total monthly household income without remittances	370	22215.27	25578	0	100000
Total land possessed	370	.7895	1.1594	0	5
d_Dummy Variables and ® Reference Category Notes:for dummy variable the means give the number of positive values Std dev, Standard deviation					

Source: Own Work

Appendix 5 Principal components (Eigenvectors)

Component	Eigenvalue	Difference	Proportion
Comp1	6.87444	4.88006	0.3437
Comp 2	1.99438	0.572008	0.0997
Comp3	1.42237	0.131811	0.0711
Comp 4	1.29056	0.0867458	0.0645
Comp 5	1.20382	0.145513	0.0602
Comp 6	1.0583	0.237141	0.0529
Comp 7	0.821163	0.0409744	0.0411
Comp 8	0.780189	0.0952049	0.0390
Comp 9	0.684984	0.0508167	0.0342
Comp 10	0.634167	0.108226	0.0317
Comp 11	0.525941	0.0227485	0.0263
Comp 12	0.503193	0.0724937	0.0252
Comp 13	0.430699	0.0501002	0.0215
Comp 14	0.380599	0.0684449	0.0190
Comp 15	0.312154	0.0405025	0.0156
Comp 16	0.271651	0.00448953	0.0136
Comp 17	0.267162	0.0382618	0.0134
Comp 18	0.2289	0.0527725	0.0114
Comp 19	0.176127	0.369337	0.0088
Comp 20	0.139194	0.0	0.0070

Source: Own WorK

Appendix 6 Principal components (Eigenvectors)

Variable	Comp 1	Comp2	Comp3	Comp 4	Comp5	Comp6	Comp 7	Comp 8	Comp 9	Comp 10
Radio	0.3117	-0.1497	0.1667	-0.1046	0.0433	0.0225	-0.0065	-0.0558	0.1342	-0.0754
TV	0.2844	0.1504	0.0141	-0.3102	0.0278	-0.0527	-0.0948	-0.1349	0.0595	-0.2734
Mobile	0.1453	0.4493	0.1333	0.1153	-0.1214	0.1485	0.0159	-0.3066	0.2825	-0.2776
Refrigerator	0.1906	0.1966	-0.407	0.1109	-0.3738	0.0619	-0.0559	-0.1734	-0.1602	-0.3459
Bicycle	0.2405	0.1362	0.1032	-0.0724	0.3901	-0.2055	0.2317	-0.243	0.0245	0.2433
Car/Jeep	0.2967	-0.0259	-0.3258	0.1148	-0.0118	0.0814	-0.0233	-0.0304	-0.093	0.159
Motorcycle	0.3184	-0.0804	0.0431	0.0285	0.0587	-0.1157	0.2608	-0.2331	-0.1315	0.0628
Cooler/AC	0.3044	-0.1165	-0.2916	0.225	0.0499	0.0334	-0.0331	0.0271	-0.0244	0.0872
Tractor	0.2745	-0.1305	-0.2695	0.2931	-0.0007	-0.0293	-0.0661	0.0312	0.076	0.1799
Gas-stove	0.3018	0.0197	0.0817	-0.1398	-0.0354	-0.112	0.2358	-0.0072	-0.3286	-0.0401
Agri machinery	0.2287	-0.1276	0.0646	0.2945	-0.0859	-0.0925	-0.3292	0.2	0.3079	0.174
Electricity	0.0966	0.1709	0.4578	0.1516	-0.1637	0.3196	-0.4401	-0.2887	-0.3359	0.3206
Drinking water	0.08	0.334	0.212	0.2387	-0.3975	-0.1041	0.3541	0.2361	0.43	0.3248
Public sewage	0.041	-0.0605	-0.146	-0.2246	0.139	0.8125	0.3115	-0.0175	0.2305	0.1701
Toilet	0.249	-0.1278	0.1393	-0.1201	-0.0257	0.2355	-0.3389	0.3531	0.0705	-0.2115
LPG	0.2801	-0.0683	0.1909	-0.2106	0.07	-0.0891	-0.021	0.2459	0.1691	-0.2993
Livestock_Cow	-0.0017	0.0267	0.2447	0.5847	0.3308	0.2138	0.2915	0.2369	-0.3041	-0.3956
Livestock_Buffalo	-0.005	0.4233	-0.0881	-0.0099	0.5762	-0.0512	-0.2422	-0.029	0.1132	0.0599
Livestock_Goats	-0.0776	0.4939	-0.3097	-0.044	0.0932	0.0221	-0.1024	0.3307	-0.1119	0.0099
Pucca house	0.2051	0.2286	0.0791	-0.2683	-0.1275	0.0089	0.1016	0.4558	-0.3675	0.2851

Source: Own Work

Appendix 6 Principal components (Eigenvectors)

