URBANISATION AND MIGRATION IN NAGALAND: AN ECONOMIC PERSPECTIVE

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By

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DECLARATION

I, Mr. Hulin, bearing Ph. D. registration No. 650/2015, hereby declare that the subject matter of the thesis "**Urbanisation and Migration in Nagaland: An Economic Perspective"** is the record of work done by me, and that the contents of this thesis did not form basis of the award of any previous degree to me, or to the best of my knowledge to anybody else, and that the thesis has not been submitted by me for any degree in any University/Institute.

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CERTIFICATE

The thesis entitled "**Migration and Urbanisation in Nagaland: An Economic Perspective**" submitted by Mr. Hulin, Research Scholar, Department of Economics, Nagaland University, Hqrs; Lumami embodies the investigation carried out by him under my supervision and that is an original and authentic work thesis.

The thesis is fit for submission for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Economics.

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ACRONYMS

AM	Arithmetic Mean
B.Sc	Bachelor of Science
BA	Bachelor of Arts
CAGR	Compound Annual Growth Rate
DHDR	District Human Development Report
DMC	Dimapur Municipal Corporation
GC	Gini Coefficient
GOI	Government of India
HDI	Human Development Report
ILP	Inner Line Permit
KMC	Kohima Municipal Council
M.Sc	Master of Science
MA	Master of Arts
NE	North Eastern
NER	North Eastern Region
NSHDR	Nagaland State Human Development Report
NSSO	National Sample Survey Organisation
OLS	Ordinary Least Square
PG	Post Graduate
Ph. D.	Doctor of Philosophy
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UTs	Union Territories

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1. INTRODUCTION

The process of urbanization and migration, though studied independently, are tacitly recognized to be linked. Urbanization is essentially a socio-economic process by which urban centres emerge and grow, while urbanism is the condition of life or living condition that results from this process. The main components of urbanisation are the shift of an ever increasing labour force from agriculture to the non-agricultural sector, and a change in population distribution from scattered rural areas to more compact towns or cities, often followed by a change of lifestyle. Urbanisation is a process of migration from rural to cities, changing from agriculture to other pursuits common to cities and towns[1]. It refers to the transformation of the society including some drastic geographical, economical and social changes. It also represents the shift of population from rural areas to towns and cities, an increase in the proportion of population engaged in secondary and tertiary sectors of the economy and a corresponding change in the behavioural pattern[2].

Migration is a basis of social process and assumes special significance in the context of developing societies[3]. This gave a perception that, migration is a vehicle for social and economic development. Migration specifically, rural-urban migration proved to be a desirable process whereby absorbing the surplus labour from the agricultural sector into the non-farm sector in urban areas[4] relieved off the rural unemployment problems. Moreover, it serves as a 'safety valve' for poor areas[5]. This contributes to social and economic development thereby, increasing the living standard of the people. Economists and development experts were of the view that

[1] Bruce, G. (1969). Urbanisation in Newly Developing Countries, Printic Hall of India, New Delhi.pp-10

[2] Singh, R. B. (1993). Process of Urbanisation in the Third World. Rawat Publication, New Delhi.

[3] Ravindran, A. (2007). Economic Impact of Urban Migration in Pudukottai District- A Micro Level Study. An Unpublished Ph. D. Thesis submitted to the Bharathidasan University, Tiruchirapalli.

[4] Phakathong, P. (1995). Rural-Urban Migration and Social Problems: A Study of Social Problems Tracing the Influence of Migration in Thailand's Metropolis. An unpublished Ph. D. Thesis submitted to the Marathwada University, Aurangabad.

[5] Srivastava, R. and S.K. Sasikumar (2003). An Overview of Migration in India; Its Impact and Key Issues. Paper presented at the Regional Conference on Migration, Development and Pro-Poor Policy Choices in Asia, Dhaka (Bangladesh), June 21-24. website: www.livelihoods.org

migration is essential and desirable phenomenon for development. But the undesirable thing about migration is the distressed migration that often leads to over-crowding of cities and becomes the breeding ground for numerous urban socio-economic problems in the cities.

It is also believed that migration have contributed to the decline in living standard of the people in urban areas especially among the weaker sections of the society. This also attributed to those migrants who do not generally committed to cities and maintained strong links by leaving their family in the place of origin. Because of this close linked with families in the place of origin, they maintained minimum standard of living while in the city and spare their earnings for their families at home.

Migration is an important determinant of urban population growth besides natural growth and re-classification of urban areas in India. Though the pace of migration was slow during the midst of the 20th century due to static customs and traditions, but due to drastic transformation of Indian economy, improvement in transportation and communication, education and tertiary activities, migration accelerated in recent time[6] especially from rural to urban areas in India.

On the other hand, urbanisation is taking place at rapidly increasing pace especially in developing countries like India. So also the complexities of urban problems are mounting up in all major cities. A major challenge for mankind in the present society will includes not only dealing this unprecedented urban growth intelligently but also have to streamline for proper management of the migrants in the cities[7].

It is well known that regional disparities triggers rural-urban migration in India. Generally people migrate from less developed rural countryside to more developed urban centres (Bhattacharya, 1993[8]; de Haan, 1997[9]). The impact of such migration can be accessed in terms of social, economic, welfare, etc. which affects

[6] Singh, V. K. et al, (2011). Changing Pattern of Internal Migration in India: Some Evidence from Census data. International Journal of Current Research, Vol. 3, pp 289. Accessed on 20/09/2018 web: http://www.journalcra.com

[7] Hansraj, N. (2008). Migration to Urban Punjab: A Case Study of Ludhiana Metropolis. (An Unpublished Ph. D. Thesis). Jawaharlal Nehru University, New Delhi, pp.183

[8] Bhattacharya, P. C., (1993). Rural-Urban Migration in Economic Development. *Journal of Economic Surveys*, 7(3), pp: 243–281.

[9] de Haan, A. (1997). Rural-Urban Migration and Poverty: The Case of India. *IDS Bulletin*, Vol. 28, No 2, pp: 35-47.

both the place of origin as well as destination areas[10]. One such impact is remittances send by the migrants from cities to their villages. This has the capacity to raise consumption expenditure and curtail economic inequality in the areas of origin (Rempel and Lobdell, 1978; Rozelle et al, 1999)[11]. At the same time, shifting of surplus farm labourers to the non-farm activities in urban areas raises the productivity of the farm land thereby ensures efficiency in the agriculture sector. On the other hand, skill migrants can contribute to faster growth of the urban economy through their active participation in secondary and tertiary sectors[12]. But there are also numerous retarding effects of migration from developmental perspective in both the place of origin and destination. The issue of integration of the incoming migrants in the urban labour market, social and cultural integration, etc. posed serious problems to the urban community.

The pattern of migration in Nagaland shows that rural stagnation such as lack of educational facilities, social opportunities and lack of employment opportunities were the main cause of migration to urban areas. Urban centres, on the other hand, witnessed continue population growth in recent decades due to migration from neighbouring villages. This is evident from the changes in the proportion of urban and rural population. Subsequently, urban centres are facing complexities to accommodate expanding population in main towns like Dimapur and Kohima[13]. Growing complexities in urban areas are evident from the increasing demand for physical infrastructure such as power, road and transport, energy, housing, water, etc.

[10] Chakraborty, C. (2014). Migration and Urban Informal Sector: A Study in West Bengal. (An un-published Ph. D. Thesis). University of Burdwan, Burdwan

[11] Rempel, H. and R.A. Lobdell (1978): The Role of Urban-To-Rural Remittances In Rural Development. Journal of Development Studies. Vol. 14 pp. 324-341.
Rozelle, Scott et al. (1999). Migration, Remittances, and Agricultural Productivity in China. American Economic Review. Vol. 89(2), pp. 287-291.

[12] Fang, C. and W. Dewen (2008). Impacts of Internal Migration on Economic Growth and Urban Development in China. In Migration and Development Within and Across Borders: Research and Policy Perspectives on Internal and International Migration. International Organization for Migration (IOM) and Social Science Research Council (SSRC), pp. 245-272.

[13] GoN-UNDP (2009). Rural Urban Migration: Strengthening of State Plans for Human Development. A Thematic Report of GoI-UNDP Project. Department of Planning and Coordination. Kohima.

1.2. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

1.2.1 Theoretical Approach to the Study of Migration

Growth of urban population, increasing participation of labour force in non-farm sector, immigration has led to over-burdening on the carrying capacity of the cities and towns in a country like India. This has resulted into decline in the quality of life in urban areas. Migration is considered to be a major contributor to the decline in the quality of life in urban areas and urban labour market[14]. This requires proper inquiry into the nature of the problem caused by migration, which also encouraged studies for migration. In the following section of this chapter, different approaches to the study of migration are explained and presented.

Migration decisions are made either on individual level or on the family level. Earlier studies were mostly concerned with individual migration decisions (Ravenstein, 1889; Lee, 1966; Harris and Todaro, 1970; Crawford, 1973; Byerlee, 1974; Cole and Sanders, 1985)[15]. On the other hand, more recent studies have shifted their focus on the family migration decision which is relatively a newer concept (Sandell, 1977; Mincer, 1978; Bartel, 1979). Family migration decision involved three stages[16]. It includes the decision to move away from the current place of residence in the first stage, followed by simultaneous searching of new location in the second stage and selection of the destination based on expected maximum utility in the final stage.

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[14] Hansraj, N. (2008). Migration to Urban Punjab: The Case of Ludhiana Metropolis. (An Un-published Ph. D. Thesis) submitted to the Jawarharlal Nehru University, New Delhi, pp. 181

[15] Ravenstein, E. (1889): "The Laws of Migration". *Journal of the Statistical Society*, 52, 214-301.)
Lee, E. (1966). "A Theory of Migration." *Demography,* 3(1), pp: 47-57.
Harris, J. R. and M. P. Todaro (1970): "Migration, Unemployment and Development: A Two-Sector Analysis". *American Economic Review*, 60 (1), pp: 126-142.

Crawford, T. (1973): "Beliefs about Birth Control: A Consistency Theory Analysis". *Representative Research in Social Psychology*, 4, pp: 53-65.
Cole, W. E., and R. D. Sanders. (1985): "International Migration and Urban Employment in the Third World". *American Economic Review*, 75(3), pp: 481–494.
Byerlee, D., (1974): "Rural-Urban Migration in Africa: Theory, Policy and Research Implications". *The International Migration Review*, 8(3), pp: 543-566.)

[16] Chakraborty, D. (2014). Migration and Urban Informal Sector: A Study in West Bengal. An unpublished Ph. D. Thesis submitted to the Department of Economics, University of Burdwan, West Bengal.

Among the earlier works, Ravenstein Law of migration[17] sets the theoretical basis for the study of migration. He states that economic factors were the main cause of migration. He hypothesised that there is an inverse relationship between the number of migrants and the distance travelled, whereby the further the distance from the source, the less migration. This implies most migrants move only relatively short distances. He argued that people tend to move to urban centres where it is perceived that there are greater opportunities. People in rural areas are more likely to migrate than those in towns or cities. He states three general observations about the type of migrants; women are more likely to migrate within their country than men; men are more likely to emigrate than women and most migrants are adult.

Zipf (1946) in his 'principle of least efforts', opined that the migration is determined by the distance separating the two places whereby it requires efforts to migrate. According to him, longer distance requires greater efforts to migrate. Thus, the number of migration is likely to be less where long distance is involved[18].

Stouffer (1940)[19] gave his own version 'intervening opportunities' in a more refined form of Zipf's model of 'principle of least effort'. He is of the opinion that the number of opportunities available in the destination areas is more important than the distance factor. According to him, distance is less important as long as opportunities in the place of destination are prospectively high. He states that the volume of migration is directly proportional to the number of opportunities available at that distance and inversely proportional to the number of intervening opportunities.

Heide (1963)[20] stated that there is an inverse relationship between distance and the volume of migration. This distance may be technical distance like communication and transportation or it may also refer to social distance with regard to custom, culture or religion and social traits.

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[17] Ravenstein, E. G. (1885). The Laws of Migration. Journal of the Statistical Society of London. Blackwell Publishing for the Royal Statistical Society Stable. URL: http://www.jstor.org Vol. 48. No.2. pp: 167-235. Accessed: 24/06/2008 09:11.

[18] Zipf, G. K. (1946). The P_1P_2 /D Hypothesis: On the Intercity Movement of People. American Sociological Review. Vol.20. pp: 677-686

[19] Stouffer, S.A. (1940). Intervening Opportunities: A Theory Relating Mobility and Distance, American Sociological Review, Vol. *5,* pp: 845-867.

[20] Heide, T. H. (1963). Migration Models and Their Significance for Population Forecasts. The Milband Memorial Fund Quarterly, Vol. 41, No.1, pp: 56-76

According to Todaro (1969)[21], the decision to migrate depends on the prevailing urban wage and the probability of obtaining employment in the urban areas. Migration is stimulated not only by the rational economic costs and benefits alone, but also includes psychological perception. The decision to migrate depends on expectations rather than on the actual difference between the rural and urban wages. This expectation was determined by the actual rural-urban wage differential and the probability of successfully securing jobs in the urban sector after migration.

Lewis (1954)[22] in his model explained the process of rural-urban migration of the labour. According to him, wage differentials cause the labours to move from low wage region to the high wage areas. According to him, there are two sectors; one is highly productive urban industrial sector, which have high attraction for the labours as the capitalist sector and the other is traditional rural sector characterised by large scale disguised employment such as the subsistence agricultural sector. The basic theme of the theory is that there is unlimited supply of labour at the existing wage rate due to disguised unemployment in the agricultural sector for the industrial sector in urban areas. At some later point of time when the supply of labour is exhausted then only the wage rate could be raised to attract more labours from the traditional sector.

Fei and Ranis (1964), in their dual economy model, opined that the transfer of labours from the stagnant agricultural sector to the dynamic industrial sector would perhaps raise the level of economic development. In the process of economic development, farm workers or disguised unemployed labours migrate to industrial sectors at the existing wage rate without affecting the agricultural output. The process of farm workers migration will continue as long as the agricultural wage rate is less than the industrial wage rate. And a situation will eventually reached where the farm workers' productivity is equal to the industrial output or wages and the economy enters into 'take off' stage.

Miller (2006) state that distance serves as impediments for both information flows and mobility of the people. Flow of information and informal contacts between two places become less frequent with increase in distance, which in turn curtails the

[21] Todaro, M. (1969). A Model of Labour Migration and Urban Unemployment in Less Developed Countries. American Economic Review, Vol.59, No.1.
[22] Lewis, A. (1954). Economic Development with unlimited supply of labour. The Manchester School of Economics and Social Studies. pp: 533-565

physical movement of people[23]. So distance served as impediments to both migration and the flow of information.

Sjaastad (1962)[24] treated migration as individual's investment to increase the productivity of human capital. His model states that individual make migration decision based on his calculated expected return and that migration take place only when the expected return from migration is positive. His study identified two basic cost of migration: (i) economic cost of migration and (ii) psychological cost of migration. His study also found that there is a positive interdependence between the migrant and the family they left behind. This link is maintained through the migration assistance provided by the family in time of needs and the remittances send by the migrants to the family for consumption and investment requirements.

Wide and Woods (1980)[25], in their work on the geographical impact of migration opined that migration occurs because migrants believes that they will be more satisfied in their needs and desires in the place that they move to than in the place from which they come. According to them, migration always involves an element of uncertainty since all migration is based on expectations of the future quality of life elsewhere rather than on past experience. They identified step and chain migration, whereby in the former case the migrants move to the nearest larger place, and as a result of that move, change his place utility requirements which then leads to a further move. In the case of chain migration, there are active and passive migrants identified by leaders and followers. The primary group made the first move from the origin area and they are then followed by the members of the secondary groups.

1.2.2. Rural-Urban Migration and Informal Sectors

The linkages between migration and urban informal sector are well established in the migration literature. A number of literatures suggest that migration of labour helps in the growth of informal sectors while at the same time, urban informal sector act as a strong attracting force of migration.

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[23] Miller, E. (1972). A Note on the Role of Distance in Migration Costs of Mobility versus Intervening Opportunities. Journal of Regional Science, Vol. 12, No. 3, pp: 475-478

[24] Sjaastad, L.A. (1962). The Costs and Returns of Human Migration. Journal of Political Economy. Investment in Human Beings. The University of Chicago Press. Vol. 70. No. 5, Part 2: pp: 80-93

[25] White, P. and R. Woods (1980). The Geographical Impact of Migration. London. Longman Inc.

A study done by Banerjee (1983)[26] on the linkages of rural-urban migration and urban informal sector in Delhi, rejected the views given in Harris-Todaro Model that urban informal sector is a temporary place for resting of the migrants before they land in formal sector jobs. He found that the movement from informal to formal sector job market is quite low among the migrants in Delhi. This is not related to either education or skill of the migrants to switch from one sector to another rather it is related to some institutional barriers that exist on the demand side.

According to Bhattacharya (1998)[27], migration to urban areas was closely related to employment and earning opportunities in urban formal and informal sectors. The study found that due to slow growth rate of formal employment, informal sectors plays more dynamic role in absorbing and sustaining the migrant labour force in urban areas in India.

Fields (1975) [28] , in his paper on rural-urban migration and urban unemployment in Less Developed Countries opined that there exist a high degree of correlation between the income generation from the urban informal sector and poverty alleviation. He further warned that the absorption capacity of the urban informal sector is decreasing due to high migration rate in less developed countries. This may result into the possibility of heavy return migration. Similar study was made by Suharto (2002)[29], who argued that increasing labour migration into urban informal sector has contributed to urban poverty. Basically the poor migrants from rural regions generally land up in urban informal sector and the prevailing scenario kept them poor even after migration. This vicious circle of poverty in urban informal sector kept them in abject poverty.

Mukherjee (2001) [30] assessed the quality of the urban migrants and their participation in urban labour market. The study found that majority of the migrants

[26] Banerjee, B. (1983). The Role of the Informal Sector in the Migration Process: A Test of Probabilistic Migration Model and Labour Market Segmentation for India. Oxford Economics Paper, 35 (3), pp: 399-422.

[27] Bhattacharya, P. (1998). The Informal Sector and Rural-to-Urban Migration: Some Indian Evidence. *Economic and Political Weekly*, Vol. 33, No. 21, pp: 1255-1262.

[28] Fields, G.S. (1975). Rural To Urban Migration, Urban Unemployment and Underemployment, and Job Search Activity in LDCs. *Journal of Development Economics*, 2, pp:165-187

[29] Suharto, E. (2002). Human Development and Urban Informal Sector in Bandung, Indonesia; the Poverty Issue. *New Zealand Journal of Asian Studies,* 4, pp: 115-133

[30] Mukherjee, S. (2001). Low Quality Migration in India the Phenomena of Distressed Migration and Acute Urban Decay. 24th IUSSP Conference, Salvador, Brazil

was unable to get jobs in urban formal sector due to low skill and illiteracy. This has resulted into low quality of life among the migrants in India and further leads to low quality urbanisation in India.

On the importance of health of the urban migrants, Schultz (2014)[31] argued that urbanisation and migration is interrelated. According to her, addressing health issues of the migrants is crucial in both the place of origin as well as in the destination areas. This is because urban migrants form hugely diverse groups and were susceptible to various infectious and non-communicable diseases as well as accidents, violence and abuse. This could post a grave challenges in the urban areas affecting the sustainable development goals of the cities especially in resource poor countries due to rapid and unplanned urban growth. She states that ill health may lead to lower educational attainment and lower employment as and further brings negative social and economic consequences for the individual, family and society. She also argued that urban slum dwellers were the most vulnerable groups due to their poor living condition characterised by lack of potable water, sanitation facilities, congestion and pollution.

Tacoli et.al (2014)[32] state that it is important to considered diversity of the migrants group, reasons for migration, direction and duration of migration. They also argued that the contribution of rural-urban migration to urban growth is insignificant as compared to the natural growth of urban population. Hence, the policy of exclusion would be harmful to the migrants irrespective of their status. In fact, they suggest that policies that include all the low income groups that recognised their differing needs would be more effective in reducing urban poverty. Hence, local government should collaborate with the civil society for more effective policy implementation.

Kaur (1996)[33] made a study on male migration in India and states that migration help in social and economic development by enabling man to subdue the tyranny of space and relieves population pressure by transferring labour force from

[31] Schultz, C. (2014). Migration, Health and Cities Migration, health and urbanization: Interrelated challenges. The Expert Council of German Foundations on Integration and Migration, Berlin. Background paper on World Migration Report, 2015

[32] Tacoli, C., G. McGranahan & D. Satterthwaite (2014). Urbanization, Rural–urban Migration and Urban Poverty. Background paper on World Migration Report 2015. Human Settlements Group International Institute for Environment and Development London

[33] Kaur, G. (1996). Migration Geography. Anmol Publication, New Delhi

the agrarian societies to the modern industrial regions thus contributing to economic growth as well.

1.2.3. Urbanisation and Migration

In underdeveloped countries like India, rural population is rapidly increasing as a result of which there are shortages of employment avenues. This leads to the problem of disguised employment. Thus, the only option available to escape from this problem is to find alternative source of livelihood, which is apparently available in urban sectors.

Ravenstein (1885)[34], in his 'law of Migration' pointed out that large towns grow more by migration than by natural increase. Since economic reason is the main factor, migration increase as industries and commerce developed and transport system improves. He opined that those migrants proceeding long distances generally go to one of the great centres of commerce or industry. The natives of towns are less migratory than those of the rural parts of the country and females are more migratory than males. He also observed that there is a process of absorption whereby people residing immediately surrounding the rapidly growing town move into it and the gap they leaved were filled by migrants from more distant areas and this process continue until the attractive force is spent.

Giri (1999)[35], in his discussion on the role of small and medium towns in the development of North Eastern region, argued that the unstable rate of urbanisation in the North Eastern States indicates urbanisation is not linked to broad based economic progress but to administrative and other contingent factors like political and forced migration. He asserted that urbanisation in the region is based on the service, small and medium towns, which lack strong and diversified economic base necessary for healthy linkages with the rural sector. He suggested that the small and medium towns in the region should be the vehicles of urbanisation, as the inward looking-development is the only sustainable process of development in the region at this stage. He strongly argued that urban production activities should be link with the

[34] Ravenstein E.G. (1885). The Laws of Migration. *Journal of the Statistical Society of London.* Vol. 48. No.2. Accessed: 08/02/2015

[35] Giri, P (1999), Role of Small and Medium-sized Towns in the Development of North-East India. In Ray, B.D. et al. (eds). Urban Development in North-East India. Potentiality and Problems. New Delhi. Reliance Publishing House.

demand from local agriculture and allied activities and rural households on the demand side with locally available resources, as this would not only help in developing input-output linkages and income generation but also expose a large number of people to relatively advance technology and practices.

Everett & Leach (1965)[36], a study on urban issues in America opine that some of the urban issues are not irreversible, but to undo them requires huge cost and co-ordination that may cost many years. Present day planning approaches and techniques in one place may not be suitable and adequate for most effective solution in the other place. This is because some of the problems are technical in nature. For instance, the provisions of adequate drinking water supply for the cities of the future will depend on the development of new techniques and on the perfection of the existing ones. In the same way, the problem of pollution in all its phases is peculiarly urban in its cause and effect and it requires a scientific solution. However, for such solution it will be up to the political forces in urban communities to win acceptance to devise techniques and to find ways to get them into operation. Thus, science is irrevocably linked with politics and what appears at first as technical issues becomes a complex political problem at a later stage. This issues get further complex due to inadequate representation from different fields in the state policy making process.

Church (1967), in his study on the urban problems and economic development in West Africa lamented that many West African towns suffers grievously from poor locational sites. The towns located in the low lying elevation are inherently unhealthy because the poor drainage facilitates the outbreak of bubonic and other plagues where malarial mosquitoes also bred easily. On the other hand, large towns were frustrating many of the urban dwellers by reasons of long, costly and tiring journey to work, poor urban housing facilities, sanitation issues and the problem of finding employment in the urban centres. Such condition in cities or towns encourages transient community rather than the permanent settlement in the urban areas. Transients tend to encourage separate tribal squatters and burden the city because they have no abiding interest in the town/city, which further impedes the development of civic consciousness and unity. Because of this separated feelings of transients and at the same time

[36] Everett, R.O. and R. H. Leach (1965). Urban Problems and Prospects: A Foreword. Law and Contemporary Problems, Vol. 30, No. 1, Urban Problems and Prospects. Duke University School of Law Stable pp. 1-8 URL: http://www.jstor.org/stable/1190681 Accessed: 29-07-2016

intermingling of commercial, crafts and residential functions, rational town planning becomes more difficult and complex[37].

Breese (1963)[38], in his paper on urban development problems in India, examined the form and structure of Indian urban areas and their resultant effect on comprehensive planning and urban development. He found that one of the most noticeable features of large cities is their combination of very high population density in relatively small areas and relatively low population density over other large areas. He argued that large Indian urban areas have never been quite recovered the influx of population and later accentuated by in-migrant from rural areas. He criticized that lack of facilities in the urban areas sometimes constitute a threat to the health of the city dwellers.

Hass and Downey (1973)[39], in their article on 'Developing a Course on Urban Problems', suggested that at all levels of urban service delivery and policy implementation, a grouping of all services related to local environment management is needed, which requires continuing present development control and building regulation functions, involving service of guidance, help and information to the public about many aspects of the local environment and their rights and responsibilities. They opined that the present state of affairs with its obvious mismatch is a result of departmentalism and its associated professionalism. Thus the authority needs different skilled personnel working in unison ranging from architects, engineers to lawyer and social workers guided by effective directions from project managers possessing qualities of understanding and leadership.

Webster (1995)[40] observed that the issues on urban environmental problems will dominate all other issues in the near future. He found that failure or shortcomings to manage urban problems in major cities are associated with poor urban planning, poorly developed policies, legislation, management system and instruments. In

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[37] Church R. J. H. (1967). Urban Problems and Economic Development in West Africa. The Journal of Modern African Studies , Vol. 5, No. 4, pp: 511-520 Cambridge University Press Stable URL: http://www.jstor.org/ Accessed: 29-07-2016

[38] Breese, G. (1963). Urban Development in India. Vol. 53, No. 3. pp. 253-265. Web: http://www.jstor.org Accessed: 16-05-2016

[39] Haas, J.D. and M. Downey (1973). Developing a Course on Urban Problems. Volume 48. No.3. web: http://www.jstor.org Accessed: 16-05-2016 07:14 UTC

[40] Webster, D. (1995). The Urban Environment in Southeast Asia. Challenges and Opportunities. Web: http://www.jstor.org Accessed: 12-05-2016

addition, there is shortage of appropriately trained personnel and unwillingness of the public and firms to pay reasonable fees for environmental services such as waste water treatment, disposal of hazardous waste, beach cleaning in front of hotels, etc. To make the matter worse, due to highly centralised planning system there is little room for the local government to act and respond due to lack of adequate resources. Among many measures suggested, as an urgency he emphasised on the development of peripheral urban regions with good environmental infrastructure as most of the new economic activities and demographic growth will be going to take place in these regions and environmental rehabilitation on waste water and traffic congestion to curtail water and air pollution in the already built up areas.

Agarwal (1999)[41], in his paper on the potentiality and problems of small towns in North East India emphasised that government must invest in physical infrastructure to provide essential services to the residence in small towns so as to to arrest migration to capital towns. He also argued that development of small towns is indispensable from the view point of balanced development of all parts of the state and to avoid congestion and overcrowding in capital towns.

Fay and Opal (2000)[42], in their work on urbanisation in Africa analyse that people move in response to economic incentives and follow economic opportunities and to show that urbanisation is a part and parcel of structural changes that accompany economic development. They observed that urbanisation does not noticeably slow down during economic downturns in Africa, implying that people continue to move to cities even when economic growth is slow. They found that migrants were willing to endure a period of unemployment if expected urban income is sufficiently high. Besides economic and non-economic factors, urban bias in terms of government and private investments push up the urban wages which attracts migrants from rural areas.

[41] Agarwal, A.K. (1999). Potentiality and Problems of Small Towns in North East India. In: Ray, B.D. et al. (eds). Urban Development in North-East India. Potentiality and Problems. New Delhi. Reliance Publishing House.

[42] Fay, M. and C. Opal (c.2000). Urbanisation Without Growth. A Not so Uncommon Phenomenon. World Bank (MFAY@Worldbank.org); Oxford University. web: http://www.jstor.org Accessed: 16-05-2016

Barai (1993)[43] viewed that population pressure and grinding poverty, endemic to rural areas, fragmentation to holdings, environmental degradation and over-cropping has aggravated migration from rural areas to urban areas. He lamented over the nature of growth of the population, unplanned city spread and increasing demand by the people on basic amenities and remarked that it has made virtually impossible for services to keep pace with demographic growth. To meet the increasing demand for water supply in cities, the author suggested various alternatives among which rain water can be harvested, improve efficiency in water supply, reduction in evaporation, detection of leakages, modifying weather and waste water recycling were seem to be quite feasible. He further argued that metropolitan areas faced rising demand, dwindling sources of water supply and growing difficulty of obtaining good quality water. From the societal point of view, he observed that the implication of health and acceptance are the main issues arising out of renovated water supply. He, thus, advocates a policy on proper distribution of surface water for domestic use and recycled water for industrial and commercial uses with adequate measures of metering, pricing and rationing water which is likely to take care of the present demand of metropolitan water supply.

Benninger (1997) [44], argued that poverty is linked with environmental degradation and thus the former is correlated with productivity. She viewed that urban slum is the reflection of the process of polarisation of resources in the hands of few and pauperisation of the masses. She opined that social justice is the essential pre-condition to people's participation in the process of development. She also argued that, due to failure on the part of policy makers to perceived that the vast majority of the migrants itself are poverty induced, government's effort to divert migrants to small and medium towns through development programmes and anti-poverty programmes did not bear the desire results. Another reason for the failure of government programmes is that most of the job opportunities in the small and

[43] Barai D.C. (1993). The augmentation of water supply to meet the needs of rapidly growing metropolitan cities of India. In: Diddee J. and Vimla rangaswamy (ed). Urbanisation. Trends, Perspective and Challenges. Rawat Publication, Jaipur, India.

[44] Benninger, A. (1997). Small And Medium Towns And Their Role In Spatial Diffusion Of Development. In: Jayamala Diddee (ed). Indian Medium Towns: An Appraisal of their Role as growth Centres. Rawat Publications, Jaipur, India.

medium towns are in the formal sector which required skilled labour and most migrants being unskilled could not be absorbed in these towns.

Danis (1993)[45], opined that migration can be set in motion when the economic structure of the rural world cannot absorb the increase in population. He argued that even those expanding economies also face extreme difficult problems to absorb thousands of new migrants in terms of providing adequate housing and other basic urban amenities. He found that management of space is the key problem for the big towns in East Asia and calls for careful blend of both rigid in terms of basic urban planning principles and sufficiently flexible policy to adapt continuously to improves techniques and changing patterns of human behaviour so as to avoid spontaneous and unplanned growth of urbanisation.

Desai and Rawat (1993)[46] pointed out that there has been a tendency for rural population to be pushed out towards larger urban centres directly without being much attracted to intermediate-sized towns. They argued that the growth of small towns and their sustainability depends on diversification of the economy such as strong agricultural resource base, agro-based industries, linkages in trade and services, whereas lack of such facilities results in the decline and down-gradation of small towns. They found that lower density of population and high sex ratio in the down-grading towns were due to selective out-migration of young males due to lack of economic opportunities in these towns. They observed that connectivity is an important factor for the development of towns especially for industrial and commercial activities. They concluded that growth of small towns is crucial and relevant in retaining population in a concentrated and decentralised manner. Growing of small towns can be attractive for the rural population who often crowd the large cities and end up in creating un-inhabitable slums in urban areas. If development is to be decentralised small towns have to have sustaining diversified economic activities to stem the tide of one way migration. The small towns can act as effective links in absorbing the exodus to the large cities, provided suitable infrastructural inputs are

[45] Danis J. (1993). Urbanisation in Eastern Asia: A multi-faceted phenomenon. In: Diddee J. and Vimla Rangaswamy (ed). Urbanisation. Trends, Perspective and Challenges. Rawat Publication, Jaipur, India.

[46] Desai, A.P. and A.U. Rawal (1993). Growth and decline of small town in Gujarat: A tale of two towns in Mehsana district. In: Diddee J. and Vimla Rangaswamy (ed). URBANISATION. Trends, Perspective and Challenges. Rawat Publication, Jaipur, India.

located for developing agricultural businesses and related tertiary marketing and trading activities.

Meijer (1993)[47] opined that the environment around the Randstad city also known as the 'Green Heart' has been greatly threatened by suburbanisation both through increased in the number of residents and economic activities in the secondary and tertiary sectors and by the construction of roads and houses. Following the policy of de-concentration and dispersal during 1960s and 80s led to concentration of population in the suburbs and could not produce desired result and outcome. Urban renewal and renovation works followed suit for social development but all those urban policies failed to address the problems of urban congestion in the Netherlands. The author argued that more emphasis should be placed where the greatest economic potential is concentrated and it should be exploited as far as possible. Yet he did not point out or provide any explicit measure or alternative to address those urban problems.

Agarwal (1995)[48] states that the size and density of cities are important and crucial for economic development as the cities permit economies of scale that are prerequisite for growth. The high density of productive activities and their proximities allows cities to produce and exchange a wide range of commodities and services at low cost. He is also of the view that the nature and growth of urbanisation in the Northeast India is quite different from advance countries as the growing cities in the later can absorb their natural population as well as the increasing flow of migrants from rural areas due to technical improvement which enhance productivity in agricultural sector. He is also of the view that if urbanisation takes place with low level of industrialization, it leads to wastage of land and regional imbalance and other problems such as congestion, overcrowding, growth of squatter settlements and heavy strain on the infrastructures and services in towns. He asserts that urbanisation in developing countries must take place as an accelerating force and must play a complementary role for developing the rural sectors. High wage rate in cities enhance

[47] Meijer H. (1993). Urbanisation in the Netherlands. In: Diddee J. and Vimla rangaswamy (ed). Urbanisation. Trends, Perspective and Challenges. Rawat Publication, Jaipur, India.

[48] Agarwal, A.K. (1995). A Study in Urbanization Pattern in Mizoram. In: Ganguly.J.B. (ed). Urbanization and Development in North-East India. New Delhi. Deep & Deep Publications. Pp: 265-276.

income of the low income groups and raise living standard of the city dwellers. He observed that urbanisation in India is related to both industrial and agricultural growth. A growth in agricultural sector raises the level of income which in turn increases the demand for manufacture goods and services thus leading to growth of industrial sector. So in many Indian States, urbanisation is seen to be the outcome of agricultural development. At the same time, he lamented that the development of urban areas in India has been in an unbalanced way where the growing size of big cities without any corresponding increase in industrial or productive employment opportunities has been posing a serious bottlenecks for the government, planners and administrators and growing suffering of the poor urbanites. Despite rapid growth of cities, the planners failed to integrate urban development strategy with rural development strategies. Thus, urban development strategy failed to provide any viable living condition for the urban poor who are mostly the migrants from the rural areas.

Dikshit (1997)[49] emphasised that the accelerated growth in the number and the population of large cities is the result of an expanding economic base. She expressed her concern over the ills of growing multi-million cities on the one hand and the stagnation of regional urban centres on the other hand. Large cities attract people from the hinterlands in the hope of gainful employment, better life and a desire to share the wealth of these cities. The constant stream of rural-urban migration adds to the immigrant population of job seekers of which, only a fraction benefits from the expansion of industrial and economic base, while the rest entered the informal sector that largely secure them a living. She argued that congestion, overcrowding and inadequacy of infrastructure are a relative measure of mismatch between the need and availability of housing space, water supply, drainage facilities, open spaces, intra urban transport and the like. She attributed pollution of water and air emanates from faulty handling of urban problems. She also argued that accessibility is the most important factor for the growth of cities and towns. Thus, small and medium towns can served as relievers of congestions for large cities and as foci of regional development or growth pole if the former is provided with concrete location

[49] Dikshit R.K. (1997). The Large and Medium Cities in India: The Former as Problem Areas and the Later as Growth Centres of Future. In: Jayamala Diddee (ed). Indian Medium Towns. An Appraisal of their Role as growth Centres. Rawat Publications, Jaipur.

attractiveness in terms of infrastructure and other amenities that the industrialists and investors look for.

Mukherji (1997)[50] lamented that the economic functions of small towns are still very weak except showing the tendencies of proliferation of low grade tertiary sector. He observed that the sizes of small towns are so small that often they failed to operate as economically viable and strong diffusing centres to be capable of propagating development waves to the surrounding villages. Thus, failing to serve adequately the surrounding country side and promote rural regeneration. He support that these small towns should get more development efforts than the so called large cities and metropolis. He further argued that if small towns were economically regenerated and provided with growth inputs such as capital investment and infrastructure development then soon they will turn out to be agents of change for the vast surrounding country-side.

Singh and Krishan (1997)[51] in their studies on medium towns in India opined that with increasing size of the city or towns, diseconomies of rising land values, rents, transport costs, crime and pollution out-weight economies of scale in many cases which in turn effect the poor disproportionately. They also found that medium towns showed a great potential in strengthening rural-urban interaction through disposal of rural agricultural products. Their analysis also revealed that the frequency of medium towns find a strong spatial association with agricultural development but not much promotive in overall development and diversification of rural economy.

Chopra and Gulati (2001)[52] asserted that higher poverty and population growth increased pressure on natural resources since such resources often cannot be excluded from use by all. Since satisfaction of present demand becomes the first priority for low income groups, high demand for such goods when the rate for regeneration, the expected outcome exceed is environmental depletion. Their study found that people's decisions on migration are determined largely by asset ownership

[50] Shekher Mukherji (1997). Problems of Small and Medium Towns of India: Their Inadequate Economic Characteristics. In: Jayamala Diddee (ed). Indian Medium Towns: An Appraisal of their Role as growth Centres. Rawat Publications, Jaipur, india

[51] Khrishan ,G. and N. Singh (1997). Medium Towns and the Development Process in India. In: Jayamala Diddee (ed). Indian Medium Towns: An Appraisal of their Role as growth Centres. Rawat Publications, Jaipur, india

[52] Chopra K. and S.C. Gulati, (2001). Migration, Common Property Resources and Environmental Degradation. Interlinkages in India's Arid and Semi-arid Regions. Sage Publications, New Delhi.

in the village, remittances from towns, infrastructural situations such as road connectivity and existence of schools and the nature of rights in common properties. These variables play an important role in making decisions on the division of available labour force between work on assets within the village and for obtaining income from outside.

Narain (2003)[53] argued that a faster rate of urbanisation will cause more problems to arise and will leave more problems unresolved as it shifts from one phase to another. It is more apparent in the Asian countries which have the disadvantage of adverse ratio of population to resources. He opined that migrants' interpersonal relationship and group affiliations are important for the migrants in those cases of troubles like sickness or financial crisis for it provides one another with material or financial supports in time of needs.

Satterthwaite and Milton (2013)[54] observed that if the urban poor are not organised in the city, not experienced in financial and political negotiation, the structure that require them to think broadly then progressive development is unlikely to take place. They also argued that development carries no meaning if it does not involve the acceptance that woman, man and child is able to secure the basic needs required for their good health. Therefore, they called for explicit provision for more voice of the low income groups at the city-scale with active engagement of women and to organise them to change the relationship between the urban poor groups and local governments that is to have a strong focus on local initiatives on housing, land tenure and basic services. And the first critical step for both the government and the development agencies is to provide a universal standard of basic provision for safe, sufficient, accessible, affordable water, sanitation and drainage that reduces the risk of faecal contamination, for accessible and good quality health care and emergency services for all rural and urban dwellers.

[53] Narain, D. (2003). Urbanisation and Some Social Problems. Urbanisation in India. In: Ravinder Singh Sandhu (ed.). Sage Publication, New Delhi pp.74

[54] Satterthwaite. D. and D. Milton (2013). A Future that Low-income Urban Dwellers Want and can help secure. *Human settlements working paper series Poverty reduction in urban areas – 38.* International Institute for Environment and Development. Accessed: 14/10/2014

Saikia (1995)[55], in his study on the process of urbanization in Nagaland opined that urban areas have various developmental prospects for which people are attracted from rural areas. He argued that the magnitude of migration and settlement in urban areas increase with the unfolding of economic opportunities. When urban areas grow as the seat of government administration, trade and commerce, education and other job-oriented infrastructure, the prospect for self employment, skill and semi-skilled job in small and medium manufacturing and business sector also increase. Once the migrants exposed to the urban values, they do not like to return but would settle down due to lack of urban life glamour in rural areas especially among the Nagas. But migrants from other states (non-locals) seldom settled down in Dimapur but would rent a house for doing business. Growth of business enterprises in urban areas also attracts labours from other areas. Easy availability of labour reduces the cost of production, raise the prospect of profit and encourage entrpreneurialship new ventures.

Internal Migration in India Initiative (2012) [56], during its workshop compendium remarked that although rural-urban migration contributes less than one-third of the total urban growth in India, migrants are viewed with suspicion, always blamed for all urban woes and tend to restrained, discouraged and even controlled by often underestimating their contribution towards urban community and development. Besides, mostly migrants led a hard life in cities by relying mostly on informal sector jobs, depriving themselves from basic facilities such as access to drinking water within their premises, sanitary and housing provisions.

1.2.4. Factors of Migration

It is a well known fact that migration depends on both the socio-economic conditions in the place of origin and destination areas as well as on the migrants. Thus, it becomes imperative to investigate conditions in both the place of origin as well as in the place of destination. From economic point of view, people generally migrate from less developed rural areas to more developed urban areas

[55] Saikia, J.K.K. (1995). Process of Urbanization in Nagaland: A Case Study of Kohima and Dimapur Towns. In: Ganguly, J.B. (ed). Urbanization and Development in North-East India. New Delhi. Deep & Deep Publications.

[56] UNICEF (2012). Workshop Compendium on Internal Migration in India Initiatives. Internal Migration and Human Development in India. Vol. I. 2011. Pp: 7-8

(Bhattacharya[57], 1993; de Haan[58], 1997). This shows that sound and prosperous urban areas tend to attract more migrants from the rural areas.

Lee (1966)[59] provided a simple framework for the study of the process of internal migration. He categorised the factors of migration into factors associated with the place of origin, place of destination, intervening obstacles and the personal factors by taking into account both demand and supply sides of migration. In the same way, he considered certain positive and negative factors in both the place of origin and destination areas. His theory is a general framework for understanding the basic characteristics of the migrants and thus, has limited application in the policy decisions.

Harris and Todaro (1970)[60] identified rural-urban wage differentials as the main economic factors of migration. Wage disparity in addition to low job opportunities in rural areas accelerates rural-urban migration. Job opportunities in both informal as well a formal sector attracts migrants from rural areas. Minimum wage laws, pension schemes and unemployment benefits were some of the benefits in urban formal sector jobs. It is also perceived that migration promotes the development of urban informal sectors. It is considered as the resting place for the urban in-migrants before they find jobs in the formal sectors.

Srivastava and Sasikumar (2003)[61] opined that there was sharp increase in the migration of youth from rural to urban areas to take up non-farm and other urban economic activities in recent times. On the stream of migration, they observed that States like Orissa, Bihar, Uttar Pradesh and Kerala were the major source States in India since long back. On the other hand, more prosperous States like Maharashtra, Gujarat and Punjab were the major recipient States. Thus, regional disparities accelerate rural-urban migration in India.

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[57] Bhattacharya, P. C., (1993): Rural-Urban Migration in Economic Development. Journal of Economic Surveys, 7(3), pp.243–281

[58] de Haan A (1997). Rural-Urban Migration And Poverty: The Case Of India". IDS Bulletin, Vol. 28, No 2, pp: 35-47

[59] Lee, E.S. (1966). A Theory of Migration. Demography, Vol. 3, No. 1, pp. 47-57. Web: https://www.jstor.org Accessed on 05-06-2019

[60] Harris, J.R. and M.P. Todaro (1970). Migration, Unemployment and Development: A Two-Sector Analysis. American Economic Review. Vol 60 No.1. pp.126-142, Source: Jstor 1807860

[61] Srivastava, R. and S.K. Sasikumar (2003). An Overview of Migration in India, its Impacts and Key Issues. Regional conference paper on Migration, pro-poor policy choice in Asia. Retrieved from www.livelihoods.org

Singh and Kaur (2007)[62] had classified the factors of migration into five broad categories, namely, economic, social, psychological, political and natural cause. This classification was made to identify and study the nature of push and pull factors of migration. They found that migration was determined mainly by the economic factors in the place of origin in Punjab. The active role of friends and relatives in the destination was found to be an important social factor of migration. Well established network was another important motivational factor.

El-Bushra (1989) [63] opined that whatever could be the economic base, migration seems to be the only option for the rural poor and in underdeveloped country like Sudan, urban centres are unable to cope with the constant flow of large number of migrants. The result in the recipient cities are catastrophic, leading to a serious deterioration in the urban environment like incidence of squatter settlement around the main city. He found large influx of foreign migrants into Sudan has put extra heavy burden to the already cripple economy. He attributed hyper inflation and large black marketing practices in cities to these uncontrolled migrants who often compete with the Sudanese nationals for jobs and other facilities leading to soaring unemployment in the urban areas. He found that mass migration of rural people to the capital city is associated with the emergence of shanty towns, forming a breeding ground for diseases threatening the city. He lamented that the importance of small and medium towns are declining due to the domination of urban life by a few principal cities, in which the former is expected to play a crucial role in socio-economic transformation of the rural areas.

Mahto (1985)[64] asserted that population mobility has increased with technical and economic progress. Each movement provides an important network for the diffusion of ideas and information. It indicates system of social and economic changes, and can be regarded as a form of human adjustment to economic, environmental and social problems. He opined that migration has profound

[62] Singh, R. and A. Kaur (2001). Social Economic Profile of Migrant Rural Labourer. Indian Journal of Extension Education. Vol. 3, No. 3 & 4,pp.158-160. No. 1. Pp:126-142. Web: https://www.jstor.org Accessed on 05-06-2017

[63] El-Bushra, E. S. (1989). The Urban Crisis and Rural-Urban Migration in Sudan. In: Potter, R.B and Tim Unwin (eds). The Geography of Urban-Rural Interaction in Developing Countries. Kent. Mackays of Chatham PLC.

[64] Mahto, K. (1985). Population Mobility and Economic Development in Eastern India. Delhi. Inter-India Publication.

implication on demography, growth rate of population, regional economic growth and development. He argued that high consumption due to large population provides a large market for and thereby a benefit of large scale production, but at the same time retards capital formation so essential for investment. Migration also relieves the pressure of population on land resources in the sending areas and increases the pressure in the receiving areas. It aggregates the persons of working age-groups in the receiving areas and leave behind large number of dependents in the sending areas.

Meier (1976)[65] states that the existence of large disparities between wages paid to urban workers and those paid to comparatively skilled rural labourers has long been recognised as a crucial factor in the decision to migrate. He attributed the increasing divergence between urban and rural income to relative stagnation of agricultural earnings and the concomitant phenomenon of rapid rising urban wage rates for unskilled workers. According to him, urban-rural real income differentials and probability of securing an urban job determines the rate and magnitude of rural-urban migration. He categorically opined that as long as the present value of the net stream of expected urban income over the migrant's planning horizon exceeds that of the expected rural income, the decision to migrate is justified. He favoured slow growth rate of urban wage which not only reduce the rate of rural-urban migration but also increase the demand for labour. He states that there is a positive correlation between population growth and economic growth. He also argued that the bulk of employment in informal sector are economically efficient and profit making though small in scale and limited by simple technologies yet many failed to realised the extent of economically efficient production mainly because of low income.

Gupta (1993) in his study on intra-state migration discussed the expansion of urbanisation in India. He argued that the expansion of urbanisation was a driving force behind inter-state migration in India. This is caused by the difference in regional development and economic disparity[66].

[65] Meier, G.M. (1976). Leading Issues in Economic Development. Third Edition. New York. Oxford University Press.

[66] Gupta, S. K. (1993). Inter-State Migration as an indicator of National Integration. In Understanding Indian Society by Atal Yogesh (ed). Har Anand Publications, New Delhi

McGranahan and Tacoli (2006)[67] states that migrants typically move to places that offers economic opportunities and there are usually more opportunities where the economy is expanding. In a country like China, migrants often failed to gain access to adequate urban services and other rights due to strict regulations on migration. Rural-urban migration is more likely to result in environmental burdens if it is concentrating in areas where the resources to serve urban services are especially scarce, the geography makes residence vulnerable to certain environmental hazards like ambient air pollution and the local ecosystem are particularly vulnerable or susceptible to degradation. Citing the scarcity of water resource in the region, they opined that water is critical to urban development, and is available at very differing levels in different parts of China. Generally, the direction of migration in China is from the water scarce areas of the Northwest to the more water abundant areas of the Southeast.

Singh (2001), in his study on the linkages between international migrants and its transformative role in the migrants' households opined that emigration was not limited to poor and illiterates alone rather it involved even the most educated persons. Economic factors were the main factors for emigration. Remittance plays an important role in economic development of the origin areas as it directly affects the children's education, healthcare and community development in UP and Bihar. This positive contribution to the society proved to be an important push factor for emigration for the farm sector workers[68].

Abbas and Divya (2014)[69], in their study on internal labour migration in India, argued that increasing labour migration to the cities and town are mainly due to rural-urban divide agrarian distress, lack of employment and farmers suicide. They found that employment is the main reason for male migration as marriage is for female migration in India. It was also found that poor and schedule tribes dominate circular or seasonal migration in India. They highlighted that labour migrants face myriad of

[67] McGranahan, G. and C. Tacoli (2006). Rural-urban migration in China: Policy options for economic growth, environmental sustainability and equity. Working Paper 12. IIED. Web: www. Accessed on 12 -08-2017

[68] Singh, P. M. P. (2001). Socio-Economic Impact of International Migration: A Case study of District Hoshiarpur. (An un-published Ph. D. thesis). Submitted to the Department of Economics, Guru Nanal University, Amritsar

[69] Abbas, R.and D. Varma (2014). Internal Labour Migration in India Raises Integration Challenges for Migrants. Migration Information Sources. The online journal of the migration policy institute. Web: http://www.migrationpolicy.org/ Accessed date:22.01.2015

challenges at the destination which includes identity documentation, social entitlement, housing, financial and political exclusion. At the receiving centres, it was found that the inflows of migrants into big cities has contributed to urban congestion and intense housing pressure while city residents often perceive that migrants increase the competition for jobs and compete for basic amenities and city services such as water and sanitation.