Variable	Comp 11	Comp 12	Comp13	Comp14	Comp 15	Comp 16	Comp 17	Comp 18	Comp 19	Comp20	Unexplained
Radio	0.0789	-0.1551	-0.0464	0.2261	0.4884	0.2017	-0.2953	0.4043	0.2793	-0.3478	0
TV	-0.0215	-0.0436	0.2439	-0.3547	-0.1956	0.5296	-0.205	-0.0173	-0.3759	0.0318	0
Mobile	-0.1469	0.0813	-0.6065	0.0594	-0.1859	-0.1298	-0.0785	0.0071	0.0272	-0.0109	0
Refrigerator	-0.1343	-0.0617	0.2558	-0.0209	0.3421	0.0166	0.389	-0.1486	0.2126	-0.0387	0
Bicycle	0.3398	0.2022	-0.1465	-0.179	0.2735	0.1049	0.2801	-0.3918	0.1141	-0.0119	0
Car/Jeep	0.1084	-0.2029	-0.0542	-0.2225	0.0948	-0.2471	-0.596	-0.176	0.1436	0.4094	0
Motorcycle	-0.1349	0.0348	0.041	0.1106	0.0936	-0.2082	0.2371	0.5145	-0.3743	0.4273	0
Cooler/AC	0.1105	-0.0899	-0.0788	0.1599	-0.0663	-0.1937	0.0123	-0.1685	-0.5522	-0.563	0
Tractor	0.1433	-0.0034	-0.089	0.2966	-0.4523	0.4863	0.1751	0.108	0.2824	0.1585	0
Gas-stove	-0.0613	0.3066	0.2075	-0.1488	-0.4344	-0.2398	-0.1026	0.1181	0.3659	-0.327	0
Agri machinery	-0.5355	0.3861	0.0475	-0.2933	0.1581	-0.0018	0.0258	-0.0109	0.0276	-0.02	0
Electricity	0.1044	0.0721	0.215	0.1737	0.0045	0.0338	-0.0386	-0.0885	-0.0615	0.0247	0
Drinking water	0.203	-0.1717	0.3276	-0.079	-0.0099	-0.0424	-0.009	0.0357	-0.0445	-0.0255	0
Public sewage	-0.1395	0.1199	0.1482	0.0034	-0.0177	0.0292	0.0759	-0.0257	0.0199	-0.0095	0
Toilet	0.448	-0.0892	-0.1495	-0.3188	-0.0542	-0.2341	0.3411	0.1657	0.0311	0.0857	0
LPG	-0.0555	0.1038	0.1933	0.5709	-0.0192	-0.1549	-0.0581	-0.4219	-0.0137	0.247	0
Livestock_Cow	-0.0125	-0.0563	0.0384	-0.0875	0.0536	0.1706	-0.067	-0.0432	-0.0197	0.0337	0
Livestock_Buffalo	-0.1514	-0.4438	0.2577	0.0629	-0.1276	-0.2017	0.1089	0.1357	0.1453	-0.0616	0
Livestock_Goats	0.2477	0.5318	0.0131	0.1661	0.1707	0.0524	-0.159	0.2595	-0.1111	0.0422	0
Pucca house	-0.3538	-0.2801	-0.3411	0.0165	0.0654	0.1757	0.1124	-0.0891	-0.0233	-0.0129	0

Source: Own Work

Appendix 7 Wealth score of Migrants and Non Migrants sample households of Jaunpur district across social groups according to their migration status

Wealth Score Quintiles	Observation (N)			Wealth Score Minimum			Wealth Score Maximum		
	SC	OBC	Upward Caste	SC	OBC	Upward Caste	SC	OBC	Upward Caste
M	46	103	98	-3.583601	-3.583601	-2.784518	2.292236	4.373752	5.208136
NM	56	32	35	-3.57357	-3.57357	-2.917145	2.625168	0.3799842	5.006103
Migrant Poorest	18	21	1	-3.83601	-3.83601	-2.784518	-2.554912	-2.335496	-2.784518
NM Poorest	21	13	1	-3.57357	-3.57357	-2.917145	-2.54756	-2.387291	-2.917145
M Poor	6	37	4	-2.116301	-2.318335	-1.938581	-1.736617	-1.736617	-1.736617
NM Poor	14	5	7	-2.098919	-2.175227	-2.10895	-1.803844	-1.860775	-1.712366
M Medium	14	18	2	-1.527135	-1.688463	-0.233406	-1.27305	-0.3026886	0.0360664
NM Medium	13	13	15	-1.492951	-1.510402	-1.439665	-0.2435058	0.002247	0.2649859
M Wealthy	8	17	37	0.3170333	0.4248936	0.386664	2.292236	2.404452	2.320157
NM Wealthy	7	1	3	0.4773024	0.3799842	1.825931	2.423204	0.379842	2.372433
M Wealthiest	0	10	54	0.0	2.452325	2.625168	0.0	4.373752	5.208136
NM Wealthiest	1	0	9	2.625168	0.0	3.048123	2.625168	0.0	5.006103

Source: Own Work.

Survey Questionnaire

Title of the Thesis - Nature and Determinants of Male Out-Migration from Rural Uttar Pradesh: A Study of Six Villages in Jaunpur District

The present research study aims to gain an understanding on migration particulars of rural male from eastern Uttar Pradesh. The aim is to investigate the nature and determinants of male out-migration from Jaunpur District in Uttar Pradesh. You are kindly requested to read each statement carefully and fill the questionnaire. It is assured that all the responses will exclusively be used for research work only and will be strictly kept confidential. Your honest response for completion of this task will be humbly solicited.

Part I. Identification of Sample Household of Out-Migrants in Jaunpur District

1	Name					Date-					
2	District (Origin)	**Jaunpur**									
3	Block (01-Dobhi, 02-Jalapur, 03-Shahganj/Sodhi)										
4	Village (11-Chitko, 12-Jarasi, 21-Asbaranpur, 22-Rampur Soiri, 31-Manecha, 32-Yunuspur										
5	Head of Household at Origin (Male-1, Female-2)										
6	Relationship with Head of the Household (1-Self-, 2-Spouse Head, 3-Child, 4-Grandchild, 5-Others.)										
7	Total No. Household Members (Household is defined as the number of members staying together in same house and having food from same kitchen)	Total	Children		School Going	Male (15-50 Years)	Female (15-50 Years)	Aged People (50 Years & above)	Out-Migrants		
			Girl	Boy					Male	Femal	
		Origin/ Native									
		Destination									
8	Religion (1-Hinduism, 2-Islam, 3-Sikhism, 4-Christianity, 5-Jainism										