Chakraborty (2014)[70], states that rural-urban migration is closely linked with agricultural development. He argues that the constraints and bottlenecks in agricultural sector act as a push factor for migration from rural areas to the urban sectors. This implies that informal sectors in the urban areas attract migrants from the rural areas while low agricultural productivity acts as a push factor for migration.

Shukla and Mishra (2007) [71] attributed urbanisation as a product of demographic explosion and poverty induced rural-urban migration. Migration results from both urban pull as well as rural push factors. Development of better infrastructure and industrialisation had been the main attracting force of rural-urban migration in India. On the other hand, deteriorating agricultural base, population burden on land and shrinking land holdings compelled rural migrants to move out from the villages.

Kirwin & Anderson(2018)[72] states that the most striking factor of migration in West African Countries is economic in nature, though rapid urbanisation and shocks due to wars and instability in the region also propel migration to Europe. For better job and the opportunity to remit money home were the most prominent economic reasons. They also confirm that the potential migrants desire for good governance over economic development, implying that insecurity and corruption in the governance forms important push factor of migration in the region.

[70] Chakraborty, D. (2014). Migration and Urban Informal Sector: A Study in West Bengal. An unpublished Ph.D. Thesis submitted to the Department of Economics, University of Burdwan, West Bengal

[71] Shukla, K.K., S. Mishra and A. Singh (2007). Urbanisation and Migration Trends in India. Ghaziabad

[72] Kirwin, M and J. Anderson (2018). Identifying the Factors Driving West African Migration. West African Paper, No.17. OECD Publishing, Paris

1.2.5. Impact of Migration

The effects of migration has the greatest bearing on research application, since migration has significantly affected the society at the place of origin as well as the place of destination and the psyche of the migrants themselves[73]. This impact of migration can be assessed in demographic, socio-economic, political or cultural terms.

Santhapparaj (1998)[74] examined the impact of rural-urban migration and the linkages between the migrants and their households in the place of origin in the city of Madhurai. He found that unmarried migrants with land and other assets tend to remit more than those without any assets. Remittances were mainly used to meet the current consumption expenditures, which was also the main contribution to the rural economy. He argued that remittance could not be considered as a sole remedy to alleviate poverty in India and could also lead to increase in economic inequality because of the feeling of deprivation among those who do not received income from overseas. So remittance was unlikely to play any decisive role in poverty eradication.

Skeldon (1997)[75] examined rural-urban migration in Thailand and its role in poverty alleviation. He argued that migration has positive effects for the communities in the place of origin and contributed towards poverty alleviation. Urban sectors served as a resource base for rural population as it sustained the informal sector workers. It was also found that informal social networks provides necessary fillip and facilitated in forming formal associations among the migrants, which in turn help them in securing basic facilities in urban centres. This also helps in the integration of migrants into the urban societies.

Begum and Mahmood (1999)[76] identified four major factors that facilitate international migration in Bangladesh. These factors were information about jobs, travel assistance, entry into the job market and the maintenance of status quo at the

[73] Mangalam, J. J. and C. Morgan (1968). Human Migration: A Guide to Migration Literature in English, 1955-1962, Lexington; Quoted in L. A. Kosinski and M. Prothero ed., People on the Move: Studies on Internal Migration.London, Methuen & Co. pp: 12

[74] Santhapparaj, A. S. (1998). Internal Migration, Remittances and Determinants of Remittances: An Empirical Analysis. In Indian Journal of Labour Economics. Vol. 41, No. 4. Pp: 645-652

[75] Skeldon, R. (1997). Rural to Urban Migration and Its Implications for Poverty Alleviation. Asia Pacific Population Journal. Vol. 12. No. 1, pp: 3-16

[76] Begum, A. and Mahmood (1999). Social Networks in International Migration: The Experience of Bangladesh. Geographical Review of India. Vol. 61, No. 1. Pp: 60-72

destination. In the social network, relatives, friends, neighbours, fellow town folks, people with a share ethnic interest, etc. provide a much needed assistance to the migrants. Friends and relatives provide substantial proportion of information about the jobs in the place of destination. They found that majority of the migrants travelled with middle men or friends.

Banerjee (1983)[77], in his study on the interactions between the labour migration to Delhi and their urban base contacts, found that the migrants considered the kinship bond as the most preferred ties over the co-villagers or caste ties on arriving in Delhi. It was also found that majority of the migrants have relatives in Delhi and the assistance of co-villagers was utilized only by those who have no relatives in the city. He argued that the migration induced by urban based contacts would tend to be low if the sector in which job opportunities expanding rapidly were dominated by the non-migrants workers.

Inbanathan (1988)[78] argued that migrants have to adjust and conform to the lifestyle of the host social life. He identified three related stages for migration and integration in the host society. Accommodation is the first stage in the migration process where there is only limited acceptance of the host culture and lifestyle. Integration followed suit in which, by the time the migrants have settled and adapted well with the host society. Assimilation is the final stage which might involve inter-marriage and complete adaptation and give rise to the emergence of new identity in the host community.

Danis (1993)[79] opined that migration can be set in motion when the economic structure of the rural world cannot absorb the increase in population. He argued that even those expanding economies also face extreme difficult problems to absorb thousands of new migrants in terms of providing adequate housing and other basic urban amenities. He found that management of space is the key problem for the big towns in East Asia and calls for careful blend of both rigid in terms of basic urban planning principles and sufficiently flexible policy to adapt continuously to improve

[77] Banerjee, B. (1983). Social Networks in the Migration Process: Emperical Evidence on Chain Migration in India. Journal of Developing Area. Vol. 17, No. 2. Pp:185-196

[78] Inbanathan, A. (1988). Migration and Adaptation: The Case of Tamils in a Delhi Resettlement Colony. In Socioogical Bulletin. Vol. 37, No. 1. Pp: 113-126

[79] Danis J. (1993). Urbanisation in Eastern Asia: A multi-faceted phenomenon. In: Diddee J. and Vimla Rangaswamy (ed). Urbanisation. Trends, Perspective and Challenges. Rawat Publication, Jaipur, India.

techniques and changing patterns of human behaviour so as to avoid spontaneous and unplanned growth of urbanisation.

Sivakumar (2000)[80], in his study on the migrants in Tamil Nadu, argued that a significant proportion of the migrants have close relatives in towns at the time of moving to the towns. However, it was not necessary that migrants require the assistance of their kin and friends all the time due to the fact that these migrants have well acquaintance with the city. Moreover, due to the absence of language barriers, the problem of integration and assimilation were minimal. This can be true only for the short distance migration.

Phakathong (1995)[81] stated that migration plays a crucial role in the process of urbanisation in Thailand. On the impact of migration, he argued that it adversely leads to lost of labour force and decline in the productive age group population in the source areas. On the other hand, migrants learned to adjust with the new environment and acquire new skills in the cities. The adverse effect on the destination areas were many-fold, some of which were emergence of slums and deterioration of the environment, unemployment and competition with the urban labour force, health problems etc.

Econtech (2006) [82] stressed that migration has straight forward effect on economic growth. Higher migration has the immediate effect of raising the rate of population growth. In their theoretical analysis, they stated that the average migrant is less financially wealthy than the average existing residents implying a short term dip in living standard for even the skilled migrants. It was pointed out that higher skilled migration can boost living to the extent that the additional skilled migrants are wealthier than the existing residents. The report also found that migration leads to economies of scale in network and diseconomies of scale from fixed natural resources. Higher skilled migration raises the labour force participation which in turn raises employment rate and consumption per head. It also argued that migration raise

[80] Sivakumar, M. N. (2000). Adjustment of Rural to Urban Migrants in a New Environment. A Study of a Town in Tamil Nadu. India Journal of Regional Science. Vol. XXXII, No. 1. Pp: 86-95

[81] Phakathong, P. (1995). Rural-Urban Migration and Social Problems: A Study on Social Problems Tracing The Influence of Migration in Thailand Metropolis. An unpublished Ph. D. Thesis submitted to the Marathwada University, Aurangabad.

[82] Econtech (2006). The Economic Impacts of Migration: A Comparison of Two Approaches**.** Department of Immigration and Multicultural Affairs. Sidney. Web-site: www.econtech.com.au Accessed: 05/11/2014

labour demand but existing residents may receive a greater benefit from this because employers rate them more highly than newly-arrived migrants.

Deshingkar and Akter (2009)[83], in their study on migration and human development in India, argued that the human costs of migration are high due to faulty implementation of protective legislation and loopholes in the law and not due to migration per se. It was found that rural-urban migration is the fastest growing type of migration as more migrants choose to work in better paying non-farm occupations in urban areas and industrial zones. Their findings revealed that working in harsh condition without adequate amenities and facilities often results into exploitation of the migrants. They also found that migration has both positive and negative impacts on human development. On the positive side it brings in cash which may result in an improvement in living standards and bring out from poverty line. It can also result in the learning of new skills and an improvement in social status. They stated that migration helped landless households to maintain their standard of living leading to better access to food, clothing and education, improved ability to spend on health, the ability to repay debts and renovate or build a house. Thus, migration is an important route out of poverty. On the other hand, migration carries the risk of injury, exposure to life threatening diseases and increased work burdens on housewife left behind. But the impacts of migration on poverty reduction and the contribution that migrants make to the economy are under-recognised.

Murakami, Yamada and Sioson (2019)[84] argued that there is reservation wage in the remittance recipient households, which led to decline in labour market participation in the place of origin in Tajikistan. The effect of such wage reservation is detrimental to the country's growth progress in the long run. Slow growth of job creation has failed to absorb the increasing labour force, whereby majority of the potential labour force were unwilling to work in domestic sector due to lower wage rate as compare to the wage rate in the destination areas. Thus, migration and remittance were found to reduce the propensity of the non-migrants to actively participate in the labour market due to reservation wage effect.

[83] Deshingkar, P. and S. Akter (2013). Migration and Human Development in India. UNDP Human Development Research Paper 2009/13. Accessed date:02/02/2015

[84] Murakami, Eiji Yamada, and Erica Sioson (2019). The Impact of Migration and Remittances on Labor Supply in Tajikistan. JICA-RI Working Paper. Vol. 181. Retrieved from https://www.researchgate.net. Access on 25/10/2019

Olajide (2019)[85] argued that there is high rural-urban migration in Nigeria and as a result, it has two fold effects. One is that of the benefits of remittance and the other is the loss of human resource in the place of origin. He attributed the root cause of migration in South East of Nigeria to poverty and economic backwardness of the country coupled with over population. In urban areas, the arrival of rural migrants brought with it cheap labour and at the same time, raise urban unemployment. It also led to infrastructural congestion, leading to expansion of slums, as a result of which many migrants end up in taking up of informal jobs. But few people managed to bring with them new skills, funds or production techniques, which help them in setting up their micro or small business units.

1.2.6. Migration and Remittance

Remittance was found to be playing a significant role in the economic development of the sending areas. In less developed areas, remittance raises consumption expenditure, investment in agriculture, education, health and reduce poverty. Remittances send by the urban migrants to their native villages help to reduce economic inequality among the social groups in the areas of origin (Rempel and Lobdell[86], 1978; Rozelle et al[87], 1999). So it is contributing to human development and capital formation among the migrants community.

Trager (1984)[88] argued that remittance plays an important role in reducing inequality in income distribution and agricultural production. It helped in raising consumption expenses as well as investment in education and capital formation. The study found that monetary remittance constitutes only one dimension of social and economic linkages between rural and urban areas. So, rural-urban migration demonstrated high degree of interaction between the migrants and the family at home.

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[85] Olajide,O.A (2019). Migration: Its Causes and Consequences In South East Nigeria Migration. Conference Paper of the 5th European Conference in African Studies. Retrieves from https://www.researchgate.net/ on 25/10/2019

[86] Rempel, H. and R.A. Lobdell (1978). The Role of Urban-To-Rural Remittances in Rural Development. *Journal of Development Studies*, 14, pp: 324-341

[87] Rozelle, Scott et al. (1999). Migration, Remittances and Agricultural Productivity in China." *American Economic Review*, 89(2), pp: 287-291

[88] Trager, L. L. (1984). Migration and Remittances: Urban Income and Rural Households in the Phillipines. The Journal of Developing Areas, Vol. 18, No. 3, pp: 317-340 Published by College of Business, Tennessee State University Stable web: http://www.jstor.org/stable/4191261 Accessed: 25-03-2015

His study also suggests that higher level of education and income were likely to remit more as they have larger access to resources but could not prove it empirically.

Conway and Cohen (1998) [89] opined that the Mexican families were increasingly depending on the remittance and that remittance is likely to become a critical resource for sustenance in rural Mexican communities. They observed that remittance investment has a progressive impact that outweighs the negative effect of migration. Yet remittances were primarily utilised on consumption purpose and whatever left is use on investment activities. They also found that those who were better off with other reliable source of local income benefited more from remittances than those poors. Remittances are often spent immediately to meet the primary needs of the family. It also leads to employment generation and development of the region through reinvestment of remittances. They also argued that remittance determines future migration of the people.

Stark and Lucas (1988)[90] argued that migration bears a very high risk as the migrant, on entering the place, has to search jobs. They argued that there were high chances of failure in entering into high paying jobs but easier to enter into low paying jobs and at the same time losing jobs may lead to involuntary unemployment for the migrants. But once the migrant established himself, obtains more secure employment, and accumulates location-specific capital, the risks associated with urban unemployment and future urban earnings typically diminishes. Remittances tend to rise with the level of education in most cases, for wages also rise with education. Thus, migration may be viewed fruitfully in terms of benefits generated through remittance and the linkages it maintained between the migrants and their families.

VanWey, K. L et.al (2005)[91], in their study on migration and remittances in Oaxaca states that migration from a community increases the consumption desires of its members, making them dependent on higher wages earned by migrants. Their

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[89] Conway, D. and J. H. Cohen (1998). Consequences of Migration and Remittances for Mexican Transnational Communities. Economic Geography. Volume 74, No.1 web: http://www.jstor.org/stable/144342. Accessed on 25-03-2015

[90] Stark, O. and R. E. B. Lucas (1988). Migration, Remittances, and the Family Economic Development and Cultural Change, Vol. 36, No. 3, pp: 465-481 Published by: The University of Chicago Press. Web: http://www.jstor.org/stable/1153807 Accessed: 25-03-2015.

[91] VanWey, K. L, C. M. Tucker and E. D. McConnell (2005). Community Organization, Migration, and Remittances in Oaxaca. Latin American Research Review, Vol. 40, No. 1. Pp: 83-107 Published by: The Latin American Studies Association. Web:www.jstor.org/stable/1555366 Accessed: 25-03-2015.

study shows that the vast majority of remittances are spent on current consumption needs and only sizeable amount were spend on investment in human capital, agriculture and other small businesses. It was found that young adult members of the community migrate for higher incomes to meet their own and their families' consumption needs while the aged persons and children stays back in the community. Families who receive remittances contributed to economic growth in the region. They categorically commented that some viewed remittances leads to increasing dependence in the origin areas on income from remittances while others viewed it as contribution to regional economy and loosening of household budget constraints. But the overall effect was that it raises community resources and local infrastructure and also migrants' status in the home community by conferring membership rights.

Rozelle, Taylor and deBrauw (1999)[92] suggested that migration generates statistically significant lost-labour effects that depress yields of maize production in China. They found that remittances are a positive function of migration, where one person increase in migration is associated with an 819-yuan increase in remittance income. They also argued that instead of restricting labour migration, policymakers need to help other rural markets to work more effectively. Finding the sources of labour-market imperfections and rectifying them where possible may help alleviate the negative effect of a migration. They suggest that providing households with credit by reforming the formal rural credit system or encouraging informal credit institutions could increase households' production efficiency and keep them from sending migrants out into the labour force primarily for financing on-farm activities or for insuring against on-farm income shocks.

Szabo et al. (2018)[93] reasserted that remittance contribution to world GDP is 0.7 per cent on average. For the least developed countries, its contribution account to 4.5 per cent. Remittances were found to be significant predictors of poverty reduction and contribute to food security and community development especially in least

[92] Rozelle, S., J. E.Taylor and A. deBrauw (1999). Migration, Remittances, and Agricultural Productivity in China. Vol. 89, No. 2, Papers and Proceedings of the One Hundred Eleventh Annual Meeting of the American Economic Association, pp. 287-291 Published by: American Economic Association Web: http://www.jstor.org/ Accessed: 25-03-2015

[93] Szabo, S., W. N. Adger & Z. Matthews (2018). Home is where the money goes: migration-related urban-rural integration in delta regions. migration-related urban-rural integration in delta regions, Migration and development, 2018 vol. 7, no. 2, 163–179 https://doi.org/10.1080/21632324.2017.1374506

developed countries. They also argued that households receiving remittances have shown higher subjective and objective standard of living. Their results also suggest that remittances have a significant positive effect on household well-being in the source rural areas, including overall income, investments in health, food security and access to sanitation. The results of statistical analysis show that both migrant attributes and household level characteristics have an important effect on the amount of remittances transferred back home. They show that determinants of remittances are not uniform and thus area specific analyses are required in order to assess the factors influencing remittance flows in a specific geographical location.

Adger et al. (2002) [94] argues that migration affects the income, wealth, knowledge base, use of natural resources and labour supply in both the receiving and sending areas. Remittance was found to enhance social resilience through risk spreading and providing flexibility in livelihood options. It also enhances the investment capacity in both physical and social capital, thereby enlarging their economic base. However, investment of income in unsustainable resource use or technology represents a loss to the society. At the same time, remittance also has the potential to increase economic inequality among the poor households, which may result into erosion of social resilience.

Hansraj (2008)[95], in his study found that remittances have been mainly used to meet the current consumption expenses, accounting for 67 per cent of the total remittance, main constituents being food items, wedding, medical, education, debt servicing and agricultural expenses. The remaining 32 per cent were used for construction or maintenance of houses, agricultural development, buying plots, shops and savings.

Ghosh and Chandrasekhar (2019)[96] argued that the amount of remittance send by the females tend to be more consistent and stable as compare to the male counterpart. This is basically because of the nature of services that the female

[94] Adger, W. N., P. M. Kelly, A. Winkels, L. Q. Huy and C. Locke (2002) Migration, Remittances, Livelihood Trajectories, and Social Resilience. Ambio, Vol. 31, No. 4, Population, Consumption, Environment , pp. 358-366

[95]Hanjraj, N. (2008). Migration to Urban Punjab: The Case of Ludhiana Metropolis. An unpublished Ph. D. Thesis submitted to the Jawaharlal Nehru University. New Delhi

[96] Ghosh, J. & Chandrasekhar, C.P. (2019). Migration and Remittances: The gender angle. Retrieved from: https://www.researchgate.net/ Date: 25/10/2019

migrants generally engaged in care service or hospitality sector. On the other hand, male migrants were found to be mostly engaged in manufacturing and construction sectors, whose occupation is likely to be affected directly by business cycles. They argued that, during the economic crisis, male migrants might lose their jobs and would lead to decline in the amount of remittance send home.

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1.2.7. Issues and Challenges

The mechanism of migration whether international or internal migration has been well researched and documented over the past years. Extensive research was done on the nature and consequences of migration by a number of geographers, economists and sociologists. In the contemporary world, developed countries are concern with the problems of international migration; developing countries must look for effective management of the internal migration, especially with regard to urban ward migration (Hansraj, 2008). Most of the migration studies were concerned with the issues of who migrates and where they migrated, why people migrated, pattern of flow and direction of migration and the consequences of migration (Mangalam, 1968)[98]. Geographers were mainly concerned with the spatial patterns and the direction of movement of the migrants. Economists were interested in studying the factors of migration, consequences and impact of migration on the migrant households, societies and on developmental arena. Sociologists focussed more on the sociological aspects of the migrants.

[97] Ghosh, J. & Chandrasekhar, C.P. (2019). Migration and Remittances: The gender angle. Retrieved from: https://www.researchgate.net/ Date: 25/10/2019

[98] Mangalam, J .J. and C. Morgan. (1968): "Human Migration: A guide to Migration Literature in English, 1955-1962", Lexington

One important aspect of the study of migration is the question of migrant's adjustment at the place of destination and the problems they face in the city after migration. This includes issues such as the nature of employment and income, earnings and living condition, social condition etc. in recent times; migration studies have emphasized on the issue of integration and assimilation of the migrants into the place of destination. Those migrants who came for better livelihood strategy remain unemployed or joined in the informal sector jobs. These migrants who remain unemployed after migration constitute the urban poor. Many of this community live in slum-like conditions characterized by unhygienic living conditions, poor drainage and drinking water facilities, without proper sanitation, housing and roads[99].

Opel (2005)[100] in his study on rural to urban labour migration in Afghanistan found that migration flow towards the cities was rapidly increasing. He also found that lack of work in the rural areas and the perception for better opportunities in towns was the major causes of migration. The costs associated with migration to the cities were found to be quite high. Personal savings constitute a major portion of the money used to migrate. Despite possessing the skills for certain jobs, daily wage labour and unskilled work in the construction sites were found to be the main sources of employment for the new migrants. Incidence of unemployment in cities remains high, and there are no formal opportunities for workers to gain skills that would help them to more secure employment. Despite the problems faced by the migrants in finding a job or a place to live and the high cost of living in the cities, many of the respondents felt that they had managed to improve their economic situation through migration.

Deshingkar and Akter (2009)[101] argued that the human costs of migration are high due to faulty implementation of protective legislation and loopholes in the law and not due to migration per se. It was found that rural- urban migration is the fastest growing type of migration as more migrants choose to work in better paying non-farm occupations in urban areas and industrial zones. Their findings revealed that

[99] GON-UNDP (2009). Rural-Urban Migration. A Thematic Report. GOI-UNDP Project report. Department of Planning and Coordination, Kohima, pp: 39

[100] Opel, A.(2005). Bound For The City: A Study of Rural to Urban. Labour Migration in Afghanistan. Working Paper Series (AREU). Website: www.areu.org.af Accessed date: 29/07/2015

[101] Deshingkar, P. and S. Akter (2013). Migration and Human Development in India. UNDP Human Development Research Paper 2009/13. Accessed date: 02/02/2015

migrants work long hours in harsh conditions; injuries are common and there is inadequate medical assistance or compensation and faced water, fuel, sanitation, diseases and security problems, harassment, abuse, theft, forcible eviction or the demolition of their dwellings by urban authorities or police. They also found that migration has both positive and negative impacts on human development. On the positive side it brings in cash which may result in an improvement in living standards and bring out from poverty line. It can also result in the learning of new skills and an improvement in social status. On the negative side migration carries the risk of injury, exposure to life threatening diseases and increased work burdens on housewife left behind. They stated that migration helped landless households to maintain their standard of living leading to better access to food, clothing and education, improved ability to spend on health, the ability to repay debts and renovate or build a house. Thus, migration is an important route out of poverty. But the impacts of migration on poverty reduction and the contribution that migrants make to the economy are under-recognised.

Bhagat (2017) [102] argued that India failed to safeguard the rights of the migrants in India and thus, the latter undergoes several hardships while in the process of migration. He reported that migrants encounter restrictions on their political and cultural rights at the hands of the local communities due to their linguistic and cultural differences. Often they were exploited because of their poor economic status and illiteracy which is more conspicuous among the female migrants. He is of the view that concentration of wealth in the hands of the few rich poeple has led to widening gap between the rural and urban income in India. This results from the exploitation of the poor who mostly engaged in informal sectors especially the women migrants who were mostly ignored even in urban planning and development strategy. Despite several hurdles and risk involve in the process of migration, there was an increase in the rate of migration among the women in India.

[102] Bhagat, R. B. (2017). Migration, Gender and Right to the City. Journal Vol. 52, Issue No. 32, 12 Aug, 2017

1.2.8. Policy Measures

Mosel el al. (2016)[103] argued that the policy focus on urban development has been bias towards big and megacities, while small and medium sized towns are the centres where most future urban development will take place. According to them, if cities are well managed, they can become the drivers of economic growth and have potential for energy security, economic and livelihood. They advocated for the promotion of innovative and sustainable urban development strategy, where large scale public sector, private sector, small scale sector should partner with the informal service providers in slum and peripheral urban areas. Connection of urban poor and those on the periphery of cities with the urban economy, its institutions and governance and services will ensure inclusive urban development. They also suggest that good urban governance, especially in peripheral areas of the urban centres between the multiple levels of government, between formal and informal service providers are key areas for sustainable urban development.

Tacoli et al. (2015) [104] opined urban capacities increase with urban economic growth and this happens when urbanisation is well-managed. If this increase capacity could be tap, the net effect of migration is likely to be positive. But when, urban expansion is poorly planned and ill-managed, the ill effect of urbanisation is much more severe. In addition to the limited resources to address urban problems; there is a lack of political will from the government. They argued that any policy that focuses on reducing rural-urban migration is detrimental to the poor migrants in urban areas. But any policy and program that are inclusive of all low income groups and recognize the needs of the diverse household and individual are more likely to curb urban poverty. For urban housing they suggest that collaboration between the organizations of the poor urban dwellers and local government for providing affordable housing to the former in the long run.

[103] Mosel, et al. (2016). Urbanisation, Consequences and Opportunities for the Netherlands' Directorate General for International Cooperation. Overseas Development Institute Report. Netherlands.

[104] Tacoli, C., G. McGranahan and D. Satterthwait (2015). Urbanisation, Rural–Urban Migration and Urban Poverty. IIED working paper. Retrieved from https://pubs.iied.org

Li (2011)[105] states that, to meet the increasing demand for housing in urban areas, social housing scheme or Public Rental Housing Scheme has been initiated and implemented to provide low cost housing to the poor urban dwellers in China since 2009. It is similar to Low Income Rental Housing scheme and Affordable Housing Scheme but has wider scope in terms of its coverage and operations, where private parties also involved in management and operation of the scheme. Because of its demand, the government envisages to construct 36 million rental housing units by 2016, which is likely to completely change the real estate market in China. This scheme is likely to solve the current housing problem, especially migrant workers and fresh graduates who are not entitle for permanent residence due to household registration system.

Banfield (1968)[106] suggest that legal barriers and laws which are detrimental to the free working of the labour market should be removed and improve free flow of information to the unskilled and informal sector workers. He also advocated welfare allowances to the rural and small town dwellers of unskilled Americans so as to discourage migration to cities. Provision for schooling and higher education of the underprivileged rural dwellers will curb both rural and urban problems to some degree.

Tacoli (2017) [107] opined that cities and municipal governments have huge responsibilities to address the needs of their people but they lack resources, capacity and political will. Lack of information on the poor migrants' data also limits the local government in assessing the status of the urban poor. According to the author, inclusive urbanisation that address the need of all, be it low income group or long residents, still remains an elusive in many cities. So collaboration between the low income groups and city governments will provide a window for assessing the magnitude of the problem. But the best policy for effective management of the cities will be to ensure full citizenship rights to all the people, for this is the key

[105] Li, X. (2011). Public Renting Housing Development in China. (Unpublished Thesis submitted to the Department of Architecture Building Environment, Stockholm for the Master of Science degree). Retrieved from www.diva-portal.org

[106] Banfield, E. C. (1968). Why Government Cannot Solve the Urban Problems. In The Conscience of the City, pp 1231-1241. MIT Press. Retrieved from htpp://www.jstor.org

[107] Tacoli, C. (2017). Migration and inclusive urbanization. Background Paper on UN Expert Group Meeting on Sustainable Cities, Human Mobility and International Migration. New York, 2017 Retrieved from www.un.org

disadvantage for the migrants and also the reason for marginalizing the low income groups in the urban areas.

Lundius et al. (2014)[108] argued that policies specifically targeted to curb migration would result in marginalizing the individual and groups, increase insecurity, criminality, environmental degradation and reduce human well being and economic development. So, instead of erecting barriers to human migration, integrated regional, rural and urban development strategies should be adopted for the benefit of all. Upgrading slum would benefit the whole community by reducing urban poverty rather than curbing it. They suggested for computing information on the movement of migrants so as to record the status of such migrants. The government should recognize the benefits of remittance send by the internal migrants and kept tract of the impact of such remittance on poverty alleviation. They opined that if internal migration is adequately analyze and its shortcoming like overcrowding in the destination place, unemployment and environmental degradation, then it can serve as an effective tool for poverty alleviation, inclusive human and economic development.

Kasper (2017)[109] argued that urban policing and eviction are linked to racial discrimination and exclusion that affects the deprived groups, leading to socio-economic exclusion. Inclusive policy improves the well-being of the low income groups by availing access to resource, services and markets. Inclusive cities views more participation of the marginalized groups, such as migrants, children, women, minority groups and low income groups in policy making process, sharing of resources and giving some degree of equality in accessing basic services, affordable housing, education etc. He argued that cities and urban centres are perceived as potential contributors to economic development rather than on social and environmental goals, which need to be corrected.

Kundu (2007)[110] opined that the capacity of the local government to create self employment and asset creation program is limited. Moreover, the result from past

[108] Lundius, R. V. et al. (2014). Synthesis Report on Internal Migration and Urbanisation. Retrieved from: http://www.knomad.org/

[109] Kasper, I. et al. (2017). Inclusive Urbanisation and Cities in the Twenty-First Century. Evidence Report No 220. Retrieved from https://www.researchgate.net/

[110] Kundu, A. (2007). Migration and Urbanisation in the Context of Poverty Alleviation. Retrieved from http://www.networkideas.org

employment schemes were not encouraging. So he suggests that any program to alleviate poverty should be that of providing basic amenities in urban areas. Such program must include all sections of the society, including the migrants. Any developmental projects should be formulated and implemented effectively through proper monitoring so as that the vested individuals do not corner a large part of the benefits. The city or local government have limited resources and need to be back up by more funds through devolution. Giving more technical personnel and training the existing staff will boost the function of the municipal bodies. He also suggested for strengthening infrastructural base in small towns, which in turn will encourage manufacturing activities and discourage migration to cities.

Maria, Athena, et al (2019)[111], argued that the old age dependency rate will increase in future, which will directly affect the labour market in European countries and distort the growth process. In their attempt to estimate the employability of the migrants and refugees in host countries, they found that different countries have varied sectors which have wide potential to absorb the migrants into its economic system. What the country need in its process of integration of the migrant labour in to its economy is to assess and identify the skill mismatch between the migrants' skill and labour demand of the domestic market.

1.3. AREA AND PERIOD OF STUDY

Nagaland is the 16th State of India and located in the north-eastern part of India. It is bordered by Assam in the north and west, Arunachal Pradesh and Myanmar in the east and Manipur in the south. It has an area of 16579 sq. km. with the population of 19,78,502, out of which 71.14 per cent of the population lives in rural areas and 28.97 per cent in urban areas[112]. The State has 12 districts, viz, Dimapur, Kohima, Kiphire, Mokokchung, Longleng, Mon, Peren, Phek, Tuensang, Wokha, Zunheboto and Noklak, which are inhabited mostly by tribal population. Nagaland experienced 69.44 % urban growth in the last decade (2011 Census). According to the latest census report of India, 28.97 percent live in urban areas in

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[111] Markaki, M. & B. R, Athena et al (2019). Migration and Employability Indicators: A Structural Analysis. Conference Paper. Retrieved from: https://www.researchgate.net/ on 25/10/2019

[112] Census of India, 2011

Nagaland, which is close to national figure of 31.16 percent. Nagaland has 8 statutory towns and 3 census towns in 2001 which increased to 19 and 7 in 2011 respectively.

According to the Nagaland State Human Development Report (NSHDR) 2017, the total workforce in Nagaland was about 42.74 per cent of the total population in 2001, which was increased to 49.24 per cent of the total population in 2011. The share of main workers was 47.53 per cent in 1981, which decreased to 42.29 per cent in 1991 and further to 35.62 per cent in 2001 but slightly increased to 37.46 percent in 2011. The share of marginal workers in total population in 1981 was 0.70 per cent, which decreased to 0.39 per cent in 1991 but again increased to 7.12 per cent in 2001 and to 23.92 per cent in 2011.

Education is one of the largest means to improve personal endowments, enhance human capital and productivity and broaden livelihood options[113]. The literacy rate for Nagaland with 79.6 % is found to be higher than the national average of 74.4%. The male literacy rate was 82.8% and female was 76.1% as per 2011 census. The total number of educational institutions increased from 766 in 1963 to 2806 in 2015-16. Out of this, government managed institutions accounts for 76.7 percent, while 23.3 percent in under privately managed.

Health care services are very crucial for ensuring a reasonable life span of an individual in a society. It was observed that the health infrastructure in the State has improved considerably in recent times against the backdrop of decreasing medical personals[114]. The State has a Maternal Mortality Rate (MMR) of 160/100000 live births and Infant Mortality Rate (IMR) of 29/1000 live births as against the national average of 212 MMR and 40 IMR respectively. The total fertility rate for Nagaland was 2 against 2.7 for all India level.

Out of the 12 districts in Nagaland, Kohima and Dimapur has been purposively selected as sample area for the study. Kohima district has a geographical area of 1463 sq. km., with a population of 267,988 and a density of 183/sq.km. As per the 2011 Census Report, 45.2 percent of the people in the district live in urban areas. It has average literacy rate of 85.23%, with the male literacy rate of 88.69% and the

[113] Yelhi, V. (2012). Economic Growth and Human Development in Nagaland. Pp.

[114] Humtsoe, N.J. (2017). Impact of Human Capital on Employment and Income: A Comparative Study of Wokha and Zunheboto Districts of Nagaland. (An un-published Ph. D. Thesis submitted to the Department of Economics). Nagaland University, Nagaland, pp.46

female literacy rate of 81.48%. The sex ratio for Kohima is 928/1000 males. Dimapur district has geographical area of 927 sq. km. with a population of 378,811 and density of 409/sq.km. The district has literacy rate of 84.79%, with male literacy of 87.54% and 81.77% for females. It has sex ratio of 919/1000 male which is less than the state average of 931/1000 male[115].

Kohima is the State's capital and Dimapur is the only commercial hub of the state well connected by rail and airways. In both these towns commercial, educational and administrative functions are expanding quite fast in recent times. Prospect of higher education and job opportunities, specialised health care facilities, cultural contact, sports, transport and hotel facilities etc. serves as a medium for attracting migrants in to these cities in Nagaland. These two urban cities were therefore, chosen as a representative sample for the state of Nagaland. At the macro level, the analysis of the process of urbanisation and migration were considered for the period from 1981 to 2011 for the state of Nagaland. At the micro level, it has taken a single time period, based on the sample survey conducted during 2015-16.

1.4. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The dynamics and impact of migration is not country or location specific and its underlying causes are similar across the board. The push factors operating the system are lack of facilities like quality education, limited job opportunities for aspiring rural youth, unemployment and livelihood issues in the rural areas are the main causes for migration in Nagaland. Pull factors from urban centres like attractive urban transport facilities, housing, expectation of higher income and employment, modern sophisticated technologies, quality educational and health care facilities, urban lifestyle etc. are equally pulling the migrants into the cities and towns, especially to the two urban centres, viz. Kohima and Dimapur.

In particular, Kohima town is the main conduit of attracting rural populace not only from nearby villages but also from different parts of the state and outside as well. Kohima is a conglomeration of diverse culture and race. It is represented by all Naga tribes at every hierarchy in the socio-economic set-up and large influx of immigrants both young and old seeking better urban amenities and livelihood has added more fuel to the already existing problems in the town. On the other hand,

[115] Census of India 2011

Dimapur, the commercial hub of the state, has been expanding rapidly, leading to shortage of urban amenities to support its ever increasing population. The consequent effect in both cities are socio-economic stratification, rising urban poverty, shortage of proper housings and potable drinking water, unviable waste disposal leading to environment pollution, increasing transport congestions, poor sanitation etc. In this situation, majority of the migrants coming from rural areas, smaller urban centres and outside the state suffer hardships leading to poor health and quality of live. Not only that, in the absence of proper and sustainable town planning and adequate resources, the Municipal Corporations are facing mounting problems relating to urban planning and execution.

The existing urban infrastructure and services in the urban centres are unable to cope with the growing population pressure. Thus, there is an urgent need for development of basic infrastructure such as roads, water supply, health care facility, education and affordable homes, electricity etc. With urban centres being the conduit point for any political, social, economic and market related major transactions, there is need to formulate fresh policy for urban rejuvenation and development. Nagaland does not need mega cities but needs to sustain its people in the longer run and following India's urbanisation pattern might not be the most incredible idea. A delicate geography needs a delicate planning.

1.5. LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

There are important lacunae that limit this study. First, the study purposively deals with the in-migrants in two main cities in Nagaland, viz, Dimapur and Kohima. As such, the same condition that prevailed in these two cities may not be applicable in other smaller towns in Nagaland. Due to limited availability of records, literatures and documentations for Nagaland on the current study topic, secondary data were based mainly on Census and NSSO data and other relevant books and journals.

1.6. OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

1) To examine the trends of urbanisation and migration.
2) To analyse the economic status of the migrants in urban centres in the state.
3) To examine the pull and push factors influencing the migration mechanism.
4) To study the impact of migration on income and employment.
5) To analyse the magnitude of socio-economic problems faced by the migrants in urban centres.
6) To suggest policy guidelines, that could serve as a useful tool for future city/town planning.

1.7. HYPOTHESES

1) There is a direct relationship between urban growth and migration in the State.
2) Individual migration decision is based mainly on economic factors and there is no difference in the factors influencing migration to urban centres between rural and urban origin.
3) Education has higher positive influence on income than age and sex of the migrants.
4) Migrants with higher education and income are likely to remit more than the others.

1.8. METHODOLOGY

To do in-depth analysis of the sample data, the following methodology has been adopted.

1.8.1. Data Base

The present study is based on both primary and secondary data. The primary data were collected through stratified sample survey using questionnaire and direct interview methods. The secondary data have been drawn from both published and unpublished sources, which include Census Reports, Statistical Handbooks, NSSO reports, State Human Development Reports, unpublished doctoral theses and other official records.

1.8.2. Sample Design

The study is exhaustive in its scope and was based on selected samples of urban population from the sample areas, viz. Dimapur and Kohima cities. The primary data have been collected using stratified random sampling method. Firstly, the selected

sample urban areas have been stratified according to the well defined municipal wards. Then, in the second stage, 10 (ten) wards from each city have been purposefully selected, which were most noticeably migrant-concentrated wards. In the third stage, from each of the selected ward, 20 (twenty) households who have migrated since 2001 on were selected as sample units, who represented the diverse socio-economic characteristics of the study area. The total sample has 400 respondents.

1.8.3. Data analysis

The data collected through field surveys have been tabulated and analyse at the State, district and individual levels using appropriate statistical tools, such as:

(i) Mean: Mean (x) is the average value of the total set of observations. It is obtained by dividing the summation of value of observations ($\sum x$) by the number of observations (N). It is mathematically expressed as:

$$x = \sum x/N$$

where, x = arithmetic mean,

$\sum x$ = Summation of value of observations,

N = Total number of observations.

(ii) Standard Deviation: The Standard Deviation can be defined as the square root of the mean of the square deviations, when such deviation for the value of individual items in the series are obtained from the arithmetic mean, and is denoted by the small Greek letter sigma (σ). The smaller the value of standard deviation, the greater is the degree of uniformity in the observations. It is mathematically expressed as:

$$\text{Standard Deviation } (\sigma) = \sqrt{\sum fd^2/ N - (\sum fd/N)^2} \times i$$

Where, i is the class interval.

(iii) Correlation: Correlation is an analysis of the co-variation between two or more variables. It is a statistical tool to measure the degree of closeness of the relationship among the variables involves in the observation. It is denoted by r and is expressed as:

$$\mathbf{R = \{N\sum dxdy - (\sum dx)(\sum dy)\} \div \{\sqrt{N\sum dx^2 - (\sum dx)^2}\ \sqrt{N\sum dy^2 - (\sum dy)^2}\}}$$

(iv) Regression: Regression is a mathematical tool to analyse the functional relationship between two or more variables[116]. In regression analysis, one variable is taken as the dependent variable and the other as the independent variable or the predictor value. The regression equation is given as:

$$\mathbf{Y = a + bX_0 + bX_1 + ... + bX_n + \mathcal{E}}$$

Where, 'a' is the intercept, 'b' and 'c' are the coefficients and X_o and X_1 .....X_n represents different independent variables in the observation and Ɛ is the error term.

(v) Lorenz Curve and Gini Coefficient: Income inequality between different groups of income has been examined with the help of Lorenz Curve and compared the inequality level before and after migration. The degree to which the Lorenz Curve deviates from the line of perfect equality is the measure of the inequality in income distribution. The degree of inequality is determined by the distance between the perfect equality line and the Lorenz Curve lying below the perfect equality line.

Gini Coefficient (GC) is a measure to describe the extent of inequality. It is express as the ratio of the area between the line of equality and the Lorenz Curve. It is expressed as:

GC =Area between Lorenz Curve and Diagonal ÷ Total Area under Diagonal

The Gini value 0 (zero) indicates perfect equality and the value 1 indicates perfect inequality. The Gini Coefficient gives mathematical expression of the level of concentration. The value of Gini Coefficient above .5 is considered to be a high inequality[117]. It is expressed as;

$$\mathbf{GC = \sum[(Pi\text{-}1 \times Qi)\text{-}(Pi \times Qi\text{-}1)]}$$[118]

Where, Pi is the cumulative proportion of the character, whose equality is being investigated, Qi is cumulative proportion of the variable which is acting as a criterion for the measurement.

[116] Gupta, S. P. (1997). Statistical Methods. Sultan Chand & Sons, New Delhi. pp. 11.4
[117] UNDP (2005). *Human Development Report*, Oxford University Press New York
[118] Johnstone, J.N. (1976). Indicators of the performance of Educational System, IIP Occasional Paper No. 41,UNESCO, Paris, http://www.eric.ed.gov/PDFS/ED139063.pdf.accessed on 20/02/2019

(vi) Chi-Square Test: Chi-Square Test is a test to test the statistical significance of the observed relationship with respect to the expected relationship[119]. The calculation of the test involved the sum of the square of the deviation between the observed and the expected frequencies, which is divided by the expected frequency. It is expressed as,

$$\mathbf{x^2} = \sum \frac{(fo-fe)^2}{fe}, \quad \text{and}$$

$$df = (r-1)\,(c-1)$$

where, fe = is the expected value of the observation, or

$$fe = \frac{(row\ marginal\ total)(column\ marginal\ total)}{N}$$

fo is the observed value and x^2 is the chi-square

df is the degree of freedom; 'c' and 'r' is column and row marginal total respectively.

(vii) Compound Annual Growth Rate (CAGR): The Compound Annual Growth Rate (CAGR) has been used to estimate the average annual growth rate for urbanisation and migration in Nagaland. CAGR is the mathematical measure for annually compounded basis for a specific period of time, expressed in percentage. It is calculated by using the formula;

$$CAGR = (\text{Initial value} / \text{Final Value})^{1/n} - 1$$

Where, n is the period of time, say in years.

(viii) Incremental Increase Method

The incremental increase method is use to project the future population of a region or place. In this method, average increase per decade and average percentage increase in population were calculated. Then, the future population is work out using the following rule;

[119] Statistical Solution (2009). Chi-Square Test. Web: https://www.statisticssolutions.com/chi-square-test/ Retrieved on 18-08-2019

$$P_n = P_o + n\bar{x} + \frac{n(n+1)}{2} \cdot \bar{y}$$

Where, P_n = Future population after n decades

P_o = Present population

n = number of decades

$\bar{x}$ = average increase of the known decades

$\bar{y}$ = average of incremental increase of the known decades

The population of the State has been projected for the period till 2051 with the use of incremental increase method.

(ix) Z- Score[120]

Z-score is a numerical measurement used in statistics of a value's relationship to the mean of a group of values, measured in terms of the standard deviations from the mean. The method has been applied in the current study to determine the comparative level of living standard of the migrants in the Kohima and Dimapur. The value of Z-score for each variable has been estimated with the given formula as:

$$Zi = (X_{ij} - X_j) \div S_j$$

Where, Z_i = Z score for the i^{th} household

X_{ij} = X variable in the i^{th} household and j^{th} variable in the population

X_j = mean of j^{th} variable

S_j = Standard deviation of j^{th} variable

After the calculation of Z- score for all the variables, a composite score has been constructed using the rule as follows:

$$C_i = \sum Z_{ij}$$

Where, C_i = Composite score for i^{th} household

$\sum Zij$ = Summation of Z scores for i^{th} household

[120] Banerjee, A. and D. Ahluwalia (2003). Regional Disparities in Demographic, Economic and Social Development in India: A Study based on Selected Indicators. In A C Mohaparatra and Chitta Ranjan Pathak (Eds.) Economic Liberalization and Regional Disparities in India, Star Publishing House, Shillong. Pp: 76.

Based on the total scores (composite score) from the given parameters, the living standards of the migrants were categorized into 3 categories, viz. High living standard, medium living standard and low living standard.

1.9. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The present study is based on the intensive field work carried out at the micro level in Dimapur city and Kohima town. The aim of the study is not simply to highlight some factual descriptions on the level of urbanisation and migration or its characteristics in Nagaland. But it also seeks to examine the process of urbanisation and migration, causes and consequences of migration and the major issues faced by the migrants so as to determine their economic status. Though the study is confined to Dimapur and Kohima districts, yet the findings from the present study are most likely to be applicable in all other smaller towns in India in general and the hilly urban towns in North East India in particular. The current study is not only of academic interest but also has practical significance as well, which will provide useful insights for the policy planners and also a reference point to the future researchers.

1.10. CHAPTERISATION

The current study has been chapterized as follows:

1. Introduction

This chapter deals with the theoretical frameworks, literature review, statement of the problem, the need and area of the study, objective, hypotheses, methodology and limitation and significance of the study.

2. Migration and Urbanisation

An insight into the trends of urbanisation and migration, rate and streams of migration, duration and growth of urban population in India, with special reference urban centres in Nagaland are presented in this chapter.

3. Profile of the Sample Population

The characteristics of the respondents including demographic, economic and pattern of migration are presented in this section of the thesis.

4. Reasons for Migration

The investigations on the reasons for migration in India and factors of migration (both push and pull factors) in Nagaland are incorporated here.

5. Impact of Migration on Employment and Income

This chapter examined the economic impact of migration on the migrants in India, special with reference to Nagaland.

6. Issues and Challenges

Current issues and problems faced by the urban migrants in Nagaland are presented in this chapter. Also, the living condition of the migrants were assessed and categorised into high, medium and low levels.

7. Findings and Conclusion

This chapter summarized the major findings, recommendations and policy implications.

CHAPTER 2

MIGRATION AND URBANISATION

After the independence, India had made a tremendous progress in the process of urbanisation concomitant with economic development. As its economy progress, the pace of urbanisation also becomes rapid in the country especially after 1960s. Rapid urbanisation on the other hand, propelled migration of the people from rural areas in to the urban centres. There has been much debate on the impact of migration on urbanisation and vice-versa in recent times. According to Das and Saha (2012), migration and development are strongly interrelated. They argued that migration is not merely a natural outcome of development rather it is a result of distortion in developmental process from faulty planning. Developed regions act as a strong force of attraction for migrants because of the availability of numerous opportunities on one hand. On the other hand, those people in rural areas or under-developed regions have fewer options for livelihood. So as to escape insecurity they migrate out to find alternative source of livelihood in urban area where opportunities are more and varied. Migration plays an important role in the process of urbanisation. Urbanisation brings development and this attracts migrants from the surrounding rural areas (Phakathong, 1995).

This chapter examines the level and extent of urbanisation and migration in India in general and Nagaland in particular. It covers pattern of urbanisation, migration rate, migration streams, migration by last usual place of residence, duration, inter-state, inter-district and intra-district migration in India and Nagaland.

2.1. URBANISATION IN INDIA

Growth of urbanisation in India has been attributed to both natural growth and migration from rural to urban areas. There were only five cities in India with a population of 1 million and above during 1951, which increased to 53 during 2011 and is expected to reached 70 by 2031 (Shadashivam and Tabassu, 2016). Apparently, urbanisation process becomes more conspicuous after 1980s. With the liberalisation of Indian economy it has been noticed that economic activities are mostly concentrated in the urban centres, leading to large influx of migrants from the surrounding areas to the heart of the cities and towns. Therefore, a steady growth of

urban population is evident in India. In 1961, urban population in India was only 79 million, which rose to 159 million in 1981, and to more than 377 million during 2011.

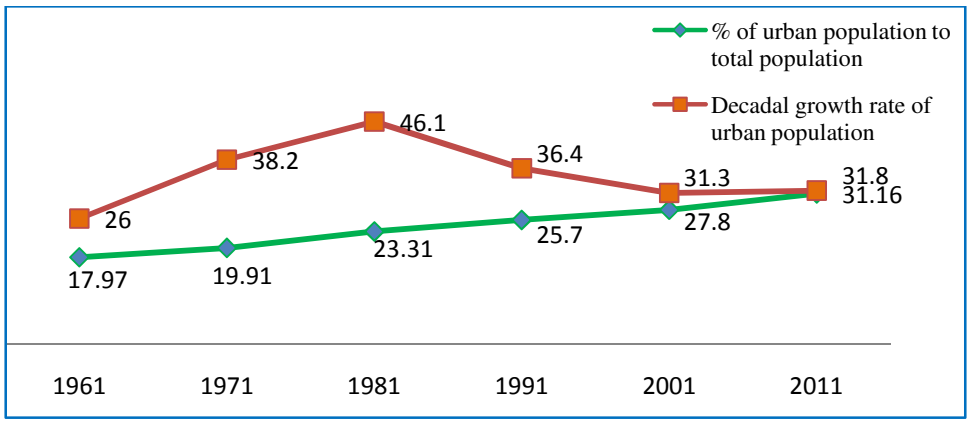
Table 2.1. Trends of Urban Population Growth in India (1961-2011)

Year	Total Population (million)	Urban Population (in millions)	% of urban to total population	Decadal growth rate of urban population
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
1961	439.2	78.9	17.97	26
1971	548.2	109.1	19.91	38.2
1981	683.2	159.5	23.31	46.1
1991	846.4	217.6	25.7	36.4
2001	1028.6	286.1	27.8	31.3
2011	1210.6	377.1	31.16	31.8
CAGR	22	37		

Note: 'CAGR' stands for compound annual growth rate
Source: Census of India, 1981- 2011

The table shows that the urban population in India was growing at a compound annual growth rate (CAGR)[121] of 37 % and total population by 22 % during the last 5 decades. This implies that the urban population is growing at a much faster rate than the total population during the period.

Figure 2.1. Urban and Total Population Growth in India (1961-2011)



Source: Computed from table 2.1

In figure 2.1, the proportion of urban to total population and the decadal growth rate of urban population are given. On average, urban population has grown at about 35 per cent during 1961-2011 in India. During 1961 to 1981 it rose from 26% to 46.1

[121] Compound Annual Growth Rate is the annual growth rate of population over a period of time expressed in terms of percentage.

%, thereafter decline to31.3 per cent in 2001 and 31.8 per cent in 2011. The highest growth rate was recorded during 1971-81. The level of urbanisation was increased from 17.97 per cent in 1961 to 23.31 per cent in 1981 and reached 31.16 per cent in 2011.

2.1.1. Urban Population in Indian States/UTs

Table 2.2 gives the status of urban population for each state and Union Territories (UTs) in India based on the Census report of 2011.

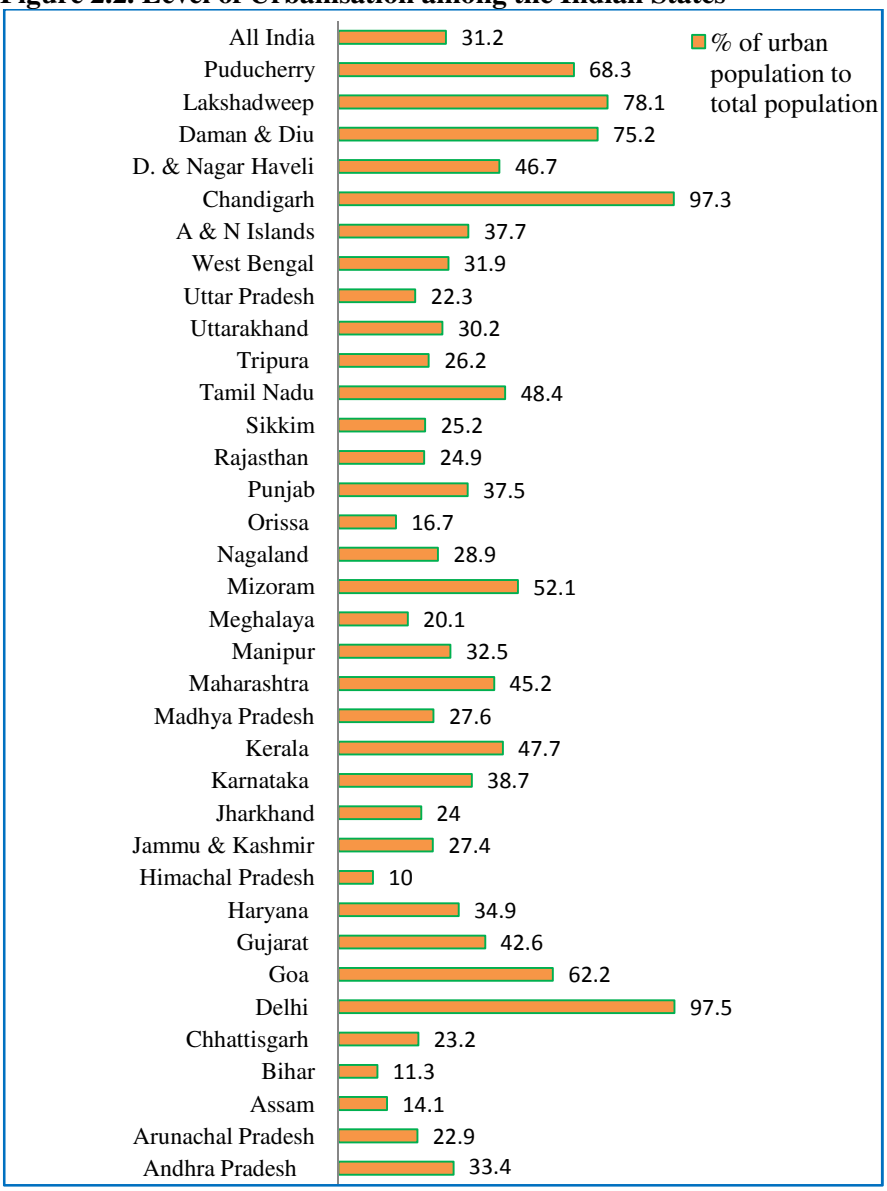
Table 2.2. State-wise Urban and Total Population in India-2011

Sl. No.	States/ UTs	Urban Population (000)	% of urban to total pop.	Sl. No.	States/ UTs	Urban population (000)	% of urban to total pop.
1	Andhra Pradesh	28,219	33.4	19	Mizoram	572	52.1
2	Arunachal Pradesh	317	22.9	20	Nagaland	571	28.9
3	Assam	4,399	14.1	21	Orissa	7,004	16.7
4	Bihar	11,758	11.3	22	Punjab	10,399	37.5
5	Chhattisgarh	5,937	23.2	23	Rajasthan	17,048	24.9
6	Delhi	16,369	97.5	24	Sikkim	154	25.2
7	Goa	907	62.2	25	Tamil Nadu	34,917	48.4
8	Gujarat	25,745	42.6	26	Tripura	961	26.2
9	Haryana	8,842	34.9	27	Uttarakhand	3,049	30.2
10	Himachal Pradesh	689	10	28	Uttar Pradesh	44,495	22.3
11	Jammu & Kashmir	3,433	27.4	29	West Bengal	29,093	31.9
12	Jharkhand	7,933	24	30	A & N Islands	144	37.7
13	Karnataka	23,626	38.7	31	Chandigarh	1,026	97.3
14	Kerala	15,935	47.7	32	D. & Nagar Haveli	161	46.7
15	Madhya Pradesh	20,069	27.6	33	Daman & Diu	183	75.2
16	Maharashtra	50,818	45.2	34	Lakshadweep	50	78.1
17	Manipur	834	32.5	35	Puducherry	852	68.3
18	Meghalaya	595	20.1		**All India**	**377106**	**31.2**

Source: Census of India, 2011

Among the States and Union Territories, the highest level of urbanisation is Delhi, where 97.5 per cent of population live in urban areas, followed by Chandigarh (97.3%) and Lakshadweep (78.1%). Among the States in India, Goa has the highest proportion of urbanisation with 62.2 %, followed by Mizoram (52.1 %) and Tamil Nadu (48.4%). The lowest level of urbanisation is in Himachal Pradesh where only 10 % of the population live in urban areas, followed by Bihar with 11 % and Assam with 14 %. In Nagaland, only 28.9 per cent of the population live in urban areas, which is lower than the national average of 31.2 per cent in 2011.

Figure 2.2. Level of Urbanisation among the Indian States



Source: Table 2.2

2.2. MIGRATION IN INDIA

Urbanisation and migration is directly linked to each other. Migration is a diverse concept. Improvement in infrastructure such as transport and communication system, education and health care, shift of workforce from agriculture to industry and lower cost of human mobility has accelerated the movement of people in recent times in India[122]. Improved information flow system has also lowered the cost of migration and the speed needed to move between the place of origin and destination centre easier. All these developments have impacted the pattern and pace of migration in India[123].

This chapter examines the general patterns of internal migration in India with special reference to Nagaland. While analysing the pattern of migration in India, an effort has been made to bring out the major characteristics of the migrants relating to sex, stream of migration, duration of migration, etc.

The total urban population of the country (excluding Jammu & Kashmir) increases from 217.6 million in 1991 to 283.6 million in 2001 and 277.1 million in 2011, registering a growth rate of 30.3 per cent (table 2.2). The data on migration by place of last residence in India shows that the total number of migrants has been 314 million or 31.6 % of the total population in 2001, which increased to 455.7 million in 2011 (or 37.6% of the total population)[124].

The migration data of 2011 census also indicates 78.2 million people enumerated in urban areas were migrated from rural areas, which is 17 per cent of the urban migrants in India. About 26.9 million people migrated from urban areas to rural areas during the same period. Thus, the net addition to urban population is 28.8 million, which implies that 7.6 per cent of the urban population growth is contributed by migration in India[125].

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[122] Singh, V. K. et.al. (2011). Changing Pattern of Internal Migration in India: Some Evidences From Census Data. International Journal of Current Research Vol. 33, Issue, 4, pp: 289-295,

[123] Srivastava, R. (2011). *Internal Migration in India*. In: Internal Migration in India Initiative. Vol.2 Workshop Paper

[124] Census 2011, D1-Migration in India

[125] The contribution of urban population growth in India by migration does not include international migration.

2.2.1. Migrant Population in India

The last four Census data on migration clearly shows an increasing proportion of migrants to total population in India, which declined from 30.4 per cent in 1981 to 27.7 per cent in 1991 and increased to 30.6 per cent in 2001 and 37.7% in 2011. For rural areas, this proportion increased from 21.4 to 22.9 per cent from 1981 to 2011. The share of urban migrant to total population increased from 9 per cent in 1981 to 14.7 per cent in 2011 (table 2.3).

Table 2. 3. Trends of Migration in India, 1991-2011 (in millions)

Census Year	Sector/ Rural/ Urban	Males		Females		Persons		
		Freq.	% to total migrants	Freq.	% to total migrants	Freq.	%	% to total population
1981	Total	62.4	30.1	145.2	69.9	207.7	100	30.4
	Rural	32.9	15.8	113.6	54.7	146.5	70.5	21.4
	Urban	29.6	14.2	31.6	15.2	61.2	29.5	9.0
1991	Total	64.3	27.7	167.8	72.3	232.1	100	27.4
	Rural	32.8	14.1	129.7	55.9	162.5	70	19.2
	Urban	31.5	13.6	38.2	16.5	69.7	30	8.2
2001	Total	93.4	29.7	221.2	70.3	314.6	100	30.6
	Rural	43.9	13.9	166.5	52.9	210.4	66.9	20.5
	Urban	49.5	15.7	54.7	17.4	104.2	33.1	10.1
2011	Total	146.2	32.1	309.6	67.9	455.8	100	37.7
	Rural	64.7	14.2	213.4	46.8	278.2	68	22.9
	Urban	81.4	17.9	96.1	21.1	177.6	22.8	14.7
CAGR	Total	32.8		28.7		29.9		

Source: Computed from census of India, 1981, 1991 and 2011.

It is evident from the above table that the proportion of male migrants to total migrants increased from 30.1 per cent in 1981 to 32.1 per cent in 2011 and that of females declined from 69.9 per cent in 1981 to 67.9 per cent in 2011. It is also evident that the CAGR for male is higher (32.8%) than the females (28.7%) and average for all India (29.9%).

2.2.2. Migration Rate in India

Changes in the migration rate over the period from 1983 to 2008 have been given in table 2.4, where migration rate for different category of persons and sectors in India have been presented. Migration rate for rural males has been declining steadily from 7.2 per cent in 1983 to 6.5 per cent in 1993 and 5.4 per cent in 2007-08. Unlike males, it is gradually increasing for rural females; from about 35 per cent in

1983 to 40 per cent in 1993 and 48 per cent in 2007-08. Thus, migration rate for rural areas at all India level shows an increasing trend, i.e., from about 21 per cent in 1983 to 23 per cent in 1993 and reached 26 per cent in 2007-08.

For urban areas, while male migration rate was 27 per cent in 1983, it fall to 23.9 per cent in 1993 and again rose to 25.9 per cent in 2007-08. Urban female migration is also increasing but little slower than that in rural areas. It increased from 36.6 per cent in 1983 to 38.2 per cent in 1993 and 45.6 per cent in 2007-08. Similarly, the total urban migration in India is also increasing though slower than in rural areas. It is seen from the above table that the migration among the male is diminishing throughout the period while that of female is increasing in both the rural as well as urban areas. The trend shows gradual increase in both rural and urban areas in all the survey periods.

Table 2. 4. Migration Rate in India (1983-2010)

	Category								
Sectors	**Rural**			**Urban**			**Total**		
NSS Rounds	**Male**	**Female**	**Total**	**Male**	**Female**	**Total**	**Male**	**Female**	**Total**
(1)	***(2)***	***(3)***	***(4)***	***(5)***	***(6)***	***(7)***	***(8)***	***(9)***	***(10)***
2007-08	5.4	47.7	26.1	25.9	45.6	35.4	15.7	46.7	30.8
1999-2000	6.9	42.6	24.4	25.7	41.8	33.4	16.3	42.2	30.7
1993	6.5	40.1	22.8	23.9	38.2	30.7	15.2	34.2	26.8
1987-88	7.4	39.8	23.2	26.8	39.6	32.9	17.1	39.7	28.1
1983	7.2	35.1	20.9	27	36.6	31.6	17.1	35.9	26.3

Source: NSSO 55th Round and 64th Rounds, 2010

The data on migration rate beyond this period is currently not available from the same source or Census data.

It is observed that male migration rate has declined while that of female has increased steadily over the period. On an average, migration rate has steadily increased in India which rose from 26.3% in 1983 to 30.7% in 1999-2000 and 30.8% in 2007-08. Migration rate for each States and Union Territories are given in table 2.5. It is clearly seen that more advanced states as well as backward states have relatively higher migration rates. This might be the result of high out migration rates from economically less developed States on the one hand, and high in-migration to

economically developed States in India. It is generally accepted that more developed regions has greater pulling force of migrants from least developed regions. On the other side, less development regions are prone to more distress due to lack of diversified livelihood opportunities which force many individuals to resort to out-migration. Many scholars view that economically weaker section of the people resort to migration to escape poverty in their place of origin.

Table 2.5. State-wise Migration Rate in India

State/U.T/All-India	Percentage	States/UTs	Percentage
Andhra Pradesh	31.4	Mizoram	15.3
Arunachal Pradesh	1.3	Nagaland	13.4
Assam	13.4	Orissa	30.2
Bihar	20.4	Punjab	33.4
Chhattisgarh	32.0	Rajasthan	30.5
Delhi	42.0	Sikkim	33.6
Goa	30.6	Tamil Nadu	23.2
Gujarat	32.3	Tripura	11.7
Haryana	33.0	Uttarakhand	37.9
Himachal Pradesh	39.1	Uttar Pradesh	26.7
Jammu & Kashmir	17.6	West Bengal	29.1
Jharkhand	17.2	A & N Islands	52.9
Karnataka	28.9	Chandigarh	54.9
Kerala	33.7	Dadra & Nagar Haveli	40.1
Madhya Pradesh	28.4	Daman & Diu	44.7
Maharashtra	36.7	Lakshadweep	29.1
Manipur	0.9	Puducherry	27.7
Meghalaya	3.5	All India	28.5

Source: NSSO 64th Round, 2010

The above case may not likely to be applicable in all states. For instance, states like Arunachal Pradesh, Meghalaya and Manipur have relatively lower migration rates despite their low level of economic development. Whereas States like Chhattisgarh and Orissa which were also considered less developed regions have relatively higher migration rates from among the India States. As per the NSSO 64th Round report, Chandigarh recorded the highest migration rate with 54.9 percent, followed by Andaman & Nicobar Island with 52.9 per cent, Daman & Diu (44.7 %) and Delhi (42 %). The three States with lowest migration rate are Manipur (0.9 %),

Arunachal Pradesh (1.3 %) and Meghalaya (3.5 %). Nagaland with 13.4% has a much lower migration rate than the national average of 28.5 per cent (Table 2.5).

2.2.3. Migration Streams

As per the Census report of 2011, nearly 99 per cent of the migrants were internal migrants in the country, where rural-rural migration constitutes 46.9 per cent, followed by rural-urban migration with 17.16 % and urban-urban migration with 17.14%. Migrants with unclassified[126] category constituted 12.89 per cent and urban to rural migration (5.92%). So, urban migration accounts for more than 34 per cent of the total migration in India, but in rural-rural migration dominated over other streams in India.

Among the states and UTs, Bihar has the highest rural-rural migration with 73.12 per cent, followed by Himachal Pradesh (71.53%) and Odisha (60.37%). With regard to rural-urban migration, three Union Territories, viz. Daman & Diu (65.29%), Delhi (57.62%) and Chandigarh (51.38%) leads in rural-urban streams. In the case of urban to rural migration, Nagaland has the highest proportion with 16.38 per cent, which is followed by Goa (15.40%) and Puducherry (13.30%). Lakshadweep has the highest proportion under urban-urban migration with 52.99 per cent, followed by Puducherry (41.75%) and Chandigarh (38.65).

In absolute terms, Maharashtra has the highest number of migrants in India with 57.4 millions, followed by Uttar Pradesh (56.5 million) and Andhra Pradesh (38.4 million). By stream-wise, Maharashtra leads in rural-urban (12.8 million), urban-rural (4.2 million) and urban-urban (12.6 million) migration stream, while Uttar Pradesh leads in rural-rural migration in India.

[126] Unclassified migrants in this study include international migrants and both rural and urban migrants who refused to disclose their last usual place of residence.

Table 2.6. State-wise Internal Migration by Streams (in %)

States/ UTs	Rural to rural	Rural to urban	Urban to rural	Urban to urban	Unclassified	Total
Andhra Pradesh	40.42	14.53	6.10	19.48	19.47	100
Arunachal Pradesh	42.48	17.61	8.05	15.11	16.76	100
Assam	59.61	9.72	3.04	8.17	19.46	100
Bihar	73.12	7.66	3.78	5.36	10.09	100
Chhattisgarh	59.81	18.49	4.79	12.04	4.87	100
Delhi	1.76	57.62	0.52	34.25	5.84	100
Goa	17.09	23.02	15.40	30.17	14.33	100
Gujarat	39.70	27.27	5.65	19.12	8.26	100
Haryana	43.70	23.26	4.32	19.84	8.88	100
Himachal Pradesh	71.53	9.28	6.65	5.61	6.93	100
Jammu & Kashmir	50.22	15.28	5.88	13.68	14.95	100
Jharkhand	59.87	19.35	3.18	11.22	6.38	100
Karnataka	39.19	15.04	7.02	22.19	16.57	100
Kerala	37.00	23.93	10.04	13.87	15.15	100
Madhya Pradesh	55.88	16.54	5.32	14.49	7.77	100
Maharashtra	37.18	22.45	7.40	22.04	10.92	100
Manipur	40.22	13.49	7.89	17.03	21.37	100
Meghalaya	40.98	12.43	7.87	10.96	27.75	100
Mizoram	20.68	35.86	5.45	19.12	18.89	100
Nagaland	26.49	29.81	16.38	17.51	9.81	100
Odisha	60.37	12.99	4.46	7.17	15.01	100
Punjab	41.31	14.86	6.71	21.97	15.15	100
Rajasthan	60.32	14.28	5.22	11.04	9.14	100
Sikkim	43.96	17.21	7.35	12.93	18.56	100
Tamil Nadu	28.72	16.04	9.18	31.30	14.75	100
Tripura	41.31	16.15	4.82	7.54	30.17	100
Uttarakhand	50.14	18.34	6.33	15.71	9.48	100
Uttar Pradesh	58.14	11.68	4.17	13.60	12.40	100
West Bengal	46.44	14.11	6.13	15.00	18.33	100
A & N Islands	48.48	23.61	8.72	8.58	10.62	100
Chandigarh	2.22	51.38	0.47	38.65	7.27	100
D & N Haveli	26.39	40.92	1.81	17.77	13.10	100
Daman & Diu	9.59	65.29	4.86	17.43	2.83	100
Lakshadweep	6.61	17.05	13.19	52.99	10.16	100
Puducherry	15.63	18.24	13.30	41.75	11.08	100
All India	46.90	17.16	5.92	17.14	12.89	100

Source: Census of India, 2011. D-2. Table A.3 in Appendix A.

2.2.4. Migration by Location of Last Usual Place of Residence in India

Table 2.7 reveals that in India, majority of the migrants' last usual place of residence was within the same district of the state (68.89%). Next is other district of the same state (25.92 %) and other state of the country (11.91%). The proportion of migrants from other countries is only 1.2 per cent and unclassified 0.08 per cent.

Among the States and Union Territories, Kerala with 77.97 per cent has the highest proportion of migrants from within the same district of the state. Next is Manipur (76.91%) and Andhra Pradesh and Meghalaya with 74.80 per cent each. Gujarat with 31.93 per cent, Tamil Nadu (31.76%) and Maharashtra (31.3%) are the three states with highest proportion of migrants from other district of the same state. The proportion of migrants from other states is highest in Chandigarh (93.48%), followed by Delhi (87.62%) and Daman & Diu (83.8%). Tripura has the highest proportion of migrants from other countries with 17.12 per cent, followed by Sikkim (7.48%) and West Bengal (6.0%).

In absolute terms, Maharashtra has the largest migrant population with 57.4 million, followed by Uttar Pradesh (56.5 million) and Andhra Pradesh (38.3 million). Among the states and Union Territories, Uttar Pradesh, Maharashtra and Andhra Pradesh have the largest intra-district migrants from the state with 34.7, 29.9 and 28.6 million respectively. Inter-district migration is highest in Maharashtra (17.9 million), followed by Uttar Pradesh (17.2 million) and Tamil Nadu (9.9 million). Inter-state migration or migration from other state is highest in Maharashtra (9.8 million), Delhi (6.3 million) and Uttar Pradesh (41. million).

Thus, the above discussion shows that bigger states have higher volume of migrants dominated by intra-district and inter-district migration in India. This also indicates that short distance migration is more prevalent in India.

Table 2.7. State-wise Migration by Last Usual Place of Residence in India (in %)

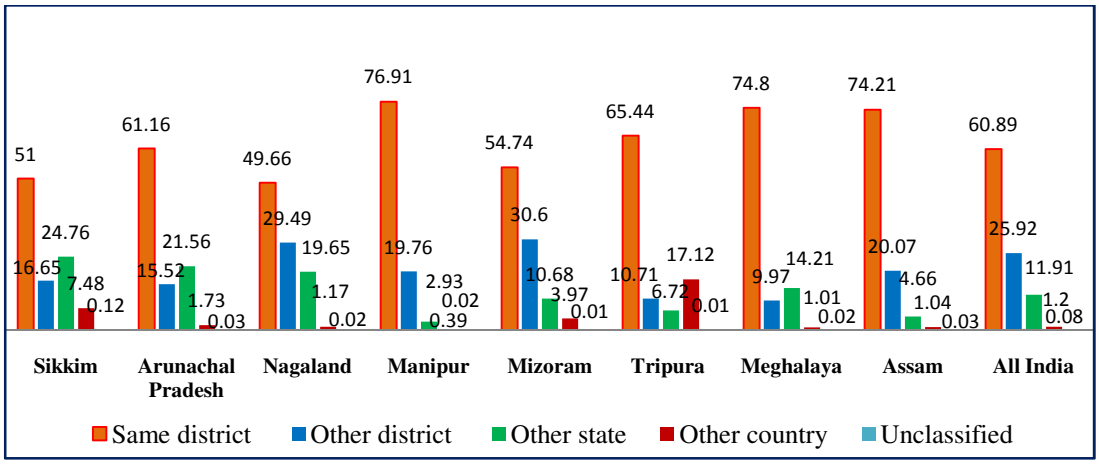
State/ UTs	Last usual place of residence in					
	Same State		Other State	Other country	Un-classified	Total
	Same district	Other district				
Jammu & Kashmir	72.20	21.00	5.52	1.26	0.02	100
Himachal Pradesh	69.29	13.22	14.94	2.28	0.27	100
Punjab	50.86	29.00	18.12	2.02	0.01	100
Chandigarh	4.53	0.00	93.48	1.93	0.06	100
Uttarakhand	51.09	18.00	28.97	1.90	0.04	100
Haryana	33.79	30.42	30.48	5.29	0.01	100
Delhi	9.36	0.00	87.62	2.46	0.55	100
Rajasthan	60.50	26.68	11.80	0.74	0.28	100
Uttar Pradesh	61.64	30.47	7.20	0.63	0.06	100
Bihar	68.21	26.23	4.08	1.46	0.02	100
Sikkim	51.00	16.65	24.76	7.48	0.12	100
Arunachal Pradesh	61.16	15.52	21.56	1.73	0.03	100
Nagaland	49.66	29.49	19.65	1.17	0.02	100
Manipur	76.91	19.76	2.93	0.39	0.02	100
Mizoram	54.74	30.60	10.68	3.97	0.01	100
Tripura	65.44	10.71	6.72	17.12	0.01	100
Meghalaya	74.80	9.97	14.21	1.01	0.02	100
Assam	74.21	20.07	4.66	1.04	0.03	100
West Bengal	68.27	18.59	7.12	6.00	0.03	100
Jharkhand	55.48	21.43	22.73	0.33	0.02	100
Odisha	72.29	21.66	5.54	0.48	0.03	100
Chhattisgarh	60.62	24.38	14.26	0.71	0.03	100
Madhya Pradesh	59.53	28.99	11.09	0.37	0.02	100
Gujarat	52.69	31.93	14.56	0.32	0.50	100
Daman & Diu	14.18	0.58	83.80	1.16	0.28	100
Dadra & Nagar Haveli	24.95	0.00	72.11	0.79	2.16	100
Maharashtra	52.23	31.30	15.84	0.57	0.07	100
Andhra Pradesh	74.80	20.68	4.15	0.36	0.01	100
Karnataka	59.32	27.98	12.27	0.40	0.03	100
Goa	64.94	9.86	23.64	1.32	0.24	100
Lakshadweep	69.46	0.00	29.79	0.64	0.11	100
Kerala	77.97	17.49	3.66	0.86	0.01	100
Tamil Nadu	62.09	31.76	5.28	0.86	0.00	100
Puducherry	48.61	2.82	47.72	0.83	0.01	100
Andaman & Nicobar Islands	44.90	15.70	37.56	1.81	0.01	100
All India	60.89	25.92	11.91	1.20	0.08	100

Source: Census of India, 2011. D-2. Table 2.4 in Appendix A.

2.2.5. Migration by Last Usual Place of Residence in NE States:

In fig. 2.3, migration by location of last usual place of residence for the North Eastern (NE) states has been presented with a view to understand the pattern of internal migration in the region. Except Sikkim, Nagaland and Mizoram, all the NE states have higher proportion of intra-district migration than the national average of 60.89 per cent.

Fig. 2.3. Migration by Last Usual Place of Residence in North Eastern States (in %)



Source: Table 2.7

Amongst all the NE states, Manipur has the highest intra-district migration with 76.91 per cent, followed by Meghalaya (74.8%) and Assam (74.21). Mizoram with 30.6 per cent is the largest proportion of inter-district migration. Next is Nagaland with 29.49 per cent and Assam (20.07%). Inter-state is highest in Sikkim with 24.76 per cent, followed by Arunachal Pradesh (21.56%) and Nagaland (19.65%). Migrants from other countries are mostly concentrated in Tripura with 17.12 per cent, Sikkim (7.48 %) and Mizoram (3.97%). Thus, it is observed that NE states experienced higher proportion in migration within the same district (intra-district) with 63.49 per cent, migration from other states (inter-states) with 13.5 per cent and from other countries is 4.24% as compared to all India averages of 60.9, 11.91 and 1.2 per cent respectively[127].

[127] Average for the NE states was calculated by taking the values from 8 NE states.

2.2.6. Duration of Migration (in years after migration)

The duration of migration for the States and Union territories for India is given in table 2.8. It is evident from the table that majority (31.10 %) were permanent migrants with 20 years and above, followed by 1 to 4 years duration (20.96%) and 10 to 19 years period (18.49%) in India.

(i) State-wise by Duration of Migration

Among the states and Union Territories in India, migration duration with less than 1 year is highest in Lakshadweep with 26.22 per cent, followed by Daman & Diu (15.27%) and Dadra & Nagar Haveli (13.13%). For 1-4 years, the highest proportion is in Daman & Diu (36.03%), second is in Lakshadweep (35.53%) and Dadra & Nagar Haveli (32.10%). Again, Daman & Diu with 20.51 per cent leads in 5-9 years duration, followed by Dadra & Nagar Haveli (17.57%) and Puducherry (16.79%). Migration period with 10-19 years is led by Delhi (25.83%), followed by Chandigarh (24.72%) and Jharkhand (23.67%). Duration with more than 20 years is highest in Chhattisgarh with 39.24 per cent. Next is Jharkhand and Himachal Pradesh with 38.11 per cent each and Rajasthan (37.24%).

The proportion of migration by duration in Nagaland is highest for the migrants with 20 years and above (20.54%), followed by 1-4 years (20.28%) and 10-19 years (19.15%). The above analysis reveals that short duration migration is more prominent among the Union Territories than the larger states in India. On the other hand, long duration migration is more prevalent in bigger states in India.

(ii) Duration of Migration in NE States

The duration of migration among the NE states show that duration period with 20 years plus has the highest proportion, followed by 10-19 years (18.99%) and 1-4 years period (15.72%). Amongst the states in 20 years plus category, Tripura (35.92%), Assam (29.55%) and Mizoram (28.32%) have the highest proportion, whereas Nagaland has only 21.54 per cent in 10-19 years period category, Tripura (20.55%), Arunachal Pradesh (19.87%) and Assam (19.75%) are amongst the 3 top states in NE region. Nagaland has 19.15 per cent, which is higher than the region's average but lower than the national average of 20.78 per cent. Nagaland leads over other states in 1-4 years and less than 1 year periods with 21.28 and 8.09 per cent respectively (Table 2.8).

Table 2.8. State-wise by Duration of Migration in India (in %)

States/ UTs	Total migrants	< 1 year	1-4 years	5-9 years	10-19 years	20 + years	Not stated
Jammu & Kashmir	28,09,629	5.03	12.56	11.92	19.33	30.66	20.51
Himachal Pradesh	26,47,067	5.25	15.84	13.70	20.39	38.11	6.70
Punjab	137,35,616	3.85	11.67	11.74	19.46	32.06	21.22
Chandigarh	6,78,188	4.91	17.74	15.80	24.72	29.96	6.86
Uttarakhand	42,33,690	5.62	17.19	14.80	20.39	31.53	10.47
Haryana	105,85,460	4.91	14.94	14.40	22.02	33.16	10.56
Delhi	72,24,514	3.93	15.51	16.56	25.83	32.02	6.15
Rajasthan	220,71,482	4.39	14.49	13.83	22.37	37.24	7.68
Uttar Pradesh	564,52,083	2.64	11.13	11.76	21.21	35.76	17.50
Bihar	272,44,869	1.88	10.98	12.50	23.22	36.72	14.70
Sikkim	2,47,049	7.59	19.26	14.63	19.46	24.89	14.17
Arunachal Pradesh	6,30,831	5.29	19.49	15.36	19.87	19.78	20.21
Nagaland	5,49,618	8.09	21.28	16.97	19.15	21.54	12.97
Manipur	6,86,935	3.15	12.75	12.60	18.53	24.54	28.44
Mizoram	3,87,370	4.49	16.85	13.84	19.19	28.32	17.32
Tripura	12,99,623	4.45	11.11	11.68	20.55	35.92	16.29
Meghalaya	7,59,554	3.80	12.96	10.72	15.42	21.35	35.75
Assam	106,44,234	2.76	12.06	12.39	19.75	29.55	23.49
West Bengal	334,48,472	2.69	11.65	12.37	21.68	35.64	15.97
Jharkhand	96,59,702	2.65	13.94	14.45	23.67	38.11	7.17
Odisha	154,21,793	3.47	13.49	11.92	18.77	33.79	18.55
Chhattisgarh	88,88,075	4.19	15.34	14.25	21.79	39.24	5.18
Madhya Pradesh	247,35,119	3.87	14.41	13.86	22.51	36.21	9.15
Gujarat	268,98,286	4.66	16.17	14.57	22.05	31.06	11.49
Daman & Diu	1,48,592	15.27	36.03	20.51	14.93	8.50	4.76
Dadra & Nagar Haveli	1,88,057	13.13	32.10	17.57	15.63	11.50	10.07
Maharashtra	573,76,776	5.32	16.23	14.38	20.45	30.62	12.99
Andhra Pradesh	383,60,644	3.30	13.47	12.16	17.94	25.41	27.72
Karnataka	264,63,170	4.62	16.12	14.02	17.40	27.07	20.77
Goa	11,40,690	6.87	16.34	14.93	19.40	29.03	13.43
Lakshadweep	20,401	26.22	35.53	14.13	9.05	3.89	11.19
Kerala	178,63,419	4.68	15.06	13.91	22.29	27.86	16.21
Tamil Nadu	312,74,107	4.38	15.99	13.29	19.09	26.51	20.75
Puducherry	7,12,401	4.80	17.26	16.79	22.59	26.65	11.91
Andaman & Nicobar Islands	2,16,341	8.43	20.96	15.16	18.49	31.10	5.85
All India	4557,87,621	3.86	14.02	13.26	20.78	32.12	15.96

Source: Computed from migration data, D- Series. Census of India, 2011

2.3. URBANISATION IN NAGALAND

This section presents urbanisation and migration process in the State. In view of the dearth of migration data for the State, this section is based mainly on Census data, various NSSO reports on migration and journal papers. The unprecedented growth of population in the State recorded the highest growth rate in the country with 6.4 per cent per annum during 1991-2001. The state, though registered a negative growth rate of population during 2001-2011, has exhibited higher urban growth rate than majority of the Indian states.

Nagaland, with an area of 16579 sq.km., lies between 25°10' N and 27°4' N latitude and 93°20' E and 95°15' E longitude in the northern extension of the Arakan Yoma ranges. Nagaland is largely a mountainous State with an altitude rising from the Brahmaputra Valley in Assam to an elevation of 3840 metres at Mount Saramati bordering Myanmar in the eastern part of India. It is one of the smallest states under the union of India with a population of 19,78,502 persons, out of which 71.14 per cent of the population reside in rural areas and 28.86 per cent in urban areas and a density of 119 per sq. Km (Census 2011). The State consists of twelve administrative districts, namely, Kohima, Dimapur, Mokokchung, Wokha, Zunheboto, Longleng, Kiphire, Tuensang, Mon, Peren, Noklak and Phek, with 144 sub-divisions, 26 towns and 1428 villages (Nagaland State Human Development Report 2016). Dimapur district has the largest population with 19.14 per cent, followed by Kohima at 13.54 per cent and Mon district at 12.5 per cent share of the total population. The least populated district is Longleng with 2.55 per cent, followed by Kiphire and Peren. Nagaland share only 0.16 percent to India's total population and ranks 25th in the total population among Indian states during 2011 census period.

2.3.1. Demographic Profile of Nagaland

In table 2.9, demographic profile of the state is given in regard to rural-urban distribution of the population, density, decadal growth, sex ratio and level of urbanisation for each district in Nagaland. Separate data for the newly created Noklak district was not available, which was curved out of Tuensang district. So it is taken together with Tuensang district. Out of eleven districts, five districts, namely, Mokokchung, Zunheboto, Mon, Longleng and Kiphire, recorded negative growth rate of population during 2001-2011. Density wise, Dimapur with 409 persons per sq.km

is the highest, followed by Kohima with 183 and Mon with 140 persons per sq.km. Peren is the least populated district with 58 persons per sq. km., next is Kiphire and Tuensang with 65 and 78 persons per sq.km. Decadal growth of urban population is found to be highest in Mon district with 109 per cent, followed by Phek (91 %) and Mokokchung (78 %). Wokha district registered a negative urban growth with -7 per cent, followed by Zunheboto with 19 per cent and Tuensang with 23 per cent growth rate during 2001-2011.

Table 2.9. District-wise Demographic Strucutre of Nagaland- 2001-11

States/ country	Population 2011			Population density (2011)	Decadal growth rate 2001-11	Urban Decadal growth rate	Sex ratio
	Rural (%)	Urban (%)	Total (in 000)				
Dimapur	48.05	51.95	3,78	409	22.9	72.14	919
Kohima	54.4	45.6	2,67	183	21.7	50.87	928
Mokokchung	71.19	28.81	1,94	121	-16.1	78.3	925
Wokha	78.95	21.05	1,66	102	3.2	-7.04	968
Phek	84.93	15.07	1,63	81	10.3	91.27	951
Zunheboto	80.42	19.58	1,40	112	-9	19.6	976
Tuensang	81.28	18.72	1,96	78	5.7	23.74	929
Mon	86.15	13.85	2,50	140	-4	109.27	899
Peren	84.41	15.59	95	58	4.9	-	915
Longleng	84.96	15.04	50	90	-58.5	-	905
Kiphire	77.72	22.28	74	65	-30.6	-	956
Nagaland	71.03	28.97	19,78	119	-0.6	67.38	931
India	*68.84*	*31.16*	*1.2105 69*	*382*	*17.64*	*31.8*	*940*

Note: Noklak and Tuensang districts were taken together as one district
Source: Census of India, 2011

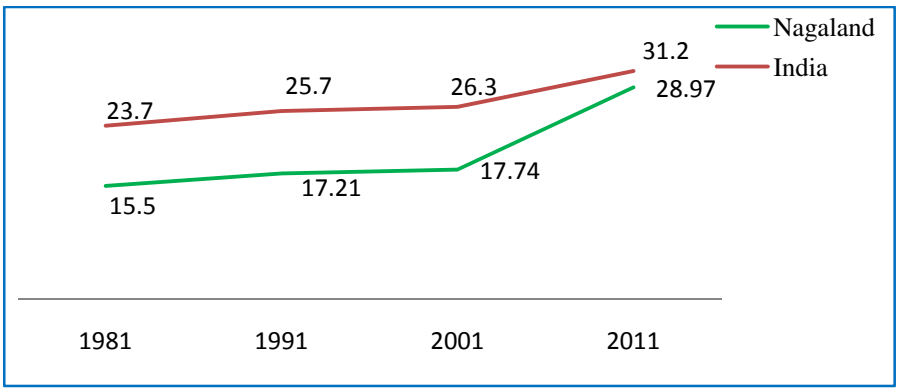
District-wise urban decadal growth rate shows that Mon with 109.27 %, Phek with 91.27 % and Mokokchug with 78.87 % have the highest growth rate, while only Wokha district show negative growth with -7.04 per cent. It also shows that only four districts viz, Mon, Pkek, Mokokchug and Dimapur have urban decadal growth rate higher than the State's average of 67.38 per cent, but Zunheboto, Tuensang and Wokha have growth rate even lower than the national average of 31.8 per cent. In terms of sex ratio, Zunheboto has the highest with 976 females per thousand males. This is followed by Wokha with 968/1000 and Kiphire with 956/1000 males.

2.3.2. Level of Urbanisation in Nagaland

In table 2.10, the percentage increase in the urban and total population in Nagaland are presented. The level of urbanisation in Nagaland during the last four decades shows that the growth trend was steady and less than the national average. In 1981, 15.5 per cent of the people in Nagaland were living in urban areas, whereas national average was 23.73 per cent (table 2.10). These figures rose to 17.21 per cent in 1991 and 17.74 in 2001 and finally increased to 28.97 percent in 2011 for the state of Nagaland. The corresponding figures for all India average are 25.71 per cent, 26.33 per cent and 31.16 per cent, respectively. Among the districts, level of urbanisation was highest in Kohima district with 26.9 per cent of the district's population living in urban areas in 1981. This was followed by Mokokchung with 17.3 per cent and Wokha with 14.2 per cent of its population living in towns or cities during 1981. During the same period, Tuensang district was found to be the least urbanised district in the state with only 8 per cent of its population living in the urban areas. It is noticed that Kohima district alone holds about 56 percent of the total urban population during the same period. It is to be noted that the present Dimapur and Peren districts were included in Kohima district until Dimapur was bifurcated form Kohima district in 1998 and Peren district in 2003 (District Human Development Report Kohima, 2009).

Dimapur has been considered as the fastest growing urban centre in the state. The district has the highest urban population in the state with 37 per cent in 1991, 40 per cent in 2001 and 51.95 per cent in 2011. The share of Dimapur district to total urban population of the State is about 34 per cent in 2011. This was followed by Kohima (21.5%) and Mokokchung district (9.7%), respectively. The highest compound annual growth rate of urban population was experienced in Phek and Tuensang districts with 77 per cent each, while the lowest was in Zunheboto (44%).

Fig. 2.4. Proportion of Urban Population in Nagaland and India (1981-2011)



Source: Census 1981, 1991 and 2011

Figure 2.4 shows a comparative analysis of urban decadal growth of population between Nagaland State and All India average. It is clearly visible from the figure that the growth trend of the proportion of urban population to its total population in Nagaland follows the same pattern as all India growth pattern till 2001 census period. From 2001 to 2011, it is noticed a steep increased in urban population in both case, but the increase was marginally more in Nagaland. For the state of Nagaland, the percentage point increased was 11.23 from 2001 to 2011, whereas the corresponding increase for all India average was only 4.83 per cent during the same period.

(i) Number of Towns by Class-wise and Population

As per the 2011 census report, Nagaland has 19 statutory towns[128] and 7 census towns[129]. The total number of towns increased from 14 in 2001 to 26 in 2011. Table 2.11 given below gives details on the number of towns with population based on 2011 census report. It is evident from the table and figure 2.5 that about 45 per cent of the urban population were living in class-II towns during 2001, followed by those living in class-III towns (31.5%) and class-IV towns (15.9%). In 2011, the highest proportion of the urban population live in class- III towns (31.9 %), followed by class-I town (21.5%) and class- II towns (17.3%). It is clear that 70.7 per cent of the urban population live in class I, II and III cities in Nagaland in 2011. This shows

[128] Statutory towns are all those towns that have municipality, corporations, cantonment board or notified town area committee, etc.
[129] Census towns are defined as those with a minimum population of 5,000; at least 75 % of the male main working population engaged in non-agricultural activities; and has density of population of at least 400 persons per sq. km.

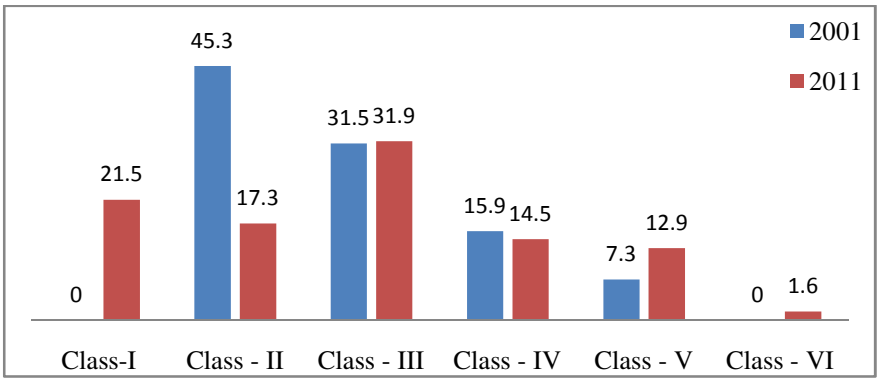
that the proportion of urban population living in larger towns is increasing in recent times.

Table 2.10. Urban Population Distribution by Class of Town in Nagaland

Classification	2001			2011		
	No. of towns	Population	% to total urban population	No. of towns	Population	% to total urban population
Class-I	0	0	0	1	122834	21.5
Class - II	2	1,75,126	45.3	1	99039	17.3
Class - III	4	1,21,703	31.5	6	1,82,537	31.9
Class - IV	4	61,692	15.9	6	83,150	14.5
Class - V	4	28,138	7.3	10	74,026	12.9
Class - VI	0	0	0	2	9,380	1.6
Total	14	386659	100	26	570966	100

Source: Census of India, 2011

Figure 2.5. Urban Population by Class of towns in Nagaland (2001-11)



Source: Table 2.10

(ii) Population Projection in Nagaland

The percentage increase in both total and urban population of the State in the past decades show both are diminishing but urban population growth is higher. From figure 2.6, it is evident that the total population of the state is increasing at an increasing rate except negative growth recorded in 2011 census. Similarly, urban population is also steadily rising up at an increasing rate in recent times. In absolute term, urban population was only about 19,168 in 1961, it reached 1,20,234 in 1981 and 5,73,741 in 2011 census (table 2.11).

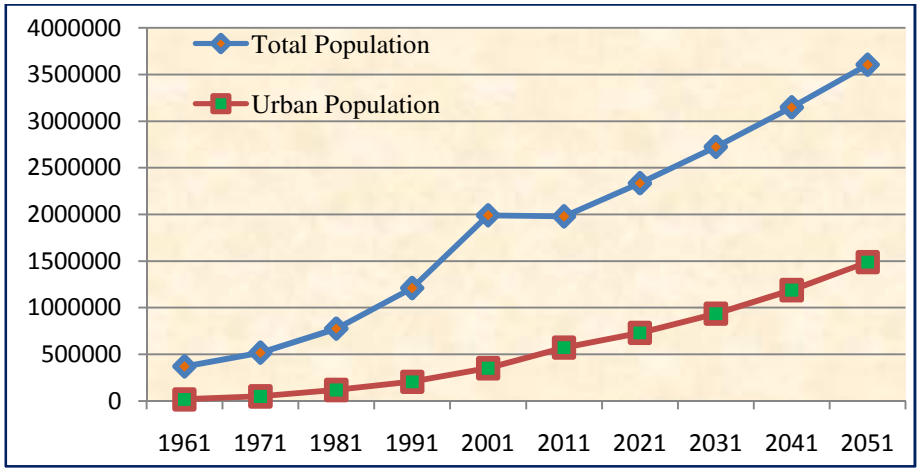
Table 2.11. Urban and Total Population Projection (1961-2051)

Years	Total Population	% increase in total population	Urban Population	% increase in urban population
1961	369200	73.35	19168	
1971	516449	39.88	51398	168.14
1981	774930	50.05	120234	133.93
1991	1209546	56.08	208223	73.18
2001	1990036	64.53	352787	69.43
2011	1978502	-0.58	570966	62.63
2021*	2334293	17.98	731837	27.56
2031*	2724009	16.70	937113	28.05
2041*	3147662	15.55	1189571	26.94
2051*	3605231	14.54	1489209	25.19

*Note: * Projected data*

Source: Own calculation based on Census data 1971-2011

Figure 2.6. Population Projection in Nagaland (1961-2051)



Source: table 2.11

Another notable feature of Nagaland's demographic phenomenon is that total population is increasing at a faster pace than the growth of urban population as indicated by the gap between the two curves in figure 2.6. But the total population growth rate is likely to slow down as shown in the above table. By going at the current rate of growth, the State's population is expected to reach 36, 05,231 by 2050, out of which urban population will constitute 14, 89,209 or 41.3 per cent of the total population in Nagaland. The percentage increase in urban population is likely to remain higher as compare to the percentage increase in total population even in 2051 census period.

2.4. MIGRATION IN NAGALAND

The migration of people has been a phenomenal aspect in the world history. Since the inception of civilization, the movement of people has been taking place resulting in reshaping human history. In the context of India, evidence supports that we have history of migration of non-Aryans followed by Aryans from Central Asia and other regions in the early periods. In the North Eastern frontiers, it is found that Boros were the first major groups who migrated to the plains of Assam, followed by other tribal groups like Khasi, Mikir, Garo, Dimasa, Moram, Nishi, Mishing, Ahom, Kuki, Apatani, Mizo, Naga and so on[130]. The Nagas, who were believed to have migrated from North Western China of the Tibeto-Burmans origin came and settled in the Naga Hills have various theories of their migration as recorded by different scholars and writers.

2.4.1. History of Migration in Nagaland

Due to lack of evidence and written records, it is difficult to give exact period with precision about the migration of the Nagas to the present homeland. Evidence suggests that the Nagas were already settled in the present Naga Hills when Ahoms came to Assam during the 13th century[131]. So it was concluded that the Nagas were one among those groups who migrated from China through the Patkai range section and settled in the present homeland. The first group consist of Angamis, Semas, Rengmas, Chakhesangs, etc. who entered through the southern mountain fringe in Manipur. The second consist of Aos, Chang, Kheimnuingans, Sangtams, Yimchungers, etc. who enter through the Chindwin River valleys. It was that after reaching the present Naga Hills, they dispersed to different locations and settled down in the present home land. With the civilisation and progress in technology, population mobility becomes more conspicous.

[130] Yonuo, A. (1974). The Rising Nagas. Delhi. Pp.9-10

[131] Imkongnungsang (2008). Population Dynamics and Its Impact on Socio-Economic Environment in Nagaland Since 1981-2001 (Doctoral unpublished Dissertation submitted to Nagaland University, India)

2.4.2. Types of Rural-Urban Migration in Nagaland

Migration from rural (or smaller towns) to urban areas in Nagaland has been broadly classified in to the following categories:

(i) Indigenous or local migrants: This group of people have migrated to urban areas from their native village or smaller towns in search of better livelihood. Their main motive of migration is economic and mostly permanent in nature. Once migrated, they have no intention to return back unless their opportunity cost of migration is found to be less and could not sustain their families after migration.

(ii) In-migrants from outside the State: This group consist of migrants from other States or Countries who have come to Nagaland for the same avenue as the indigenous migrants. Mostly this category of migrants does not settle in the State permanently and eventually return to their native States as and when their objective for migration is fulfilled. They can be termed as seasonal migrants as they are potentially mobile group who has a tendency to change their residence if found profitable.

Taking migration in the State of Nagaland from all these groups of migrants into account, an evaluation of rural-urban migration has been made which has been considered as an important component for the growth of urban population in the state of Nagaland.

2.4.3. Migrant Population in Nagaland

Though the natural growth of population is not to be ruled out, the growth of urban population is attributed largely to migrant population as well (Thematic Report, 2009). As per the census data on migration for the state of Nagaland, the proportion of migrant population in total population increased from 16.6 in 1981 to 27.9 per cent in 2011. By gender, the proportion of male migrants to total population increased from 9.2 to 14.4 per cent and that of female from 7.4 to 13.9 per cent in the corresponding period. In other words, migrant population has a negative growth of -0.7 per cent during 1981 to 1991 but between 1991 and 2001, migrant population in the state increased by about 197 per cent and 47 per cent during 2001-2011. By place of birth, the immigrant population constitutes 10.49 per cent of the total population in 1991, which increased to 18.16 per cent in 2001 and 20.81 per cent in 2011.