	6-Others)	
9	Social Group (1-SC, 2-ST, 3-OBC, 4-Others)	
10	Whether any Male Member of Household migrated out in last one year or more? 1-Yes, 2-No	
11	If yes number of Male out-migrated	

		Total	Owned	Leased in*	Leased out*	Cultivable Land	Fallow Land	Irrigated Land Yes-1, No-2	If, irrigated, Mod of irrigation
12	Total Land Possessed at Origin (In Hectares)								

		No.	Sex M-1, F-2	Past Education	Currently Studying	Future Intentions of Study	Out Migrant (Yes-1, No-2)
13	Educational Status of Household Members (Age 15-50 years) 1-Illiterate, 2-Primary, 3-Matriculation, 4-Intermediate, 5-Graduate & 6.Above (Please specify Degree and Discipline).	1.Self (If not Head of Household)					
		2.Head of Household					
		3					
		4					
		5					
		6					

		Diversified Income Sources													
		S. No	M=1, F=2	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Primary	Secondary	Monthly Income of Household (in Rupees)	
14	Occupational Status of Household Members	1													
		2													
		3													
		4													
		5													
		6													

*Landlords that own large plots of farmable land often lease their plots to tenants. Landlords are leasing out and tenants are leasing in.

Code 12-Canal -1,Dug Well-3, Pumping Machine Self owned-3, Pumping Machine on Rent-4,Others-5.

Code 14,- Cultivtion-1, Livestock-2, Other Agricultural Activity-3, Non-Agricultural Enterprises, Shops etc.-4, Wage/Salaried Employment-5, Pension-6, Remiitances-7, Others-8.

Part II. Living Conditions of Households of Male Out-migrants in Origin (Rural Jaunpur)

1	Do you own a House? (Yes-1, No-2)						
2	If yes, Type of House (Katcha-1, Semi-Pucca-2, Pucca -3)						
3	Please mention Assets possessed by you Radio -1,Television-2,Telephone/Mobile-3,-,Refrigerator-4,Bicycle-5,Private car/jeep-6,Motorcycle -7, AC/Cooler-8,,Tractor-9,Gas Stove-10, Machinery-11.						
4	Housing Charachtersistcs (Electricity -1, drinking water-2,Connection to public sewage disposal networks-3, Toilets-4)						
5	Fuel Used in Cooking (LPG-1, Kerosene-2/Coal/Wood-3, Dried Cow dung cake-4)						
6	Livestock Assets (Cow-1, Buffalo-2, Goats-3, Others-4)						
7	Monthly Income of the Houshold (in Rupees)						
8	Monthly Household Expenditure (in Rupees)	Food	Education	Medical Expenses	Agri. Related	Marriage & Other ceremonies	Misc.

Part III. Personal Characteristics of Male Out-Migrants from Rural Jaunpur in Uttar Pradesh

		Serial. No Of Male Out-Migrants from each Household			
		1st Person	2nd Person	3rd Person	4th Person
1	Age in Years				
2	Marital Status (1-Married, 2-Unmarried)				
3	Relation of Male Out-Migrants with Head of Household (1-self, 2-spouse of head, 3-son, 4-Grandchild, 5-brother, 6-Others)				
4	Mode of Migration (1-With Family/Relatives, 2-Single)				
5	If Single, what is the reason behind leaving family members at home? (Top three Reasons in decreasing order)				
6	Type of Migration 1.Short term/Seasonal (Less than 6 Months)-2.Temporary (Less Than 12 months), 3.Longterm (1-3 years)4.Permanent –More than 3 years				
7	If Seasonal migrant, usually at what time of year you migrate and why?				
8	Current Place of work of Out-Migrant				
9	Current Occupation at Destination of Out-Migrants				
10	Whether engaged in any Economic activity? 1-Yes, 2-No				
11	Reasons for Migration				
12	Modes of Migration (1-With Family/Relatives, 2-Single)				
13	Working in village before Out-migrating? (1-Yes, 2-No)				
14	If Yes (1), Occupation in village? If No (2), were you studying?				
15	Does migrant wish to move back to your village? 1-Yes, 2-No				
16	Please mention reason in either case.				
17	Out-Migration by male members of Household is adopted as a result of (Ex-post-1) or to avoid below (ex-ante-2) mentioned Shocks/Risks: Types of Shocks				
18	Does out-migrant own any asset/property in Destination? Yes-1, No-2				
19	Where would Out-migrant like to invest? Destination -1 or Origin (Village) -2.				
20	Changes felt after Migration in Origin (Top 3 reasons in decreasing order)				

Code 11-Top three Reasons in decreasing order-**:** In Search of Employment –1, In Search of better Employment/Low Wages/Low Farm Income – 2, To take up Employmen – 3, Lack/Low of Non-farm Income/Employment opportunities–4, Better civic amenities (better infrastructure, schooling, health facilities etc.) –5, Access to credit facilitie /High Interest Rates-6 , Others -7.

Code 17-1.Agricultural Shocks (Crop failure, bad weather) 2. Shocks to livestock (Death or illness), 3. Shocks to other assets (Due to theft or fire), 4. Natural calamities sucl as famines, drought, flood, 5. Health shocks (Illness, injury and death of household members), 6. Residual shock category

Code 20- Increase in social status at Origin-1, Increase in Household Income-2, Increase in Assets-3, Increase in Expenditure-4, Increased Investment in Agriculture-5 Increase in Skills-6, No Change-7, Others-8.