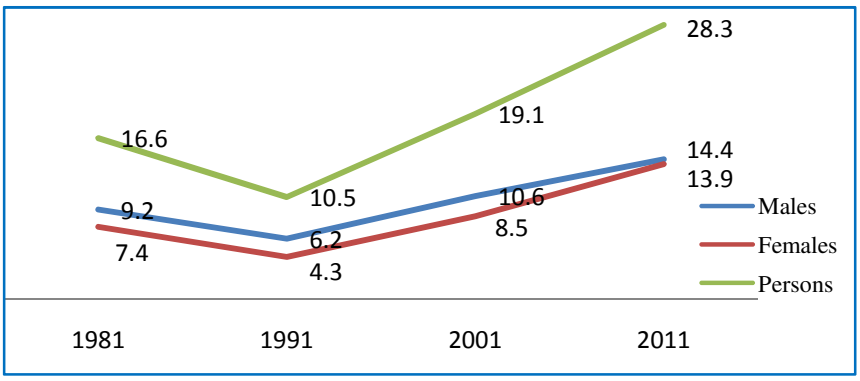
Table 2.12. Migrant Population by Sex in Nagaland (1981-2011)

Year	Male		Female		Persons	
	Migrant Population	% to total population	Migrant Population	% to total population	Total migrant population	% to total population
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
1981	71,475	9.2	57,310	7.4	128,785	16.6
1991	75,437	6.2	52,467	4.3	127,904	10.5
2001	211,705	10.6	169,107	8.5	380,812	19.1
2011	281,119	14.4	268,499	13.9	549618	27.8
CAGR	57.9		67.3		62.2	

Note: CAGR refers to Compound Annual Growth Rate
Source: Census of India.1981, 1991, 2011. Migration data, D Series

During the period from 1981 to 2011, the share of male and female migrants to total population is graphically represented in figure 2.7. It is evident from the figure that throughout the given period the number of male migrants is larger than the female counterpart. The pattern of growth for both male and female is similar throughout the period till 2001. Thus, from 1981 to 1991, the proportion of migrants declined for both male and female. From 1991 onwards, it shows an increasing trend, where CAGR for female (67.3%) is growing faster than the male (57.9). The compounded annual growth rate for the period from 1981 to 2011 was 62.2 % in Nagaland.

Fig. 2.7. Proportion of Migrants to Total Population in Nagaland, 1981-2011



Source: Table 2.15

2.4.4. Immigration in Nagaland

Another important aspect of the study is migration of the people from other Indian States/ Union Territories and other Countries. According to the 2011 census report, migrants from other States/ Union Territories and other Countries constituted about 20.81 per cent of the migrant population in Nagaland. It is observed from table 2.13 given below that migrants from 5 States namely; Assam, Bihar, Manipur, Uttar Pradesh and West Bengal constitutes about 70 per cent of the migrants coming from other Indian States/ UTs and other countries. Second group of States consist of immigrants from Kerala, Odisha, Rajasthan, Tripura, Uttarakhand and Jharkhand which makes nearly 14 per cent of the immigrants from other States/ UTs and other countries. Immigrants from Assam alone had a share of 39 per cent of the total migrants from other States and countries and 10.41 per cent of the total migrants in Nagaland during 2001.

Table 2.13. Migration from other States/UTs and other Countries to Nagaland, 2011

States/UTs/ Countries	Persons	% to total immigrants	**States/UTs/ Countries**	Persons	% to total immigrants
Andhra Pradesh	407	0.36	Sikkim	145	0.13
Arunachal Pradesh	900	0.79	Tamil Nadu	412	0.36
Assam	51391	44.92	Tripura	2923	2.56
Bihar	17539	15.33	Uttar Pradesh	4076	3.56
Gujarat	103	0.09	West Bengal	3746	3.27
Haryana	442	0.39	Uttrakhand	751	0.66
Himachal Pradesh	309	0.27	Jharkhand	1283	1.12
Jammu & Kashmir	375	0.33	Chhatisgarh	138	0.12
Karnataka	540	0.47	Goa	21	0.02
Kerala	1165	1.02	Union Territories (UTs)	57	0.09
Madhya Pradesh	249	0.22	**Other Countries**	**6433**	**5.62**
Maharastra	498	0.44	(a) Bangladesh	132	0.12
Manipur	14093	12.32	(b) Myanmar	338	0.30
Mizoram	386	0.34	(c) Nepal	4690	4.10
Odisha	1236	1.08	(d) Pakistan	20	0.02
Meghalaya	1792	1.57	(e) Other	1674	0.46
Punjab	470	0.41	Total	1,14,402	100
Rajasthan	2480	2.17			

Source: Census of India, 2011. D-Series

Migrants from other countries composed of 5.62 per cent of the total migrants in Nagaland. Out of this, Nepalese alone constitute about 70 per cent of the total immigrants from other countries. Other prominent groups are Bhutanese and Bangladeshi (Table 2.13).

2.4.5. Sector-wise Distribution of Migrant Population

In Nagaland, out of 127.9 thousand migrants in 1991, about 52 per cent were living in urban areas (Table 2.14). The proportion of urban migrants to total migrants declined steeply to 22 per cent during 2001 census report. One probable reason could be that there were more than 34 per cent of migrants who did not state their status as to whether they were from rural or urban areas. In 2011, urban migrants share increased to 32 per cent.

Table 2.14. Distribution of Migrant population in Nagaland (1981-2011)

Year	Rural	Urban	Un-classified	Total
1981	-	-	-	118,833
1991	62196 (48.4)	65708 (51.2)	459 (0.4)	127,904 (100)
2001	166870 (43.8)	84039 (22.1)	129903 (34.1)	380,812 (100)
2011	323516 (57.7)	180660 (32.3)	55847 (10)	549618 (100)

Note: Figure in the parenthesis represents the percentage to total migrants
Source: Census of India. Migration data, D Series 1981-2011

Fig. 2.8. Distribution of migrants by sex in Nagaland

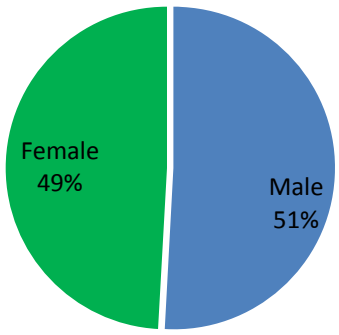
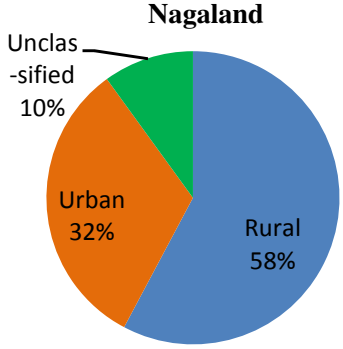


Fig. 2.9. Rural-Urban Migrant Population Distribution in Nagaland



Source: Computed from migration data D-Series, 2011 Census

Figure 2.8 represents the proportion of migrants in the state by sex during 2011. In Nagaland, out of 549 thousand migrants, about 51 per cent were males and the remaining were females. By sector-wise distribution, it shows that majority of the migrants are in rural area (58%), while 32 per cent are in urban area. The remaining 10 per cent of the migrants did not mention as to whether they were from rural or urban areas (figure 2.9).

2.4.6. Migration by Place of Birth

It is observed that the proportion of migrants born within Nagaland increased from 56.82 per cent in 1991 to 75.7 per cent in 2011. Likewise, the proportion of migrants born within the same district increased from 33.19 per cent to 45.8 per cent, born in other district of the state from 23.63 per cent to 29.9 per cent during 1991 to 2011. Conversely, the proportion of person born in other States of India decreased from 39.07 per cent to 22.8 per cent during the same period. Similarly, the proportion of migrants born in foreign countries declined from 4.09 per cent to 1.4 per cent during 1991 to 2011. This shows that intra-state migration accounted for about 86 per cent in Nagaland. From the table 2.15 it is observed that intra-state migration has become more prominent and inter-state migration is losing its momentum in recent times in Nagaland.

Table 2.15. Migrants by Place of Birth in Nagaland (in percentage)

Place of Birth	1991	2001	2011
1.Within the State	56.82	73.97	75.7
(a)Within the district	33.19	52.71	45.8
(b) Other district	23.63	21.26	29.9
2.Other State of India	39.07	23.79	22.8
3.Other countries	4.09	2.22	1.4

Source: Census of India 2001, 2011

2.4.7. Duration of Migration in Nagaland

The duration of migration by district-wise is given in table 2.16. The most prominent groups by duration of migration in Nagaland is 20 years and above (21.54%), followed closely by1-4 years period (21.28%) and 10-19 years period group.

Among the districts in less than 1 year category, Zunheboto leads over other districts with 16.5 per cent. Mokokchung (24.69%), Kohima (23.23%) and Dimapur (22.32%) were the 3 highest districts under 1-4 years duration. Wokha with 19.96 per cent, Tuensang (19.28%) and Phek (18.10%) have the highest proportion of migrants in 5-9 years duration period. Under 10-19 years period, Dimapur is the leading district with 20.12 per cent, followed by Wokha (20.30%) and Tuensang (20.12%). Long duration migration with 20 years and above is led by Mokokchung (26.85%), followed closely by Peren with 26.09 per cent and Tuensang (23.10%). This shows that long term migration is more prevalent than short term migration in Nagaland.

Table. 2.16. District-wise by Duration of Migration in Nagaland (in %)

Districts/ State	Less than 1 year	1-4 years	5-9 years	10-19 years	20 + years	Not stated
Mon	9.63	17.81	14.32	16.84	22.01	19.38
Mokokchung	8.60	24.69	15.77	17.81	26.85	6.28
Zunheboto	16.50	18.24	17.49	17.43	21.73	8.61
Wokha	4.58	18.25	19.96	20.30	22.80	14.12
Dimapur	6.33	22.32	17.92	21.21	21.62	10.59
Phek	10.37	21.76	18.10	17.55	17.66	14.56
Tuensang	8.53	19.89	19.28	20.12	23.10	9.09
Longleng	12.65	20.60	13.73	13.46	14.25	25.31
Kiphire	7.22	14.24	14.73	18.05	14.90	30.87
Kohima	8.11	23.23	15.67	18.97	18.41	15.60
Peren	8.18	20.53	14.58	17.43	26.09	13.19
Nagaland	8.09	21.28	16.97	19.15	21.54	12.97

Source: Migration data, D-Series. Census of India, 2011

2.4.8. Migration Rate in Nagaland

Migration rate shows a particular state or region's population mobility pattern over a period of time. It is an important indicator for understanding the trend of migration. In table 2.17, migration rate for Nagaland and all India average is given. It is observed that urban migration rate is quite higher for males in Nagaland with 32 per cent as against 25.9 per cent for India. However, female migration rate in Nagaland with 32.9 per cent is lower than the national average of 45.6 per cent. This clearly indicates that Naga males from urban areas are more mobile than their male counterpart in India. On the contrary, urban Naga females are as mobile as Naga males but less than the Indian females. In rural areas, Naga males are found to be more mobile than rural Indian males. But Indian rural females are quite mobile than the rural Naga females (table 2.17). Migration rate, when add together, is higher for India with 28.5 per cent as against 13.4 per cent for the state of Nagaland.

Table 2.17. Migration Rate (in %) in Nagaland and All India (2010)

Category	Nagaland			India		
	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total
Rural	6.2	9.2	7.6	5.4	47.7	26.1
Urban	32	32.9	32.5	25.9	45.6	35.4
Rural+ Urban	12.1	14.8	13.4	10.9	47.2	28.5

Source: NSSO 64th Round, 2010

2.4.9. Intra-State Migration by Gender

Movement of people from rural to urban areas takes place frequently. In Nagaland, both males and females were found to be more mobile than many Indian states. From table 2.18, it is clearly seen that migration of females from rural to urban areas with 30 per cent in Nagaland is much more than national average of 14.8 per cent. Similarly, among the Naga women, migration from urban to urban areas with 22.4 per cent is higher than the national average of 10.3 per cent. Female migration from urban to rural areas is also more for Nagaland with 16.4 per cent as against the national average of 4.9 per cent.

Table 2.18. Internal migration in Nagaland by Streams (in %)

Category	Males		Females		Persons	
	Nagaland	India	Nagaland	India	Nagaland	India
Rural-Rural	15.9	27.2	31.1	70	24.1	61.7
Urban-Rural	23.8	8.9	16.4	4.9	19.8	5.7
Rural- Urban	34.3	39	30	14.8	32	19.5
Urban- Urban	26	24.8	24.4	10.3	24.1	13.1
All	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: NSSO 64th Round, 2010

For male migration stream in Nagaland, rural to urban migration rate with 34.3 per cent is less than that of National average of 39 per cent. It is found that urban to urban migration is higher for males with 26 per cent in the State than all India average of 24.8 per cent. Similarly, migration from urban to urban areas is higher with 23.8 per cent as compare to the all India average of 8.9 per cent. Thus, the people in the State are more mobile for both male and females with 32 per cent against all India average of 19.5 per cent in the case of rural to urban migration. Same is the case with urban to urban migration with 24 per cent for Nagaland and 13.3 per cent for India. Even in out-migration from urban areas, people in Nagaland are more mobile with 19.8 per cent as against the Indian average of 5.7 per cent during 2007-08.

2.4.10. Migration by Last Usual Place of Residence in Nagaland

Table 2.19 reveals the distribution of migrants in Nagaland by last usual place of residence. It is noticed that in rural areas, 32.9 per cent were intra-district migrants, 11.9 per cent inter-district migrants and 9.7 per cent inter-State migrants. Among the male migrants in rural areas, 15 per cent were intra-district migrants and 13.3 per cent inter-district migrants. Among the female migrants in rural areas, it is noticed that nearly 46 per cent were intra-district and 10.9 per cent inter-district and only 8.3 per cent inter-State migrants. In the case of migrants coming from urban areas inter-district migration dominates over intra-district and inter-State migration. This shows that rural female migrants dominate short distance migration and rural male migrants in long distance migration. The data also shows similar trend to that of all India trend except that rural male migrants from rural origin dominates that sources area.

Table 2.19. Migration by Last Usual Place of Residence in Nagaland and India (in %)

Category		Rural areas of			Urban areas of			Other countries
		Same State		Other State	Same State		Other State	
		Same District	Other District		Same District	Other District		
	Males	15.0 (46.2)	13.3 (18.0)	11.6 (8.6)	23.0 (7.7)	32.4 (9.1)	3.8 (7.2)	0.4 (3.2)
	Females	45.9 (68.3)	10.9 (21.4)	8.3 (3.5)	14.4 (3.6)	19.6 (2.1)	0.6 (0.8)	0.3 (0.2)
Rural	Persons	32.9 (65.9)	11.9 (21.1)	9.7 (4.0)	18.0 (4.1)	25.0 (2.8)	2.0 (1.5)	0.3 (0.6)
	Males	15.6 (19.7)	18.2 (11.8)	22.1 (21.8)	2.8 (7.9)	35.4 (19.7)	4.8 (10.9)	0.3 (1.2)
Urban	Females	19.5 (27.2)	21.3 (20.6)	15.7 (10.7)	8.8 (13.2)	30.5 (19.6)	3.0 (8.1)	0.3 (0.5)
	Persons	17.6 (24.4)	19.8 (19.9)	18.9 (14.9)	5.8 (11.2)	33.0 (19.6)	3.5 (9.1)	0.3 (0.8)

Note: Figures in the parenthesis indicates figure for all India average
Source: NSSO 64th Round, 2010

In urban areas, male migrants of inter-district is higher with 35 per cent, followed by inter-State of rural origin (22%) and inter-district of rural origin of the same state (18%). For urban female, the share of migrants from other districts of urban origin with more than 30 per cent dominates the groups, followed by other districts origin of the same state (21.3%) and same district of rural origin (19.5%). It is observed that majority of the migrants in urban areas came from other districts of the same state which is also urban in origin (33% in column 6 for urban migrant's total). This is followed by other districts of the same state from rural origin with nearly 20 per cent and other states of rural origin with nearly 19 per cent. This trend is slightly different from all India average figures where same districts of rural origin dominates others with 24.4 per cent, followed by other districts of rural origin (nearly 20%)and same districts of urban origin (19.6%).

2.5. DISTRICT-WISE MIGRATION LEVEL

Inter-district and intra-district level migration involves short distance migration, which is quite prevalent not only in Nagaland but also in all parts of the country. This section examines district level migration based on census report on migration.

2.5.1. Inter-District Migration

Migration from one district to another or inter-district migration is the most dominant type of migration in Nagaland. Inter-district migration can be categorised into four types- rural-to-rural, rural-to-urban, urban-to-urban and urban-to-rural migrations. In this section, rural-to-urban and urban to rural inter-district migration in Nagaland has been examined.

(i) Rural to Urban Inter-District Migration

Migration of the people within the State from the interior hilly regions to the main towns in the State has been a phenomenon in recent times. It is clearly evident from table 2.20 that the migration of the people from rural to urban areas has increased dramatically from 9741 in 1991 to 41356 persons in 2011. Among the districts, Kohima witnessed the highest mobility rate during 1991. But from 2001 onwards, Dimapur showed the highest number of migration from rural to urban areas with 7432 in 2001 and 20230 in 2011, followed by Kohima with 15252 in 2011. On the other hand, Zunheboto with 44 persons in 1991 and 2001 and Longleng with 124 persons in 2011 witnessed the lowest number of rural-urban migration. The total number of inter-district rural to urban migration increased from 9741 to 41356 persons from 1991 to 2011, which accounted for about 7.5 per cent of the total migration in Nagaland.

Table 2.20. Rural-Urban Inter-district Migration in Nagaland (1991-2011)

Year	1991			2001			2011		
District/ State	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Nagaland	9741	5510	4231	16,215	8,720	7,495	41,356	20,203	21,153
Kohima	7337	4109	3228	6,770	3,646	3,124	15,259	7,601	7,658
Phek	451	274	177	544	313	231	401	249	152
Wokha	132	75	57	204	117	87	385	214	171
Zunheboto	44	33	11	44	27	17	333	167	166
Mokokchung	285	126	159	436	252	184	2,286	1,238	1,048
Tuensang	1215	732	483	632	348	284	702	370	332
Mon	277	161	116	243	130	113	575	300	275
Dimapur	NA	NA	NA	7,342	3,887	3,455	20,230	9,459	10,771
Longleng	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	124	71	53
Kiphire	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	687	326	361
Peren	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	374	208	166

Note: Peren was under Kohima district, Kiphire under Tuensang district and Longleng in Mon and Tuensang district till 2001 census. Dimapur was under Kohima district till 1991 census.
NA implies 'not available'
Source: Migration data, D-Series, Census of India 1991-2011

(ii) Urban to Rural Inter District Migration

Migration of the people within the State from urban to rural is another prominent feature of migration in Nagaland. It is evident from Table 2.21, that there is a significant increase in inter-district urban to rural migration in the Nagaland. Among the districts, Kohima has the highest number of urban-rural migration (880), followed by Mon (261) and Tuensang (113 persons) during 1991. In 2001, Dimapur has witnessed largest urban -rural migration, followed by Kohima and Zunheboto. In 2011, Dimapur witnessed more than 16000 people moving to rural areas, followed by Zunheboto (4917) and Mokokchung (4178). The total number of urban-rural migration increased from 1478 to 38556 persons in 2011. The proportion of inter-district urban-to-rural migration was only 1.2 per cent of the total migration during 1991, which eventually increased to 7 per cent during 2011.

Table 2.21. Urban-Rural Inter-District Migration in Nagaland (1991-2011)

Year	1991			2001			2011		
District/ State	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Nagaland	1478	834	644	8,899	4,707	4,192	38,556	20,525	18,031
Kohima	880	444	436	610	315	295	1,668	867	801
Phek	45	29	16	329	169	160	3,991	2,314	1,677
Wokha	68	34	34	334	190	144	2,711	1,481	1,230
Zunheboto	36	19	17	533	290	243	4,917	2,671	2,246
Mokokchung	75	52	23	367	226	141	4,178	2,376	1,802
Tuensang	113	87	26	161	100	61	1,295	745	550
Mon	261	169	92	445	256	189	862	483	379
Dimapur	NA	NA	NA	6,120	3,161	2,959	16,014	7,874	8,140
Longleng	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	871	513	358
Kiphire	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	154	86	68
Peren	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	1,895	1,115	780

Note: Peren was under Kohima district, Kiphire under Tuensang district and Longleng in Mon and Tuensang district till 2001 census. Dimapur was under Kohima district till 1991 census.
NA implies 'not available'
Source: Migration data, D-Series, Census of India, 1991-2011

2.5.2. Intra-District Migration

In internal migration, intra-district migration is an important component of short distance migration. Intra-district migration implies migration of the people within the district either from rural to urban or vice-versa. It could also be between rural to rural or urban to urban but within the district. This section examines the magnitude of intra-district migration on rural-to-urban and urban-to-rural migration within the district, based on the Census report data.

(i) Rural-Urban Intra-district Migration: The growth rate of intra-district rural-to-urban migration is more dominant as compare to inter-district migration in Nagaland. The data in table 2.22 indicates that the number of migrants increased from 14337 persons in 1991 to 70778 persons in 2011. Among the district, Kohima had the highest number of rural-urban migration within the district during 1991-2011 census periods. Wokha, Mon and Tuensang were the other districts who witnessed high intra-district rural-urban migration. Mon witnessed the highest growth rate of rural-urban migration within the district where the figure increased from 454 persons in 1991 to 8632 person in 2011, while Longleng has the least intra-district migration in Nagaland. The proportion of intra-district migration to total migration increased marginally from 11.2 per cent in 1991 to 12.9 per cent in 2011.

Table 2.22. Intra-District Rural-Urban Migration in Nagaland, 1991-2011

Year	1991			2001			2011		
District/ State	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Nagaland	14337	8057	6280	23606	13364	10242	70,778	34,952	35,826
Kohima	4870	2783	2087	5,259	2,904	2,355	8,762	4,048	4,714
Phek	1307	695	612	2,699	1,421	1,278	6,123	3,078	3,045
Wokha	2692	1467	1225	928	541	387	7,371	3,631	3,740
Zunheboto	676	423	253	1232	842	390	5,589	2,761	2,828
Mokokchung	1575	680	895	2275	1209	1066	10911	5172	5739
Tuensang	2812	1775	1037	4651	2626	2025	8,631	4,489	4,142
Mon	405	234	171	2901	1703	1198	8,632	4,264	4,368
Dimapur	NA	NA	NA	3,661	2,118	1,543	4,349	2,188	2,161
Longleng	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	1,868	1,004	864
Kiphire	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	5,521	2,891	2,630
Peren	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	3,021	1,426	1,595

Source: Migration data, D-Series, Census of India 1991-2011

(ii) Urban-Rural Intra-district Migration: Intra-district urban to rural migration for Nagaland is given in Table 2.23. There was a sharp increased in the number of people migrating urban to rural areas within the district in Nagaland.

Table 2.23. Intra-District Urban-Rural Migration in Nagaland, 1991-2011

Year	1991			2001			2011		
District/ State	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Nagaland	23762	12476	11286	60983	32138	28845	42,764	22,338	20,426
Kohima	10800	5506	5294	12281	6340	5941	2,519	1,260	1,259
Phek	532	310	222	2542	1350	1192	1,617	850	767
Wokha	1774	817	957	3143	1576	1567	3,864	2,044	1,820
Zunheboto	1729	866	863	8743	4457	4286	7,624	3,982	3,642
Mokokchung	3686	2208	1478	6111	3193	2918	4,269	2,257	2,012
Tuensang	2941	1701	1240	8959	4768	4191	3,445	1,997	1,448
Mon	2300	1068	1232	4902	2837	2065	2,661	1,491	1,170
Dimapur	NA	NA	NA	14302	7617	6685	14,405	7,162	7,243
Longleng	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	540	323	217
Kiphire	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	651	362	289
Peren	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	1,169	610	559

Source: Migration data, D-Series, Census of India 1991-2011

From 23762 in 1991, it increased to 42764 in 2011. Among the districts, Kohima recorded the highest number (10800 persons) in 1991. In 2001 and 2011, Dimapur witnessed largest intra-district urban to rural migration in Nagaland,

followed by Kohima in 2001 and Zunheboto in 2011. Longleng recorded lowest intra-district urban-rural migration in 2011. It is also observed that the proportion of intra-district urban to rural migration declined sharply from 18.6 per cent in 1991 to 7.8 per cent in 2011in Nagaland.

2.6. REGRESSION ANALYSIS ON URBANISATION AND MIGRATION IN NAGALAND

The study on urban population growth and the level of migration for the period 1981 to 2011 based on census report clearly shows that both are closely related to each other. Taking migration as an independent and urbanisation as dependent variable, a simple linear regression was run to test the relationship between the two. The result reveals that there is a strong and positive correlation (r = 97) between migration and urbanisation in Nagaland. With R^2 of .951, it reveals that 95 per cent of the variability in urbanisation in Nagaland is explained by migration. Since P-value is less than 0.05 per cent level (P< .05), this study is statistically significant at 5 per cent level. The result suggests that with one per cent increased in migrant population, urban population will increase by 778 persons. Therefore, the hypothesis that there is positive relationship between urban growth and migration is accepted, since 'p' value is < .05 and t value is significant at 1 per cent level. So migration is a significant predictor of the urban population growth in Nagaland, (β= .778), (P= 0.025), t(2)=6.23 and R^2 = .95.

Table 2.24. Regression estimates on urbanisation in Nagaland

Correlation (r)	0.975
R Square (r^2)	0.951
Constant (α)	39830
Coefficient (urbanisation) (β)	0.778 (6.255)*
'p' value	0.025

*Note: Figure in the parenthesis represents't' value.*significant at 1 per cent.*
Source: Own calculation based on Census data

Thus, the first hypothesis which states that there is a positive relationship between urban growth and migration in Nagaland is accepted and proved.

2.7. CONCLUSION

The above analysis of the trend and volume of migration and urbanisation shows almost similar pattern of population structure in urban area both in India and Nagaland, that the levels of urbanisation is increasing, with Nagaland experiencing higher growth rate than the country's average during the last census period. However, the volume and migration rate for Nagaland was found to be less than the national average. It also reveals that the out migration from rural to urban areas is accelerating and that of rural to rural migration is declining in recent times not only in India but also in Nagaland, making migration study more interesting. Nevertheless, the magnitude and volume of migration has increased by more than four times in Nagaland during 1981 to 2011. This trend is likely to continue for few decades in Nagaland, which may greatly affect population structure of the state.

2.8. APPENDIX A

Table A.1. Level of Urbanisation in Nagaland (in %)

Year	Rural	Urban	Total
1961	94.8	5.2	100
1971	90	10	100
1981	84.48	15.52	100
1991	82.79	17.21	100
2001	82.26	17.74	100
2011	71.03	28.97	100

Source: Computed from various census report data

Table A.2. District-wise Urban and Total Population in Nagaland, 1981- 2011

District/State	Level of Urbanisation				
	1981	1991	2001	2011	CAGR
Kohima	26.9 (55.9*)	24.53 (56.38*)	25.1 (22.27)	45.6 (21.45)	66
Mokokchung	17.3 (15)	15.56 (11.9)	13.73 (8.85)	28.81 (9.7)	45
Wokha	14.2 (6.8)	17.4 (6.91)	23.4 (10.68)	21.05 (6.1)	62
Zunheboto	12.6 (6.4)	11.92 (5.51)	14.72 (6.47)	19.58 (4.8)	44
Tuensang	8 (10.1)	9.02 (10.09)	7.15 (8.4)	18.72 (6.4)	77
Mon	8.7 (5.7)	7.2 (5.19)	6.21 (4.57)	13.85 (6.1)	61
Phek	NA	8.9 (4.02)	8.68 (3.65)	15.07 (4.28)	77
Dimapur	-	37.08 (**)	40.17 (35.11)	51.95 (34.37)	71
Peren	-	-	-	15.59 (2.6)	_
Kiphire	-	-	-	22.28 (2.9)	_
Longleng	-	-	-	15.04 (1.3)	_
Nagaland	15.5 (100)	17.21 (100)	17.74 (100)	28.97 (100)	68
India	23.73	25.71	26.33	31.16	33

Source: Census of India, Series 14, Nagaland
State Human Development Report, Nagaland, 2004
A Thematic Report, 2009.
Nagaland's Demographic Somersault 2012
** Included urban population of Dimapur District till December 1997.*
*** Dimapur District was bifurcated from Kohima District in 1997.*
Note: Figures in the parenthesis indicate the share of urban population to total urban population in Nagaland.

Table A.3. State-wise Internal Migration by Streams in India

States/ UTs	Rural-rural	Rural-urban	Urban-rural	Urban-urban	Un-classified	total
Andhra Pradesh	15506084	5572300	2340107	7474280	74,67,873	383,60,644
Arunachal Pradesh	2,67,954	1,11,070	50,771	95,320	1,05,716	6,30,831
Assam	6344780	1035023	323786	869406	20,71,239	106,44,234
Bihar	19921029	2086983	1029663	1459127	27,48,067	27244869
Chhattisgarh	53,15,681	16,43,568	4,25,812	10,70,441	4,32,573	88,88,075
Delhi	127180	4162817	37781	2474750	4,21,986	7224514
Goa	194896	262578	175646	344132	1,63,438	11,40,690
Gujarat	106,78,220	73,34,729	15,20,187	51,44,236	22,20,914	268,98,286
Haryana	4625722	2461911	457333	2100206	9,40,288	10585460
Himachal Pradesh	1893458	245718	176024	148501	1,83,366	26,47,067
Jammu & Kashmir	1411095	429225	165128	384256	4,19,925	28,09,629
Jharkhand	5783318	1868873	307648	1083388	6,16,475	96,59,702
Karnataka	10370264	3979468	1857213	5871655	43,84,570	264,63,170
Kerala	6609662	4275193	1794248	2477959	27,06,357	178,63,419
Madhya Pradesh	13821026	4091595	1314814	3585264	19,22,420	247,35,119
Maharashtra	21332037	12881500	4248316	12647582	62,67,341	573,76,776
Manipur	276299	92656	54219	116988	1,46,773	6,86,935
Meghalaya	311276	94378	59813	83285	2,10,802	7,59,554
Mizoram	80096	138921	21114	74069	73,170	3,87,370
Nagaland	145605	163851	90002	96250	53,910	549618
Odisha	93,10,272	20,03,994	6,87,487	11,05,546	23,14,494	154,21,793
Punjab	5673825	2041085	922289	3017958	20,80,459	13735616
Rajasthan	13314608	3152072	1151573	2436034	20,17,195	22071482
Sikkim	108591	42521	18156	31932	45,849	247049
Tamil Nadu	8981785	5017358	2872455	9789394	46,13,115	312,74,107
Tripura	5,36,901	2,09,889	62,694	98,005	3,92,134	12,99,623
Uttarakhand	2164750	792021	273366	678091	4,09,226	4317454
Uttar Pradesh	32823499	6594758	2355698	7678003	70,00,125	56452083
West Bengal	15532780	4718462	2051794	5015785	61,29,651	334,48,472
A & N Islands	1,04,872	51,079	18,866	18,555	22,969	2,16,341
Chandigarh	15071	348486	3163	262149	49,319	678188
D & N Haveli	49634	76962	3398	33421	24,642	1,88,057
Daman & Diu	14255	97017	7223	25896	4,201	1,48,592
Lakshadweep	1348	3479	2691	10810	2,073	20,401
Puducherry	1,11,358	1,29,937	94,744	2,97,443	78,919	7,12,401
All India	213759232	78201477	26975221	78100117	587,51,574	4557,87,621

Source: Migration data, D-Series. Census of India, 2011

Table A.4. State-wise Migration by Last Usual Place of Residence in India

States/ UTs	Same State		Other state	Uncla-ssified	Other country	Total
	Same district	Other district				
Jammu & Kashmir	20,28,506	589961	1,55,187	547	35,428	28,09,629
Himachal Pradesh	18,34,106	350070	3,95,504	7,052	60,335	26,47,067
Punjab	69,85,711	3982644	24,88,299	1,675	2,77,287	137,35,616
Chandigarh	30,733	0	6,33,966	397	13,092	6,78,188
Uttarakhand	22,05,881	777234	12,50,575	1,566	82,198	43,17,454
Haryana	35,77,205	3220431	32,26,318	1,216	5,60,290	105,85,460
Delhi	6,76,519	0	63,30,065	40,030	1,77,900	72,24,514
Rajasthan	133,52,883	5887783	26,04,298	62,157	1,64,361	220,71,482
Uttar Pradesh	347,98,619	17202318	40,61,933	33,725	3,55,488	564,52,083
Bihar	185,82,693	7145707	11,11,954	5,923	3,98,592	272,44,869
Sikkim	1,25,999	41126	61,163	291	18,470	2,47,049
Arunachal Pradesh	3,85,814	97911	1,36,010	195	10,901	6,30,831
Nagaland	2,72,959	162087	1,08,020	119	6,433	5,49,618
Manipur	5,28,293	135725	20,100	115	2,702	6,86,935
Mizoram	2,12,063	118521	41,380	36	15,370	3,87,370
Tripura	8,50,428	139195	87,378	191	2,22,431	12,99,623
Meghalaya	5,68,122	75701	1,07,915	168	7,648	7,59,554
Assam	78,99,487	2136020	4,95,699	2,714	1,10,314	106,44,234
West Bengal	228,35,703	6217103	23,81,045	8,676	20,05,945	334,48,472
Jharkhand	53,59,666	2070425	21,95,521	2,361	31,729	96,59,702
Odisha	111,48,402	3339611	8,55,096	5,075	73,609	154,21,793
Chhattisgarh	53,87,641	2166862	12,67,668	2,943	62,961	88,88,075
Madhya Pradesh	147,24,023	7170690	27,44,332	5,783	90,291	247,35,119
Gujarat	141,71,961	8589237	39,16,075	1,33,853	87,160	268,98,286
Daman & Diu	21,065	862	1,24,522	423	1,720	1,48,592
Dadra & Nagar Haveli	46,921	0	1,35,602	4,053	1,481	1,88,057
Maharastra	299,65,187	17959401	90,87,380	40,154	3,24,654	573,76,776
Andhra Pradesh	286,93,786	7931787	15,91,890	5,086	1,38,095	383,60,644
Karnataka	156,98,134	7405384	32,47,660	6,636	1,05,356	264,63,170
Goa	7,40,733	112499	2,69,689	2,709	15,060	11,40,690
Lakshadweep	14,170	0	6,077	23	131	20,401
Kerala	139,28,518	3124999	6,54,423	1,934	1,53,545	178,63,419
Tamil Nadu	194,18,527	9933399	16,50,771	1,057	2,70,353	312,74,107
Puducherry	3,46,306	20094	3,39,967	96	5,938	7,12,401
Andaman & Nicobar Islands	97,144	33974	81,267	30	3,926	2,16,341
All India	2775,13,908	118138761	542,64,749	3,79,009	54,91,194	4557,87,621

Source: Migration data, D-Series. Census of India, 2011

Table A.5. Duration of migration in NE States of India (in %)

NE states	Less than 1 year	1-4 years	5-9 years	10-19 years	20 + years	Not stated
Sikkim	7.59	19.26	14.63	19.46	24.89	14.17
Arunachal Pradesh	5.29	19.49	15.36	19.87	19.78	20.21
Nagaland	8.09	21.28	16.97	19.15	21.54	12.97
Manipur	3.15	12.75	12.6	18.53	24.54	28.44
Mizoram	4.49	16.85	13.84	19.19	28.32	17.32
Tripura	4.45	11.11	11.68	20.55	35.92	16.29
Meghalaya	3.8	12.96	10.72	15.42	21.35	35.75
Assam	2.76	12.06	12.39	19.75	29.55	23.49
Average	4.9525	15.72	13.52375	18.99	25.73625	21.08
india	3.86	14.02	13.26	20.78	32.12	15.96

Source: Migration Data D-Series. Census of India, 2011

Table A.6. Migration from other States/UTs and other Countries to Nagaland, 2011

States/UTs/ Countries	Persons	% to total migrants	States/UTs/ Countries	Persons	% to total migrants
Andhra Pradesh	559	0.15	Sikkim	112	0.03
Arunachal Pradesh	737	0.2	Tamil Nadu	887	0.25
Assam	36,589	10.41	Tripura	2340	0.66
Bihar	12,940	3.68	Uttar Pradesh	5082	1.44
Gujarat	333	0.09	West Bengal	3862	1.09
Haryana	561	0.15	Uttarakhand	1982	0.5
Himachal Pradesh	339	0.09	Jharkhand	2733	0.77
Jammu & Kashmir	232	0.06	Chhattisgarh	146	0.04
Karnataka	260	0.07	Goa	17	0.01
Kerala	1841	0.52	Union Territories (UTs)	175	0.04
Madhya Pradesh	339	0.09	Other Countries	7984	2.27
Maharashtra	547	0.15	(a) Bangladesh	551	0.15
Manipur	7530	2.14	(b) Myanmar	152	0.04
Mizoram	228	0.06	(c) Nepal	5619	1.59
Orissa	1630	0.46	(d) Pakistan	28	0.01
Meghalaya	572	0.16	(e) Other	1674	0.47
Punjab	440	0.12	Total	93534	26.61
Rajasthan	2698	0.76			

Source: Census of India, 2001

CHAPTER 3

SOCIO-ECONOMIC PROFILE OF THE SAMPLE POPULATION

This chapter gives an insight to the socio-economic profile of the study area. The chapter consist of four sections. Firstly, it highlights the demographic structure of the sample districts in comparison to other districts in Nagaland. Second section examined the demographic profile of the sample population. Thirdly, economic profile of the sample population has been examined. Lastly, migration characteristics of the migrants such as nature and source areas of migration, periods of migration, migration assistance and place of last residence have been discussed.

3.1. DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE OF THE SAMPLE AREAS

3.1.1. Demographic Structure

According to 2011 census, the total population of Nagaland is 19,78,502, of which, 71.14 per cent live in rural areas and 28.86 per cent in urban areas. Among the districts, Dimapur has the largest share of State's population with 19.14 per cent, followed by Kohima and Mon while the least populated district is Longleng sharing 2.55 per cent of the State's population (table 3.1).

Table 3.1. Demographic Structure of the Sample Districts (2011)

District/ State/ India	Population			% to total population	Density of population	Decadal growth rate (in %)	Urban decadal growth rate 2001-11	Sex ratio
	Rural (%)	Urban (%)	Total 0					
Dimapur	48.05	51.95	378	19.1	409	22.9	72.14	919
Kohima	54.4	45.6	267	13.5	183	21.7	50.87	928
Nagaland	71.03	28.97	1978	100	119	-0.6	67.38	931
India	68.84	31.16	1210569	100	382	17.64	31.8	940

Source: Census of India, 2011

(i) Decadal Growth Rate of Population: The decadal growth rate of population in Nagaland during 2001-2011 was -0.6 per cent whereas that of India was 17.64 per cent as indicated in table 3.1. There was no uniformity in the growth rate even among the districts, where some districts experience high and positive growth rate while others have negative growth rate during the last decade. During 2001-2011, Dimapur district has the highest growth rate with 23.13 %, followed by Kohima with 22.80 %

and Phek and Peren with 10.19% each. On the other hand, Longleng, Kiphire and Mokokchung witnessed negative growth rate with -58.39%, -30.54%, -16.77%, respectively (table 2.9).

(ii) Sex Ratio: In Nagaland, the average sex ratio is 931 per 1000 males,which is lower than the national average of 940 during 2011. Similarly, sex ratio is 940 in rural areas and 908 in urban area, which are lower than the all India average of 947 and 926 respectively. Among the districts, Zunheboto has the highest sex ratio with 976 while Mon has the lowest with 899. In rural areas, Zunheboto with 993 is the highest sex ratio and Mon with 902 is the lowest sex ratio. For urban areas, Peren with 1012 is the highest and lowest is in Phek with 860 (Table 2.9).

(iii) Density of Population: Dimapur with 409 persons per sq.km is the only district whose density is higher than the national average of 382/sq.km. Peren with 58/sq.km, Kiphire (65) and Tuensang (78) have the lowest density of population among the districts, lower than the State's average of 119/sq.km.

(iv) Literacy Rate: The literacy rate for Nagaland is 79.6 %, which is higher than the national average of 74.4%. It is a phenomenon that males are more privileged in getting education for males both in Nagaland and in India. For Nagaland the male literacy rate in 2011 was 82.8%, which is higher than female literacy rate of 76.1%. During the same period, male literacy rate in India was 82.14, while that of females was 65.16%.

(v) Rural-Urban Population Distribution: According to 2011 census, the proportion of urban population in Nagaland was 28.9 % (5,70,966) and 71.1 % (14,07,536) in rural areas as against the national average of 31.16 % and 68.84 % respectively. Among the districts, the highest proportion of urban population is Dimapur with 51.77 % and Mon has the lowest urban population with only 13.64 %. On the contrary, Mon has the highest proportion of rural population with 86.36 %, while Dimapur has the lowest with 48.24%. However, Mon has the highest growth rate of urbanisation with 109.2 per cent, while Wokha exhibited negative urban population growth rate with -7.04 % during the same decade.

3.1.2. Kohima District

(i) District Profile: Kohima is one of the oldest districts of Nagaland, sharing its borders with Dimapur district in the West, Phek district in the East, Manipur State and Peren district in the South and Wokha district in the North. Kohima town is the first seat of modern administration and the Headquarters of Naga Hills District. When Nagaland became a full-fledged state on 1st December, 1963, Kohima town was christened as the capital of the state. Since then, 3 districts have been curved out of Kohima district, viz, Phek (1973), Dimapur (1998) and Peren (2004). It is located 74 Kms away from Dimapur city, linked by National Highway 29.

Table 3.2. Demographic Profile of Kohima and Dimapur district and Nagaland

Parameters	2001			2011		
	Kohima	**Dimapur**	**Nagaland**	**Dimapur**	**Kohima**	**Nagaland**
Population	3,10,084	3,09,024	19,88,636	3,78,811	2,67,988	19,78,502
Decadal growth rate	49.96	73.3	64.41	22.9	21.7	-0.6
Urban decadal growth rate	49.81	48.69	64.62	72.7	57.2	66.6
Population Density	150	332	120	409	183	119
Urban population	77,030 (35)*	1,14,600 (37.2)*	3,42,787 (17.2)**	1,97,869 (52.2)*	1,21,088 (45.2)*	5,70,966 (28.9)**
Sex Ratio	898	854	900	919	928	931
Urban Sex Ratio	870	764	809	903	934	908
Literacy Rate	78	76.9	66.6	84.8	85.2	79.6
Urban Literacy Rate	86.7	79.1	84.7	87.4	90.1	89.6

Sources: Census of India, 2011
Statistical Handbook of Nagaland,2017,
** percentage to total population of the district;*
*** percentage to total population of the State*

With total area of about 3.11 lakh hectares, it is the second most populated district and shares 19 per cent of the State's population. The district has 267,988 populations, out of which 45.2 per cent live in urban areas. Its sex ratio is 928 females per 1000 males, which is lower than the State's average of 931. The district has higher literacy rate (85.2%) and population density (183/sq.km.) than the State's average of 79.6% and 199/sq.km. respectively.

The district has 12 circles, 4 Rural Development Blocks, 180 inhabited villages and 22 uninhabited villages[132]. In Kohima, there are 25 colleges, 14 banks and 8 hospitals including nursing homes. The district has 7 Government Higher Secondary Schools, 24 Government High Schools, 88 Government Primary Schools, 53 Government Middle Schools and 73 private schools (Higher Secondary-25, Recognized High School-24 and Permitted High School-24)[133].

(ii) Kohima Town: Kohima Town is the capital of the State and also the headquarters of Kohima district. Kohima Town Committee (KTC) came into existence in 1957, with 8 wards represented by one elected member from each ward and 4 Government nominees. It was in 2005, the first Kohima Municipal Council (KMC) was constituted, under the provisions of the Nagaland Municipality Act, 2001, with 19 elected councilors.

Table 3.3. Name of the Wards and Colonies under KMC

Ward No.	Name of the wards	Ward No.	Name of the wards
1	High School Colony	11	P.W.D. Colony
2	Bayavu Ward	12	Chandmari Lower
3	North Block Ward	13	Chandmari Upper Ward
4	Naga Bazaar Ward	14	Dzuvuru
5	Kitsoubozou Ward	15	A.G. Colony
6	D Block Ward	16	New Ministers Hill
7	Dakelane Ward	17	Agri-Electrical-Forest Colony
8	New Market Ward	18	Para Medical Ward
9	Midland Ward	19	P.R. Hill Ward
10	Officers Hill		

Source: Kohima Municipal Council, Kohima

The KMC is still in its nascent and transitional stage as the powers and functions as enshrined in the 12th Schedule of the 74th Constitutional Amendment Act is yet to be fully transferred by the State Government to the ULBs[134]. At present, KMC have 19 wards covering a total area of 11 sq. km., which accounts for over 17

[132] District Human Development Report (2009).
[133] Kohima District Portal. Web: https://kohima.nic.in/public-utility-category/schools/
[134] Kohima Municipal Council. Web: http://kmc.nagaland.gov.in/

% of the total area of greater Kohima with a population of 98,000 as per 2011 census. Kohima town is located at an altitude of about 1444 meters above sea level.

3.1.3. Dimapur District

(i) District Profile: Dimapur district was curved out of Kohima district and inaugurated as the eighth district of Nagaland in December, 1997. The district is bounded by Kohima district on the east, Assam on the West and north and Peren district in the south. Besides being referred to as the gateway of Nagaland and Manipur, Dimapur is the main commercial centre of the State, facilitated by rail and air connectivity. The National Highway 29 connects Dimapur with the State capital Kohima and also with Manipur. Dimapur is the only district where a large part of its geographical area is plain, situated at 25° 54′ 45" N Latitude and 93° 44′ 30" E Longitude.

For administrative purpose, the district is divided into four sub-divisions; Nuiland, Medziphima, Kuhuboto and Dhansariphar, each headed by Sub-Divisional Officer. In addition, there are three administrative circles, namely, Chumukedima, Nihokhu and Aqhunaga and 220 recognized villages. Dimapur is the 2nd smallest district with 927 sq. km. after Longleng but the most populated district of the State[135].

According to 2011 census, the district has a total population of 3,78,811 and is projected to reached 524142 in 2021. It is the most densely populated district with 409/sq.km, where more than 52 per cent living in urban areas. The district has 919 females per 1000 males which is lower than the State's average sex ratio of 931. It has a literacy rate of 84.8 per cent, higher than the State's average of 79.6 per cent (Table 3.2).

(ii) Dimapur City: The only commercial hub, Dimapur city occupies an area of 18.13 sq. km., stretching to 3.45 kms from north to south and 6.30 kms from east to west with a population of 1,25,513 (Census of India, 2011). Under the administration of the Dimapur Municipal Council (DMC), it has 94 colonies which are compressed into 23 wards. The city has 18 colleges, 19 hospitals and private nursing homes, 25 Higher Secondary Schools and 39 High Schools[136].

[135] Statistical Handbook of Nagaland (2017)
[136] Dimapur City at a Glance. Web: http://dmc.nagaland.gov.in/dmc-administration/dimapur-city-at-a-glance/

Table 3.4. Name of the Wards and Colonies under Dimapur Municipal Corporation

Wards No.	Name of the Colonies and Areas
1	N.S.T Colony, Chakhesang Colony, Rajbari, part of Khermahal
2	Zakeisatuo Colony, Gorapatti, Public Ground Colony, Kulhoulie Punyu colony
3	United North Block A, United North Block B, Naga United Colony,Sunrise colony, Ashuhe Mon colony
4	Northern Angami Colony, Rengma Colony, Rangailong Colony, Chukaizu Colony, Zeliangrong Colony.
5	Dr.Haralu Colony Sector-I, Dr.Haralu Colony, Sector-II, Police Colony, Bank Colony
6	Old Over Bridge Colony, Rly. Gate Area, Hazi Park Area, Marwari Patti, Railway Bazaar Area
7	Westyard Colony, Chatteswari Colony, Xuvihe Colony, Sematilla, Surja Gaubora (Rana) Colony
8	Rly.Colony, Netaji Colony, Hospital Colony
9	Nepali Bosti, Supply Colony, Forest Colony, Fellowship Colony, Colliery Colony
10	Neisatuo Colony, LRC Colony, Lake View Colony, Khermahal, Naga Cemetery & Island Colony
11	River Belt Colony, Duncan Bosti.
12	Lengrijan, Ao Kashiram, Nepali Kashiram, Veterinary Colony, Industrial Estate, Hill View Colony
13	Midland Colony, PWD Colony, Kyong Colony, Residency Colony, Landmark Colony.
14	Oriental Colony, Sub-Jail Colony, Lotha Colony, Rio Colony (Sewak Gate), K.Sachu Colony, HMC, Midland.
15	Lhomithi Colony.
16	Signal Bosti, Kevijau Colony, B.L Kachari Colony.
17	DMC Area, Ramjanaki Thakur Bari, Old Market, Kalibari area, Jain Temple area.
18	Zeliangrong Village, Dhobinala Area.
19	New Market, Naga Bazar area.
20	Govt. Higher Secondary School Colony, S.M Colony, New Circuit House Area, Development Authority Market
21	Lotha Church area, Nyamo Lotha Colony,Notun Basti, Khermahal.
22	Niu Colony, Veterinary Colony, Burma Camp Market Area, Ragailong Colony
23	Rio Colony, Mehta Colony, Forest Treating Plant. Viola Colony, Y. Zhimo Colony

Source: Dimapur Municipal Corporation

3.2. DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE OF THE SAMPLE POPULATION

The demographic and socio-economic characteristics of the respondents in the sample survey have been discussed in the following section. Demographic characteristics including the age, sex, educational level and marital status of the respondents are presented here below.

3.2.1. Age Profile

The age structure of the migrants gives a clear insight into the migration pattern by different age groups. Generally, it is expected that younger age groups are more mobile than the older age, because young people by nature are more energetic and ambitious. The age compositions of the respondents from two sample towns, viz. Kohima and Dimapur have been categorised into six groups as given in table 3.5.

In Dimapur, the highest proportion of migrants belonged to the age group of 26-35 years which accounted for nearly 46 per cent of the sample population, followed by 36-45 years group with 33 per cent and 46-55 years group with 12 per cent (Table 3.5). This shows that above 55 years of age and younger people of 16-25 years of age group are less mobile than the middle age groups.

At Kohima, the youngest age group seems to be more mobile as compared to other groups. The age group of 16-25 years accounted for nearly 40 per cent of the total sample population. This is followed by 26-35 years group and 36-45 years group with 35.5 per cent and 16 per cent respectively. The older age group say 55 years and above constituted only about 3 per cent of the migrant population in Kohima city.

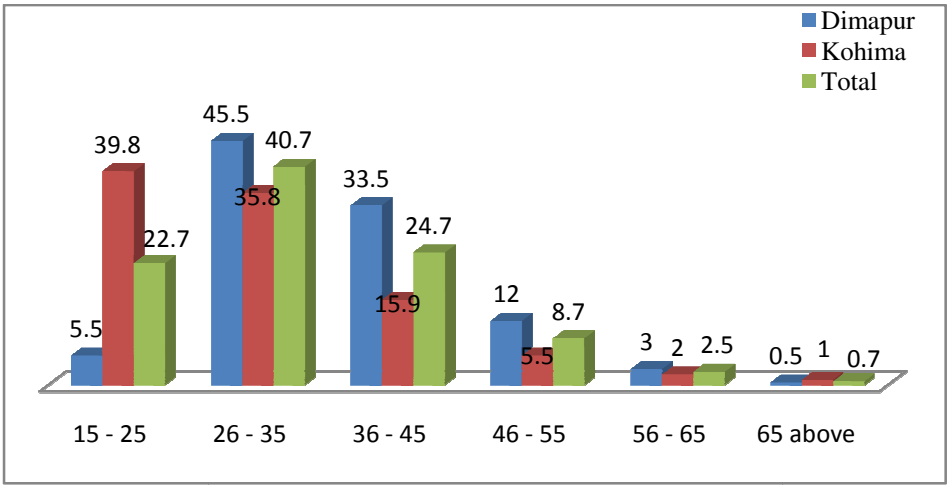
The aggregate sample data in table 3.5 shows that, in Nagaland, the younger age group of 26-35 years of age represents 40.7 % of the sample population, followed by 36-45 years with 24.7 %. This may be interpreted as, the younger and middle age groups are more energetic and therefore, more of them engaged in migration. It also reveals that as the age progress, older people tend to become more static and less mobile as evident from the table 3.5, where 46-55 years, 55-65 and 65 years and above comprised of 8.7 %, 2.5 % and 0.7 % respectively.

Table 3.5. Classification of Respondents by Age Group

City/Town	Dimapur		Kohima		Total Persons	
Age group	**Freq.**	**%**	**Freq.**	**%**	**Freq.**	**%**
16-25	11	5.5	79	39.5	90	22.5
26-35	91	45.5	72	35.5	163	40.7
36-45	67	33.5	32	16	99	24.7
46-55	24	12	11	5.5	35	8.7
56-65	6	3	4	2	10	2.5
65 above	1	0.5	2	1	3	0.7
Total	200	100	200	100	400	100

Source: Source: Field Survey, 2015-16

Figure 3.1. Age Composition of the respondents (in years)



Source: Table 3.5

From Figure 3.1, it is clearly shown that the migrant population is mainly composed of younger and middle age groups as compared to older age groups. In other words, older people tend to settle down and refrain from migration. The above analysis of age structure of the respondents shows that the younger age groups tend to be more active in migration process as compared to older groups.

3.2.2. Sex Composition

There is significant distinction between male and female in terms of volume and stream of migration participation in India. Earlier male migration was dominating over females, but at present female participation in migration strategy has increased significantly. Though rural–urban movement has long been male-dominated, a growing number of females have moved to urban areas in recent decades, looking for

employment, better health care, and education or due to conflicts at home (Tacoli et al., 2014). As per the census report of 2011, females constitute 68 per cent and males only 32 per cent of the total migrants in India. In Nagaland, female migrants constitute 48.8 per cent while male accounted for 51.2 per cent. Table 3.6 and figure 3.2 given below shows the sex composition of the sample total.

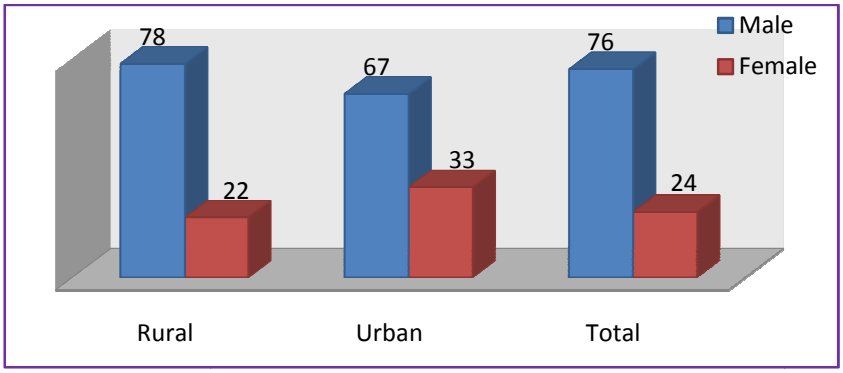
Table 3.6. Migration Stream by Last Usual Place of Residence by sex

Category	Last usual place of residence		
	Migrated from		
Sex	Rural areas	Urban areas	Total
Male	248 (78)	55 (67)	303 (76)
Female	70 (22)	27 (33)	97 (24)
Total	318 (100)	82 (100)	400 (100)

Source: Field survey, 2015-16

Note: Figure in the parenthesis represents percentage in respective category to total

Figure 3.2. Migration Stream by Last Usual Place of Residence (in %)



Source: Table 3.6

It is evident from sample survey that male constituted 76 per cent of the total migrants while female accounted for 24 per cent only. An analysis of streams of migration in the table reveals that migration from rural origin is quite prominent. Out of the total migrants from rural areas, male accounted for 78 per cent, while females constituted 22 per cent only. Out of the total migrants from other urban areas, male constituted for 67 per cent while female accounted only 33 per cent. So males dominate migration to urban areas in the sample data, which represents the migration pattern in Nagaland.

3.2.3. Educational Attainment

Education plays a crucial role in the life of a migrant. A person was considered as literate if he/she could both read and write a simple message with understanding in at least one language (NSSO, 2010). A migrant with higher degree is more likely to secure a higher profile job as compare to an illiterate or lower level educated person in towns or cities. Thus, there is a close relationship between education and income/ employment opportunities. In the present study, respondents were classified into 6 groups as per their educational level presented in table 3.7.

Among the migrants in Dimapur, it is found that about 30 per cent of the respondents were graduates, 28.5 per cent possessed master degree and 16.5 per cent with primary or no education. About 23 per cent attended high school and higher secondary level.

It is observed that majority of the respondents in Kohima have lower educational qualification as compared to those migrants in Dimapur. About 36 per cent did not acquire proper education and another 36 per cent did not pass class X. So migrants in Kohima are less educated as compared to the migrants in Dimapur.

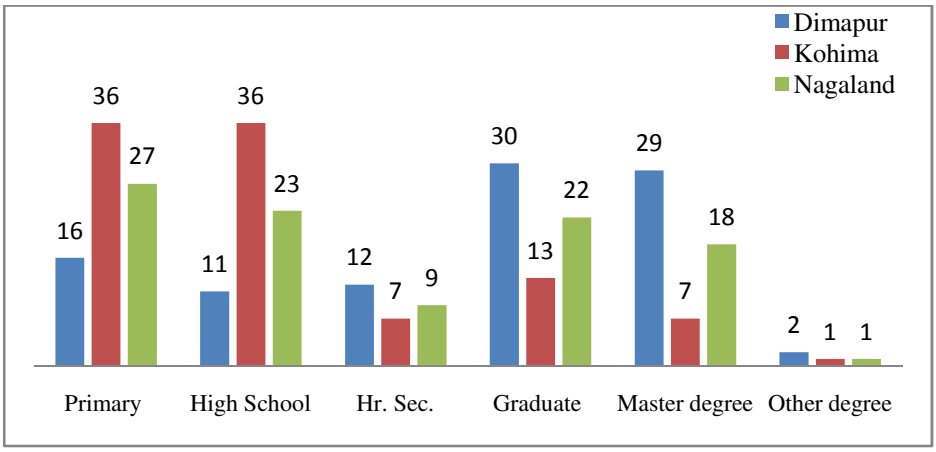
The sample aggregate data represents educational level for the migrants in urban areas in Nagaland as given in table 3.7. Amongst the migrants, the largest group is those with primary level or no formal education which constitutes about 26.5 per cent, followed by those who attended high school (23.8 %). In the third place are those with graduate level with 21.7 per cent. This indicates that nearly 50 per cent of the urban migrants in Nagaland have higher secondary and above.

Table 3.7. Educational Level of the Respondents

City/Town	Dimapur		Kohima		Nagaland	
Standards	**Frequency**	**%**	**Frequency**	**%**	**Frequency**	**%**
Primary	33	16.5	73	36.5	106	26.5
Middle & High School	23	11.5	72	36	95	23.8
Higher Secondary	23	11.5	14	7	37	9.3
Graduate	60	30	27	13.5	87	21.7
Master degree	57	28.5	13	6.5	74	17.5
Other degree	4	2	1	0.5	5	1.2
Total	200	100	200	100	400	100

Source: Field survey 2015-16

Figure 3.3. Level of Education Attainment (in %)



Source: Table 3.7

From figure 3.3, it is evident that about 50 per cent of the migrants have educational level below class 10 represented by middle/ high school and primary levels, whereas the other 50 per cent have education of at least secondary level and above.

3.2.4. Marital Status

Marital status is another important determinant for understanding the nature of migration. A single person or unmarried person whether male or female has more freedom of choice in migration decisions than those married couples and with children. In a new place, if a whole family move in, it takes more time and costs to settle down. This is the primary reason why some people choose to migrate alone in the first place and after settling certain prerequisite in the destination area, the whole family may migrate later. This is what many researchers viewed and believed to be the general pattern in migration.

The proportion of married migrants comprised about 67 per cent of the total sample population in Dimapur. Out of this, 44 per cent were males and 22.5 per cent were females. Unmarried persons constitute about 33.5 per cent, whereby 19 percent were females and 14.5 per cent were males (Table 3.8).

By marital status in Kohima, about 54 per cent of the respondents were married by which 52 per cent were males and the remaining were females. Un-married persons constituted 46 per cent of the sample population whereby about 40 per cent were males and 6 per cent were females.

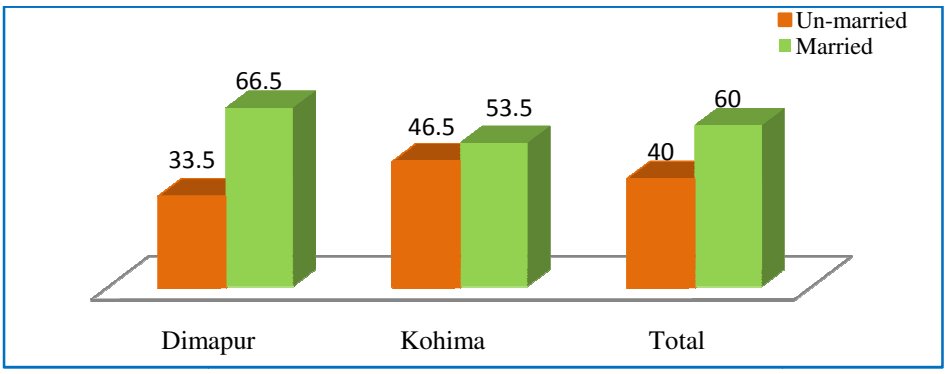
Table 3.8. Marital Status of the Urban Migrants

City/Town	Sex	Un-married		Married	
		Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Dimapur	Male	29	14.5	88	44
	Female	38	19	45	22.5
	Total	67	33.5	133	66.5
Kohima	Male	82	40.8	105	52.2
	Female	11	5.5	3	1.5
	Total	93	46.5	107	53.5
Nagaland	Male	111	27.8	193	48.2
	Female	49	12.3	48	12
	Total	160	40	240	60

Source: Field survey, 2015-16

In Nagaland, aggregates of the sample data reveal that majority of the respondents were found to be married accounting for 60 per cent of the total respondents (table 3.8), out of which 48 per cent were found to be male migrants and the remaining 12 per cent were female migrants. Nearly 28 per cent of the un-married migrants were male and the remaining was female**.** But that does not imply that all those married persons move with their wives and children to urban centres in Nagaland. Some of them migrated with their families while others left their spouse and children at their native village or home town.

Figure. 3.4. Marital Status of the Migrants in Nagaland (in %)



Source: Table 3.8

Figure 3.4 corresponds to the proportion of married and un-married respondents from Dimapur, Kohima and Nagaland respectively. About 67 per cent of the respondents from Dimapur and 54 per cent from Kohima were found to be married. In other words, about 60 per cent of the respondents have reported to be married and the remaining 40 per cent were not yet married.

3.3. ECONOMIC PROFILE OF THE SAMPLE POPULATION

The economic status of the migrants gives insight into the living condition of the migrants in urban areas. This section deals with the status of the source of income, possession of durable goods and the nature of dwelling places of the migrants in urban areas of Nagaland.

3.3.1. Income Sources

The source of income reveals the economic condition of the migrants. Six important sources of income were identified and represented in table 3.9 and figure 3.5. It is evident that the main sources of income for the migrants in Nagaland were wage labour and government service with 28.2 per cent each. Next is business establishments (26.2%), followed by other source (9.7%) and farming (3.5%).

Table 3.9. Source of livelihood for the Urban Migrants in Nagaland

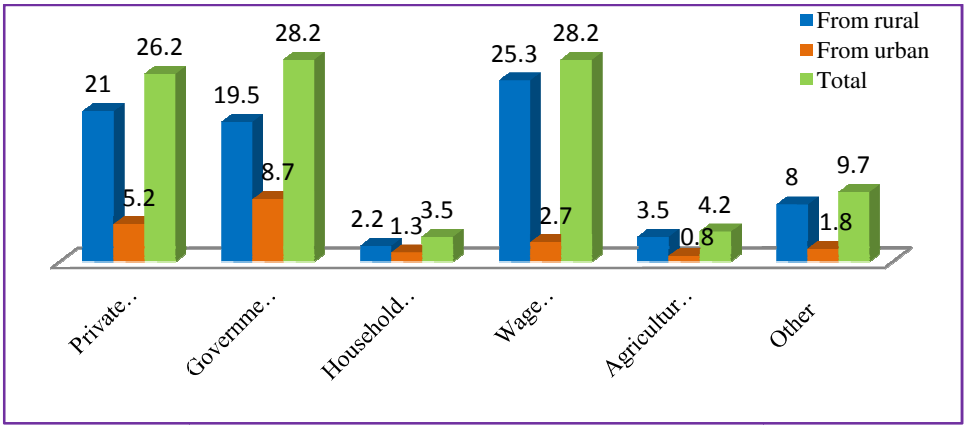
Livelihood Sources	Migrated from					
	Rural areas		Urban areas		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Business (private)	84	21	24	5.2	108	26.2
Government service	78	19.5	34	8.7	112	28.2
Household industry/ self employed	9	2.2	5	1.3	14	3.5
Wage labour	101	25.3	9	2.7	110	28.2
Agriculture/farming	14	3.5	3	0.8	17	4.2
Other	32	8	7	1.8	39	9.7
Total	318	79.5	82	20.5	400	100

Note: 'N' refers to the number of respondents

Source: Field Survey, 2015-16

For those migrants from rural areas, wage work is the main source of livelihood (25.3%), followed by private business (21%) and government service (19.5%). Farming and self employment contributes nearly 6 per cent to income. On the other hand, government service is the most important source (8.7%) for the migrants coming from other urban areas, followed by business (5.2%) and wage labour (2.7%).

Figure 3.5. Source of income of the respondents



Source: Table 3.9

From the above analysis on the sources of income, it is understood that formal sector contributed only 28 per cent to income source, while about 62 per cent came from informal source and 10 per cent from other sources.

3.3.2. Possession of Durable Goods

The possession of durable goods and assets not only adds comfort to our life but also determines the living standards, such as televisions, refrigerators, fans, laptops, cars, etc. In this section of the study, possession of such goods by the migrants after migration has been examined.

It is observed that majority of the respondents in Dimapur acquired basic amenities like television, refrigerator, mobile phones etc. It was found that nearly 99 per cent of the respondents have television at home, 90 per cent with refrigerator and about 82 per cent with mobile phones. About 24 per cent have four wheelers and 21 per cent two wheelers.

As evident from the table 3.10, migrants in Kohima were found to be lacking behind those in Dimapur. About 82 per cent have mobile phones, only 64 per cent with televisions and 19 per cent with refrigerators at home. But 54 per cent have desk top or laptops as against only 28 per cent in Dimapur. Regarding four wheelers, Kohima has only 2 per cent as against 24 per cent in Dimapur.

The sample aggregate shows that about 54 per cent of them possessed refrigerator, 81 per cent television, nearly 82 per cent mobile phone. Nearly 22 per cent have two wheelers and 13 per cent four wheelers.

Table 3.10. Possession of Durable Goods by the Migrants

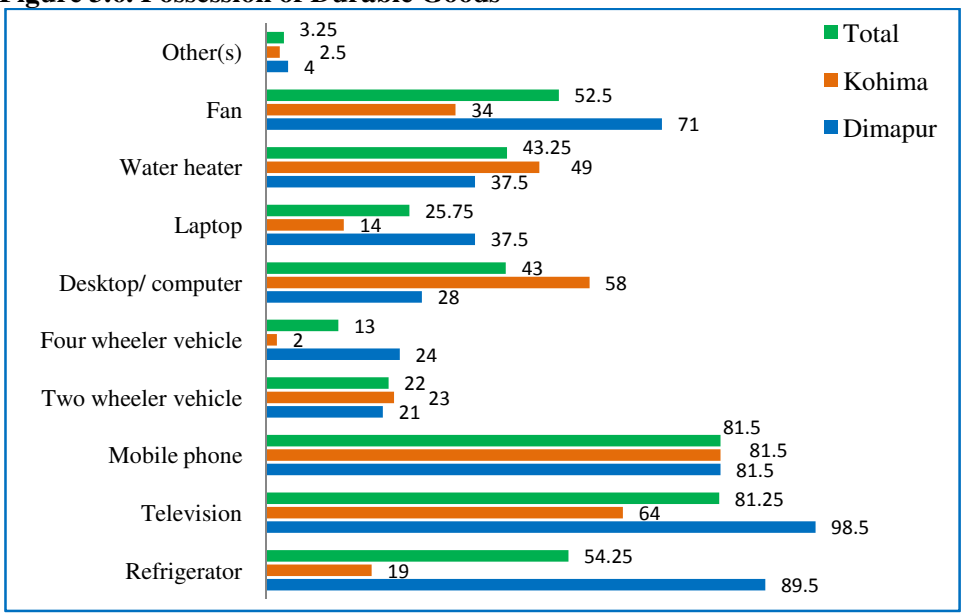
City/ State	Dimapur		Kohima		Nagaland	
Particulars	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**
Refrigerator	179	89.5	38	19	217	54.25
Television	197	98.5	128	64	325	81.25
Mobile phone	163	81.5	163	81.5	326	81.5
Two wheeler vehicle	42	21	46	23	88	22
Four wheeler vehicle	48	24	4	2	52	13
Desktop/ computer	56	28	116	58	172	43
Laptop	75	37.5	28	14	103	25.75
Water heater	75	37.5	98	49	173	43.25
Fan	142	71	68	34	210	52.5
Other(s)	8	4	5	2.5	13	3.25

Source: Field Survey, 2015-16

Most common use items like water heater and fans were possessed by about 43 per cent and 52 per cent respectively. Computer set and laptops were owned by about 43 per cent and 26 per cent respectively.

Figure 3.6 give the proportion of the respondents who possessed the above mentioned assets which are considered as essential for leading a comfortable life in urban areas. This does not meant that a person cannot sustain in urban areas if he/she does not possess those above mention goods. But the essence of owning such durable goods is that it makes our life more jovial and easy.

Figure 3.6. Possession of Durable Goods



Source: Table 3.10

3.3.3. Nature of Dwelling Place

It was noted that majority of the respondents after migration have made tremendous improvement in living condition with regard to housing system. In this section, the ownership of the dwelling place is discussed. Table 3.11 gives the detail of such different types of the nature of living condition of the respondents.

The nature of dwelling in Dimapur city is observed to be such that most of the respondents were residing in rented house with their family, which accounts for 28.5 per cent of the sample population and followed by those who owned the house with 23 per cent. The third group is consisted of those who were staying together with their parents which constituted about 18 per cent of the sample total.

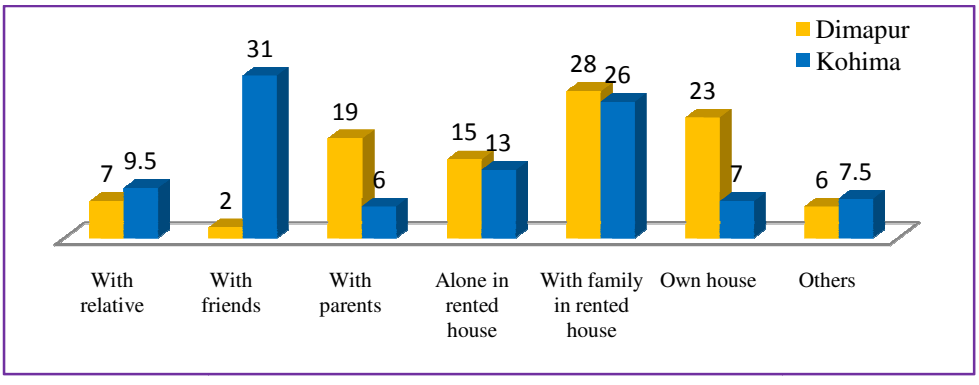
In Kohima, the largest proportion of the respondents were staying with friends which accounted for 31.5 per cent, followed by those staying with family in rented house and those staying alone in rented in towns with 26 per cent and 12.5 per cent respectively.

Table 3.11. Nature of Dwelling Place in Dimapur and Kohima

	Dimapur		Kohima		Nagaland	
Category	**Frequency**	**%**	**Frequency**	**%**	**Frequency**	**%**
With relative	14	7	19	9.5	33	8.3
With friends	4	2	63	31.5	67	16.8
With parents	37	18.5	12	6	49	12.2
Alone in rented house	30	15	25	12.5	55	13.8
With family in rented house	57	28.5	52	26	109	27.2
Own house	46	23	14	7	60	15
Others	12	6	15	7.5	27	6.7

Source: Field Survey 2015-16

Figure 3.7.Nature of Dwelling Place



Source: Table 3.11

The nature of dwelling in Nagaland is represented by the sample total of Dimapur and Kohima as given in table 3.11. It indicates that the highest proportion of the respondents were those who are staying with their family in rented house, accounting for about 27 per cent of the total respondents. This is followed by those people who have a shared-type of residence with their friends in towns and those who own house in the city/town accounting for 16.8 per cent and 15 per cent respectively. Here, staying with parents implies that they do not bear any burden for housing. From the above table it is sum that more than 50 per cent of the respondents who came from rural areas are settled in rented house in the present place of residence.

3.4. MIGRATION PROFILE OF THE SAMPLE POPULATION

In this section, the nature and source of migration, periods of migration in to urban centres in Nagaland, place of origin of the respondent by last usual place of residence and migration assistance received by the respondents have been examined and discussed below.

3.4.1. Pattern of Migration

Migration of either an individual member moving out alone or with the whole family (household migration) determines the patterns of migration. The former deals with the out-migration of any members of the family to other urban area, while in the case of latter, the whole family move out of the current place of residence. Based on the above mentioned criterion, the present section examines the nature of movement, i.e. the magnitude of household migration and individual migration.

It was observed that majority of the migrants moved to Dimapur along with the family that constituted 59 per cent. Out of these, 41 per cent came from rural areas and about 18 per cent came from urban areas. For those individual migrants, 29 per cent came from rural areas and 12 percent from other smaller urban centres (Table B.3 in Appendix B and figure 3.8).

On the other hand, majority of the migrants in Kohima were found to have migrated alone which accounts for nearly 74 per cent of the total respondents. Out of this, 65 per cent came from rural areas and 8.5 per cent from other urban areas. So, about 26 per cent of the migrants in Kohima migrated along with their family (table B.4 in Appendix B).

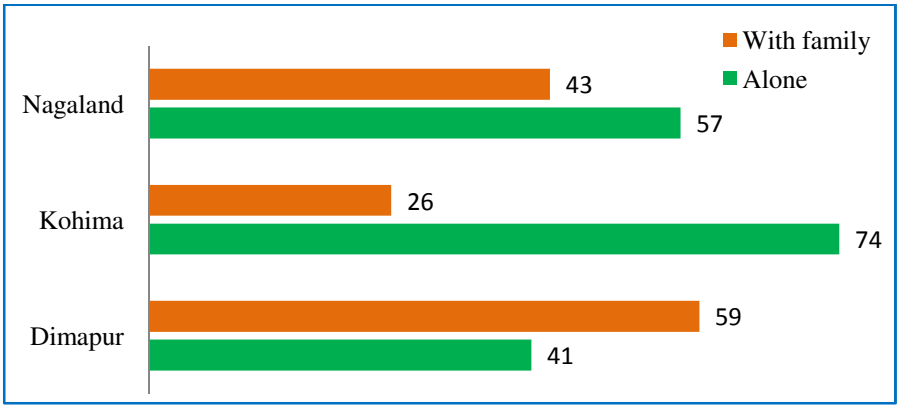
The pattern of movement of the migrants to urban areas in Nagaland, as represented by the sample total, viz. Kohima and Dimapur, is given in table 3.12 as follows**.** It is evident that majority of the respondents (57.3 %) were reported to have moved alone while the rest (i.e., 42.7 per cent) have migrated with the family. Individual migration is more prevalent among the rural male migrants as compared to rural female migration. Urban origin migration, however, does not show any significant differences among male and female migrants.

Table 3.12. Pattern of Migration in Nagaland

Rural/ Urban	Sex / Persons	Moved in alone		Moved in with the family	
		Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Rural	Male	160	40	88	22
	Female	28	7	42	10.5
	Sub-total	188	47	130	32.5
Urban	Male	27	6.7	28	7
	Female	14	3.5	13	3.3
	Sub-total	41	10.3	41	10.3
Rural+ Urban	Male	187	46.7	116	29
	Female	42	10.5	55	13.7
	Total	229	57.3	171	42.7

Source: Field Survey, 2015-16

Figure 3.8. Pattern of Migration in Nagaland (in %)



Source: Table 3.12

When segregated the two sample towns, the nature of migration show different pictures for Dimapur and Kohima Towns (figure 3.8). It reveals that majority of the respondents (59%) in Dimapur have migrated with the family, while

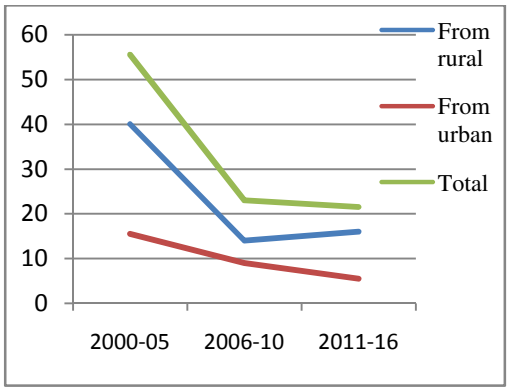
in Kohima it is the individual migration with 74 per cent dominates over household migration. The remaining respondents, i.e, 41 per cent in Dimapur migrated alone leaving the family member and parents at home while 26 per cent in Kohima migrated with family.

3.4.2. Periods of Migration

This section deals with the periods of migration into urban centres in Nagaland. Broadly, the respondents were categorised into 3 groups based on the year they have migrated, viz., (a) 2000-05, (b) 2006-10 and (c) 2011-16 based on rural-urban origin.

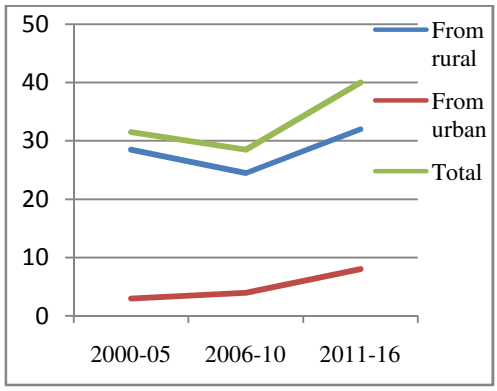
It is observed that about 55 per cent of the migrants in Dimapur city have migrated during 2000-2005 period. This is followed by those migrated during 2005 to 2010 period with 23 per cent and 2011-16 period with 22 % (Appendix B Table B.1). This show the number of people migrating to Dimapur is declining in recent years. The pattern of migration based on years after migration to Dimapur is represented in figure 3.9 which shows declining trends in recent years.

Fig.3.9: Period of migration in Dimapur



Source: Table B.1 in appendix B

Fig.3.10. Period of migration in Kohima



Source: Table B.2 in appendix B

Conversely, in Kohima, the largest number of respondents have migrated in recent years (2011-16) who accounts for nearly 41 per cent, followed by those who have migrated during 2000-05 period with 31.5 per cent and 2006-10 with 28 per cent (Table B.2 in Appendix B). Migration pattern based on the periods of migration to Kohima shows increasing trends in recent years (figure 3.10), which is similar for both rural and urban origins.

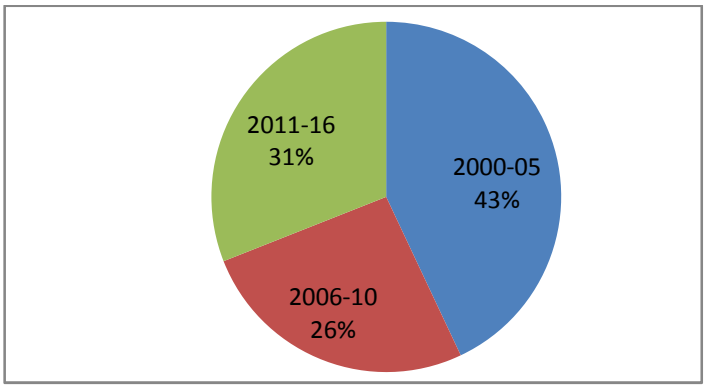
The details of the duration of migration of the respondents into the sample towns of Dimapur and Kohima, representing the urban centres in Nagaland is presented in table 3.13. As evident from the table, that out of the total migrant population, 43 per cent migrated during the early 2000s, while 26 per cent migrated during 2006-10 and 31 per cent during 2011-16. Moreover, the sample data reveals that majority of the migrants were from rural areas (79.5%) and only 20.5 per cent were from other smaller towns. It is evident from figure 3.11 and table 3.13 that about 43 per cent were migrated to urban centres during 2000-2005, followed by 31 per cent during 2011-16 and about 26 per cent of them migrated during the period 2006-10. This fact indicates that the rate of migration into urban areas is falling during the recent years in Nagaland.

Table 3.13. Periods of Migration in Nagaland

Category	Last usual place of residence				Total	
	Rural areas		Urban areas			
Period	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
2000-05	136	34.2	37	9.2	173	43.2
2006-10	77	19.2	26	6.5	103	25.8
2011-16	105	26.2	19	4.7	124	31
Total	318	79.5	82	20.5	400	100

Source: Field Survey, 2015-16

Figure 3.11. Period of Migration in Nagaland (%)



Source: Table 3.13

3.4.3. Place of Origin of the Respondent

Place of origin of the migrants is another important aspect of the present study which is highlighted in this section. The respondents were classified based on the last place of residence for both the sample areas.

Among the migrants in Kohima by last usual place of residence, 89 per cent of them came from within the state, whereby 63 per cent were from rural areas and 26 per cent from other smaller urban areas. The remaining 11 per cent were from other States, viz, Assam, Manipur, Bihar, Uttar Pradesh, Kerala and other countries like Nepal, Bhutan and Bangladesh.

Table 3.14. Migration by Last Usual Place of Residence in the Sample Areas

District	Kohima			Dimapur			Nagaland		
Rural/ Urban	Rural	Urban	Total	Rural	Urban	Total	Rural	Urban	Total
Same State	126 (63)	52 (26)	178 (89)	56 (28)	9 (4.5)	65 (32.5)	182 (45.5)	61 (15.2)	243 (60.7)
Other State /countries	14 (7)	8 (4)	22 (11)	122 (61)	13 (6.5)	135 (67.5)	136 (34)	21 (5.2)	157 (39.3)
Total	140 (70)	60 (30)	200 (100)	178 (89)	22 (11)	200 (100)	318 (79.5)	82 (20.5)	400 (100)

Source: Field survey 2015-16

Note: Figure in the parenthesis represents the percentage to sample total

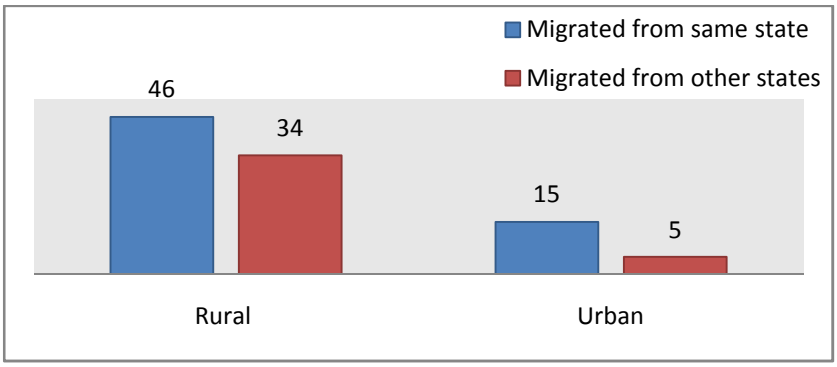
For the migrants in Dimapur, data shows that 67.5 per cent came from other states like Manipur, Assam, Bihar, Kerala, Uttar Pradesh, Orissa and neighbouring countries such as Nepal, Myanmar, Bangladesh, etc., and 32.5 per cent from within the state. About 62 per cent and 28 per cent of the respondents came for rural areas of other states and same state of the country respectively. So, more than 67 per cent of the respondents were inter-State migrants and 32.5 per cent were intra-state migrants (table 3.14).

By last usual place of residence for Nagaland, as represented by the aggregate sample in table 3.14, that more than 45 per cent of the respondents were intra-state migrants from rural place of origin. About 34 per cent of them were inter-state migrants from rural place of origin. About 15 per cent came from within the same

state of other smaller towns and another 5 per cent from urban area of outside the state.

The proportion of migrants, based on the place of origin is graphically given in figure 3.12. It is evident that intra-state migration dominates over inter-state migration for both rural and urban migration in Nagaland. Intra-state migration accounts for more than 60 per cent of the migration in Nagaland.

Figure 3.12. Last Usual Place of Residence of the migrants in Nagaland



Source: Table 3.15

3.4.4. Migration Assistance

The migrants get help in the form of information relating to job, shelter and other basic needs from various persons or sources such as relatives, friends, employers etc. who has already settled there in the destination areas. Basic information of the destination from relatives or friends already living in a place of potential destination plays a crucial link in the migration process. Such positive information about the destination and opportunities encourage migration (Wide and Woods, 1980). Table 3.15 and figure 3.13 represent the data for different persons who assisted the respondents in securing work in the urban area.

It is found that parents assisted nearly 37 per cent of the respondents in migration to Dimapur. The individual who took the risk and without the assistance of others they migrated to the present place accounts for nearly 18 per cent of the total respondents. Relatives of the respondents living in the town also provide considerable help to the migrants which accounts for 17 per cent of the total respondents.

In Kohima, it is the close friends of the respondents who have assisted to maximum in migration, which accounts for 44 per cent. Employers and parents are

also equally helpful in migration activities accounting for nearly 18 per cent each. Taking the decision to migrate by self accounted for 7 per cent in Kohima.

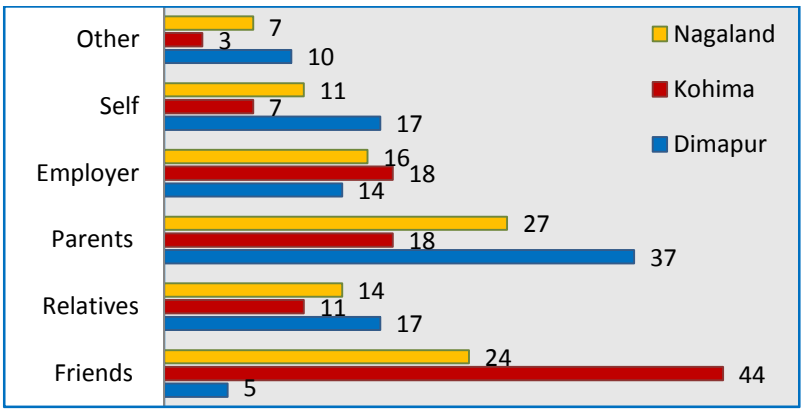
Table 3.15. Migration Assistance

	Dimapur		Kohima		Nagaland	
Category	**Frequency**	**%**	**Frequency**	**%**	**Frequency**	**%**
Friends	9	5	88	44	97	24
Relatives	34	17	22	11	56	14
Parents	73	37	35	18	108	27
Employer	27	14	35	18	62	16
Self	37	18	14	7	44	11
Other	20	10	6	3	26	7
Total	200	100	200	100	400	100

Source: Field Survey 2015-16

The sample aggregate, representing Nagaland, is depicted in table 3.16 and figure 3.13. On average, it is the parents who extended maximum help to their children to migrate and in finding jobs in the city/town (27%). Friends of the respondents also contributed significantly (24%) in assisting the migrants. Employers contributed about 16 per cent to migration. Relatives accounts for 14 per cent and self migration for 11 per cent of the migration. It is evident that from the figure 3.13 that parents and friends accounted for more than 50 per cent of migration assistance during the study period.

Figure 3.13. Assisted persons to the respondents' migration (in%)



Source: Table 3.16

3.5. CONCLUSION

The above discussion on the profile of the respondents provides us a useful insight into the socio-economic status of the migrants in urban areas of Nagaland. It shows the heterogeneity of the migrants in terms of their socio-economic conditions. The different age groups led by middle age group in migration strata, both illiterate and well educated migrants, high and low income groups, intra-state migrants and inter-state migrants etc. characterized the well blended nature of the migrants in Nagaland. Majority of the migrants were from rural areas especially from within the same state and also from other state and well assimilated with the local community. This cultural assimilation and integration is an essential part of migration process. Similarly, many of the respondents have well established and settled life after migration, also acquiring durable goods such as cars, two wheelers, refrigerators, televisions and other luxurious assets after migration to urban centres in Nagaland. On the other hand, a considerable number of people were yet to achieved and progress in life after migration. This is partly due to poor economic background and partly due to lack of essential skills for acquiring high paying jobs in urban areas.

3.6. APPENDIX B

Table B.1. Period of Migration to Dimapur

Category	Migrated from rural areas			Migrated from urban areas			Rural+ Urban
Period/year	Male	Female	M+F	Male	Female	M+F	
2000-05	42 (21)	38 (19)	80 (40)	23 (11.5)	8 (4)	31 (15.5)	111 (55.5)
2005-10	18 (9)	10 (5)	28 (14)	9 (4.5)	9 (4.5)	18 (9)	46 (23)
2011-16	22 (11)	10 (5)	32 (16)	3 (1.5)	8 (4)	11 (5.5)	43 (21.5)

Source: Field Survey 2015-16

Table B.2. Period of Migration to Kohima

Category	Migrated from rural areas			Migrated from urban areas			Rural+ Urban
Period/year	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	
2000-05	51 (25.5)	6 (3)	57 (28.5)	5 (2.5)	1 (0.5)	6 (3)	63 (31.5)
2005-10	45 (22.5)	4 (2)	49 (24.5)	7 (3.5)	1 (0.5)	8 (4)	57 (28.5)
2011-16	71 (35.5)	2 (1)	73 (36.5)	8 (4)	0 (0)	8 (4)	81 (40.5)

Source: Field Survey 2015-16

Table B.3. Nature of Migration to Dimapur

Rural/Urban	Migrated from rural areas			Migrated from urban areas			Rural+ Urban
Factors	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male+ Female
Alone	35 (17.5)	23 (11.5)	58 (29)	11 (5.5)	13 (6.5)	24 (12)	82 (41)
With family	47 (23.5)	35 (17.5)	82 (41)	24 (12)	12 (6)	36 (18)	118 (59)

Source: Field Survey 2015-16

Table B.4. Nature of Migration to Kohima

Rural/Urban	Migrated from rural areas			Migrated from urban areas			Rural+ Urban
Factors	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male+ Female
Alone	125 (62.5)	5 (2.5)	130 (65)	16 (8)	1 (0.5)	17 (8.5)	147 (73.5)
With family	41 (20.4)	7 (3.5)	48 (24)	4 (2)	1 (0.5)	5 (2.5)	53 (26.5)

Source: Field Survey 2015-16

CHAPTER 4

REASONS FOR MIGRATION

In addition to natural population growth, urbanization is driven mainly by rural-urban and urban-urban migration. Urban migrants form a hugely diverse group that comprises internal migrants from rural and urban areas in search of better employment and education opportunities in cities, cross-border migrants, internally displaced persons and victims of trafficking and forced labour (Schultz, 2014). The rising urban share in the total population is primarily the result of more people migrating into urban centres rather than migrating away. Thus, the positive net rural–urban migration is clearly linked to the economic success of cities and related livelihood opportunities, besides many other reasons for deciding to move in or stay in urban locations, which may include education or preference for one or more other aspects of urban living.

The causes of migration form an important component in the study of migration. There is no tendency for a person to change his place of residence as long as he/she is physically, mentally, politically, socially and economically adjusted with his community. But once this equilibrium is disturbed he will take the decision to change his place of residence through migration. This disturbance comes in the form of 'pull' or 'push' factors such as economic, political, social or environmental in nature. So in order to resolve the unbalance state, an individual move out and the mobility of an individual can be regarded as a form of human adjustment to economic, environmental and social problems (Mahto, 1985). In this context, it is relevant to examine the factors responsible for migration to urban centres in Nagaland in general and to Kohima and Dimapur towns in particular.

4.1. FACTORS OF MIGRATION

Broadly, factors which motivate people to migrate can be classified into five categories[137]. They are economic, demographic, socio-cultural, political and other factors.

(i) Economic Factors: This is the most important motivating factor for migration especially in developing countries. Low agricultural income, unemployment and underemployment are considered basic factors that push the migrants towards developed area with greater job opportunities[138]. The common push factors are low productivity, unemployment, poor economic status, lack of diversified opportunities, non-availability of alternative sources of income, exhaustion of natural resources and natural calamities. Opportunities for better employment, higher wages, better urban facilities, better working conditions and attractive amenities forms the pull factors which attract migrants to the urban areas.

(ii) Demographic Factor: The difference in population composition such as work force, dependent persons and population growth rates in different regions of a nation have been found to be important determinants of the migration. Fertility and the natural increase in population are generally higher in rural areas which tend to drift the working population towards the city. Marriage is also an important demographic factor of migration especially among women.

(iii) Socio-Cultural Factors: Social and cultural factors also plays an important role in migration. Family conflicts, the quest for independence, the desire to explore new living environment also cause migration especially of those younger generation. Improved transport and communication facilities, such as modern transportation, television, good network communication, the cinema and resultant change in attitudes and values for fancied urban lifestyle also promote migration.

(iv) Political Factors: Political factors encourage or discourage migration from one region to another. Good governance and peaceful political environment is likely to

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[137] Thet, K. K. (2014). Pull and Push Factors of Migration: A Case Study in the Urban Area of Monywa Township, Myanmar. News from the World of Statistic. Retrieved from http:// http://www.worldofstatistics.org/

[138] Thet, K. K. (2014). Pull and Push Factors of Migration: A Case Study in the Urban Area of Monywa Township, Myanmar. News from the World of Statistic. Retrieved from http:// http://www.worldofstatistics.org/files/2014/03/March-24-2014.pdf

minimise out-migration of the people and attract migrants at the same time. On the other hand, political turmoil and conflicts will result in large scale exodus of the population as evident from the recent political conflicts zones in several countries.

(v) Other Factors: Factors such as the presence of relatives and friends in urban areas, the desire to receive higher education, better health care facilities and other facilities which are readily available only in urban areas are factors responsible for migration. Environmental factors such as the impact of climate change on agriculture also trigger migration.

In India, the reasons for migration is not confined to economic factors alone but are also influenced by social and geographic factors to a large extent and its impact can stretch beyond economic costs and benefits[139]. But individual migrates mainly for better economic prospects, anticipating they will be better off after migration (Walker, 2012). While some literature suggest social factors as the main cause of migration (Khan, et. al., 2011), others stated that the unsuitable present developmental models as the main cause for migration (Rosenblum, 2013). Still some suggest economic factors as the main reason for migration because it is the only option for them (El-Bushra, 1989). Likewise, political instability and wars might cause out-migration from a region and on the other hand, peace and political stability in the destination areas will attract people from other places[140]. Broadly, push and pull factors together exert strong pressure for migration (Chyrmang, 2010). Push factors are those which emanate from the origin areas. Some of the push factors in rural areas include lack of fertile land for agriculture, lack of facilities for education and health care, low wage rate, unemployment, poverty and social disturbances in the village. Thus, potential lack of infrastructural facilities and employment opportunities might be the determining factors for rural population to migrate to urban areas[141]. On the other hand, pull factors are those urban facilities and infrastructures that attract people from the rural areas or other small towns. Major pull factors for rural-urban migration includes expanding transport and employment opportunities,

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[139] De Haan, A. (2006): Family as a Missing Link? Women and Migration in Asia: (eds) Arya S and Roy A.M. *Migration, Gender, Poverty*: Vol.2. New Delhi, SAGE Publications. pp 107-128.

[140] Adsera, A., C. Boix, M. Guzi and M. Pytlikova (2016). Political Factors as Drivers of International Migration. Preliminary Paper. Retrieved from https://editorialexpress.com on 03/11/2019

[141] Shukla et al.(2010). Urbanisation and Migration Trends in India. Demography India Vol. 39, No. 1 (2010), pp. 43-54. https://www.researchgate.net

industrialisation, urbanisation, better education and health care facilities and high business prospects in the urban centres while push factors consists of low agricultural production, population pressure, frequent failure of crops and inadequate basic social and economic amenities in the rural areas (Kumar, 2014[142]; Vinayakam & Sekar, 2013[143].

Both push and pull factors are equally important in the study of the factors of migration. They do not work in isolation of one another[144]. Migration occurs when workers in source areas lack suitable options for employment and livelihood, and there is some expectation of improvement in living condition through migration. The desire for improvement be concern better employment opportunities or higher wages/incomes, wishes to maximize family's economic conditions. On the other hand, the apparent prosperous urban culture and amenities, better infrastructure and services besides diverse economic opportunities is likely to pull the migrants from those traditional rural regions.

This chapter examines the reasons for migration in India in general and Nagaland in particular. In the first section, the reasons for urban migration in India have been discussed based on the Census data. The second section of the chapter examines the push and pull factor of migration in Nagaland, based on the sample data.

4.2. REASONS FOR MIGRATION IN INDIA

For a country like India, underdevelopment of a region is closely linked with migration as it leads to mobility of the people between two regions. Inter-state migration of the males for employment is generally linked with the underdevelopment, poverty, displacement, regional disparities, social inequalities, rural stagnation, rural neglect and unbalanced regional development over national

[142] Kumar S. H. (2014): *A Study On Rural-Urban Migration among Youths: Social Work Perspective.* Volume-4. Issue-1. www.isrj.net Accessed on 17-07-2014

[143] Vinayakam, K. & P. Sekar (2013). Rural To Urban Migration in an Indian Metropolis: Case Study Chennai City. IOSR Journal Of Humanities And Social Science. Volume 6, Issue 3. PP 32-35 web: www.Iosrjournals.Org

[144] Srivastava (2005). India Internal Migration Links with Poverty and Development. Country Paper on Regional Conference On Migration And Development In Asia, Lanzhou, China

space [145]. The lack of employment opportunities in the rural areas and better employment prospects and infrastructure facilities in the smaller urban areas motivate people to migrate to urban areas. Some urban centres especially administrative capitals and some other urban pockets are endowed with better infrastructure; where as other parts of the region are left untouched without adequate facilities. These poor regions are having stagnated rural economy, which lags behind in the process of development. Underdevelopment, unavailability of resources, poverty are prevalent and wages in rural areas remained low and stagnated, and thus lags behind in the developmental process which in most cases influence people to migrate to developed areas. Not only in India, but in many countries people migrate essentially for survival and observed that migration from rural to urban areas continues at a rapid pace.

4.2.1. Reasons for Migration to Urban Areas in India

According to the 2011 Census report, urban migrants constituted 38.96 per cent of the total migrant population in India. Of this, females accounted for 54.14 per cent and males for 45.86%. Out of 455.78 million total migrants, females accounted for 67.94 per cent and males 32.06 per cent in India.

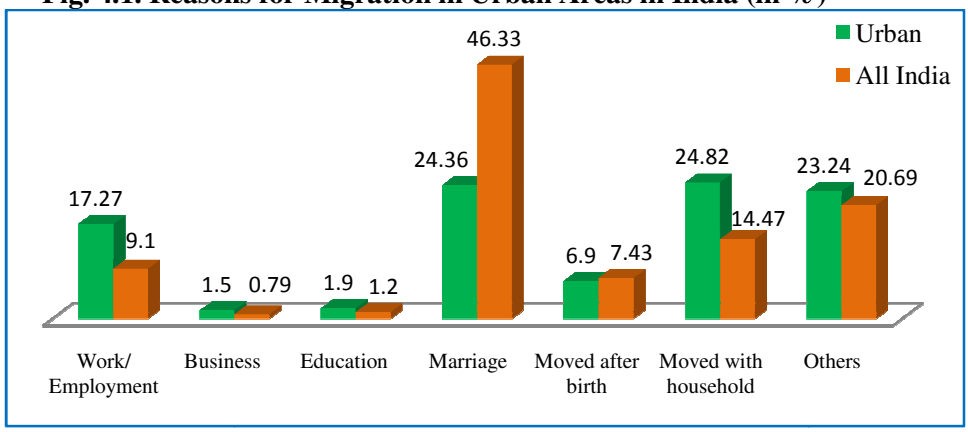
Table 4.1. Reasons for Migration to Urban Areas in India (in %)

	Urban			All India		
Reasons	**Persons**	**Male**	**Females**	**Persons**	**Male**	**Females**
Work/ Employment	17.27	15.20	2.06	9.09	7.68	1.41
Business	1.50	1.20	0.29	0.79	1.84	0.20
Education	1.91	1.19	0.72	1.20	2.26	0.05
Marriage	24.36	0.80	23.56	46.33	3.66	45.16
Moved after birth	6.91	4.03	2.88	7.43	4.85	3.02
Moved with household	24.82	10.65	14.17	14.47	6.51	7.96
Others	23.24	12.79	10.45	20.69	10.98	9.71
Total	100 (38.96)	45.86	54.14	100	32.06	67.94

Note: Figure in parenthesis refers to percentage to total migrants in India.
Source: Table C.1 in Appendix C

[145] Das, K.C. and Saha (2012). Inter-State migration and regional disparities in India. International Institute for Population Sciences (IIPS) Mumbai. Paper presented at XXVII IUSSP International Population conference.