Part IV. Role of Social Capital/Networks

	Role of Social Network in Facilitating Migration	1st Person	2nd Person	3rd Person	4th Person
1	Migrant got the Job through : 1.Family, 2.Friends/Relatives, 3.Liceneces/Unlicensed Recruiting Agencies, 4.Walk in Interview/Campus Placement/PPO, 5-Governement Agencies, 6-Others				
2	Paid any fees/payment for out-migrating? (Yes-1 or No-2)				
3	If Yes, what was the cost (Fees or Payments) in Rupees?				
4	How did Migrant finance Out-Migration? (1.Own Savings, 2.Selling/Renting Land or Livestock , 3.From Earnings from crop sales , 4. Loan obtained from a relatives/friends, 5.Expenses borne/met by Employer/Company)				
5	Role of Social Networks (Yes-1, No-2)				
	1. Provided information regarding Job				
	2. Funding of migration (Lending Money)				
	3. Housing Assistance (Arrangement of stay)				
	4. Assistance in finding first job				
	5. Documents related assistance				
	6. Encouragement for Migration				
	7. Act as entry Barrier (Caste/Region specific migration)				
6	What was you waiting period for getting a job? (In Months/Years/Days)				
7	Does migrant resides in proximity with people from same origin? (Yes-1, No-2)				

* Social Networks are set of inter-personal ties that connect migrants, former migrants and non migrants in origin and destination area through bonds of friendship, kinship, caste and shared community origin..

Part V. Remittances and It's Uses

1	Does Out-migrant send remittances? (Yes -1 or No-2)	1st Person	2nd Person	3rd Person	4th Person
2	If Yes no. of times Remittances sent (Monthly-1 or Yearly-2)				
3	Amount of Remittances in Rupees per month				
4	If ever remitted household received large amount on demand? Yes-1 no-2	If yes	Amount in Rupees	Reason	
5	Uses of Remittances by Household				
6	Mode of sending Remittances (1-Self, 2-Friends/Relatives, 3-Bank/, Money Order, and 4-Others.)				
7	How many times in a year does migrant visit village?				
8	Purpose of Village Visit (Mention top three reasons in decreasing order)				
9	How long does migrant stay at village? (Days/Months)				
10	Has migrant ever asked for money form household? Yes-1, No-2				
11	If Yes why and how many times?				

Code 5-Use of remittances: 1-For day to Day Household expense, 2-Education of Children, 3-To Repay Debts, 4-For improving housing conditions (major repairs, purchas of land and buildings, etc.), 5-Marriage/Dowry and other Ceremonies, 6-Expenditure/investment in farm activities (land improvement, input cost, machineries, farm Labou wage etc.), 7-Health care, 8-Depoist /saving in Bank, 9-Others.

Code 8-Purpose of Village visit-1-Supervising the Land/ In peak seasons to work in farmland, 2.To meet the family Members, 3-Festivals, ceremonies and illness, 4-others.

Part VI. Access to Credit

1. Is household income sufficient to meet daily expenses and basic needs? Yes-1, no-2		
2.If no, does household have easy access to credit? Yes-1, no-2		
3.Why your households need Credit/Loan? (1.Daily Expenses, 2-Education, 3-Marriage and Other Ceremonies, 4-Health Issues, 5-Out-Migration, 6. Others (Loan Repayment etc)		
4.What does household prefer most: Formal (1) or Informal borrowing (2) .		
5.Housheold usually get credit from: Formal (1) or Informal (2) sources		
6.Types of Credit Agencies		
1.Institutional/Formal (11-Cooperative Societies, 12-Commercial Banks, 13-Others)		
2.Informal/Non-Institutional (21-Landlord,22-Agricultural Moneylender,23-Professional Moneylenders, 24-Traders, 25-Relatives & Friends)		
7.Did informal credit or loan require any kind of collateral? 1. Yes, 2.No		
8.If Yes, which form of collateral? (1.Land, 2.Future harvest, 3.House , 4-Livestock, 5-Jwellery, 6.Guarantee from group lenders, 7.Other, please specify)		
9.What are the major problems faced by household in getting access to borrowings/credit?	Formal	Informal
10.Does household have crop/agricultural Insurance? Yes-1, No-2		
11. If not why and what are the problems faced because of lack of crop/Agricultural insurance?		

Part VII Living Conditions of Male Out-migrants from Uttar Pradesh in Destination (For Migrants only at Destinations)

1	Migrants Monthly Consumption Expenditure (in Rupees)	Food	Lodging	Medical Expenses	Education	Misc.	
2	Amount of Wages/Salary in Rs per month						
3	Type of Dwelling unit						
4	Place of residence						
5	No of Persons (migrant workers) sharing the same room.						
6	Actual Living area in square meters						
7	Please mention assets possessed by you at Destination						
8	Housing Charachtersistcs (Electricity -1, Drinking water-2,Connection to public sewage disposal networks-3, Shared/Paid public sanitation facilites -4)						
9	Fuel Used in Cooking (LPG-1, Gas Pipeline-2, Kerosene/Coal/Wood-3, Cow Dung cake-4)						
10	Kitchen Conditions (No Kitchen-1, Private Kitchen-2, Shared Kitchen-3)						

Code 3. Type of Dwelling unit: Dormitory-1, Construction Site-2, Shared House-3, Rented House independently-4, Self owned House-5, In the street-6.
Code 4. Place of residence :City-1, Suburban area-2, Coutnry side-3.
Code-7: Please mention assets possessed by you.Radio -1,Television-2,Telephone/Mobile-3,-,Refrigerator-4**,**Bicycle-5,Private car-6,Motorcycle -7, AC/Cooler-8,Flat/Own house-9.