Fig. 4.1. Reasons for Migration in Urban Areas in India (in %)



Source: Table 4.1

It is evident from table 4.1, that major reason for migration to urban areas is moved with household[146] (24.82%), followed by marriage (24.36%) and other reasons (23.24%) which include natural disaster, social or political issues, housing problem, health care issues, proximity to place of work etc. Male migrants constitutes 45.86 per cent, where majority of them migrated due to economic reasons like employment and business (16.4%), followed by other reasons (12.79%) and moved with household (10.45%). For the females, the most prominent reasons for migration in urban areas are marriage (23.56%), followed by moved with household (14.17%) and other reasons (10.45%). Thus, in urban areas, male migration is mostly economic while female migration is marriage.

Similarly, marriage is the most prominent reason for migration in India, which accounts for 46.33 per cent of the total migration. Next is other reason (20.69%) and moved with household (14.47%). For males, other reason accounted for 10.98 per cent, which is followed by economic reasons (9.52%) and moved with household (6.51%). Marriage accounted for 46.16 per cent female migration, which is followed by other reason (9.71%) and moved with household (7.96%).

4.2.2. State-wise Reasons for Migration to Urban Areas in India

In table 4.2, reasons for urban migration in India for each State and Union Territories are given. It is observed that economically weaker states[147] have higher proportion of migration in urban areas for economic reasons. For instance, Odisha

[146] Moved with household implies migration of the household's earning members along with the family.

[147] There are 8 empowered Action Group States in India, viz., Rajasthan, Madhya Pradesh, Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, Jharkhand, Chhattisgarh, Uttarakhand and Odhisa, which are considered socio-economically lagging behind other states in demographic transition and health indicators.

experienced 38 per cent of urban migration due to economic reasons like employment and business, followed by Bihar (35%) and Uttar Pradesh (34%) during 2011 period. Only 5 States and Union Territories experienced positive increased in the proportion of urban migration due to employment reasons between 2001 and 2011 census period, viz., Manipur (4.5%), Assam (3.9%), Delhi (2.5%), Chandigarh (2.4%) and Tripura (1.3%). Another 9 States and Union Territories witnessed marginal increased in urban migration due to business reasons, with highest increase in Nagaland by 1.9 per cent, followed by Mizoram with 0.5 per cent.

Moved with household as a reason for migration was highest in Andaman & Nicobar Island (47.9%), followed by Chandigarh (42.6%) and Delhi (39%) during 2011 census period. Highest percentage change was noticed in Dadra and Nagar Haveli with 5.4 per cent increased, followed by Nagaland 4.4% and Bihar with 4.3 per cent. Other reasons constitute 42.5 per cent in Lakshadweep, 24.6 per cent in Jammu & Kashmir and 23.2 per cent in Puducherry. Migration of the people for education is important in North-Eastern states like Mizoram, Manipur, Arunachal Pradesh, Sikkim and Nagaland with 17.8 per cent, 16 per cent, 14.5 per cent and 9.8 per cent respectively. The highest percentage increased was observed in Nagaland with 4.1 per cent, followed by Arunachal Pradesh (3.5%) and Bihar (2.8%) between 2001 and 2011.

Marriage as a reason for migration in urban areas accounted 32.8 per cent in Haryana, 29 per cent in Madhya Pradesh and 28.4 per cent each in Punjab and Daman & Diu during 2011. Daman and Diu, Sikkim and Chhattisgarh experienced highest percentage increased in migration due to marriage with 7.3%, 6.2% and 6 per cent respectively. Moved after birth as a reason for migration is predominent in Puducherry (28%), Daman & Diu (12%) and 10 per cent each in Gujarat and Chandigarh. Migration of the people in urban areas for business is more common in Tripura (8%), Rajasthan (5%) and Assam (4%).

Table 4.2. Reasons for Urban Migration in Indian states and Union Territories (in %)

States/ UTs	Employment		Business		Education		Marriage		Moved after birth		Moved with HHs		Others	
	01	11	01	11	01	11	01	11	01	11	01	11	01	11
Jammu & Kashmir	21.9	19.1	1.9	1.5	4.4	3.5	14.5	15.3	2.0	2.7	37.9	33.4	17.4	24.6
Himachal Pradesh	30.6	26.3	1.1	1.0	2.9	2.9	19.1	21.8	3.8	4.2	29.4	29.4	13.1	14.5
Punjab	21.8	19.4	2.2	2.0	1.6	1.7	24.2	28.4	4.0	4.6	33.6	30.6	12.7	13.2
Chandigarh	15.4	17.8	1.0	1.0	1.7	1.0	13.7	12.9	6.4	9.8	46.0	42.6	15.8	19.4
Uttarakhand	31.8	12.9	0.6	0.8	2.0	1.7	19.6	22.8	2.0	2.1	32.0	32.1	12.1	12.5
Haryana	21.3	18.7	2.0	1.8	1.5	1.5	29.7	32.8	3.0	3.7	31.1	29.7	11.3	11.8
Delhi	15.0	17.5	1.6	1.6	1.9	1.4	26.1	21.8	3.1	3.4	36.6	39.0	15.7	15.4
Rajasthan	25.1	22.2	6.7	5.1	1.2	1.1	22.2	22.5	5.5	5.7	26.8	27.6	12.6	15.8
Uttar Pradesh	38.4	33.0	1.6	1.3	1.1	1.1	17.3	18.8	3.1	3.2	26.9	28.8	11.5	13.8
Bihar	39.9	33.4	2.9	2.1	1.7	1.8	14.2	16.7	2.3	2.8	25.3	29.6	13.8	13.5
Sikkim	22.8	19.2	2.5	2.2	7.7	10.5	14.4	20.6	2.2	2.3	33.3	25.7	17.2	19.6
Ar. Pradesh	19.6	17.5	1.3	1.6	11.0	14.5	10.6	12.7	2.2	2.0	35.1	33.5	20.1	18.2
Nagaland	23.3	18.1	1.2	3.1	5.7	9.8	22.2	16.9	1.9	2.8	28.3	32.7	17.2	16.6
Manipur	20.8	25.3	3.1	3.3	21.0	16.0	8.8	9.8	1.2	1.3	26.6	27.8	18.5	16.5
Mizoram	22.3	21.3	1.3	1.8	20.2	17.8	9.8	9.8	1.6	1.3	26.7	30.8	18.1	17.3
Tripura	19.7	21.0	8.1	7.8	5.1	4.5	18.2	22.4	1.4	1.6	28.3	25.9	19.3	16.7
Meghalaya	21.4	20.6	2.4	2.5	4.4	5.2	16.5	20.5	2.1	2.2	36.0	32.3	17.2	16.7
Assam	23.3	27.2	3.9	4.2	3.0	3.4	18.7	18.7	1.8	2.3	31.2	28.9	18.1	15.4
West Bengal	33.8	31.6	3.0	2.5	1.9	1.5	20.6	23.2	2.9	3.0	25.0	25.1	12.7	13.1
Jharkhand	33.0	28.0	2.0	1.7	3.0	3.1	21.7	27.0	2.3	2.9	25.1	23.7	13.0	13.5
Odisha	44.3	37.1	1.9	1.3	1.5	1.3	15.8	17.1	2.9	3.4	20.8	22.6	12.8	17.2
Chhattisgarh	29.7	26.4	0.9	1.1	2.5	2.1	20.0	26.0	4.5	5.3	30.6	27.0	11.7	12.2
M. Pradesh	24.3	23.8	1.6	1.3	1.6	1.5	28.6	29.0	5.0	5.0	26.9	26.5	12.1	13.1
Gujarat	21.3	17.8	3.2	3.0	1.9	1.8	24.9	24.2	10.4	10.0	24.0	24.5	14.3	18.6
Daman & Diu	23.3	14.6	5.4	2.0	2.2	1.5	21.2	28.5	7.9	12.2	23.9	24.7	16.2	16.5
Dadra & Nagar Haveli	20.2	17.0	3.2	2.0	3.0	2.5	24.5	22.5	7.1	6.5	25.7	31.1	16.2	18.5
Maharashtra	20.6	18.2	3.4	2.2	1.0	1.0	24.6	24.0	8.6	8.2	28.0	27.9	13.9	18.4
An. Pradesh	27.2	24.3	2.0	1.7	2.4	2.1	22.2	22.0	6.1	6.2	24.8	25.6	15.4	18.1
Karnataka	28.6	22.3	1.1	1.4	1.3	1.2	22.6	24.0	10.1	10.1	22.1	22.9	14.2	18.1
Goa	22.4	18.7	0.8	1.0	3.9	3.0	22.4	21.5	8.4	9.0	24.3	25.6	17.9	20.8
Lakshadweep	27.6	11.6	1.1	0.8	17.8	8.3	11.1	8.0	1.8	3.8	25.0	24.9	15.6	42.5
Kerala	34.9	26.2	2.0	1.6	4.1	4.2	17.3	19.6	7.2	7.9	19.5	22.7	15.2	17.8
Tamil Nadu	30.5	26.2	2.6	2.3	1.4	1.3	21.1	21.7	5.8	6.2	23.2	24.9	15.3	17.4
Puducherry	14.5	8.4	1.1	0.5	1.6	1.2	24.3	20.7	17.7	28.2	17.9	17.9	23.0	23.2
A.& N.Islands	18.2	15.4	1.1	0.8	5.1	6.3	9.3	10.0	2.9	3.1	43.7	47.9	19.7	16.6
All India	19.7	17.3	1.8	1.5	2.0	1.9	23.6	24.4	5.5	6.9	23.9	24.8	23.4	23.2

Note: '01' and '11' refers to 2001 and 2011 respectively.

Source: Migration data, D-Series. Census of India, 2001-2011

4.2.3. North Eastern State-wise Reasons for Migration

The nature of the reasons for urban migration of the people in North Eastern states is different from those mainland cities in some aspects. One major difference is that the main reason for urban migration is economic in nature in the North Eastern states while it is marriage as a major reason in other states. It is evident from table 4.3 that employment and business as a reason for migration in NE States remains same with 24.7 per cent between 2001 and 2011, while it declined in the case of all India average from 20.5 to 18 per cent between 2001 and 2011. Among the NE States, Assam witnessed highest percentage increased with 4.7 per cent, followed by Manipur 4.2 per cent and Tripura with 1.3 per cent. The highest proportion of migration due to employment reasons is Assam with 31.4 per cent, followed by Tripura (28.8%) and Manipur (28.6%) during 2011. Because of the poor educational infrastructure in the region, migration for education is significantly high accounting for 17.8 per cent in Mizoram, 16 per cent in Manipur and 14.5 per cent in Arunachal Pradesh. All the NE states have higher proportion of migration for educational purpose with 10.1 per cent on average as against the national average of 2 per cent.

Table 4.3. Reasons for Urban Migration in North Eastern States in India (in %)

States/ Reasons	Employ-ment		Business		Education		Marriage		Move after birth		Moved with household		Others	
Year	01	11	01	11	01	11	01	11	01	11	01	11	01	11
Sikkim	22.8	19.2	2.5	2.2	7.7	10.5	14.4	20.6	2.2	2.3	33.3	25.7	17.2	19.6
Arunachal Pradesh	19.6	17.5	1.3	1.6	11	14.5	10.6	12.7	2.2	2	35.1	33.5	20.1	18.2
Naga-land	23.3	18.1	1.2	3.1	5.7	19.8	22.2	16.9	1.9	2.8	28.3	32.7	17.2	16.6
Mani-pur	20.8	25.3	3.1	3.3	21	16	8.8	9.8	1.2	1.3	26.6	27.8	18.5	16.5
Mizo-ram	22.3	21.3	1.3	1.8	20.2	17.8	9.8	9.8	1.6	1.3	26.7	30.8	18.1	17.3
Tripura	19.7	21	8.1	7.8	5.1	4.5	18.2	22.4	1.4	1.6	28.3	25.9	19.3	16.7
Megha-laya	21.4	20.6	2.4	2.5	4.4	5.2	16.5	20.5	2.1	2.2	36	32.3	17.2	16.7
Assam	23.3	27.2	3.9	4.2	3.0	3.4	18.7	18.7	1.8	2.3	31.2	28.9	18.1	15.4
NE	21.7	21.2	3.1	3.4	9.8	10.1	14.9	16.6	1.8	1.9	30.7	29.8	18.2	17.3
All India	19.7	17	1.8	1	2.0	2	23.6	24	5.5	7	23.9	25	23.4	23

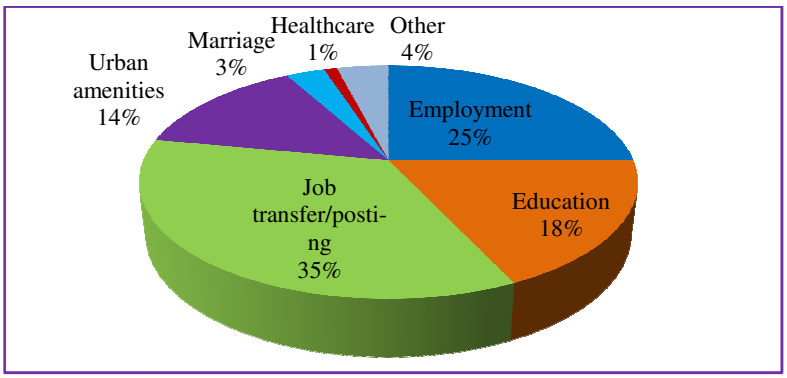
Note: Year '01' and '11' refers to 2001 and 2011 respectively
Source: Table 4.2

It is evident from table 4.3 that, in 2011, movement with household is the most dominant reason for urban migration even among the North Eastern states, where Arunachal Pradesh and Nagaland witnessed the highest proportion with 33.5 and 32.7 per cent respectively. From the above discussion, it is clear that the reasons for migration in India vary from economic to social and other factors. Over all, movement with the household accounts for the largest proportion of urban migration in NE States with 29.8 per cent against the all India average of 25 per cent. Next are an economic reason (24.6%), which is higher than national average of 18 per cent, followed by marriage with 16.6 per cent in NE regions and 24 per cent for all India level.

4.3. FACTORS OF MIGRATION IN NAGALAND

In Nagaland, the most common factors for which people decide to relocate themselves to urban areas were due to job/service posting, employment opportunity and need for better or higher education facility. According to the GOI-UNDP Project Report (2009), wider scope for diversified economic activities other than the agricultural works and expectations to find Government jobs continue to draw people to the towns. Urban facilities like educational infrastructure, wider market facilities, opportunity for small businesses, construction work, wage labour, domestic helpers and other unspecified occupations apparently pulls migrants from rural areas and other smaller towns to larger urban centres like Kohima and Dimapur.

Figure 4.2. Factors of Migration to Urban Centres in Nagaland



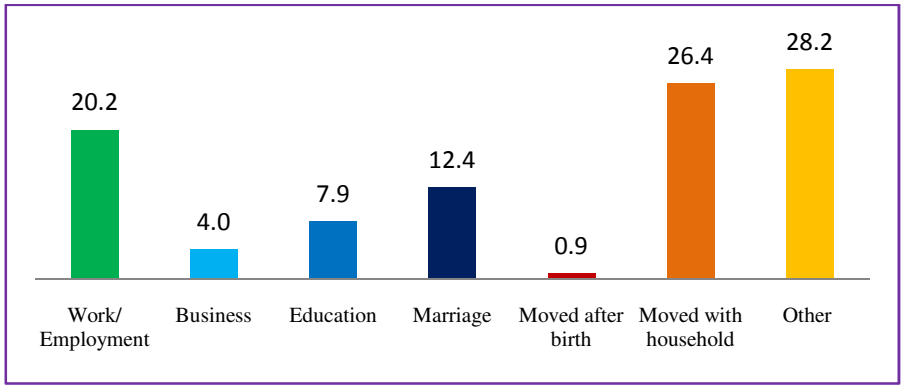
Source: GOI-UNDP Project, 2009. pp. 1

Considering the fact that urban growth in Nagaland is associated with the growth of administrative centres, transfer of the government employees has a major implication on the migration of people to the urban centres. The aforementioned

figure shows that transfer of job posting is the most dominant factor for migration with 35 per cent, followed by employment related reasons (25%) and education (18%). Census data 2011 also shows similar pattern with some minor difference as given in figure 4.2.

The data obtained from census report for Nagaland (2011) show considerable difference from that of all India average. The most prominent reason for migration is found to be that of other reasons (28.2%), followed by moved with household (26.4%) and employment or work (20.2%). Marriage as a reason for migration accounted for only 12.4 per cent in Nagaland, while it is the most important reason for other Indian states. On average, social factor which comprised of moved with household and marriage constitutes 38.8 per cent, followed by other reasons and economic factors. Economic factors constituted about 24 per cent. The contribution of education as a reason for migration is 7.9 per cent, which is comparatively higher than the national average of 2 per cent (fig. 4.3).

Figure 4.3. Reasons for Migration in Nagaland (in %)



Source: Computed from table C.2 in appendix C

Among the districts in Nagaland, moved with household reason is highest in Peren with 40.26 per cent, followed by Dimapur 35.33 per cent and Mokokchung (23.46%). For employment and business, 32.36 per cent in Kohima, 31.25 per cent in Mokokchung and 24.4 per cent in Wokha were the leading districts in Nagaland. Migration due to marriage accounted for 16.62 per cent in Wokha, 15.77 per cent in Zunheboto and 15.3 per cent in Mon. Kohima, Tuensang and Mon have the highest proportion of migration for education with 11.79, 11.15 and 10.51 per cent respectively (table C.3 in Appendix C).

4.3.1. Push Factors of Migration in Nagaland

Push factors of migration has been an important determinant of migration in Nagaland. The topography of the state itself is a clear manifestation of difficult life in remotely located villages and smaller towns. Due to remoteness, often developmental benefits could not reach the targeted populace in rural areas. In quest for better living conditions the rural dwellers with very little resources decide to move to urban centres. The phenomenon of continuous out-migration from rural areas basically reveals the increasing hard life in rural areas. About 80 per cent of the rural population is dependent on agriculture but the growing population pressure along with low rate of investment in agriculture has become a serious issue with regard to livelihood in rural areas. The unemployment and poverty of the rural population are the main causes of migration to Nagaland from some other States as well[148]. Apparently, unemployment pushes migrants towards urban areas where greater employment opportunities exist. Generally, given their poor economic background, majority of these migrants are not well educated and qualified for modern urban services. Therefore, majority of them engage themselves in informal and petty business activities such as wage labour, vegetable vendors, grocery stores, pan shops, hotels and tea stalls etc.

In underdeveloped economies, primary sector forms the main sources of livelihood for majority of the population. In this sector, agriculture accounts for major share of production and employment. In Nagaland, agriculture sector is dominated by jhum cultivation due to hilly topography, whose system is not productive enough to meet their increasing needs. This compels an individual in rural areas to reconsider his occupation as an agriculturalist. Likewise, in order to avoid livelihood crisis, venture out seeking an alternative livelihood option in urban areas. This may lead into change not only the place of residence but also occupation as well after migration. Another important component of push factor is the difference between the rural and urban wage. The relative increase in wage rate is much faster in urban wage than the rural wage. This is one important reason why rural-urban migration is increasing (Meier, 1976).

[148] GOI-UNDP, 2009. Rural-Urban Migration. A Thematic Report. Department of Planning and Coordination, Kohima

Another important push factor of migration is the poverty in the place of origin. Migration is the last resort for the poverty stricken people (Nessa, 1995) and migration helps to alleviate poverty (Kumar, 2014). This is one of the main reasons why BPL[149] families tend to migrate to urban centres seeking for better livelihood options. This section deals with the 'push' and 'pull' factors of migration to Dimapur and Kohima based on the sample data, the aggregate of which will be treated as a sample for Nagaland.

(i) Push Factors of Migration in Dimapur: There were plausible differences in the factors of migration between the two sample districts which are discussed in the following section. Dimapur being the commercial centre provides diverse opportunities for employment. It is the only district in the State where a person from outside the State can enter without Inner Line Permit (ILP)[150]. This is one of the reasons why there is large influx of migrants from different parts of the country (refer table 3.14). The migrants who came from other States were mostly seasonal migrants and construction workers. There is considerable number of permanent migrants especially those who came from other districts in Nagaland. The third group consists of migrants from other States who has set up business establishment in Nagaland and remained there for quite some times or get permanently settled.

The push factors of migration to Dimapur have been presented in table 4.4. It is seen that unemployment issue in the place of origin is the most dominant factor with 23.5 per cent, which is followed by the lack of educational facilities (18.5%), transfer of job (17.5%) and low wages in the origin places (10.5 %). For those who migrated from rural areas, unemployment problem (16%), educational infrastructure (14%) and transfer of job (11%) constitutes the most prominent reasons for migration. The same reasons as given by the rural migrants apply to urban migrants. From the above table it is understood that migration due to economic reason is the most prominent in Dimapur, accounting for 41 per cent, followed by health and education infrastructure (25%) and transfer of service (17.5%). Social and cultural factor accounted for 13 per cent.

[149] Below poverty line (BPL) family is a family who is unable to meet the basic minimum needs of the family from all sources of income.

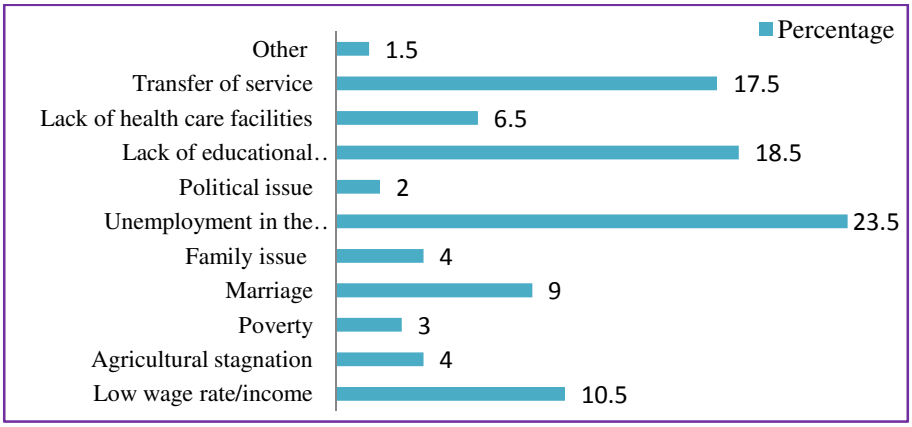
[150] Inner Line Permit (ILP) is an official travel document issued by the Government of Nagaland to allow the foreign and other India State citizens to travel in to a protected/ restricted areas for a limited period.

Table 4.4. Push Factors of Migration to Dimapur

Reasons	Migrated from				Total	
	Rural		urban			
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Low wage rate/income	14	7	7	3.5	21	10.5
Agricultural stagnation	6	3	2	1	8	4
Poverty	5	2.5	1	0.5	6	3
Marriage	12	6	6	3	18	9
Family issue	6	3	2	1	8	4
Unemployment in the village/town	32	16	15	7.5	47	23.5
Political issue	3	1.5	1	0.5	4	2
Lack of educational infrastructure	28	14	9	4.5	37	18.5
Lack of health care facilities	9	4.5	4	2	13	6.5
Transfer of service	22	11	13	7.5	35	17.5
Other	3	1.5	0	0	3	1.5
Total	140	70	60	30	200	100

Note: 'N' refers to the number of respondents in the sample population
Source: Field Survey, 2015-16

Figure. 4.4. Push Factor of Migration in Dimapur



Source: Table 4.4

(ii) Push Factors of Migration in Kohima

Kohima is the administrative capital and the centre of administration of the State government. Location of main government offices coterminous with the growing cultural and other commercial activities have been the attracting force of migration. However, due to ILP matters, most migrants were found to be those seasonal migrants in the form of construction workers and wage-earners besides local

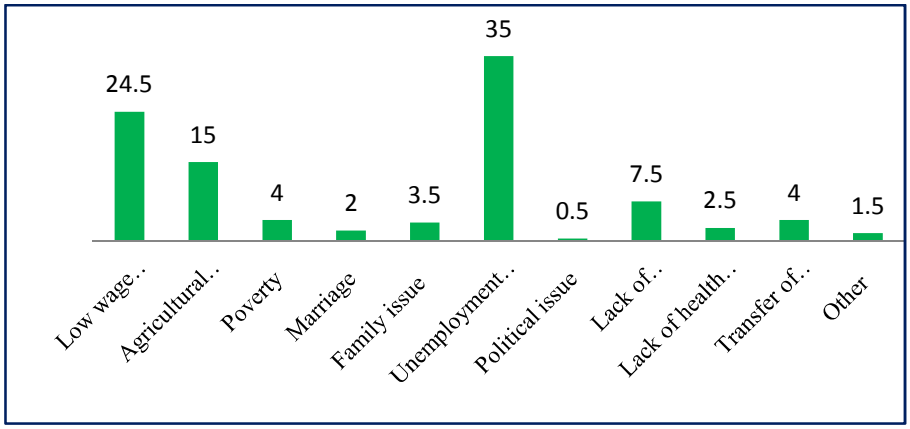
migrants from other districts of the State. Table 4.5 and figure 4.5 show the status of push factors for migration to Kohima town in Nagaland.

Table 4.5. Push Factors of Migration to Kohima

Reasons	Migrated from				Total	
	Rural		Urban			
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Low wage rate/income	45	22.5	4	2	49	24.5
Agricultural stagnation	28	14	2	1	30	15
Poverty	8	4	0	0	8	4
Marriage	3	1.5	1	0.5	4	2
Family issue	5	2.5	2	1	7	3.5
Unemployment in the village/town	62	31	8	4	70	35
Political issue	1	0.5	0	0	1	0.5
Lack of educational infrastructure	13	6.5	2	1	15	7.5
Lack of health care facilities	4	2	1	0.5	5	2.5
Transfer of service	6	3	2	1	8	4
Other	3	1.5	0	0	3	1.5
Total	178	89	22	11	200	100

Note: "N' refers to the number of respondents in the sample population.
Source: Field Survey, 2015-16

Figure 4.5. Push Factors of Migration in Kohima (in %)



Source: Table 4.5

From table 4.5, it is found that unemployment (35%), low wage rate in the place of origin (24.5%) and agricultural stagnation (15%) were the mian reasons for migration to Kohima. Other important factors are lack of educational infrastructure (7.5%), poverty and transfer of service with 4 per cent each. Thus, it shows that majority of the respondents have migrated to Kohima due to economic factors (87.5%). These reasons include low wage rate, agricultural stagnation and lack of

adequate employment avenues in their place of origin. Health care and educational factors constitute about 10 per cent and social and political factors 6 per cent.

(iii) Push Factors of Migration to Urban Centres in Nagaland

The aggregate sample data of push factors represents urban centres in Nagaland. It is evident from table 4.6 that unemployment in the place of origin is the most conspicuous factor for out-migration, which accounts for 29.25 per cent of the total sample population. Rural migrants constituted 23.5 per cent and 5.75 per cent by the urban migrants. Low wage rate in the place of origin is another major factor, accounted for 17.5 per cent. This phenomenon is more conspicuous from amongst the rural migrants who constituted 14.75 per cent of the total samples. Other important factors include lack of educational infrastructure (13%), transfer of service (10.75%) and agricultural problems (9.5%).

Table 4.6. Push Factors of Migration to Nagaland

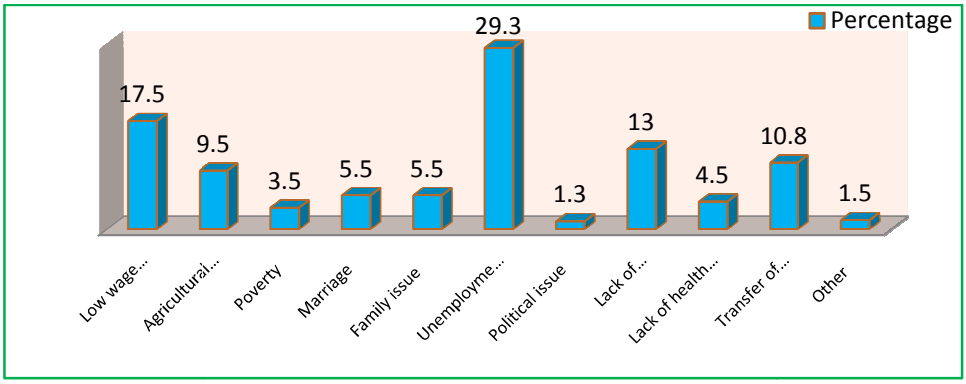
Reasons	Migrated from				Total	
	Rural areas		Urban areas			
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Low wage rate/income	59	14.75	11	2.75	70	17.5
Agricultural stagnation	34	8.5	4	1	38	9.5
Poverty	13	3.25	1	0.25	14	3.5
Marriage	15	3.75	7	1.75	22	5.5
Family issue	11	2.75	4	1	15	3.75
Unemployment in the village/town	94	23.5	23	5.75	117	29.25
Political issue	4	1	1	0.25	5	1.25
Lack of educational infrastructure	41	10.25	11	2.75	52	13
Lack of health care facilities	13	3.25	5	1.25	18	4.5
Transfer of service	28	7	15	3.75	43	10.75
Other	6	1.5	0	0	6	1.5
Total	318	79.5	82	20.5	400	100

Source: Field Survey, 2015-16

Marriage as the reason for migration is not found to be a major reason, as it accounts only 5.5 per cent (3.75 % for rural from rural areas and 1.75 % for urban areas). Poverty issue constitutes 3.5 per cent, lack of health care system 4.5 per cent, family issue 3.75 per cent and political reason 1.25 per cent.

In figure 4.6, graphical representation of the push factors of migration to urban centres in Nagaland is given, whereby it shows the relative importance of the reasons for out-migration from the place of origin.

Figure 4.6. Push Factors of Migration to Urban Centres in Nagaland (in %)



Source: Table 4.6

From the above analysis of push factors of migration in Nagaland, it is understood that 60.8 per cent have migrated to urban centres due to economic reasons. Lack of physical health care and educational infrastructure in the place of origin is also an important factor for out-migration (17.5%). Social-political factors accounted for 10.5 per cent and transfer of service and other factors 12.25 per cent. Thus, economic factors play a crucial role in out-migration of the people to larger urban centres in Nagaland and thus confirmed the first part of the second hypothesis, which stated that '*individual migration decision is based mainly on economic factors'*.

(iv) Chi-Square Test Result on Push Factors of Migration

To test the significance of the above mentioned parameters, a Chi-Square (x^2) test was conducted with the second part of the hypothesis that 'there is no difference in the factors influencing migration to urban centres between rural and urban origin.' In the analysis, push factors such as low wage rate, agricultural stagnation, poverty, unemployment, marriage, family issue, political issues, lack of educational and health care facilities, transfer of service and other factors were taken as the determinants as given in table 4.6.

The result shows that the calculated value of X^2 for 10 degrees of freedom at 5 per cent level of significance was 14.57 and that of the table value is 18.3. Since the

calculated value of X^2 is less than the table value, the null hypothesis holds true. Thus, the result suggests that there is no significant variation in the push factors influencing migrants from rural and urban origins.

Thus, the hypothesis No.2, which states that *individual migration decision is based mainly on economic factors and there is no difference in the influence of push factors on the migrants from rural and urban origins*, has been proved in regards to the push factors.

4.3.2. Pull Factors of Migration in Nagaland

Migration generally takes place when a positive pull factor at the place of destination out-weights the place of origin (Sinha, 2005). Out of the four types of migration streams, namely rural to rural, rural to urban, urban to rural and urban to urban for the different periods of migration it is seen that percentage share of internal migrants decreased for rural to rural migration, while that of rural to urban, and urban to urban migration have increased in recent years (NSSO, 2010, pp.27). Among the 12 districts in Nagaland, Kohima and Dimapur have the highest and most sustained pull over the rural population to migrate (GOI – UNDP, 2009).

Scope for diversified economic activities in addition to greater possibility of finding government jobs in urban areas continues to attract migrants from different corners of the region. Some of the important facilities available in urban areas are educational facilities, market facilities, and opportunities for small businesses activities, wage labour, construction work, domestic helpers and various other unspecified occupations in informal sector act as pull factors for in-migration. Urban areas have various developmental prospects for which people are attracted from rural areas and other smaller towns. The magnitude of migration and settlement in urban areas increases with the unfolding of economic opportunities. When urban areas grow as the seat of government administration, trade and commerce, education and other job-oriented infrastructure, the prospect for self employment, skill and semi-skilled job in small and medium manufacturing and business sector also increases (Saikia, 1995). Growth of business enterprises in urban areas also attracts labour force from other areas. People from rural areas are more likely to migrate to urban areas because of their perception of higher opportunities in urban areas due to the presence of the aforementioned facilities and opportunities.

(i) Pull Factors in Dimapur

Dimapur is situated in a crucial location which serves not only all other smaller towns and villages in the State but also neighbouring states like Assam and Manipur. Due to easy accessibility and better urban service system it attracts people from all the neighbouring areas. Table 4.7 provides the percentage of the respondents by pull factors for migration into Dimapur.

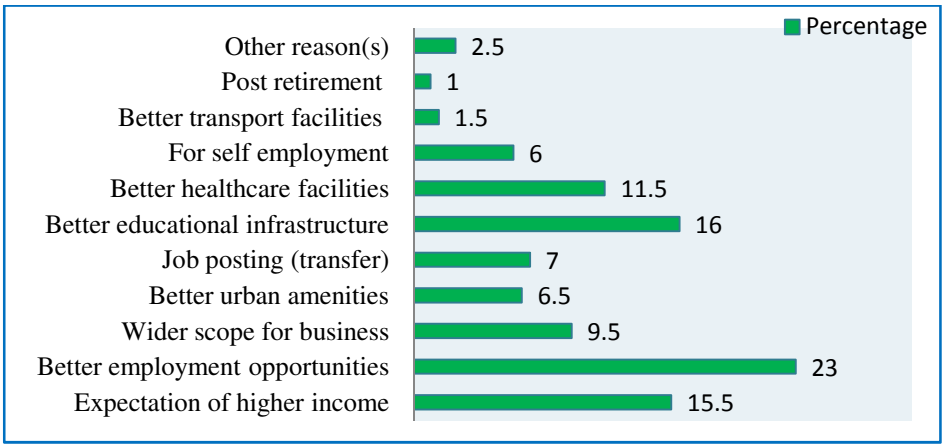
It is evident that the most dominating pull factor of migration to Dimapur is better employment opportunities with 23 per cent. Next is an educational facility with 16 per cent, followed by higher expected income (15.5%) and healthcare facilities (11.5%). Other important constituents of pull factors include business opportunities (9.5%), transfer of job (7%), urban amenities (6.5%) and scope for self employment (6%). It reveals that 54 per cent of the respondents were attracted by economic opportunities in Dimapur. More than 35 per cent were pulled by the reasons for better urban amenities and infrastructure like facilities for health care, education and transport system in Dimapur. Other factors such as transfer of service, social service etc. accounted for 10.5 per cent of the total sample from Dimapur.

Table 4.7. Pull Factors of Migration in Dimapur

Sector	Migrated from				Total	
	Rural		Urban			
Reasons	N	%	N	%	N	%
Expectation of higher income	20	10	11	5.5	31	15.5
Better employment opportunities	31	15.5	15	7.5	46	23
Wider scope for business	10	5	9	4.5	19	9.5
Better urban amenities	8	4	5	2.5	13	6.5
Job posting (transfer)	7	3.5	7	3.5	14	7
Better educational infrastructure	29	14.5	3	1.5	32	16
Better healthcare facilities	18	9	5	2.5	23	11.5
For self employment	12	6	0	0	12	6
Better transport facilities	3	3	0	0	3	1.5
Post retirement	0	0	2	1	2	1
Other reason(s)	2	1	3	1.5	5	2.5
Total	140	70	60	30	200	100

Note: 'N' refers to the number of respondents
Source: Field Survey, 2015-16

Figure 4.7. Pull Factors of Migration in Dimapur (in %)



Source: Table 4.7

(ii) Pull Factors in Kohima

Being the administrative headquarter of the State, Kohima city serve as an important pull centre for migration. Despite the requirement for ILP to enter into the city, a major proportion of migrants from across the mainland Indian states have came and set up their establishments and leading a comfortable life along with the local community. Table 4.8 present the pull factors that attracted the migrants into the Kohima town are given. The three most prominent pull factors is better employment opportunities (35%), followed by higher expected income or wages in Kohima (19.5%) and better scope for business activities (16%).

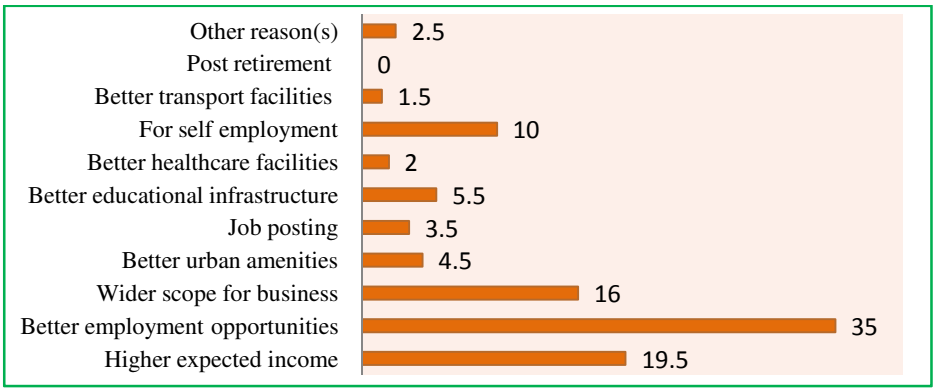
Table 4.8. Pull Factors of Migration in Kohima

Sector	Migrated from					
	Rural		Urban		Total	
Reasons	N	%	N	%	N	%
Higher expected income	38	21.3	1	4.5	39	19.5
Better employment opportunities	65	36.5	5	22.7	70	35
Wider scope for business	28	15.7	4	18.2	32	16
Better urban amenities	8	4.5	1	4.5	9	4.5
Job posting	2	1.1	5	22.7	7	3.5
Better educational infrastructure	9	5.1	2	9.1	11	5.5
Better healthcare facilities	3	1.7	1	4.5	4	2
For self employment	18	10.1	2	9.1	20	10
Better transport facilities	3	1.7	0	0	3	1.5
Post retirement	0	0	0	0	0	0
Other reason(s)	4	2.2	1	4.5	5	2.5
Total	178	100	22	100	200	100

Note: 'N' refers to the number of respondents
Source: Field Survey, 2015-16

Other important pull factors are self employment opportunities (10%), educational infrastructure (5.5%) and urban amenities (4.5%) and transfer of service (3.5%). Some factors like better transport system and healthcare infrastructure in Kohima as pull factors of migration did not exert any plausible force on the migrants. It is graphically represented in figure 4.8 for better understanding.

Figure 4.8. Pull factors of migration in Kohima (in %)



Source: Table 4.8

From the above table and figure, it is evident that economic factors and opportunities were responsible for 80.5 per cent of the sample total. Urban infrastructure and amenities constitutes 13.5 per cent and other factors such as transfer of jobs and others only 6 per cent in Kohima.

(iii) Pull Factors in Urban Centres of Nagaland

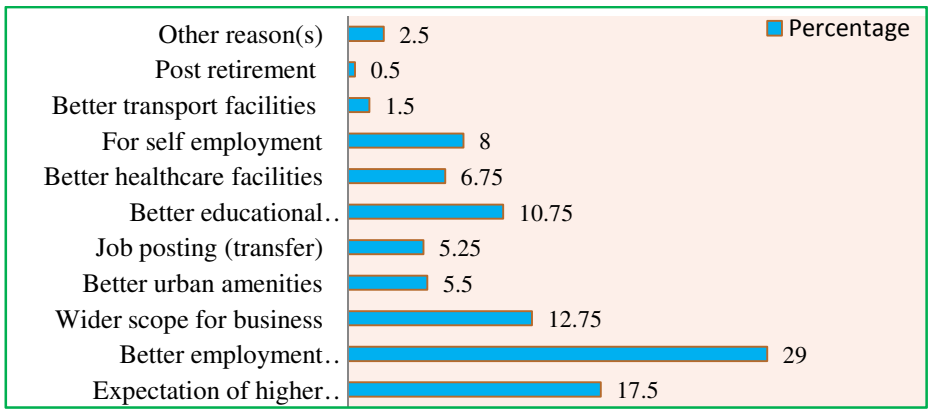
The pull factors of migration in larger urban centres in Nagaland have been represented by sample total in table 4.9. The three main pull factors for migration to urban centres in Nagaland are better employment opportunities (29%), higher expected income or wage (17.5%) and scope for business (12.75%). About 24 per cent from rural areas and 5 per cent from urban areas have migrated with the hope of getting jobs in urban areas. Similarly, 14.5 per cent from rural and 3 per cent from urban areas migrated to larger urban centres due to higher expected income. Likewise, 9.5 per cent and 3.25 per cent from rural and other urban areas moved to larger urban centres due to better business environment. The next important pull factor is educational facilities which accounted for 10.75 per cent, 9.5 % from rural origin and 1.25 per cent from other urban areas of the sample total.

Table 4.9. Pull Factors of Urban Migration in Nagaland

Reasons	Migrated from				Total	
	Rural areas		Urban areas			
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Expectation of higher income	58	14.5	12	3	70	17.5
Better employment opportunities	96	24	20	5	116	29
Wider scope for business	38	9.5	13	3.25	51	12.75
Better urban amenities	16	4	6	1.5	22	5.5
Job posting (transfer)	9	2.25	12	3	21	5.25
Better educational infrastructure	38	9.5	5	1.25	43	10.75
Better healthcare facilities	21	5.25	6	1.5	27	6.75
For self employment	30	7.5	2	0.5	32	8
Better transport facilities	6	1.5	0	0	6	1.5
Post retirement	0	0	2	0.5	2	0.5
Other reason(s)	6	1.5	4	1	10	2.5
Total	318	79.5	82	20.5	400	100

Note: 'N' refers to the number of respondents
Source: Field Survey, 2015-16

Figure 4.9. Pull Factors of Urban Migration in Nagaland



Source: Table 4.9.

Opportunities for self employment avenues, existing healthcare system and urban amenities were responsible for 8 %, 6.75% and 5.5 % respectively. Transfer of job accounted for 5.25 per cent, transport facilities (1.5%) and others (2.5%). About 7.5 per cent from rural areas came to urban centres for self employment. Health care system in urban centres attracted 5.25 per cent from rural areas and 1.5 per cent from other urban centres. Likewise, better urban amenities also attracted 4 per cent from rural areas and 1.5 per cent from other urban areas.

From the above analysis of the pull factors of migration, it is clear that more than 67 per cent of the respondents have migrated to larger urban centres like Kohima and Dimapur due to better economic opportunities. This implies that the life in the place of origin areas has been more difficult due to economic reasons such as agricultural stagnation, unemployment problems, poverty, low wages, lack of transport facilities, etc. About 24.5 per cent have been attracted by better urban infrastructure such as better transport system, educational facilities, health care system and other urban amenities in Dimapur and Kohima. Other factor like transfer of jobs, post retirement and others constitute 8.25 per cent of the pull factors of migration. Thus, the above explanation also supports the hypothesis which states that '*individual migration decision is based on economic opportunities in the destination areas'*.

(iv) Chi-Square Test on Pull Factors of Migration

To test the significance of the above mentioned parameters, a χ^2 test was run with the second part of the hypothesis that 'there is no difference in the pull factors influencing migration to urban centres from rural and urban areas'. In the analysis, pull factors such as higher expected income, better employment opportunities, wide scope for business, for self employment, urban amenities, job posting, educational and health care facilities, better transport system and other factors were taken as the determinants as given in table 4.9.

The result reveals that table value of χ^2 for 10 degrees of freedom at 5 per cent level of significance is 18.3. Since the calculated value of X^2 is 37.689, which is much higher than the table value, the null hypothesis is rejected (p value of 0.014). Thus, the result suggests that *there is enough evidence to show significant variation in the pull factors influencing migrants between rural and urban origin.* In other words, there is significant difference in the degree of pulling effect on the migrants from rural and urban areas of origins.

For both the push and pull factors, the economic reasons were found to be the major factors influencing migration from rural as well as urban areas to Kohima and Dimapur city. Therefore, the first part of the hypothesis which stated that individual migration decision is based mainly on economic reasons is proved and accepted for both pull and push factors. However, the second part of the hypothesis which states

that '*there is no difference in the factors influencing migration to urban centres from rural and urban areas'* is not accepted in case of pull factors but for the push factor it is accepted.

4.4. CONCLUSION

Unlike more developed Indian States, Nagaland with its unique topography and hilly terrain has different migration pattern. At present rural people are leading a stressful life due to lack of agricultural development and opportunities for employment. Economic factors as such accounted for major push factors that lead them to migrate to the urban centres in Nagaland. Other important factors include social factors like family issues and marriages, lack of modern educational infrastructure and health care facilities in the village or smaller towns. Thus, push factors play a decisive role on the migration of the people in to the urban areas from both rural and smaller urban areas. On the other hand, pull factors of migration also exerts significant force and attract migrants from nearby as well as far flung areas. Easy accessibility to urban amenities, modern transport facilities, markets, opportunities for business and self employment in urban centres, etc. provides avenues for the migrants. This facilities act as a strong force of attraction towards bigger towns and cities in Nagaland especially from rural areas. So economics opportunities in urban centres in the State accounts for major proportion of pull factors of migration in Nagaland. The existing urban amenities in Dimapur and Kohima also have significant influence of attraction to the migrants. Educational infrastructure and health care facilities also remains an important pull factors in Dimapur and Kohima. From the above discussion, it is clear that economics factor is the most dominant reason for migration in Nagaland. It is also found that socio-cultural and other factors like urban amenities and services also influence migration in Nagaland. Political and demographic factors have less influence on the migration in Nagaland.

4.5. Appendix C

Table C.1. Reasons for Urban Migration in India

	Urban areas			All India		
Reasons	**Persons**	**Male**	**Females**	**Persons**	**Male**	**Females**
Work/ Employment	306,60,313	269,97,470	36,62,843	414,22,917	350,16,700	64,06,217
Business	26,55,144	21,36,442	5,18,702	35,90,487	26,83,144	9,07,343
Education	33,95,378	21,10,144	12,85,234	54,57,556	32,96,340	21,61,216
Marriage	432,57,406	14,22,225	418,35,181	2111,86,431	53,46,733	2058,39,698
Moved after birth	122,75,010	71,61,587	51,13,423	338,55,865	200,78,947	137,76,918
Moved with household	440,69,011	189,07,014	251,61,997	659,59,915	296,79,662	362,80,253
Others	412,71,998	227,07,111	185,64,887	943,14,450	500,44,441	442,70,009
Total	1775,84,260	814,41,993	961,42,267	4557,87,621	1461,45,967	3096,41,654

Source: Migration data, D- Series. Census of India, 2011

Table C.2. Reasons for Migration in India (in 000)

Reasons	**Male**	**Percentage**	**Female**	**Percentage**	**Total**	**Percentage**
Work/ Employment	38999	27.7	7383	2.4	46383	10.2
Business	3219	11.5	1125	0.4	4345	1
Education	4776	3.4	3232	1.1	8009	1.8
Marriage	6017	4.3	217864	69.7	223882	49.4
Moved after birth	28523	20.2	19435	6.2	47959	10.6
Moved with household	31483	22.3	38319	12.3	69802	15.4
Others	27941	19.8	25319	8.1	53259	11.7
Total	140958	31.1	312677	68.9	453639	100

Source: Census of India, 2011, D-Series, (Provisional)

Table C.3. District-wise Reasons for migration in Nagaland

Districts/ State	Work/ Employment	Business	Edu-cation	Marriage	Moved after birth	Moved with household	Other
Mon	14.43	3.47	10.51	15.3	0.53	18.81	36.96
Mokokchung	28.04	3.21	8.93	10.24	0.6	23.46	25.52
Zunheboto	17.33	3.25	10.42	15.77	0.73	13.87	38.64
Wokha	20.59	3.81	6.25	16.62	0.39	25.25	27.08
Dimapur	19.03	5.34	5.2	11.85	1.14	35.33	22.12
Phek	20.45	2.41	6.7	12.28	0.56	21.28	36.32
Tuensang	14.71	3.13	11.15	15.24	0.68	22.66	32.44
Longleng	17.07	3.06	8.78	8.13	0.5	18.93	43.53
Kiphire	12.06	2.98	6.05	10.04	0.46	20.21	48.19
Kohima	28.78	3.58	11.79	11.08	1.1	16.69	26.99
Peren	12.68	3.16	6.93	10.62	1.13	40.26	25.23
Nagaland	20.16	4.04	7.85	12.44	0.88	26.4	28.23

Source: Migration data, D-Series. Census of India, 2011

Table C.4. Reasons for migration in Nagaland

Reasons	Male	Percentage	Female	Percentage	Total	Percentage
Work/ Employment	94523	33.1	23823	8.7	118346	21.1
Business	19752	6.9	4757	1.7	24509	4.4
Education	32438	11.4	28481	10.4	60919	10.9
Marriage	3620	1.3	68695	24.9	72315	12.9
Moved after birth	7219	2.5	5949	2.2	13168	2.4
Moved with household	64290	22.5	89595	32.6	153883	27.5
Others	63350	22.2	53531	19.4	116881	20.9
Total	**285192**	**50.9**	**274831**	**49.1**	**560021**	**100**

Source: Census of India, 2011, D-Series,

CHAPTER 5

IMPACT OF MIGRATION ON EMPLOYMENT AND INCOME

Migration plays an important role in the livelihood strategy of the migrants. For a country like India since majority of the work force comes from rural or informal sectors, migrants seek to improve their living condition through migration. People generally move in response to economic incentives and followed economic opportunities (Fay and Opal, 2000). Urban centres provide these opportunities in relation to stagnation in traditional sector like agriculture and farming activities. After migration, despite the risk of unemployment, the migrants managed to acquire jobs irrespective of their skill and experience, especially informal sector jobs. Gradually, migrants start earning and managed to send remittance home. This remittance served an important purpose by bridging the income gap of the migrant household back in the place of origin. This is followed by gradual improvement in living condition and economic status. As evident from the preceding chapter on the reasons for migration, majority of the migrants took decided to migrate mainly due to economic reasons especially among the male migrants. This is directly related to employment and income strategy. In this chapter, the occupational and income status of the migrants during pre-migration and post migration periods were examined and analysed. The analysis of employment for all India level is based on NSSO reports and census data and for Nagaland, it is based on sample data. Moreover, the determinants of employment, income and remittances were examined.