Remarks for Investigator

Synopsis of the Doctoral Research

Nature and Determinants of Male Out-Migration from Rural Uttar Pradesh: A Study of Six Villages in Jaunpur District

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SEPTEMBER 2017

Nature and Determinants of Male Out-Migration from Rural Uttar Pradesh: A Study of Six Villages in Jaunpur District

A Synopsis Submitted to the University of Hyderabad Prior to the Submission of Doctoral Thesis

Introduction

Rural households are no longer confined and limited to agriculture for their livelihood. Migration has evolved into a livelihood strategy commonly adopted by rural households in recent times. Uttar Pradesh (UP) is among leading states, with very high male out-migration rate in India. However, migration from UP is not a recent phenomenon and has been taking place since the time of the indentured labour system[1]. Literature shows that UP and Bihar were the states with highest number of indentured labour in British colonies. Although, female are more migratory in nature than male, women mostly migrate for marriage-related reasons while the migration of men is driven by economic motives. Migration has become popular area of research in the recent era, but as it is a costly affair and due to the lack of proper documentation and data on migrants, especially on informal and unorganized workers, research on migration often gets restricted. Male migration, from state of UP has evolved in various phases. In the first phase during British Raj, male migrated as indentured labors and migration from UP was international in nature. During the second phase, migration in state took place from the poorer areas to rich agriculturally developed areas and this became the most prominent form of internal migration. Movement from villages to cities characterizes the third phase of migration from UP and this trend has increased remarkably in the last two decades.

The word migration is derived from the Latin word "migrane" which means to change one's residence. Migration is a physical or spatial mobility between one geographical unit and another, generally involving a change in residence from the place of origin or place of departure to place of destination or place of arrival (Bhagat, 2006). A migrant, according to National Sample Survey Office (NSSO), is

[1] Indentured labour were recruited to work on sugar, cotton and tea plantations, and rail construction projects in British colonies in West Indies, Africa and South East Asia .

a person whose place of enumeration is different from his/ her last usual place of residence (UPR). The Census of India identifies two types migration –Migration by birth place and Migration by place of last residence. When enumeration of a person in the census is done at a place, i.e., village or town, different from her/his place of birth, she/he would be considered a migrant by place of birth. A person would be considered a migrant by place of last residence, if she/he had last resided at a place other than her/his place of enumeration. On a broad level there are two types of migration - internal migration or migration within the country and international migration, which refers to the movement of people from one country to another. Internal migration can be of four types i.e. rural to rural, rural to urban, urban to rural and urban to urban. The definition of out-migrants[2] in the present study is based on definition of out-migrants in the NSSO (64th Round).

Migration from the poor Indian state of UP has almost doubled over last two decades, taking place mainly to the big metro cities and not to the agriculturally developed and prosperous states of India (Geography, WDR, 2009). Without any substantial improvement, the agriculture sector of UP is unable to sustain the needs of the growing population in the rural areas (Khan, 2010). Though, a few studies have been undertaken on migration-related issues in UP, a lot still needs to be done. The study aims to understand the nature and determinants of male out-migration from rural UP. The study also makes an attempt to analyze whether migration in rural UP is a survival, risk/income diversification or accumulation strategy. Literature shows that social groups or castes play very important role in UP (Narayan and Singh, 2016; Srivastava, 1999; Lerche, 1999). Through the ages, the powerful and affluent landlord class comprising people from upper castes has dominated in UP. Their ex-tenants who now constitute most of the landowning peasants are from the middle-ranking castes, while the rural and agricultural laborers are primarily from the so-called untouchable, downtrodden and low castes (Lerche, 1999). Given the above background, this study attempts to analyze the role of the caste factor as well in migration. An attempt has been made to analyze the nature and determinants of male out-migration from rural UP across various social groups.

[2] Any former member of a household who left the household, any time in the past, for stay outside the village/ town was considered as out-migrant provided he/ she was alive on the date of survey.

Very few studies have been undertaken on migration and related issues in UP (Ali 2013; Alam and Alam 2013;Khan 2010; Narayan and Singh, 2016;World Bank, 2010;Singh and Sharma, 1984). Migration is a very multi-faceted and diverse phenomenon. The underlying causes for migration at a particular place and time may not be true for another place at the same time. In developing countries like India, the role of migration has been more extensively studied than elsewhere and its role in increasing household income and well-being is well accepted. There are various reasons for male out-migration from rural areas in developing countries, such as poverty, unemployment, low agricultural productivity, crop failure, landlessness, poor education, medical care and lack of credit facilities along with high land man ratio on the one hand and improved livelihood and employment opportunities, better civic amenities, wage differentials and beckoning of the bright city lights in the urban areas on the other hand. Along with the above-mentioned factors, caste also plays very curial role in migration in the rural settings of India and the villages of UP are no exception. Therefore, an attempt has been made to analyze the nature and determinants of male out-migration form rural UP across various social groups as well.

Various theoretical approaches on migration and related issues have been disentangled over time across various disciplines to gain better understanding of the various underlying causes of migration. Though as mentioned above, migration is too diverse and multi-faceted phenomenon to be explained by any single theory, the theoretical underpinning of the study is based on New Economics of Labour Migration (NELM) approach put forward by Oded Stark in 1985, An attempt has been made to understand whether migration is risk and income diversification strategy for rural households (NELM) in UP. However, there is dearth of literature analyzing migration in UP from the NELM perspective.

Literature shows that there are disintegrated set of theories on migration and no general theory of the phenomenon. The literature on migration and related issues is divided in two broad categories viz., Initiation theories of migration and Perpetuation theories of migration. In the Initiation theories, a range of models and theories has been proposed to explain why migration occurs. The main aim of the initiation theories is to analyze the underlying reasons for the movement of people from one place to another. Perpetuation theories are those, which explain the duration of migration instead of the causes of migration. This set of theories makes

an attempt to analyze the underlying reasons behind what drives and perpetuates migration once it is initiated. The Push and pull theory of Ravenstien (1876) and Lee (1966) argues that migration is economic in nature and talks about laws of migration. The neo-classical approach on migration is divided in two categories in existing literature i.e. macro and micro. The macro approach of Lewis (1954), Ranis-Fei (1961), and Harris-Todaro (1970), perceives migration as being caused by the wage differentials between countries and the individual as the decision maker. The micro approach considers migration as investment in human capital. The major contribution of this approach is that it explains why the likelihood of migration decreases with age and why individuals with higher education often have higher migration rates. Historical structuralists assume that political and social norms also play a very important role in migration.

Unlike the neo-classical theory which assumes that individuals have a free choice about whether to migrate or not, the historical-structuralists approach perceives that individuals do not have freedom of choice about whether or not to move, and that the decision to migrate is always constrained by structural factors and forced upon them.

Migration is result of disruptions and dislocations that are intrinsic to capitalist accumulation. According to Lipton (1980), migration patterns depend on socio-economic status and affiliations. There are two types of migration- one by poor which exhibits satisficing rather than optimizing behavior and the second type of migration is driven by better civic and income opportunities and show optimizing behavior. This approach only highlighted the negative aspects of migration whereas, various studies show that migration is beneficial for the sending households. This approach has totally ignored the positive role of migration via remittances and socio-cultural and skill transfers. The dual labour market theory (Piore, 1979) explains migration from the demand side. It explains why there is a persistent demand for foreign labors in an advanced economy. This approach assumes that all migration is demand stimulated and totally overlooks the supply or push factors related to migration.

New economics of labour migration (Stark and Bloom, 1985) have shifted the focus of migration research from individual independence to mutual interdependence. The main argument of this approach is that the individual does not make migration decisions alone; instead migration decisions are made by households

as a whole. Migration is perceived as risk, insurance and income diversification strategy by the poor household (Ellis,2003; Lindstrom et.al.,(2012; Ghobadiet.al.,2005; Deshingkar and Start,2003;Katz and Stark, 1986). Migration decisions are not result of the individual profit maximization motive alone ,and are an outcome of imperfections and market failure in developing countries. Migration is the reaction of households to income risks and the market failures of various kinds in developing economies such as the labour market, credit market, or insurance market.

The above-mentioned approaches are part of the initiation theories of migration. The Perpetuation theory of migration does not emphasize the determinants, which initiate migration; rather it focuses on what perpetuates migration once it is initiated (Massey et al.1993). The Social network theory highlights the prominent role of social networks and job referrals in facilitating migration. The central idea of the Migration system theory (Mabogunje, 1970) is that migration alters social, cultural, economic, and institutional conditions at both the receiving as well as the sending areas. The Institutional theory is based on the assumption that as soon as the migration process is initiated, a number of private and social organizations become active. The aim of these organizations is to meet and satisfy the demand created by the imbalance between prospective migrants who wish to migrate to developed countries and a the limited number of immigration visas offered by these countries (Iglicka-Okolska, 1998). A third strand of perpetuation theories is the Cumulative causation theory. The proponent of this approach is Gunnar Myrdal (1975). The central underlying assumption of this approach is that migration is self-sustaining and self-perpetuating phenomenon. It highlights the backwash effects that occur through uneven development in underdeveloped areas in developing economies.

Various approaches and theories discussed in the current research highlight the diverse factors responsible for human mobility. The expected wage differential model is still very relevant and scholars are studying migration based on proposition of this model. However, migration in developing countries is not merely the result of expected rural urban wage differentials, but often occurs because of prevailing imperfections in capital and insurance markets. The Historical approach perceives migration, as forced and as a negative outcome of capitalism but this not true always in real life. These approaches also assume that migrants have perfect knowledge of

the costs and benefits of migration. However, in the rural areas of developing countries, capital and insurance markets are far from perfect.

Remittances flow that take place via migration, play a very important role in the migrant-sending household and areas, which have been completely ignored by various theoretical underpinnings on migration. The positive role of migration via remittances in the well being of household is considered by the NELM approach. In the rural households of UP, remittances might play a very crucial role in diversifying income and risks associated with agriculture. One of the other reasons why the current study chose the NELM approach is that migration does not take place in absence of socio-cultural factors. The relative deprivation and role of households have been totally ignored by all prevailing approaches except NELM. The decision to migrate is not made by the individual; rather is made by household as whole. Various other mentioned approaches perceive migration as individual profit maximization behavior, but in reality migration is most often adopted strategy by rural household to diversify household's income. Migration is a strategy to overcome risks associated with agriculture and various market imperfections such as crop failure, unemployment, credit market imperfections etc., in rural areas of developing economies.

The above-mentioned factors play a very important role in migration decision-making by rural household along with income differentials. NELM, therefore, somehow challenges some of the propositions of the neo-classical approach, offering new dimensions and nature of migration determinants and shifting the emphasis of migration decisions from individual independence to mutual interdependence. The NELM approach, therefore, has been chosen as theoretical background for the current research as it offers a different unit of analysis and a richer set of explanations of the underlying causes of migration decisions. Unlike the push-pull, neo-classical and various other approaches, NELM perceives that migration decisions are made based on various other set of factors not only profit maximization.