5.1. OCCUPATIONAL STATUS OF THE MIGRANTS IN INDIA

The data in table 5.1 highlights the employment status of the migrants for each states and union territories in India for before and after migration in urban areas based on the NSSO 64th Round, 2010. The data for beyond this period is not available at present, which also limits the study. It is evident that there was significant improvement in the pattern of occupation of the migrants after migration in all the States in India. This indicates the benefits of migration, although the economic significance and impact of migration may not be uniform throughout the region and the states. For instance, among the migrants the number of unemployed workers declined drastically after migration. It is more apparent in states like Delhi where the

proportion of unemployment declined from 14.8 to 0.5 per cent, Dadra & Nagar Haveli (from 27.7% to 0%), Goa from 9.9 to 0.1 per cent, Nagaland from 13.1 to 4 per cent as against the national average from 5.5 to 0.9 per cent after migration.

The proportion of regular wage and salaried persons increased dramatically in most of the States after migration. Few examples are Haryana, Tamil Nadu, Karnataka, Dadra & Nagar Haveli experienced remarkable increased in the number of employment among the migrants after migration which increased from 7.2 to 22.4 per cent, 1.1 to 18.8 per cent, 8.9 to 25.2 per cent and 4.5 to 33.1 per cent respectively. In Nagaland it increased from 12.9 to 26.9 per cent as against the national average of 8.1 to 18.5 per cent persons after migration. Another significant change is increased in the number of employment of the migrants where States like Sikkim, Goa and Delhi witnessed high employment rate among the migrants after migration which was increased from 27.8 to 50.1 per cent, 19.4 to 44.9 per cent and 22.4 to 45.0 per cent respectively. Nagaland also experienced significant increased in the number of employed after migration (from 26.9% to 40.8%) as against the national average of 22.6 to 35.3 per cent increased in the same period.

The total number of employed also increased significantly in Dadra & Nagar Haveli by about 30 percentage points, Goa by 25 %, Delhi by 23 %. Nagaland also increased by 14 percentage points which is higher than all India average of 12.7 per cent point. None of the states experienced negative growth in total employment, which implies positive impact of migration on employment. There was considerable increased in the number of self employment in all the Indian states and union territories except in Mizoram, where self employment decline by about 4 per cent, Andaman & Nicobar Island (3%), Jharkhand (1%), Nagaland (1.5%), Arunachal Pradesh (1%), and Manipur (0%). Maximum increased of self employment was observed in Goa (11%), Madhya Pradesh and Tamil Nadu (7 % each), Daman & Diu (6% each) and Delhi (5%).

At all India level, there was impressive reduction in the proportion of unemployment after migration from 5.5 per cent to 0.9 per cent. Total employment increased from 22.6 to 35.3 per cent after migration. Similarly, the proportion of regular wage and salaried persons also increased from 8.1 to 18.5 per cent after migration.

Table 5.1. State-wise Usual Principal Activity Status of the Migrants before and after Migration (in %)

States/U.Ts	Usual Activity Status before and after migration											
	Self-employed		R. wage/ salaried		Casual Labour		Total Employed		Un-employed		Not in Laborforce	
	Bfr	Aft	Bfr	Aft	Bfr	Aft	Bfr	Aft	Bfr	Aft	Bfr	Aft
Andhra Pradesh	10.8	14.9	7.3	19.0	14.9	8.8	33.0	42.7	3.9	0.7	63.0	56.6
Ar. Pradesh	19.0	18.1	26.5	34.8	2.4	3.3	47.9	56.1	3.2	0.1	43.1	43.8
Assam	11.3	14.0	8.1	22.2	3.4	2.9	22.8	39.1	7.3	1.1	69.9	59.7
Bihar	8.6	10.0	4.9	9.1	2.1	1.7	15.5	20.8	1.2	0.7	82.8	78.5
Chhattisgarh	4.8	8.3	9.7	20.4	11.5	8.2	26.0	36.9	3.1	0.4	70.5	62.7
Delhi	9.5	14.9	9.5	26.5	3.3	3.5	22.4	45.0	14.8	0.5	62.7	54.5
Goa	3.4	14.2	12.0	24.4	3.9	6.2	19.4	44.9	9.9	0.1	70.7	55.0
Gujarat	10.2	12.2	6.6	18.0	9.4	5.4	26.1	35.6	2.3	0.5	71.6	63.8
Haryana	9.3	9.8	7.2	22.9	2.7	2.2	19.1	35.0	5.2	0.6	75.6	64.5
Him. Pradesh	13.9	12.2	12.0	23.4	2.3	3.9	28.1	39.5	2.7	1.5	69.2	59.1
J. & Kashmir	4.5	6.4	11.5	14.8	2.3	2.5	18.2	23.7	1.8	0.1	80.0	76.1
Jharkhand	10.7	9.8	7.5	13.0	.5	8.2	18.7	31.0	4.2	0.9	77.1	68.1
Karnataka	8.9	11.3	8.9	25.2	8.0	6.0	25.8	42.4	6.2	1.0	68.0	56.5
Kerala	6.0	9.7	16.5	16.1	6.7	8.2	29.2	34.0	8.0	5.5	62.7	60.5
Madhya Pradesh	5.3	11.5	4.7	10.6	4.8	5.0	14.8	27.3	2.0	0.6	82.2	72.2
Maharashtra	8.2	12.6	10.4	23.7	7.2	5.5	25.9	41.8	7.9	0.7	66.2	57.5
Manipur	2.0	2.0	11.2	13.1	2.4	2.4	15.6	17.5	1.9	0.0	82.5	82.5
Meghalaya	10.0	14.0	10.9	24.1	16.8	16.7	37.7	54.7	6.3	1.3	53.0	43.9
Mizoram	26.0	21.8	13.0	22.9	2.7	4.7	41.7	49.4	2.4	3.2	55.9	47.4
Nagaland	13.6	12.1	12.9	26.9	.4	1.8	26.9	40.8	13.1	4.3	59.7	54.9
Orissa	7.4	10.6	7.9	18.5	3.0	2.4	18.3	31.5	7.3	2.5	74.4	66.0
Punjab	4.3	7.7	6.9	21.3	4.3	3.3	15.6	32.4	9.0	0.6	75.3	67.0
Rajasthan	11.1	13.8	6.0	13.2	3.0	3.8	20.1	30.9	2.6	0.7	77.3	68.3
Sikkim	9.6	12.4	18.2	37.7	.0	.1	27.8	50.1	7.1	3.9	65.1	46.0
Tamil Nadu	8.4	15.0	1.1	18.8	9.8	8.0	29.3	41.7	4.8	0.7	65.9	57.5
Tripura	8.8	11.8	13.9	23.4	5.3	3.3	28.1	38.5	18.5	9.3	52.7	52.2
Uttarakhand	10.7	12.3	11.9	18.4	4.5	3.1	27.1	33.9	2.4	1.3	67.7	64.9
Uttar Pradesh	7.1	7.6	4.3	11.0	1.6	2.1	13.0	20.7	1.9	0.6	85.1	78.5
West Bengal	6.4	11.0	8.1	16.4	3.4	4.1	17.8	31.4	7.3	1.0	74.8	67.6
A & N Islands	8.6	5.3	17.4	32.7	8.5	7.9	34.5	45.9	5.3	0.9	60.2	53.2
Chandigarh	8.9	11.4	10.5	20.2	7.6	6.7	27.0	38.3	8.9	3.4	64.1	58.2
D & N. Haveli	6.8	10.8	4.5	33.1	2.6	.1	13.8	43.9	27.7	0.0	58.5	56.0
Daman & Diu	7.8	14.2	10.0	16.6	1.2	2.9	19.0	33.7	10.9	0.3	70.1	66.0
Lakshadweep	2.0	8.1	28.8	36.5	10.1	5.0	40.8	49.6	7.9	3.8	51.3	46.6
Puducherry	4.3	7.9	5.6	12.6	9.1	7.5	19.0	28.1	6.0	2.8	75.0	69.2
All India	8.3	11.8	8.1	18.5	6.2	5.0	22.6	35.3	5.5	.9	71.8	63.8

Note: 'Aft' stands for After and 'Bfr' for Before.
Source: NSSO 64th Round, 2010

Another important observation made from the above table is that the decrease in the number of casual labour after migration to the urban areas. In States and Union Territories like Andhra Pradesh, Gujarat and Lakshadweep, the number of migrants engaged in casual labour decreased from 14.9 per cent to 8.8 per cent, 9.4 to 5.4 percent and 10.1 to 5 per cent respectively. This implies an improvement in the occupational status of the migrants after migration to urban areas. The percentage of not in labour force has also declined in all the states after migration except Arunachal Pradesh and Manipur where there was no change. For Nagaland, it reduced from 59.7 to 54.9 per cent while for all India average declined from 71.8 to 63.8 per cent during the period.

5.2. OCCUPATIONAL STATUS OF THE MIGRANTS IN NORTH EAST INDIA

The pattern of changes in occupational status of the migrants in NE states is evident from table D.1 in appendix D. It was observed that the migrants status in term of employment among the NE states show dramatic improvement over other Indian States. The proportion of regular wage and salaried person increased maximum in Sikkim from 18.2 to 37.7 per cent, Nagaland 12.9 to 26.9 per cent and Meghalaya from 10.9 to 24.1 per cent. Self employed increased only in 3 states (Meghalaya by 10 to 14%, Sikkim 9.6 to 12.4% and Tripura 8.8 to 11.8%).

Maximum increase in total employed was noticed in Sikkim from 27.8 to 54.7 per cent, Meghalaya from 37.7 to 54.7 per cent, Nagaland 26.9 to 40.8 per cent and Assam 22.8 to 39.1 per cent. The average for the NE States show that there was increased in self employment from 12.5 to 13.3 per cent, which is higher than the national average of 8.3 to 11.8 per cent. The proportionate increased in regular wage migrants also increased from 14.4 to 25.6 per cent against the all India average of 8.1 to 18.5 per cent. Similarly, the total employed in NE States increased to 43.3 from 31.1 per cent, while corresponding figure for all India was 35.3 and 22.6 per cent respectively.

5.3. CHANGE IN OCCUPATIONAL STATUS AFTER MIGRATION IN NAGALAND

The availability of various amenities including diverse economic opportunities in larger urban areas attracts the migrants from rural regions and other smaller towns. These diverse options for livelihood may lead to change in traditional occupation of the migrants once they landed in urban areas. This section of the chapter examines the occupation of the respondents in the sample survey before and after migration.

5.3.1. Occupational Status in Dimapur

The occupational status of the respondents before and after migration to Dimapur city is given in table 5.2. It is evident that many respondents changed their occupation after moving to the city. For instance, the percentage of people doing business as their occupation before migration was 13 per cent, which increased to more than 32 per cent after migration to Dimapur. Similarly, majority of them were found to be in government service before migration with 20 per cent, (comprised of 12.5 per cent of rural origin and 7.5 per cent of urban origin). The proportion was increased significantly after migration to 40.5 per cent (comprised of 26.5 per cent and 14 per cent respectively of rural and urban origins).

Table 5.2. Occupational Status Before and After migration in Dimapur (in %)

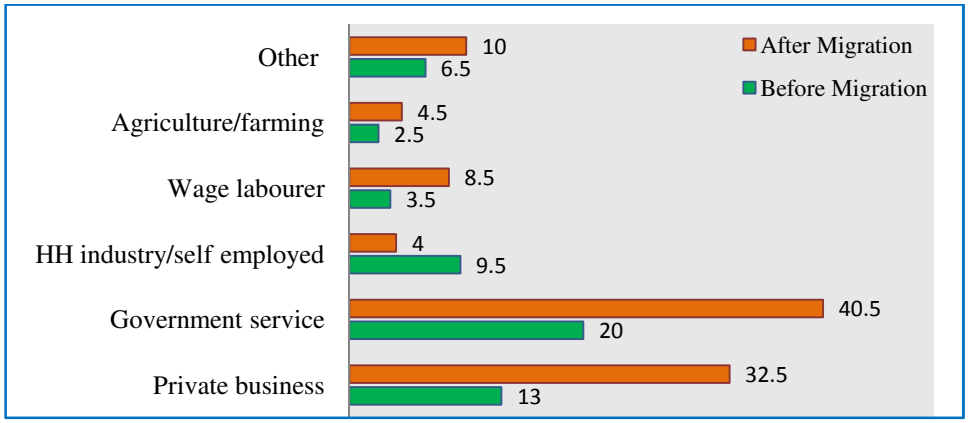
Period	Before Migration			After Migration		
	Place of origin			Place of origin		
Occupation	Rural	Urban	Total	Rural	Urban	Total
Private business	10	3	13	23.5	9	32.5
Government service	12.5	7.5	20	26.5	14	40.5
Household industry/ self employed	7	2.5	9.5	1.5	2.5	4
Wage labourer	2.5	1	3.5	6.5	2	8.5
Agriculture/farming	1.5	1	2.5	3.5	1	4.5
Other	5	1.5	6.5	8.5	1.5	10
Total			55			100

Source: Field Survey, 2015-16

A notable change is observed from the data that the proportion of respondents who were employed or actively engaged in economic activities was only 55 per cent before migration. After migration to Dimapur, it is found that all migrants were in active labour force. It is also observed that a notable portion of the respondents were studying in school or colleges before migration.

From figure 5.1, it is notice that the number of people engaged in private business established before migration was found to be nil in both urban and rural place of origin which increased to 14 per cent after migration. Similarly, the proportion of migrants in government jobs increased from 20 to 40.5 per cent after migration to Dimapur. It is noticed that the proportion of people engaged in self-employment activities decreased significantly from 9.5 per cent to 4 per cent after migration. Another notable changed was the increased in the proportion of respondents as wage labourers from 3.5 per cent to 8.5 per cent after migration. However, regardless of the particular occupation and the nature of jobs or employment, there was a drastic improvement in the occupation status of the respondents from Dimapur.

Figure 5.1. Occupational pattern before and after migration to Dimapur (in %)



Source: Table 5.2

5.3.2. Occupational Status in Kohima

The pattern of change in occupational status observed from the respondents in Kohima was almost similar to that in Dimapur. Except that majority of the respondents were found to be engaged in wage labour and agricultural activities before migration. Table 5.3 and figure 5.2 give the details of respondents'

occupational status before and after migration to Kohima. A significant changed is observed that the proportion of people engaged in private business and government services were insignificant before migration to Kohima. It was 5 per cent for business as occupation and 5.5 per cent as government job before migration but found to increase to 20 per cent and 16 per cent respectively. Likewise, the proportion of migrants as wage labour increased from 24 to 48 per cent after migration.

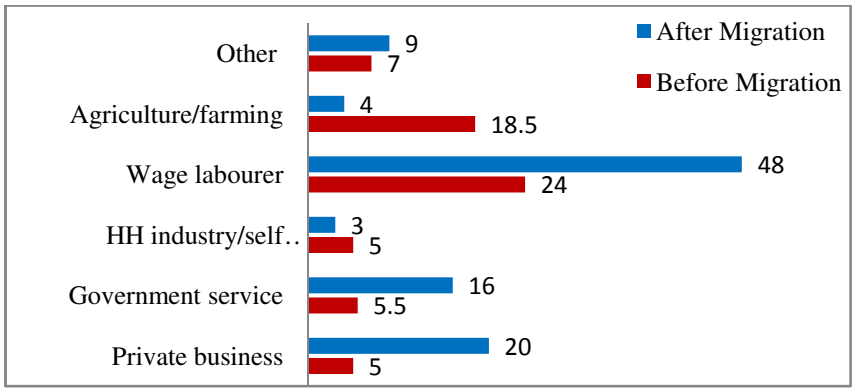
Table 5.3. Occupation Status Before and After Migration in Kohima (in %)

Period	Before Migration			After Migration		
	Place of origin		Total	Place of origin		Total
Occupation	Rural	Urban		Rural	Urban	
Private business	5	0	5	18.5	1.5	20
Government service	4.5	1	5.5	12.5	3.5	16
Household industry/ self employed	4	1	5	3	0	3
Wage labourer	20.5	3.5	24	44.5	3.5	48
Agriculture/farming	16.5	2	18.5	3.5	0.5	4
Other	7	0	7	7	2	9
Total			65			100

Source: Field Survey 2015-16

On the other hand, the proportion of migrants engaged in self employment activities declined from 5 to 3 per cent and farming activities from 18.5 to 4 per cent after migration. It is found that prior to migration only 64.8 per cent of the respondents were actively engaged in economic activities. But after migration to Kohima none of the respondents remained unemployed. Figure 5.2 portrays the overall changes in regard to occupational pattern of the respondents before and after migration to Kohima from different places of origin. The proportion of the respondents as wage labourers doubled after migration. Similarly, people engaged in private business establishment increased by about four times and that of the government service holders by about three times after migration to Kohima. On the contrary, more than 18 per cent of the migrants were agricultural farmers before migration but found to decrease to only 4 per cent after migration. Thus, we found that there is a drastic improvement in the economic status of the respondents after migration as evident from changes in their occupation.

Figure 5.2. Occupational Pattern before and after Migration to Kohima (in %)



Source: Table 5.3

5.3.3. Occupational Status in Urban Areas in Nagaland

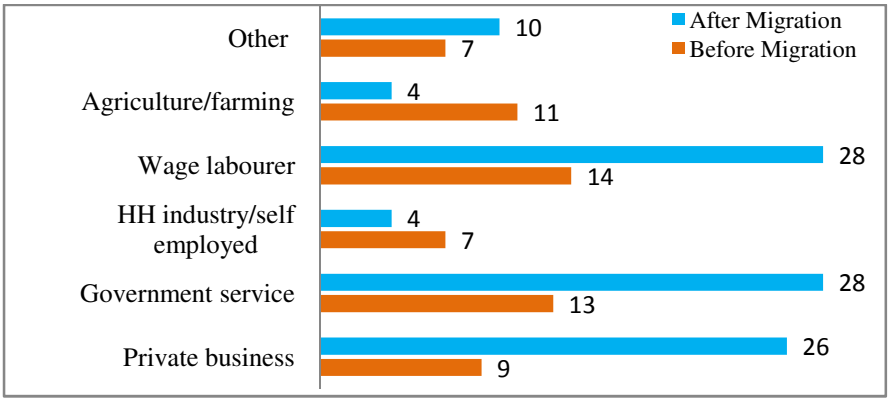
The average of sample data in table no. 5.4 and figure 5.3 indicated that in Nagaland, those migrants engaged in private business, government job and wage labourers from rural areas have increased by more than double after migration. On the other hand, the proportion of workers engaged in household industrial activities and farming activities decreased by about 50 per cent after migration. Those persons engaged in 'other' activities were the group of respondents who take up any manual works and have no specific job. The nature of their jobs or work is such that they have to switch their work so frequently and have no permanent jobs. The proportion of workers under the category has also increased from about 7 per cent to 10 per cent after migration to urban centres.

Table 5.4. Occupational Status before and after migration in Nagaland (in %)

Period	Before Migration			After Migration		
	Place of origin			Place of origin		
Occupation	Rural	Urban	Total	Rural	Urban	Total
Private business	7.5	1.5	9	21	5.2	26.2
Government service	8.5	4.2	12.7	19.5	8.7	28.2
Household industry/ self employed	5.5	1.8	7.2	2.2	1.3	3.5
Wage labourer	11.5	2.2	13.7	25.4	2.7	28.2
Agriculture/farming	9	1.5	10.5	3.5	0.8	4.2
Other	6	0.8	6.7	8	1.8	9.7
Total			59.8			100

Source: Field Survey 2015-16

Figure 5.3. Occupational Pattern after Migration in Nagaland (in %)



Source: Table 5.4

Figure 5.3 portrays the overall changed pattern of the occupational status of the respondents after migration to Dimapur and Kohima cities. From table 5.4, it is noticed that only about 60 per cent of the respondents were actively involved in economic activities before migration. But after migration, 100 per cent were engaged in productive activities. One notable reason could be due to higher availability of jobs opportunities in urban centres.

5.4. TIME TAKEN TO GET JOB AFTER MIGRATION IN NAGALAND

The sample aggregate shows that most of the migrants have to find a job or work after migration to Dimapur and Kohima city. It was found that majority of the respondents managed to acquire one or the other kind of job or work within the first two months or in the subsequent period after migration. In table 5.5, time taken by the migrants to secure work/job after migration is given.

5.4.1. Time Taken to Get Job in Dimapur

The largest proportion of time require to get job in Dimapur was 1 to 2 months after migration with 23.5 per cent, followed by those who took more than a year and 3-4 months with 19 per cent each.

5.4.2. Time Taken to Get Job in Kohima

In Kohima, more than 57 per cent of the respondents took 1 to 2 months to secure job/work after migration. This is followed with those who took 5-6 months (16%) and 3-4 months (13%).

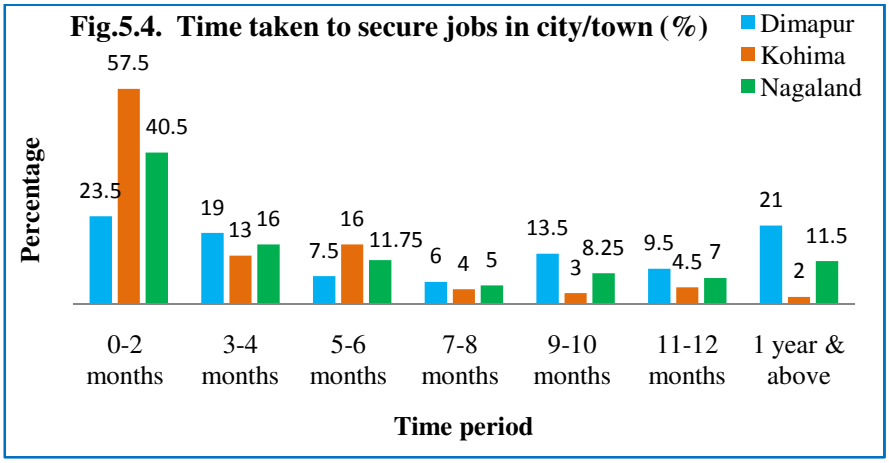
5.4.3. Time Taken to Get Job in Urban Centres in Nagaland

For the State as represented by the sample total, more than 40 per cent managed to get work/ job within 1 to 2 months after migration to urban areas in Nagaland, while 16 per cent required 3-4 months and 5 per cent 7-8 months.

Table 5.5. Time Taken to get job after Migration

Time period	Dimapur		Kohima		Nagaland	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
0-2 months	47	23.5	115	57.5	162	40.5
3-4 months	38	19	26	13	64	16
5-6 months	15	7.5	32	16	47	11.75
7-8 months	12	6	8	4	20	5
9-10 months	27	13.5	6	3	33	8.25
11-12 months	19	9.5	9	4.5	28	7
1 year & above	42	21	4	2	46	11.5
Total	200	100	200	100	400	100

Note: 'N' represents the number of migrants
Source: Field Survey 2015-16



Source: Table 5.5

Figure 5.4 shows the proportion of time taken by the respondents to secure job in urban areas. It is evident from the above figure that majority of the respondents got their means of livelihood within 2 months after migration.

5.4.4. Regression Analysis on Time Taken to Get Job after Migration

It is assumed that the time require to get by the migrants are influenced by the factors such as age, education and social relations. To test the factors that influence time (in months) require to secure jobs in urban areas after migration, a multiple regression analysis was run with factors such as age of the migrants, educational level and social relations as independent variables. The result reveals that education, age and social relation have positive correlation with the dependent variable with r value of .46, .45 and .68 respectively. The value of $R^2 = .540$ reveals that 54 per cent of the variance in the time taken to get job after migration to urban areas is explained by the predictors. Further, it also suggests that, for every additional level of education, time require to get job increased by 5 per cent on average, holding all other variables constant. This may imply that migrants with higher level of education require longer duration to get job in urban areas. This could be due to the reason that educated person search for job other than manual work, which takes longer time to get. Similarly, for an additional increase in the age and social relation, time require to get job increase by 7 per cent and 14 per cent respectively. The P<.000 shows that the study is statistically significant at 5 per cent level. Also, the 't' value is significant at 1 per cent level for all the variables.

Table 5.6. Regression Estimates on Time Taken to get Jobs After Migration

Variables	**Correlation (R)**	**Coefficients**	**'p' value**
Education	0.464	.052 (5.387)*	.000
Age	0.449	.070 (5.234)*	.000
Social relation	0.677	.144 (13.837)*	.000
Constant value = -.224	$R^2 = .540$		'F' value = 155.121

*Note: Figure in the parenthesis refers to 't' value. * significant at 1 per cent.*
Source: Own calculation based on field survey 2015-16

5.5. CHANGES IN INCOME DISTRIBUTION AFTER MIGRATION

It is a generally view that migration is one of the strategy to improve income of the household. Increase in income of the household through migration enhances the purchasing capacity of the household, thereby raising the living standard of the migrants. The following section presents the income level of the respondents from all sources during the period prior to migration and the present level of income after migration.

5.5.1. Income Distribution in Dimapur

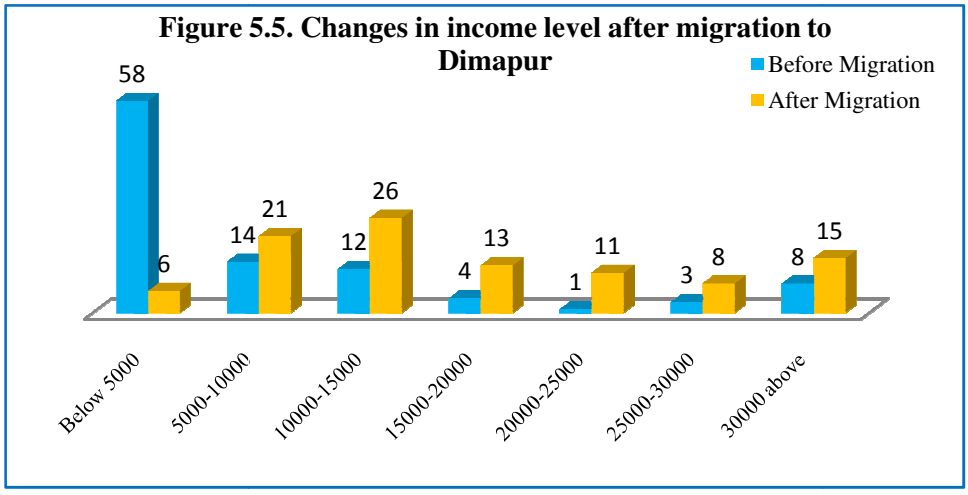
It is observed that the income level of the respondents show improvement after migration to Dimapur city. As is evident from the given table 5.7, the proportion of the migrants earning less than ₹ 5000/month declined from 59 per cent to 5.5 per cent in the post migration period. The proportion of people earning ₹ 5000 to ₹ 10,000 per month increases from 15 per cent to 21 per cent after migration to Dimapur. Similarly, those earning ₹ 10,000 to 15,000 also increased from 13 per cent to 27 per cent in post migration period, the group with ₹ 25000 to 30,000 increased from 8 to 15 per cent and those earning above ₹ 30,000 increased from 9 per cent to 29 per cent after migration to Dimapur.

Table 5.7. Level of Income Before and After Migration in Dimapur

Periods	Before migration		After migration	
Income/month (₹)	**Frequency**	**Percentage**	**Frequency**	**Percentage**
Below 5000	118	59	11	5.5
5000-10000	30	15	42	21
10000-15000	26	13	54	27
15000-20000	8	4	28	14
20000-25000	1	0.5	21	10.5
25000-30000	8	4	15	7.5
30000-above	9	4.5	29	14.5
Total	200	100	200	100

Source: Field Work, 2015-16

Figure 5.5 give a clear picture of the changes in income distribution after migration. It shows that the highest increased was witnessed by the income group of ₹ 10,000-15,000, followed by those earning ₹ 15,000 to ₹ 20,000 per month and ₹ 15,000 to ₹ 20,000 group and above ₹ 30,000 group.



Source: Table 5.7

Before migration the highest proportion (58.%) of the migrants were within the lowest income group of below ₹ 5000, but after migration its proportion was reduced considerably (6.1%), while other higher income groups show improvement in income distribution in Dimapur amongst the migrant population.

5.5.2. Income Distribution in Kohima

In Kohima too, similar pattern of changes was observed in the income distribution pattern among the migrants with slight variation in higher income groups. First, the proportion of the lowest income group declined to 4 per cent from 46.8 per cent after migration. The second lowest group also declined from 42.2 per cent to 37.8 per cent in post migration period. The higher income groups shows significant increased after migration to Kohima except those earning between ₹ 25000 to ₹ 30000 per month, none of the respondents were found under this group after migration. Conversely, in the highest income category, ₹ 30,000 and above, the proportion of migrants was 7.5 per cent which was 0 per cent before migration.

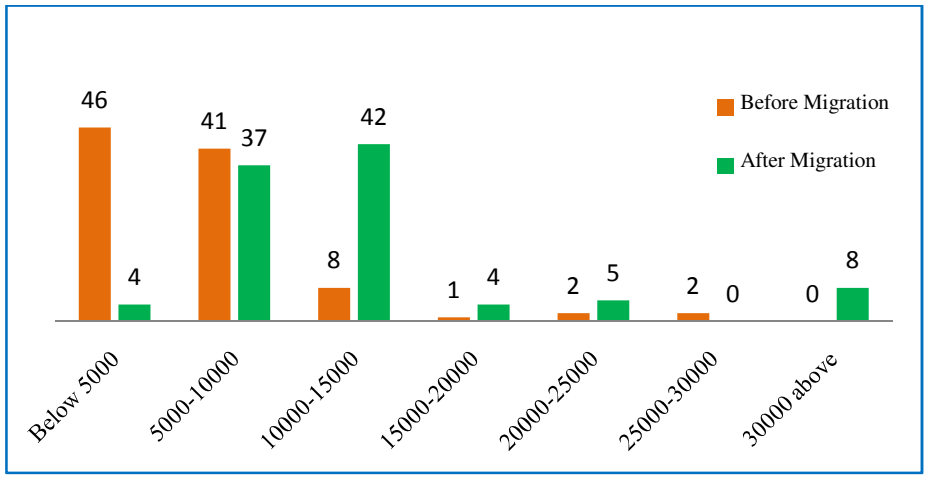
Table 5.8. Level of Income Before and After Migration to Kohima

Periods	Before migration		After migration	
Level of income/ month (₹)	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Below 5000	93	46.5	8	4
5000-10000	85	42.5	75	37.5
10000-15000	15	7.5	87	43.5
15000-20000	1	0.5	8	4
20000-25000	3	1.5	9	4.5
25000-30000	3	1.5	0	0
30000-above	0	0	13	7.5
Total	200	100	200	100

Source: Field Work, 2015-16

Relative change in the income distribution in pre-migration and post migration is given in Figure 5.6. It is evident that the highest increased in the income level is those people earning ₹ 10000 to 15000 in a month. This is followed by those earning more than ₹ 30000/month and ₹ 20000 to 25000 per month. In lower income categories, the proportion declined significantly after migation. Thus, there is significant improvement in the level of income of the migrants after migration to Kohima.

Figure 5.6. Changes in Income Level after migration to Kohima (in ₹)



Source: Table 5.8

5.5.3. Income Distribution in Urban Centres in Nagaland

The sample total portrays the status of the migrants' income distribution for Nagaland. The monthly income of the respondents from all sources for both the sample areas has been compiled and presented in table 5.9.

Table 5.9. Changes in Income Level after migration to Urban Centres in Nagaland (in %)

Periods	Before Migration		After Migration	
Level of Income (₹)	**Frequency**	**Percentage**	**Frequency**	**Percentage**
Below 5000	211	52.9	19	4.7
5000-10000	115	28.7	118	29.4
10000-15000	41	10.2	140	35.2
15000-20000	9	2.2	36	9
20000-25000	4	1	30	7.5
25000-30000	11	2.7	15	3.7
30000-above	9	2.2	42	10.8
Total	400	100	400	100

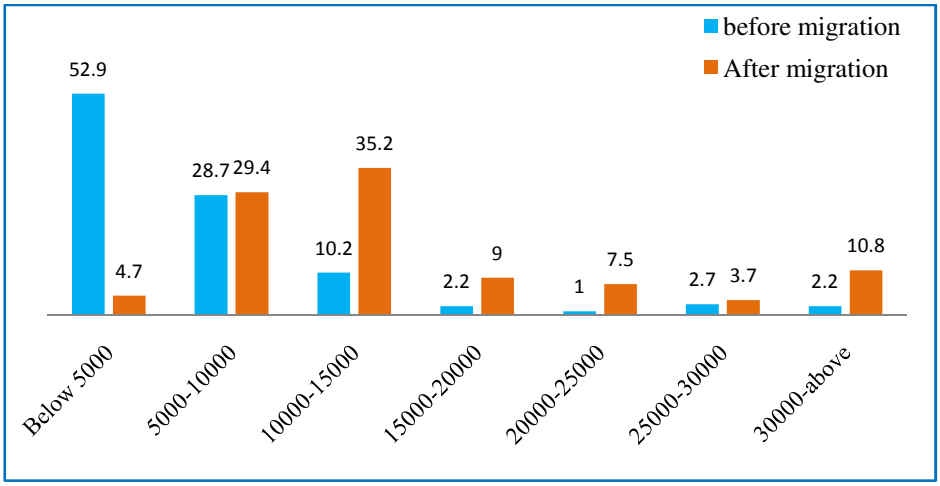
Source: Field Survey 2015-16

It is visible from this table that there is a significant change in the proportion of the level of income distribution among the respondents before and after migration to urban centres in Nagaland. For instance, more than 52 per cent of the respondents have income less than ₹ 5000 per month before migration. But after migration the proportion of this group has fallen to only 4.7 per cent which is a remarkable improvement for many migrants over the period. There was negligible change for the income group of ₹ 5000-10000, yet with positive increase. There was an increased in the proportion of income group from about 10 per cent before migration to more than 35 per cent for ₹ 10000-15000 per month earning groups. All the higher income groups have experience increased by about 4 times or more except for ₹ 25000-30000 income groups who's increased was about only one per cent after migration.

The pattern of change in income distribution among the migrants before and after migration is graphically presented in figure 5.7, which gives a better understanding. Maximum changed was observed for the income group of less than ₹ 5000 per month, while minimum change was noticed for the group earning ₹ 25000-₹ 30000 per month. The overall positive effect of migration is that the proportion of migrants in lower income categories declined while the middle and higher income

categories have increased. This is a clear indication of improvement in the living condition of the migrants after migration to Kohima and Dimapur.

Figure 5.7. Income Distribution after Migration in Nagaland (in ₹)



Source: Table 5.9

5.5.4. Income Inequality

From the above discussion, it is clear that the incomes were unevenly distributed among the migrants. This section examines whether there is any change in the pattern and the extent of inequality in income distribution among the respondents.

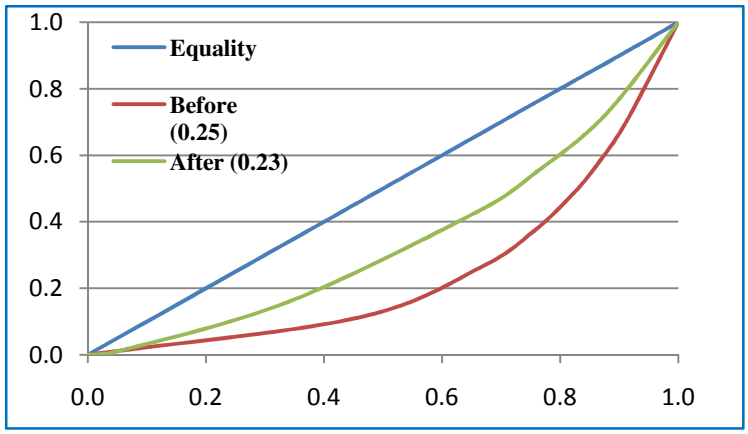
It is evident from table 5.10 that the poorest 46 per cent in pre-migration period had received only 11 per cent of the total income while the richest 35 percent received about 30 per cent of the total income. In post migration period, the poorest 10 per cent received 5 percent of the total income while the richest 11 per cent obtained 21 per cent of the total earnings. The study also found that the extent of inequality in income distribution for sample aggregate as shown by Gini Coefficient (GC) was 0.25 in pre-migration period and reduced to 0.23 in post-migration period (table 5.10). It is also clear from the figure 5.8 that Lorenz curve for post-migration period is closer to the line of equality as compared to its pre-migration curve. Thus, it is observed that the inequality in income distribution amongst the migrants has marginally improved after migration to urban centres in Nagaland.

Table 5.10. Income Distribution Before Migration to Urban areas in Nagaland

Income group (₹)	Before migration			After migration		
	% pop.	Total income (₹)	% income	% pop	Total income (₹)	% income
Below 5000	0.46	455000	0.11	0.10	47500	0.05
5000-10000	0.21	630000	0.15	0.29	877500	0.15
10000-15000	0.09	450000	0.11	0.33	1562500	0.27
15000-20000	0.07	472500	0.11	0.09	630000	0.11
20000-25000	0.05	405000	0.10	0.08	675000	0.11
25000-30000	0.05	495000	0.12	0.06	632500	0.11
30000-above	0.09	1225000	0.30	0.11	1155000	0.21
Total	1.00	4132500	1.00	1.00	5580000	1.00
Gini Coefficient	*.25*			*0.23*		

Source: Household Survey 2015-16

Figure 5.8. Lorenz Curve for Income Distribution in Nagaland



Source: Table 5.10

5.6. IMPACT OF EDUCATION ON INCOME LEVEL OF MIGRANTS

Education is the most important factor to improve personal endowment and enlarge opportunities and choices for sustain life[151]. Education and income are closely related to each other. Educational level remains the most significant factor for income variation[152]. So investment in education is likely to increase income of the person, which further improved the living standard.

[151] Vero, Y. (2012). Economic Growth and Human Development in Nagaland. (An un-published Ph.D. Thesis, submitted to the Department of Economics, Nagaland University, Lumami). Pp. 51

[152] Acemoglu, Daron,& Dell (2010). Productivity Differences between &within countries. American economic Journal 2(1), 169-188.

The education-age-earning profile has been constructed to analyse the pattern of income distribution among different educational level and age groups of the migrants. Respondents have been categorised into 6 age groups with an interval of 10 years, lowest with 16-25 and highest with 65 years and above. Respondents were further classified as illiterate/primary, high school, higher secondary, graduates, post graduate and other higher degrees. They were then placed at their respective educational groups, after which monthly mean income for all age groups were obtained for further analysis. The education-age-earning profiles have been presented in table 5.11, 5.12 and 5.13.

5.6.1. Impact of Education on Income Level of the migrants in Dimapur

In Dimapur, the monthly mean income is ₹ 15,246 per person. By educational level, it is lowest for high school group at ₹ 11,424, while it is highest for graduates with ₹ 18,600.

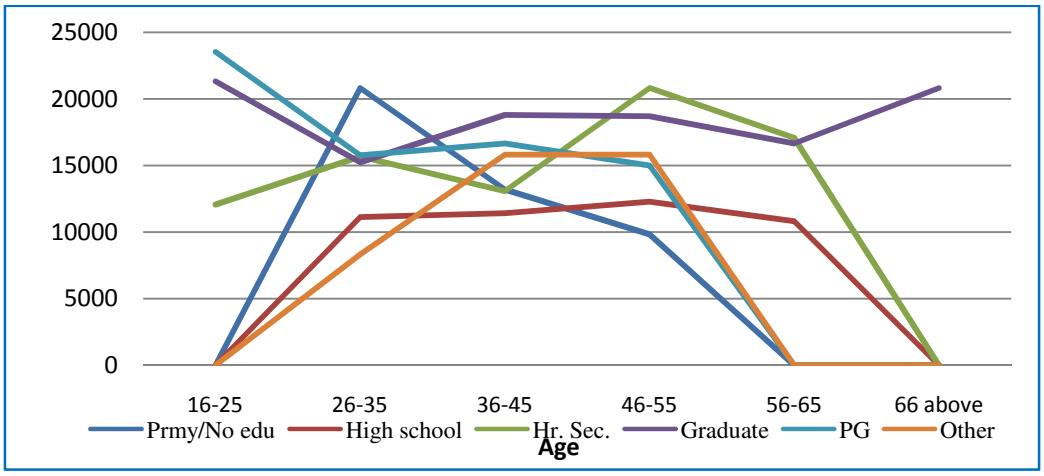
Table 5.11. Age-Earning Monthly mean income by educational level in Dimapur (in ₹)

Age	Primary/ Illiterate	Middle-High school	Hr. Secondary	Graduate	PG	Other degree	Total
16-25	0	0	12083	21333	23541	0	18986
26-35	20833	11145	15695	15250	15767	8333	14503
36-45	13200	11428	13075	18805	16667	15833	14834
46-55	9833	12291	20833	18712	15000	15833	15417
56-65	0	10833	17084	16667	0	0	14861
66-above	0	0	0	20833	0	0	20833
Total	14622	11424	15754	18600	17743	13333	15246

Source: Own calculation, based on field survey 2015-16

By age group, the monthly mean income is found to be highest for age group of 65 and above years at ₹ 20,833, followed by 16-25 years at ₹ 18,986 and 46-55 years at ₹ 15,417. The lowest is with age group of 26-35 years at ₹ 14,503. Thus, the mean income by age does not show any significant uniformity in income distribution among the migrants in Dimapur.

Figure 5.9. Age-Earning Monthly mean income by education in Dimapur (in ₹)



Source: Table 5.10

The education-age-income profile of the migrants in Dimapur is depicted graphically in figure 5.9, where age and education is represented on the x-axis and income on the y-axis. The figure shows that earnings of the migrants increase marginally with higher educational level. By age group, the highest earning was found to be from eldest group followed by the youngest age group. What is evident from the above analysis that there is no uniformity in income earning pattern in relation to age group in Dimapur amongst the migrants, while education seems positively related.

5.6.2. Impact of Education on Income Level in Kohima

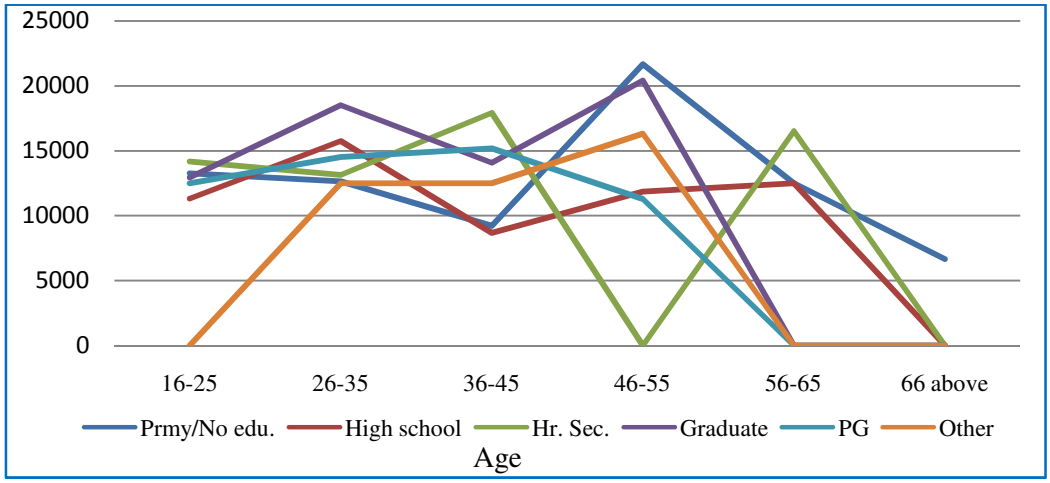
The education-age-income profile for migrants at Kohima is given in table 5.12 and figure 5.10. The mean income is found to be ₹ 12,695 which is lower than Dimapur. By educational level, the highest mean income group is graduates at ₹ 16,487, followed by higher secondary group at ₹ 15,427, post graduates at ₹ 13,891 and the lowest is high school group at ₹ 12,030. By age category, monthly mean income is found to be highest for the age group of 46-55 years with ₹ 16319, followed by 26-35 years group at ₹ 14,512 and 56-65 years at ₹ 13,833. The lowest is 66-75 years at ₹ 6,667. The figure 5.10 shows that earnings become marginally higher with higher level of education among the migrants. However, age has no uniformity in relation to income distribution pattern.

Table 5.12. Age-earning Monthly Mean Income by educational level in Kohima (in ₹)

Age	Primary/ Illiterate	High school	Hr. Secondary	Graduate	PG	Other degree	Total
16-25	13261	11333	14167	12954	12504	0	12843
26-35	12645	15761	13125	64170	14531	12500	14512
36-45	9218	8681	17916	14071	15200	12500	12931
46-55	21667	11875	0	20416	11308	16333	16319
56-65	12500	12500	16500	0	0	0	13833
66-75	6667	0	0	0	0	0	6667
Total	12660	12030	15427	16487	11981	13777	12695

Source: Own calculation, based on field survey 2015-16

Figure 5.10. Age-Earnings of Monthly Mean Income by Education in Kohima (in ₹)



Source: Table 5.11

5.6.3. Impact of Education on Income Level in Urban Centres in Nagaland

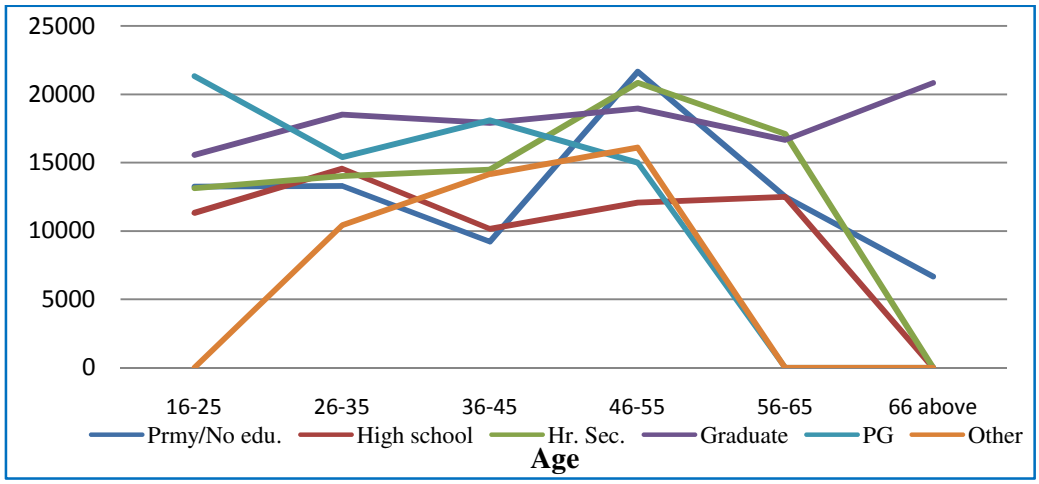
For Nagaland as a whole, which is represented by the sample total, mean monthly income is found to be ₹ 14,808. It is highest for the graduates at ₹ 18,078, followed by post graduates at ₹ 16,958 and higher secondary with ₹ 15,918 per month. The lowest mean income by educational level is high school level at ₹12,129 and primary level with ₹ 12,768 (table 5.13). It is observed that education has positive impact on the earnings of the migrants, where higher educational level has higher mean income than the lower level of education.

Table 5.13. Age-Earning Monthly Mean Income by Level of Education in Nagaland (₹)

Age	Primary/ Illiterate	High school	Hr. Secondary	Graduate	PG	Other degree	Total
16-25	13261	11333	13125	15572	21334	0	14925
26-35	13300	14569	14027	26539	15401	10416	14371
36-45	9218	10160	14500	17909	18100	14167	13675
46-55	21667	12083	20833	18974	15000	16100	17442
56-65	12500	12500	17084	16667	0	0	14687
66-75	6667	0	0	20833	0	0	13750
Mean income	12768	12129	15918	18078	16958	13561	14808

Source: Owned calculation, based on Field Survey 2015-16

Figure 5.11. Age-Earnings of Monthly Mean Income by Education in Nagaland (in ₹)



Source: Table 5.12

By age category, the highest mean income is for 45-55 years with ₹17,442, followed by 16-25 years at ₹ 14,925 and 56-65 years at ₹ 14,689, while the lowest mean income is 36-45 years at ₹ 13,675. Thus, it is found that age has no uniformity with the earnings of the migrants while education has positive influence on the level of income earnings.

5.6.4. Regression Analysis on Monthly Mean Income of Migrants

The relationship between income, education level, age and sex of the respondents was analysed using the Ordinary Least Square (OLS) method of multiple regression model, where mean income is taken as the dependent variable and educational level, age and sex as independent variables. Educational level were defined by the level of standards or classes attended for each group such as '1' for standard less than class V and illiterates, '2' for class V to X, '3' for senior

secondary, '4' for undergraduate, '5' for master degree and '6' for other higher degrees. Age of the respondents were classified into 6 groups with interval of 10 years, and denoted by '1' for 16-25 years, '2' for 26-35 years, '3' for 36-45 years, '4' for 46-55 years, '5' for 56-65 years and '6' for 65-above. Sex of the respondents was denoted by '1' for male and '0' for females.

The regression equation is given as;

$$\mathbf{Y= a + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_3 + \mathcal{E}}$$

Where, Y is the mean income per month, ***a*** is the intercept or the constant, ***b*** is the coefficient of regression and X_1, X_2 and X_3 are education level, age and sex respectively, and $\mathcal{E}$ is the error term.

The analysis of the sample aggregate data shows that for Nagaland, the correlation (r) between mean income and educational level, age and sex of the respondents were found to be positive with .417, .337 and .140, respectively which for education and age are moderate and positive, while for sex it is low but positive (table 5.14). The OLS multiple regression analysis was run to test whether the variation in income after migration is depended on the above mentioned variables. The result indicated that the predictors have positive influence on the level of income. With R^2 of .221, the model predicts that about 22% of the variability in the level of income after migration was explained by the independent variables. P < .05= .000 for education and age, it suggest the model is statistically significant at 5 per cent level. The 't' are significant at 1 per cent for all the three variables, but more significant for education. Further, it suggests that with every increased in educational level, age and sex, the mean income is increased by ₹ 404, ₹ 298 and ₹ 79, respectively. Thus, the impact of education on income is found to be stronger than other variables. Hence, the hypothesis 3, which states that education has higher influence on income than age and sex of the respondents, is proved and accepted.