Despite the fact that UP is among leading states of male out-migration, literature is very scarce on migration from UP. Most of the existing studies either focus on place of origin or destination. There is also dearth of literature considering both, place of origin and destination for the same. In spite of the important role-played by migrants from UP in sending and receiving areas, its significance has

rarely been acknowledged in literature. The growing importance of migration in the rural area of UP demands a greater attention than it currently receives. The current study therefore, tries to fill the void. The study makes an attempt to study migrant households at place of origin, track male out-migrants from same households at their respective destination and analyze their socio-economic status at destination. There is no literature analyzing whether migration is a survival, risk diversification or accumulation strategy for rural households in UP. Attempts made to understand the role of caste affiliations in the migration decision in UP have also been inadequate. The present study makes an attempt to analyze the nature and determinants of migration across various social groups in rural UP.

As discussed above, UP is among the states with very high male out-migration, and this is the reason why the state of UP was chosen for the study. While doing preliminary analysis of NSSO data, it was found that share of rural out-migrants is very high in comparison to urban out-migrants and accordingly, this study is focused on rural out-migrants in UP. The major factors driving female migration are marriage related and in the case of males, it is economic reasons, and therefore only male out-migrants have been taken into consideration for the study. As, it was also found that male out-migration is highest from the Eastern region of UP, the study is focused on Eastern region. Azamgarh is the district that leads with highest number of rural male out-migrants followed by Jaunpur. Data collection in Azamgarh posed challenges for several personal, social and political reasons, and so this research study is based on Jaunpur. Moreover, the percentage difference in total male out-migrants from Azamgarh and Jaunpur is merely one percent.

Objectives of the Study

The study has two major objectives, which are as follows:

i) To analyze nature and determinants of male out migration from six villages of rural UP across various social groups.

ii) To assess whether or not male out-migration is risk and income diversification strategy for rural households in UP.

Objective II has three sub-objectives and sought to examine the following:

i) Is it true that the wider the income inequality, the higher the propensity to migrate i.e. is the Gini Coefficient positively related to migration?

ii) Do credit constraints i.e. capital market imperfections play any role in migration decisions?

iii) Is migration beneficial to migrant households?

The study is primarily based on field survey in six villages selected by simple random sampling namely, Chitkon, Jarasi, Rampur Soiri, Asbaranpur, Yonouspur and Manecha from randomly selected three blocks namely, Dhobi, Shahgnaj/Sodhi and Jalapur of Jaunpur district. A total of 370 households or fifteen percent of the total number of households in each village were randomly selected for the study. Seventy-five migrants from the same household at their respective destinations have been tracked and surveyed. In order to analyze whether migration is a risk and income diversification strategy (NELM approach), the study makes and attempt to understand migrant's perspectives and experiences as well. Migrants with three major occupations i.e. taxi driving, construction workers and high skilled workers have been surveyed at their respective destinations. Although, the study is primarily based on field data, various secondary sources of data such as NSSO data, District Census Handbook of Jaunpur, etc. have been used as well. In order to collect primary data, a well-designed and pre-tested questionnaire was used. The field survey was conducted during April 2016-July 2016. For empirical analysis, the study uses tools such as logistic regression model, principal component analysis and Gini coefficient.

The thesis is organized into seven chapters. The first chapter presents the problem along with an overview of migration in India, theoretical foundations of migration, a short review of other migration related studies, context and justification of the study, research gap and the contribution of the study and its objectives and hypothesis of study. Chapter two focuses on the research methodology and database. It highlights the rationale behind the selection of the study area, sampling design, tools of data collection and the methodology adopted for empirical analysis. Chapter three provides insights from NSSO (64^{th} Round) data on the context and drivers of male out-migration from rural UP. It also presents a historical overview of male migration from UP. Chapter four analyzes the nature and determinants of male out-migration by analyzing field data of six sample villages. Chapter five makes an attempt to analyze the NELM approach i.e., whether male migration from rural UP is risk/income diversification or accumulation or survival strategy. Chapter six deals with the migration and related phenomena from the migrant's perspective at their respective destination taking the NELM approach into consideration. Chapter seven is summary and conclusion of the study.

Using a case study approach, involving a survey of a strategically selected and representative sample of 370 households from six randomly selected villages and 75 migrants belonging to district with highest number of male out-migration i.e. Jaunpur in Eastern UP, the study seeks to highlight and contextualize the relationships that have been less investigated.

The context and drivers of male out-migration at state level have been analyzed from secondary data (NSSO), before shifting the focus to district-level findings from primary data. It was found that rural UP accounts for the major share of male out-migration. The rate of male out-migration is highest in 'others' followed by 'self-employed in agriculture' household type. Another interesting finding of the secondary data analysis is that 70 percent of male out-migrants migrate to other state whereas for India as whole, most of the out-migration is within the same district. Eastern UP accounts for 61 percent of male migrants from rural UP and in the top fifteen districts with the highest number of male out-migrants, 11 districts are from Eastern UP. The major destinations for male out-migrants from UP are Mumbai and Delhi. The key reasons for male out-migration were economic in nature. Although, UP is primarily an agricultural economy, secondary data analysis reveals that majority of the households in rural UP possessed less than two hectares of land. Rapid growth of population has led to low per capita land and consequently less motivations to invest in agriculture. These factors along with lack of non-farm jobs has led male exodus from UP.

To meet the first objective of the thesis and to obtain a better understanding of nature and patterns of rural male out-migration, 370 households were surveyed. The major findings are as follows: the major destination for migrant workers is Mumbai followed by Varanasi. Majority of migrants are engaged in the occupation of taxi driving, which is followed by jobs in dairy units and the construction sector. The rate of male out-migration is the highest in Other Backward Castes (OBC) households and lowest in Schedule Caste (SC) households. It was found that the majority of male out-migrants from SC households are in low paid jobs, OBC migrants are in the transport sector i.e., as auto or taxi drivers or are engaged in dairy units, whereas most of the migrants from Upper caste are in high-skilled white collar occupations such as bank services, government jobs and software jobs etc. Another finding is that household size is positively related to migration. The land possessed by SC households is very limited, while OBCs are comparatively better off.

The Upper caste migrant households are far better off in terms of land endowment compared to the other two groups. As far as monthly income is concerned, migration decisions undertaken is the least in the poorest class and is high in upper middle and high-income households, as the poorest section cannot afford migration. Migration by the rich is also prevalent in rural UP. Village-wise analysis shows that Asbaranpur and Rampur Soiri are comparatively better off in terms of land endowment, income level and educational status in comparison with other villages. Manecha and Yonouspur are the villages with poor land and educational endowment followed by low average monthly income. In the empirical analysis, land possessed, total monthly income, religion, social group OBC, educational attainment of the head of household are highly significant. The analysis has been done social group wise as well and the significance levels for covariates effects varies with social affiliation.

Another major objective of the study was to analyze whether male out-migration is a risk and income diversification strategy or not for rural households in UP. The goal was to analyze whether this holds true for rural households in UP and whether it is accumulation strategy or merely distress induced. The empirical analysis revealed that income inequality is positively related to migration i.e., the Gini Co-efficient is positively related to migration for social groups. One of the sub-objectives of the second objective was to analyze the relationship between migration and income inequality. Income inequality is the highest in the OBC households and rate of out-migration is also highest in same group indicating that the male out-migration level is the highest in the OBC group. There is huge difference in monthly income with and without remittances in all-social groups and the difference is highest in the OBC group.

To analyze the second sub-objectives of the second objective i.e., whether credit constrains play any role in the migration decision, an empirical analysis was done and it was found that for rural households in UP, accessibility to credit is a very significant factor in taking migration decisions. Results show that remittances reduce liquidity constraints for OBC households and are an accumulative strategy for Upper caste migrants. Social network play a facilitating role in male out-migration in rural UP. Wealth score, social group-OBC, crop insurance, accessibility to credit and monthly income with and without remittances are highly significant factors in determining migration decisions in the rural households of UP.

Comparative descriptive analyses of migrant and non-migrant households from various backgrounds have been done followed by empirical analysis of the same to analyze the third sub-objective-whether migration is beneficial to migrant households or not. The descriptive analysis found that migrant households are better off than non-migrants in terms of various indicators such as land endowment, income level and educational attainment etc. Wealth score quintiles analysis showed that migrant households are in better position than non-migrants and that migration is most beneficial for OBC households.

Although, the major focus of this study was to understand migration at origin, linkage with destination was also made. Male migrants from the same households of villages of Jaunpur were tracked and interviewed at their respective destinations across three major occupations i.e., construction workers, taxi/auto drivers and high skilled workers. The aim of the analysis at destination was to link origin and destination and to understand NELM from migrants' perspectives and experiences. It was found that occupation and caste affiliation are strongly linked and attempts have been made to analyze migration as a risk and income diversification strategy considering occupational analysis at the various destinations of the migrants. Occupational analysis along with social group analysis supported and substantiated the findings from origin.

The major findings of study at destination are as follows: occupation-wise analysis shows that majority of the casual low paid workers are from SC households and have comparatively lower levels of income, land ownership and educational attainment. Migrants who are engaged in taxi/auto driving occupations are from OBC households. Occupational and social group analysis at the destination shows that OBC migrants are comparatively better off than migrants from SC households and causal wage laborers. High-skilled workers are mostly from the Upper caste and are better off in terms of income, education and land possessed than the other two groups. Another finding of the study on migrant workers at their respective destination is that there are huge differences in monthly income across occupations and social groups. Upper caste and high skilled workers come from financially strong background followed by OBC and taxi drivers and SC and casual workers. The findings of study at the destination substantiate the findings from the place of origin and are in line with the major findings of the study done at origin across six villages and social groups.

The work started with proposition that migration is a risk and income diversification strategy (NELM approach) by rural households in UP. The study found linkages between migration as a risk diversification and social affiliation although, the relationship is not same for all groups and villages. In alignment with the major objectives of this research work, objectives have been analyzed with a view to generate holistic insights of migration as a risk diversification strategy and to analyze the same based on the social affiliation of the migrant households. Although, migration is beneficial to the majority of the households in rural UP, as it reduces liquidity and credit constraints via remittances, it is not the final and only solution for accelerating growth and overcoming poverty and stagnation in the rural economy of UP. The male exodus has, on the one hand led to shortage of workforce and increase in the work burden of women at the place of origin. On the other hand, it has pushed male migrants to the informal market and poor living conditions at the destination.

Therefore, rural male out-migration is not the most appropriate and only strategy to ameliorate the conditions and underdevelopment of rural areas. There is a dire need to create and promote non-farm job opportunities to meet the employment demand of the huge population of rural UP. The Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (MNREGA) can be instrumental in curbing migration to some extent and can be considered as a solution and substitute for the male exodus from rural households. Although, the major aim of the MNREGA scheme is to enhance livelihood security of rural poor by guaranteeing them with hundred days of employment but this objective was rarely met in the villages of UP. Lack of proper implementation and heavy corruption has worsened the condition of poor households of rural UP, leaving them with sole option of out migration to the big cities Therefore, there is the need to implement and promote the above mentioned schemes and informed suggestions effectively to reduce distress-induced migration and to diversify resources to overcome the lack of non-farm employment opportunities in rural UP.

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