Table 5.14. Regression Estimates on Mean Income in Nagaland

Variables	Correlation (r)	Coefficients (β)	'p' value
Education	0.417	.404 (7.257)*	.000
Age	0.337	.298 (4.874)*	.000
sex	0.14	.079 (2.827)*	0.05
Constant = 1.875	R^2 = .221		'F' value = 37.446

*Note: The figures in the parenthesis refers to 't' value. * Significant at 1 per cent.*
Source: Own calculation based on field survey2015-16

5.7. RURAL-URBAN LINKAGES AND REMITTANCES

The remittance is one among many linkages that connect the migrants with their family and relatives in the place of origin. More importantly, remittance can also serve as a remedy for poverty and rural development, thereby raising the living standard of the household in the place of origin. So we can view migration as that generates various benefits to both the migrants and their family at home (Szabo, et. al (2018), Stark and Lucas, 1988)[153]. Remittance is a positive function of migration. The major impacts of migration on source areas occur through changes in the labour market, income and assets, changes in the pattern of expenditure and investment by the migrants. Remittances and savings are the primary channels through which migrants seek to improve their conditions of living[154]. Many researchers who have examined the effects of remittances on the whole household budget have suggested that remittances indeed increase household's productive investment (Rozelle et. al. 1999; Vanwey et.al 2005[155]). However, some literatures point out that only very little amount of remittance has been put to direct investment purpose and prioritised on current consumption items like food, health care, housing, etc. (Trager 1984; Conway and Cohen 1998[156]). What is important in this context is the role of remittance in direct investment as well as other uses that improve the living conditions of the households who uses the remittances. It also provides an opportunity for investment in education of the children and in agricultural production. So it has important positive effect on households' well-being, including on health status, educational attainment and food security[157]. According to Trager (1984)[158], in order to understand

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[153] Stark, O. and R. E. B. Lucas (1988). Migration, Remittances, and the Family Economic Development and Cultural Change, Vol. 36, No. 3, pp. 465-481 Published by: The University of Chicago Press. Web: http://www.jstor.org/stable/1153807 Accessed: 25-03-2015

[154] Srivastava, R. (2013). Impact of Internal Migration in India. Refugee and Migratory Movements. Working paper on Research Program Consortium, Research Unit, New Delhi, pp 15.

[155] VanWey, L. K, C. M. Tucker and E. D. McConnell (2005). Community Organization, Migration, and Remittances in Oaxaca Source: Latin American Research Review, Vol. 40, No. 1. pp. 83-107 Published by: The Latin American Studies Association Stable URL: http://www.jstor.org/stable/1555366 Accessed: 25-03-2015

[156] Conway, D. and J. H. Cohen (1998). Consequences of Migration and Remittances for Mexican Transnational Communities. Economic Geography. Volume 74, No.1 web: http://www.jstor.org/stable/144342. Accessed on 25-03-2015

[157] Szabo, S., W. N. Adger & Z. Matthews (2018). Home is where the money goes: migration-related urban-rural integration in delta regions.

[158] Trager, L. (1984). Migration and Remittances: Urban Income and Rural Households in the Philippines. The Journal of Developing Areas, Vol. 18, No. 3 ,pp. 317-340 Published by College of Business, Tennessee State University Stable web: http://www.jstor.org/stable/4191261 Accessed: 25-03-2015

the role of remittances in rural development, it is important to study their uses from household and family level. This is because the nature and characteristics of a migrant family differs from household to households. For instance, a below poverty family (BPL) can not directly put the remittance to direct investment unless their basic needs are fulfilled first. On the contrary, in well-to-do family, remittance can be utilised for direct investment in production of goods because their basic needs were already been met prior to migration.

5.7.1. Migrants Characteristics and Ties with the Family

In Naga society, within a family and society there is strong sense of obligation, whether a migrant or non-migrant, every individual is expected to keep close tie with his family and community. In this way, connection between the migrant and his family and relatives is up hold by everyone even after migration. Migrants to a large extent, fulfil their obligations by helping out the family members whenever possible and to maintain smooth and reciprocal relationships.

It is observed that there is an increasing trend in the number of people migrating to urban centres for economic motives as discussed in chapter 4. Out of 400 migrants interviewed in the sample survey, it was found that only 170 persons or 42.4 per cent of the respondents sent remittances to their family members. Table 5.15 gives the details of the number of respondents who migrated to Kohima and Dimapur during the period between 2000-2016 in column 1, number of persons who remit money to their family in column 3, average number of times they remit money in a year in column 4 and average amount they send at a time in column 5.

Table 5.15. Respondents engaged in economic activities, sending remittance, average number and amount (₹) of remittance send during the last 365 days.

Period when migrated (Year)	No. of respondents	No of persons sending remittance	Average no. of times remitted per annum	Average amount remitted per person (₹)
2000-2005	173 (43.4)	43 (24.7)	8.3	4047.6
2006-2010	103 (25.7)	50 (48.5)	9.8	3265
2011-2016	124 (30.9)	77 (62.1)	8	4246.8
Total / Average	400 (100)	170 (42.4)	8.6	3909.6

Note: Figures in the parenthesis indicates the percentage to total respondents.
Source: Field Survey, 2015-16

From the table 5.15 it is evident that the highest number of persons sending remittance was from amongst the most recent migrants, followed by those who came in during 2006-10. The highest frequency in terms of the number of remittances send is from those who came during the period 2006-10. Again, the most recent migrants were found to remit highest amount on average with ₹ 4246, followed by those who have migrated during 2000 to 2005.

5.7.2. Amount of Remittance sent in a Year

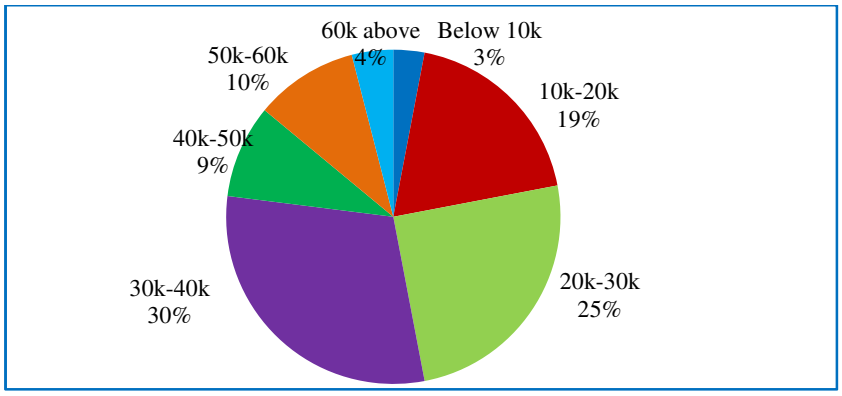
The volume and frequency of remittance sent by the migrants to their family members in a year is given in table 5.16. It is evident from the table that the highest proportion of the migrants (30 %) sent ₹ 30,000 to ₹ 40,000 as remittance to their homes in a year, followed by those sending ₹ 20,000 to 30,000 and ₹ 10,000 to 20,000 with 25 and 19 per cent respectively.

Table 5.16. Amount of remittance sent in a year (in ₹)

Range	No. of migrants	Percentage
Below 10000	5	3
10000 - 20000	32	19
20000- 30000	42	25
30000- 40000	52	30
40000- 50000	15	9
50000- 60000	17	10
60000 and above	7	4

Source: Field Survey 2015-16

Figure 5.12. Amount of remittance send/person/year



Source: Table 5.16. Note: 'k' = thousand in ₹

Figure 5.12 shows the percentage share of the amount of remittances sent by a person in a year. The proportion of those who send more than ₹ 50,000 and above in a year is only 14 per cent and above ₹ 40,000 is 23 per cent.

5.7.3. Use of Remittance

The frequency distribution table 5.17 given below highlighted the detail information on the items for which the remittances were used by the recipient families at the place of origin. It is evident that major proportion of the remittance were spent by the recipient families on human development and human capital formation related items such as food (31.8%), health care (25.4%) and education (20.3%), which accounted for 77.5 per cent of the total remitted amount of ₹ 6,64,700 per year. Direct investment on physical capital and durable goods accounted for 1.4 per cent and 5.5 per cent respectively. Saving for future (3.7%), repayment of debts (1.6%) and investment for entrepreneurial activities (0.2%) were also marginal. Spending on social account constituted for 5.5 per cent. This indicates that remittances contribute positively to the improvement in living standards of the households in the place of origin and significantly contributed to human capital formation. It also helped in capital asset creation.

Table 5.17. Nature of Uses of the Remittance by the Recipient Family

Periods	2000-05		2006-10		2011-16		Total	
Particulars	Freq.	%age	Freq.	%age	Freq.	%age	Freq.	%age
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
On food items	39	7.9	50	10.1	68	13.8	157	31.8
Educational expenses in the family	25	5.1	28	5.7	47	9.5	100	20.3
Spend on durable goods	13	2.6	6	1.2	8	1.6	27	5.5
On marriage, other ceremonial expense	2	0.4	16	3.2	29	5.9	47	9.5
Spend on healthcare	25	5.1	38	7.7	62	12.5	125	25.4
Invest on capital goods	1	0.2	0	0	6	1.2	7	1.4
Repayment of debts	1	0.2	5	1	2	0.4	8	1.6
Invest- entrepreneurial activities	0	0	0	0	1	0.2	1	0.2
Savings for future use	6	1.2	4	0.8	8	1.6	18	3.7
Other purpose	0	0	1	0.2	2	0.4	3	0.6

Source: Field Survey 2015-16

Figure 5.13. Uses of Remittance by Head-Wise Items

Source: Table 5.17

5.7.4. Regression Analysis on Remittance

Using the multiple regression model, the study attempted to examine the effect of educational level, age, sex, income level and family size on the remittance sent by the migrants. The result shows that migrant's education, age and income level are significant predictors of the level of remittances, The model reveals that income level, sex and family size are positively correlated with 0.583, 0.378 and 0.331 respectively, while age (-30%) and educational level (-21%) were negatively correlated to remittance send by the migrants in urban areas. The R^2 is 0.41, which suggest that about 41% of the variability in the amount of remittance send by the migrants is explained by independent variables. Since, the model is statistically significant ($p < .05$) we can state that income and age are significant at 1 per cent level (t=9.23 and t=3.58, respectively) while education is significant at 5 per cent (t=2.41). However, sex and family size of the migrants have no significant effect on the amount of remittance. The model suggests that with 1 per cent increase in the income level, remittance amount would be increased by ₹ 812. With 1 year increase in age, the remittance would decline by ₹ 425 and every level increase in education will result in decline in remittance by ₹ 293.7. Thus, the hypothesis 4 which states that the '*migrants with higher level of education are likely to remit more'* is rejected. But the positive relationship between income and remittance amount is accepted.

Table 5.18. Regression Estimates on Remittance Send

Variables	Correlation (r)	Coefficients	'p' value
Education	-0.209	.-293.707 (2.416)**	0.017
Age	-0.301	-425.063 (3.589)*	.000
Income	0.583	812.967 (9.233)*	.000
Sex	0.378	.012 (.324)	0.747
Family size	0.331	-.001 (.446)	0.656
Constant =4351.01	R^2 = .413		'F' value = 30.397

*Note: The figures in parenthesis refers to 't' value. * significant at 1 per cent, ** significant at 5 per cent.*

Source: Own calculation based on field survey 2015-16

This study indicates that almost all the respondents who send remittances home have benefited the family in one way or the other. The study found that only a small portion of the remittances has been used for direct investment. Yet a considerable amount has been spent on healthcare and education which is investment in human capital. The study also suggests that, though the volume of remittances sent in a year may not be significantly large for majority of the remitters, yet the very purpose of remittances has been served in several ways. It helps the migrants' family to meet the basic needs, thus, contributed in raising the well-being of the family members at the place of origin. Through remittances, the close link kept between those who have migrated to urban areas and those remaining in the village or home.

5.8. CONCLUSION

The impact of migration has been significant as far as the migrants in Dimapur and Kohima are concern. A remarkable increase in employment and income of the migrants represent positive impact on both the migrants and in the place of origin. There was no issue of unemployment among the migrant families after migration. Improvement in income distribution among the migrants as indicated by reduction in Gini Coefficient after migration is another significant impact of migration. Irrespective of the level of education, the level of income of the migrants positively determines the remittance amount. Thus, like the other studies, the empirical evidences do not support the positive relationship between education and remittances. Remittance was found to be an important source for income for consumption expenditure and investment in the place of origin. The use of remittance

in the place of origin also indicates that migration is a livelihood strategy for those migrant families.

5.9. APPENDIX D

Table D.1. Occupational Status of the migrants in NE States of India

NE States	Self-employed		Regular wage/ Salaried		Casual Labourer		Total employed		Un-employed		Not in labour force	
	Bf	**Af**	**Bf**	**Af**	**Bf**	**Af**	**Bf**	**Af**	**Bf**	**Af**	**Bf**	**Af**
Ar. Pradesh	19	18.1	26.5	34.8	2.4	3.3	47.9	56.1	3.2	0.1	43.1	43.8
Assam	11.3	14	8.1	22.2	3.4	2.9	22.8	39.1	7.3	1.1	69.9	59.7
Manipur	2	2	11.2	13.1	2.4	2.4	15.6	17.5	1.9	0	82.5	82.5
Meghalaya	10	14	10.9	24.1	16.8	16.7	37.7	54.7	6.3	1.3	53	43.9
Mizoram	26	21.8	13	22.9	2.7	4.7	41.7	49.4	2.4	3.2	55.9	47.4
Nagaland	13.6	12.1	12.9	26.9	0.4	1.8	26.9	40.8	13.1	4.3	59.7	54.9
Sikkim	9.6	12.4	18.2	37.7	0	0.1	27.8	50.1	7.1	3.9	65.1	46
Tripura	8.8	11.8	13.9	23.4	5.3	3.3	28.1	38.5	18.5	9.3	52.7	52.2
NE States	12.5	13.3	14.4	25.6	4.1	4.4	31.1	43.3	7.5	2.9	60.3	53.8
All India	8.3	11.8	8.1	18.5	6.2	5.0	22.6	35.3	5.5	.9	71.8	63.8

Note: 'BF' and 'AF' refers to before and after migration

Source: NSSO 64th Round, 2010

CHAPTER 6

ISSUES AND CHALLENGES

The nature and growth of urbanisation in the Nagaland is quite different from those of advanced regions, where most of the urban towns are administrative headquarter of respective district. The urban development process has therefore been in an unbalanced way where the growing cities has no corresponding increase in industrial or productive employment opportunities and infrastructure thereby posing serious bottlenecks for the government, planners and administrators and for the urban dwellers as well. Moreover, despite rapid growth of cities/towns, the planners failed to integrate urban development policies with rural development strategies. Thus, urban development strategy failed to provide viable living condition for the urban poor who are mostly the migrants from the rural areas (Agarwal, 1995). Due to rapid urban population growth rate, the problem of infrastructural deficiency would continue to persist in cities. At present, cities in the countries are facing with the challenge of providing vital urban infrastructure and services, which include affordable housing, quality education, health care services, and access to public water supply, congestion-free roads and transport infrastructure and integration of the migrants into urban society[159]. While internal mobility is critical to the livelihoods of many people, poor migrants have very little bargaining power and many of them are employed in the unorganised sector, where the lack of regulation compounds their vulnerability[160]. They are largely ignored by government and NGO programmes. This chapter examines some of the major issues confronted by the respondents after migrated to Kohima and Dimapur towns based on the sample data.

[159] World Economic Forum (2017). Migration and its impact on cities. Web: *www3.weforum.org/docs/Migration_Impact_Cities_report_2017_low.pdf*

[160] Srivastava & Sasikumar (2003). An overview of migration in India, its impacts and key issues. Migration, Development and Pro-Poor Policy Choices in Asia. website: www.livelihoods.org

6.1. SOCIO-ECONOMIC ISSUES

Factors that determine the quality of life in urban centres depends on the availability and accessibility to basic urban infrastructure and amenities. Major socio-economic issues faced by the respondents after migration to Kohima and Dimapur are presented in the following section. In Table 6.1, most common issues in terms of access to basic facilities by the respondents are given.

Table 6.1. Common Issues Faced by the Respondents in the Town/City

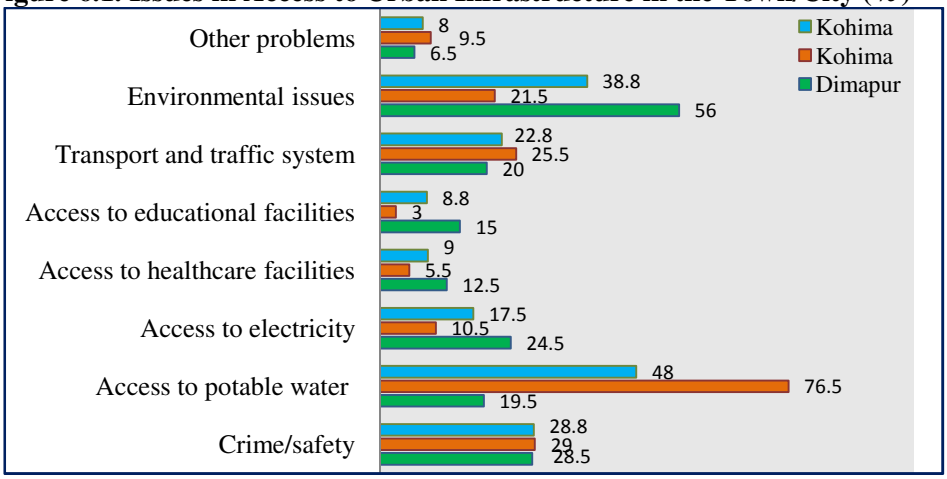
District/State	Dimapur		Kohima		Total	
Factors	**Freq.**	**%**	**Freq.**	**%**	**Freq.**	**%**
Crime/safety	59	28.5	58	29	115	28.8
Access to potable water	39	19.5	153	76.5	192	48
Access to electricity	49	24.5	21	10.5	70	17.5
Access to healthcare facilities	25	12.5	11	5.5	36	9
Access to educational facilities	30	15	6	3	36	8.8
Transport and traffic system	40	20	51	25.5	91	22.8
Environmental issues	112	56	43	21.5	155	38.8
Other problems	13	6.5	19	9.5	32	8

Source: Field Survey 2015-16

The aggregate data reveals that majority of the respondents have issues with access to potable water (48%) especially acute in Kohima Town. Another important issue is environmental concerns such as air and water pollution, waste management, etc. which is expressed by nearly 39 per cent of the respondents. Urbanisation may create opportunities for human development but at the same time they also bred many kinds of insecurity[161]. More than 28% of the respondents cited that safety of women and children is most important concern after migrated to Kohima and Dimapur in Nagaland. It is also observed that the bad road condition and traffic congestions seem to be another problem. About 23% of respondents cited that the current transport system and traffic regulation system in Kohima and Dimapur town/ city were not up to the marked and need further improvement.

[161] Mosel, I. et al (2016). Urbanisation, Consequence and Opportunities for the Netherlands. Directorate General for International Cooperation. Overseas Development Report. pp 24

Figure 6.1. Issues in Access to Urban Infrastructure in the Town/City (%)



Source: Table 6.1

Energy in the form of electricity for lighting, heating and cooking purpose for domestic and commercial use has serve enumerable purpose. Nearly 18 per cent of the respondents have reported inadequate electricity supply with frequent load-shedding and disruption of current supply. Even though educational infrastructure and healthcare facilities in Kohima and Dimapur form important pull factors of migration, yet about 9 per cent of the respondents have the view that access to these facilities were not satisfactory. Thus, it is evident from the above discussion that the respondents have migrated to Kohima and Dimapur with high expectations but many were not satisfied with the current urban service delivery system mainly in terms of potable water supply, crime and safety and also in road and public transport system and energy issues.

6.2. HOUSING

6.2.1. Housing Issue

A proper shelter or a house is one of the basic needs for any persons. The quality of living standard is also determined by the type of house that an individual live in (Vero, 2012)[162]. Thus, the government launched housing schemes for both urban and rural areas, but many poor people are yet to be benefited from these schemes. As such, many urban dwellers are unable to acquire a decent house and struggling for stable dwelling place in urban centres. The migrants are more vulnerable to this problem of urban dwelling. According to Handbook of Urban

[162] Vero, Y. (2016). Economic Growth and Human Development in Nagaland. Heritage Publishing House, Nagaland.

Statistics 2019[163], about 68 per cent of the urban population in India live in good condition dwellings, nearly 29 per cent in liveable house and 2.88 per cent in dilapidated dwellings. In Nagaland, 22.33 per cent live in permanent house, 57.84 per cent in semi-permanent house, 1.5 per cent in serviceable house and 17.4 in non-serviceable houses (Census 2011). In urban areas of Nagaland, 84.3 per cent live in pucca house, 15.2 per cent in semi-pucca and 0.5 per cent in kutchha house (NSSO 2012)[164]. In this section, the status of housing structure occupied by the migrants has been examined, based on the sample data.

Providing adequate and affordable housing to the migrants is one of the biggest challenges faced by the cities in developing countries (World Economic Forum, 2017). Housing problems and other associated issues are increasing particularly in the more urbanized and populated towns in the State such as in Kohima and Dimapur[165]. The District Human Development Report (DHDR) for Nagaland shows out of 2156 household surveyed, only 44.5 per cent reside in own house, 53 per cent in rented and only 2.3 per cent in the government owned house.

The status of the respondents based on their housing condition has improved significantly after migration. For instance, more than 40.5 per cent of the respondents from rural areas were living in kutchha house before migration, whose proportion is drastically reduced to 15 per cent after migration to urban areas. Conversely, those migrants from rural areas living in pucca housing structure increased from 25.75 per cent to more than 42.5 per cent after migration. Also, the proportion of the migrants living in semi katchha house increased from 13.25 per cent to 22 per cent after migration. For those migrated from other urban towns, the condition remains more or less the same.

[163] GoI, 2019. Handbook of Urban Statistics, Ministry of Housing and Urban Affairs. Web: http://mohua.gov.in/pdf/5c80e2225a124Handbook

[164] NSSO 2012. Drinking Water, Sanitation, Hygiene and Housing Condition in India. Web: http://www.indiaenvironmentportal.org.in/files/file/Drinking%20Water,%20Sanitation,%20Hygiene

[165] GOI - UNDP PROJECT (2009). *Rural-Urban Migration*: Strengthening of State Plans for Human Development. A Thematic Report. Government of Nagaland, Kohima

Table 6.2. Changes in Housing Status Before and After Migration in Nagaland (in %)

Period	Before Migration			After Migration		
Rural/ urban/ type of house	Migrated from			Migrated from		
	Rural areas	Urban areas	Total	Rural areas	Urban areas	Total
Katchha	40.7	3.5	44	15	1.8	16.75
Semi Katchha	13.2	0.8	14.05	21.5	1.8	23.75
Pucca	25.7	16.2	41.95	42.4	17	59.5
Total	79.5	20.5	100	79.5	20.5	100

Source: Field Survey 2015-16

Overall, the proportion of migrants living in kutchha house declined from 44 to 17 per cent, while that of migrants living in semi kutchha and pucca increased from 14 to 24 per cent and 42 to 59.5 per cent respectively. Thus, the condition of housing has improved over the period. But a significant proportion still lives in kutchha houses, which is still a matter of concern for the migrants in the urban centres in Nagaland.

6.2.2. Nature of Ownership of the Dwelling Place

From table 6.3, it is clear that more than 65 per cent live in rented house, 25.5 per cent in their own house and 6.75 per cent in government allotted buildings. The last category is classified as 'other type' for those respondents were stationed in temporary structure at the work-site itself mainly to minimized the cost of living while some were living in the place provided by their well-to-do relative for free of cost.

Table 6.3. Nature of Ownership of the Dwellings Place

City/town	Dimapur		Kohima		Total	
Housing nature	N	%	N	%	N	%
Own house/Apartment	73	36.5	29	14.5	102	25.5
Government Building	19	9.5	8	4	27	6.75
Rented house	106	53	155	77.5	261	65.25
Other type	2	1	8	4	10	2.5
Total	200	100	200	100	400	100

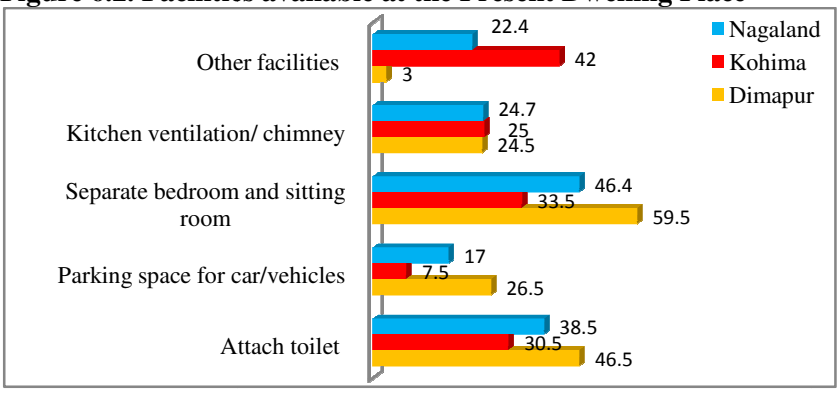
Note: 'N' refers to the number of respondents
Source: Field Survey 2015-16

The main issue is related to rent households and others types of housing. It was found that majority of the migrants live in rented house with minimum facilities, such as lack of parking space, separate bed room and sitting room, attach toilet, proper kitchen with ventilation, etc.

6.2.3. Facilities Available at the Present Dwelling Place

More than 65 per cent of the migrants live in rented house, whereby in most case, basic amenities like proper chimney, ventilations and separate bedroom and kitchen were not available as shown in appendix E, table E.1 and figure 6.2. For instance, only 46.4 per cent have separate bed room and sitting rooms, 24 per cent with kitchen ventilations and chimneys and 38.5 per cent attached toilets, which are essential needs. Partly, because of these poor facilities, many of the respondents have often changed their house or place after migration.

Figure 6.2. Facilities available at the Present Dwelling Place



Source: Table E.1 in appendix E

As evident from the above figure, lack of such facilities is detrimental to the healthy living condition. It also affects the health of the migrant, which could in turn lower the productivity in their work. Thus, providing affordable housing with minimum basic facilities remains a big challenge for the urban development authorities in the State.

6.2.4. Frequent Change of Residence Area or Colony

The frequent change of dwelling place from one locality to another is a clear indication of the presence of distinct issues with the migrants in regard to adjustment with the local environment. With rapid urbanization and population growth, the pressure of providing urban amenities is increasing, such as water supply to the

citizens has intensified especially in hilly towns like Kohima. Out of 400 respondents, 153 (or 38.3%) respondents have reported that they have changed their place of residence once or more after migration to Kohima and Dimapur due to several reasons, which are presented in table 6.4.

High rental charges (22%), poor sanitation issues (21%) and water scarcity (20%) were the three most prominent factors that often lead to change of residence. Other reasons include remoteness of the residential place to work or market place, deplorable roads connecting the market place, security and other reasons (table 6.4).

Table 6.4. Reasons for Frequent Change of Residence/Colony in the City/Town

District/State	Dimapur		Kohima		Nagaland	
Factors	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**
Water scarcity	10	13	20	25	30	20
Poor sanitary condition	18	24	14	17.5	32	20.9
High rental charge	17	23	16	20	33	21.6
Poor road conditions	6	8	12	15	18	11.8
Too remote/ far from market place	13	17	8	10	21	13.7
Safety issue	1	1.3	0	0	1	1
Others	8	10.9	9	11.3	17	11
Total	73	100	80	100	153	100

Note: 'N' refers to the number of respondents
Source: Field Survey 2015-16

It is clear that sky-rocking house rents, sanitary issues and water scarcity were the most important reasons that the migrants has to dealt with in the town/city. Other issues like remoteness or poor connectivity between the residential areas with main market or work place often lead to change of residence within the city/town.

6.2.5. Nature of Problems Faced while Searching for Residential Place

Generally an individual seek affordable, close proximity to market and work place, safety of children and women and other factors. Broadly, three major common problems were identified in the study and other minor factors were clubbed in the 'other factors' and given in table 6.5. As evident from table 6.5, finding a suitable place (68.6%) and high rentals (50%) were the most obvious reasons which are a matter of concern for the migrants in Nagaland. It reveals the magnitude of the problems faces by the respondents while searching for a rent in the city/town after

migration to Kohima or Dimapur. Many new entrants in the city for the first timers are confronted with lack of knowledge about the prevailing condition of rents in the city/town. So, this issue is directly related to housing and other facilities in the dwelling place.

Table 6.5. Nature of Problems Faced While Searching for Renting House in the City/Town

District/State	Dimapur		Kohima		Nagaland	
Factors	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**
High rental charge	67	33.5	133	66.5	200	50
High transport cost	8	4	12	6	20	5
Finding a suitable location	138	69	137	68.5	275	68.6
Other factor(s)	7	3.5	2	1	9	2.3

Note: 'N' represents the number of migrants
Source: Field Survey, 2015-16

6.3. SOURCE OF WATER SUPPLY

Water scarcity is likely to pose the greatest challenge on account of its increased demand coupled with shrinking supplies due to over utilisation and pollution [166]. The demand for water has increased in the cities due to rapid urbanization and modernization and also for sewerage and for removing all kinds of wastes[167]. Not only the quantity but also the quality of water[168] has deteriorated in India.

The water supply system in Nagaland is not sufficient to meet the needs of the people especially in urban sectors. Except for a very negligible percentage who receives water from the public supply, majority of the urban dwellers depend mostly on dug wells, which are either privately constructed or owned. As per the census report of 2011, 47 per cent of the population depends on tap water, 25.61 % on well water, 6.65 % on tube well/ hand pump and 20.54 % on other source in Nagaland. In Dimapur, the corresponding percentages are 13.73%, 48.21%, 32.24% and 5.82 % respectively. While in Kohima, 48.04 % depends on tap water, 24.34% on well

[166] Water Resource of India. http://ncert.nic.in/ncerts .pdf. Access date: 16-07-18
[167] Our Water Resources. http://www.nios.ac.in/media/documents .pdf. Accessed date: 16-7-18
[168] Quality of water refers to purity or water without the presence of unwanted foreign substance.

water, only 1.4 % on tube well/ hand pump and 26.21 % on other sources which include streams, rivers, rain water and springs.

The sample total of Dimapur and Kohima given in table 6.6 shows that nearly 40 per cent of the migrants depend on dug well for water, 21.5 per cent on hand-pumps and 20.75 per cent on private water supply.

Table 6.6. Mode of Potable Water Source

Category	Dimapur		Kohima		Nagaland	
Sources	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**
Private water tap	19	9.5	64	32	83	20.75
Protected dug well	86	43	71	35.5	157	39.25
Municipal water pipe	16	8	10	5	26	6.5
Harvested rain water	0	0	10	5	10	2.5
Tube well/ hand-pump	79	39.5	7	3.5	86	21.5
Other source	0	0	38	19	38	9.5

Note: 'N' refers to the number of respondents
Source: Field Survey, 2015-16

It can be clearly seen that the dependence on public water supply is quite negligible as only 6.5 per cent of the respondents have access to it, while about 92.5 per cent depend on private water source for their daily needs which is far more expensive. The above analysis on the source of drinking water shows a similar result found in the work on the thematic report of GOI-UNDP project (2009). Their report also states that majority of the people in Nagaland depends on private supply and only 13 per cent of the people depend on government supply in Nagaland.

6.4. URBAN SANITATION

Sanitation is an important area of concern in the urban areas. It is associated with personal hygiene as well as health[169]. Sanitation refers to management of clean drinking water, adequate treatment and disposal of human excreta and sewage[170]. Sanitation of a particular area depends upon factors such as effective sanitary disposal system of both solid and non-solid wastes, proper management and maintenance[171]. The existing infrastructure is under serious strain to

[169] Yelhi, V. (2012). Economic Growth and Human Development in Nagaland. Ph. D. Thesis submitted to Nagaland University. Pp 66
[170] Wikipedia. https://en.wikipedia.org/ Accessed on 19-07-2018
[171] GOI-UNDP Report (2009). Rural-Urban Migration: A Thematic Report (2011) Department of Planning and Coordination. Government of Nagaland

meet the growing needs of wastes management, disposal system and drainage maintenance, thereby threatening the public health.

6.4.1. Toilet System

A well-managed toilet is a pre-requisite component for keeping the surrounding clean and to lead a decent living in the urban areas. Yet, it was found that many of the urban dwellers could not afford modern toilets but has to be complacent with the ordinary toilets under their disposal. In the absence of the sewerage system, the general mode of disposal of human waste is found to be that of septic tanks. Even this facility is not available for some households. In such cases, the occupants or tenants resort to the use of common toilets or jointly use by every members in the building or in the community latrines or in extreme cases, open defecation even in the public areas and nullas. It is detrimental to the environment and poses health hazards and causes discomfort to the residents. According to NSHDR 2004, only 24.8 per cent have flush toilets, 49.5 per cent pit toilets in Nagaland.

In the survey, four common types of toilets have been identified. They are flush toilet[172], simple pit latrine[173], ventilated improved pit[174] latrine and open pit latrine. The sample aggregate shows that about 62 per cent of the migrants use flush toilets, 19.5 per cent use ventilated toilets and 17.5 per cent on pit latrines in Nagaland. It was found that about 2 per cent of the migrants were practicing open defecation.

Table 6.7. Types of Toilet System Used in the City/Town

Sector	Dimapur		Kohima		Nagaland	
Types of toilets	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**
Flush toilet	155	77.5	92	46	247	61.8
Pit latrine	20	10	50	25	70	17.5
Ventilated improved pit latrine (VIP)	23	11.5	54	27	78	19.5
Open pit latrine	1	0.5	3	1.5	4	1
Other type	1	0.5	1	0.5	2	0.5

Source: Field Survey, 2015-16

[172] A flush toilet is a toilet that disposes of human excreta by using water to flush it through a drain-pipe to another location for disposal, thus maintaining a separation between humans and their excreta.
[173] A pit latrine is a type of toilet that collects human faeces in a hole in the ground. They may not use water or 2-3 litres of water per flush.
[174] Ventilated improved pit latrine is an improvement over the single pit latrine because continuous airflow through the ventilation pipe vents odours and acts as a trap for flies as they escape towards the light.

Some of the poor migrants lack access to decent toilets due to economic constrains. So, the challenge is to achieve 100 per cent open defecation free in urban areas, which is quite achievable.

6.4.2. Nature of Toilet Use

In table 6.8, distribution of the respondents' households by the nature of toilet uses is given. Three types of toilets used in their residential areas has been identified, viz. household exclusive use, common use in the building and community uses.

Table 6.8. Nature of Use of Toilets

District/ State	Dimapur		Kohima		Nagaland	
Nature of use	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**
Household exclusive use	175	87.5	62	31	237	59.25
Common use in the building	22	11	135	67.5	158	39.4
Community use	3	1.5	4	2	6	1.5

Note: 'N' refers to the number of respondents
Sources: Field Survey, 2015-16

It is clearly visible that more than 59 per cent of the respondents have household exclusive use. In other words, this group does not share their toilets with others but used exclusively by the members in the family. Another 39 per cent was found to be using toilets where everyone in the same building used the same toilet. The remaining 1.5 per cent uses community toilets. Use of common toilets has many problems. One common issue associated with the sharing of toilets is the management and maintenance, which could lead to health problems.

6.4.3. Garbage Disposal System

Another conspicuous issue in the urban areas is the management of waste. It is observed that the existing infrastructural arrangement of the Municipal Councils in both Dimapur and Kohima were inadequate to manage the ever increasing quantity of garbage and urban waste. As seen in the census enumeration of household amenities and the availability of waste disposal facilities, development of proper sewage system is one of the important requirements for infrastructural development in the urban areas. The in-adequacy of infrastructural facilities for urban waste management is clearly visible from the table 6.9**.**

Table 6.9. Garbage Disposable Arrangement

District/State	Dimapur		Kohima		Nagaland	
Nature of use	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**
No proper arrangement	34	17	9	4.5	43	10.75
Individual arrangement	52	26	45	22.5	97	24.25
By Municipalities	114	57	146	73	260	65

Note: 'N' refers to the number of migrants
Source: Field Survey 2015-16

On average, only 65 per cent of the garbage and waste have been systematically collected and disposed off by the municipalities. The remaining 35 per cent have been disposed off either by individual households (24%) or were being thrown here and there by the residence without any arrangement. As this open disposal practice is detrimental to the health of the people and environment, the concern authority need to address the issue by extending it present coverage.

6.4.4. Sewerage Disposal System

The availability of sewers[175] for waste water and sewerage[176] arrangement are very crucial for hygienic and clean environment. In the absence of proper sewerage system, most of the people resort to dumping of both solid waste and non-solid waste on the road-side nullas. On top of that, lack of proper drainage system often leads to clogging of rain water, often leading to flooding of main roads with clogged plastics bags and all kinds of garbage. This caused not only discomfort to the residence but also poses health hazards and is detrimental to the environment. Waste tank, road-side drains and nearby water bodies/dams/ponds were found to be the common places where wastes water was disposed off by the residents.

Table 6.10. Arrangement for Sewage Disposal System in the Town/City

Category	Dimapur		Kohima		Nagaland	
Sewage Disposal place	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**
Waste tank	17	8.5	2	1	19	4.8
Nearby water bodies/dam/pond	72	36	22	11	94	23.5
Road-side drains	95	46.5	176	83	271	44.2
Other(s)	7	3.5	0	0	7	1.8
Do not know	9	4.5	0	0	9	2.2

Source: Field Survey 2015-16

[175] A large underground pipe use for carrying waste water from the source area to the place where they can be safely disposed off.
[176] Sewerage is the infrastructure that conveys sewage or surface runoff

On average, about 44 per cent of the migrants allowed their waste water flow into nearby roadside drains, 23.5 per cent into streams and ponds and 4.8 per cent to the waste tanks. About 4 per cent of the households do not maintained any proper arrangement for waste water disposal in urban areas. It was found that 2.2 per cent of the respondents do not have any knowledge about the disposal arrangement. This suggest that majority of the urban dwellers have not much concern about the urban waste disposal system and the implications of such management on the public health and the environment.

6.4.5. Drainage System

The essence of proper development of drainage system lies in the fact that drainage system is directly link to the development and maintenance of urban roads and sanitation. It is observed that in many hill towns which are mostly administrative headquarters of the district, lack well maintained drainage system. This poor drainages arrangement along the main roads often leads to overflowing of rain water along with waste and garbage on the roads, thereby causing inconvenience to both the commuters and vehicular movements. According to Census 2011, only 4.8 per cent in Nagaland have closed drainage system, 45.6 per cent open drainage and 49.83 per cent have no drainage system. Similarly, in Dimapur, only 10.08 per cent have closed drainage, 47.52 per cent open drainage and 42.4 per cent do not have drainage system. The corresponding figure for Kohima is 4.34 per cent, 68.25 and 27.41 per cent respectively.

Various factors were indentified for non-satisfactory conditions of the drainage system in urban areas as depicted in table 6.11. On average, the highest proportion of the migrants has issues with frequent water loggings of the drainage (37%), followed by non-maintenance problems (35.5%) and non-coverage drainage system in their localities. Among these reasons, water logging and maintenance issue has the greatest concern in the minds of the people. Lack of finance and resources forms the greatest challenge to provide efficient management and good drainage system in the towns.

Table 6.11. Reasons for Unsatisfactory Drainage System in the City/Town

District/ Nagaland	Dimapur		Kohima		Nagaland	
Factors	**Freq.**	**%**	**Freq.**	**%**	**Freq.**	**%**
Narrow drainage	36	18	25	12.5	61	15.25
No proper maintenance mechanism	83	41.5	59	29.5	142	35.5
Un-authorised construction on road-side	51	21.5	36	18	87	21.75
Frequent water logging	96	48	52	26	148	37
Non-covered drainage	59	29.5	69	34.5	128	32
Other(s)	0	0	3	0	3	0.8

Source: Field Survey, 2015-16

6.5. HEALTH CARE ISSUES

Health is one of the most important correlates for leading a higher standard of living and healthy life. Healthcare infrastructure is a critical component for sound delivery of healthcare services to the people. Healthcare service delivery is determined by the access to affordable healthcare services, quality of the service and infrastructure. The State faces enumerable constraints with shortage of infrastructure and manpower in the health sector- doctors, nurses and allied paramedics.

6.5.1. Reasons for Un-Satisfactory Healthcare Services

Delivery of health care services does not limited to mere construction of buildings and beds in the hospitals. At the base, it requires basic facilities which include doctors and working nurses along with paramedics and equipments. Table 6.12 gives the constraints that the respondents felt and wish the concern authority to give attention to the following areas.

On average, the highest proportion of the migrants cited shortages of specialised doctors as the main issue, which accounts for nearly 31 per cent. Existing sanitary systems in hospital is another problem that requires improvement (25.7%) and shortage of the number of general doctors (15.2%). Out of 269 respondents who have cited one or other reasons for non-satisfaction of the health care service in the State, it is evident that majority reported insufficient specialists and surgeons in the health care centres across the district hospitals. As such, many migrants were compelled to go to other metropolitan cities for medical treatment, which is quite expensive and unaffordable for majority of them.

Table 6.12. Reasons for Unsatisfactory Health Care System in Nagaland

District/ State	Dimapur		Kohima		Nagaland	
Factors	**Freq.**	**%**	**Freq.**	**%**	**Freq.**	**%**
Shortage of doctors	26	17.6	15	12.4	41	15.2
Shortage of specialists	45	30.4	38	31.4	83	30.9
Required more nurses	9	6.1	12	9.9	21	7.8
Poor sanitary system	33	22.3	36	29.8	69	25.7
Requires more hospitals	20	13.5	11	9.1	31	11.5
Poor ambulance services	13	8.8	5	4.1	18	6.7
Other reason(s)	2	1.4	4	3.3	6	2.2
Total	148	100.0	121	100.0	269	100.0

Source: Field survey 2015-16

6.5.2. Health Care Insurance

Health plays an important role in ensuring security in livelihood strategies. In today's world, holding a health insurance policy is very crucial for availing easy health services and timely medical treatment especially for those migrants who are susceptible to different diseases. Yet many people are still ignorant about the value of health insurance policies. The survey data reveals that only 11 per cent of the respondents were found to be holding health insurance policy. This implies about 90 per cent of the respondents did not possessed health policy (table E.2 in appendix E). This implies that about 90 per cent of the migrants did not have proper security for their health in Nagaland.

Thus, it is evident that being the most vulnerable groups in the community, need to be sensitize about the importance of such health policies especially among the most vulnerable sections like women and children.

6.6. LEVELS OF LIVING CONDITION

To estimate the comparative living standard of the migrants, firstly, parameters such as (i) type of housing, (ii) nature of ownership of houses, (iii) type of toilet and (iv) the nature of its use, (v) source of potable water and (vi) energy used for cooking were selected and assigned each indicator with the value/ranking of '3' for the best category, '2' for the medium and '1' for the lowest category. In the second stage, indicators for each of the household were assigned their respective values to view the position of the household under each parameter. Thirdly, separate composite indices were constructed for each household and finally, each household were identified according to their composite index score and assigned it as either 'high', 'medium' or 'low' standard of living (table E.4 in appendix E).

Six parameters have been used to construct the composite index of living condition of the migrants. The figures for each household under each parameter have been standardized using **Z-score** method to transform the data matrix into free scale matrix as explained in the methodology in Chapter 1[177], then household composite indices were constructed.

In the analysis of the level of living standards of the migrants, the composite index score of the households ranged from 6.81 to 17.84, which were divided into three categories as high (14.1 to 18 score), moderate (10.1-14 score) and low (6 to 10 score) standard of living. The result reveals that majority were in the moderate category with 47.25 per cent (46.5% Dimapur and 48 % in Kohima). Nearly 40 per cent of the migrants were living in high living conditions (36 % in Dimapur and 43.5% in Kohima). The proportion of the migrants with low living standards constitutes only 13 per cent on average, with 17.5 per cent in Dimapur and 8.5 per cent in Kohima (table 6.13).

[177]Banerjee, A. and D. Ahluwalia (2003). Regional Disparities in Demographic, Economic and Social Development in India. In Mohapatra, A.C. and Pathak C.R. (ed). Economic Liberalisation and Regional Disparities in India. Special Focus on the North Eastern Region.pp 76-81

Table 6.13. Standard of living of the migrants households

Place	Dimapur		Kohima		Nagaland	
Level & Score	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**
High (14.1-18)	72	36	87	43.5	159	39.75
Moderate (10.1-14)	93	46.5	96	48	189	47.25
Low (6-10))	35	17.5	17	8.5	52	13
Total	200	100	200	100	400	100

Source: Table E.4 in Appendix E

6.7. CONCLUSION

There were significant differences in the living conditions between rural and urban areas before migration in socio-economic or political, environmental or cultural spheres. Many aspiring people migrated to Dimapur and Kohima with high expectations. Similarly, many have been benefited for taking up the decision to migrate. However, as evident from the above discussion, majority of the respondents have issues with the availability of potable water supply and crime and safety is another issue concerning the migrant families in the place of destination. Another notable problem is frequent change of residence in the cities due to various factors such as poor sanitation, remoteness from the main town centres, water scarcity or security reasons. Thus, finding a house with minimal basic requirements seems to be a major issue for the newly migrants. Sanitary system ensures a neat and healthy living environment to the urban dwellers. Toilets used by many migrants were of low standard where a considerable number of the migrants continued to use pit latrines. The existing drainage system proves to be far below the acceptable standards in many localities. Frequent water logging and minor floods are regular features in Dimapur town. Even urban road systems were not satisfactory in many localities especially in Dimapur city. The ever rising motor vehicles and subsequent deteriorating roads and drainages are adding up to the mounting problems in the two most populated cities in Nagaland. Many migrants were not satisfied with the health service delivery system in urban centres in the State due to insufficient institutional and infrastructural facilities. Finally, judging from the access to basic needs, a significant proportion of the migrants still live in low standard of living, although improved for many more migrants after migration.

6.8. Appendix E

Table E.1. Types of facilities available at the present dwelling place

District/State	Dimapur		Kohima		Nagaland	
Particulars	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**
Attach toilet	93	46.5	61	30.5	154	38.5
Parking space for car/vehicles	53	26.5	15	7.5	68	17
Separate bedroom and sitting room	119	59.5	67	33.5	186	46.5
Kitchen ventilation/ chimney	49	24.5	50	25	99	24.7
Other facilities	6	3	84	42	90	22.3

Source: Field Survey, 2015-16

Table E.2. Proportion of Migrants With or Without Health Insurance Policy

District/State	Dimapur		Kohima		Nagaland	
Category	**Freq.**	**%**	**Freq.**	**%**	**Freq.**	**%**
With policy	33	16.5	11	5.5	44	11
Without policy	167	83.5	189	94.5	356	89
Total	200	100	200	100	400	100

Field Survey 2015-16

Table E.3. Composite Index Score table for each household

HH No.	Z score	HH No.	Z score	HH No.	Z score	HH No.	Z score	HH No.	Z score	HH No.	Z score	HH No.	Z score	HH No.	Z score
1	14.84	51	13.84	101	15.81	151	13.81	201	15.84	251	13.84	301	12.81	351	13.81
2	10.84	52	16.84	102	10.81	152	17.81	202	13.84	252	16.84	302	13.81	352	13.81
3	12.84	53	14.84	103	10.81	153	12.81	203	12.84	253	13.84	303	12.81	353	15.81
4	11.84	54	15.84	104	13.81	154	9.81	204	13.84	254	16.84	304	13.81	354	15.81
5	16.84	55	13.84	105	13.81	155	10.81	205	17.84	255	17.84	305	10.81	355	15.81
6	14.84	56	12.84	106	17.81	156	8.81	206	15.84	256	14.84	306	10.81	356	17.81
7	14.84	57	14.84	107	17.81	157	9.81	207	17.84	257	13.84	307	10.81	357	11.81
8	10.84	58	15.84	108	14.81	158	9.81	208	15.84	258	17.84	308	10.81	358	10.81
9	14.84	59	14.84	109	13.81	159	11.81	209	12.84	259	12.84	309	8.81	359	13.81
10	15.84	60	13.84	110	12.81	160	10.81	210	14.84	260	14.84	310	10.81	360	9.81
11	13.84	61	16.84	111	7.81	161	10.81	211	15.84	261	15.84	311	11.81	361	13.81
12	13.84	62	15.84	112	11.81	162	8.81	212	17.84	262	13.84	312	10.81	362	9.81
13	14.84	63	14.84	113	12.81	163	11.81	213	12.84	263	14.84	313	13.81	363	12.81
14	15.84	64	14.84	114	13.81	164	15.81	214	15.84	264	15.84	314	12.81	364	12.81
15	16.84	65	15.84	115	12.81	165	13.81	215	15.84	265	15.84	315	10.81	365	9.81
16	14.84	66	12.84	116	12.81	166	15.81	216	12.84	266	15.84	316	12.81	366	8.81
17	14.84	67	14.84	117	14.81	167	15.81	217	15.84	267	16.84	317	10.81	367	12.81
18	14.84	68	15.84	118	10.81	168	14.81	218	14.84	268	14.84	318	11.81	368	10.81
19	14.84	69	14.84	119	9.81	169	12.81	219	14.84	269	14.84	319	8.81	369	10.81
20	14.84	70	14.84	120	15.81	170	11.81	220	16.84	270	17.84	320	10.81	370	12.81
21	14.84	71	14.84	121	11.81	171	11.81	221	14.84	271	15.84	321	13.81	371	10.81
22	13.84	72	13.84	122	12.81	172	13.81	222	14.84	272	14.84	322	10.81	372	7.81
23	11.84	73	13.84	123	12.81	173	13.81	223	14.84	273	17.84	323	11.81	373	9.81
24	16.84	74	13.84	124	14.81	174	10.81	224	15.84	274	15.84	324	11.81	374	13.81
25	13.84	75	17.84	125	13.81	175	11.81	225	10.84	275	15.84	325	11.81	375	12.81
26	14.84	76	13.84	126	11.81	176	8.81	226	13.84	276	12.84	326	11.81	376	14.81
27	14.84	77	16.84	127	9.81	177	10.81	227	14.84	277	12.84	327	11.81	377	10.81
28	16.84	78	13.84	128	10.81	178	10.81	228	8.84	278	14.84	328	9.81	378	10.81
29	16.84	79	15.84	129	9.81	179	12.81	229	8.84	279	11.84	329	10.81	379	10.81
30	14.84	80	14.84	130	11.81	180	15.81	230	10.84	280	12.84	330	9.81	380	13.81
31	16.84	81	14.84	131	8.81	181	10.81	231	12.84	281	14.84	331	11.81	381	10.81
32	14.84	82	14.84	132	10.81	182	9.81	232	11.84	282	14.84	332	11.81	382	8.81
33	15.84	83	16.84	133	7.81	183	11.81	233	9.84	283	14.84	333	11.81	383	8.81
34	14.84	84	17.84	134	12.81	184	13.81	234	13.84	284	17.84	334	7.81	384	8.81
35	12.84	85	13.84	135	9.81	185	15.81	235	15.84	285	17.84	335	10.81	385	10.81
36	14.84	86	13.84	136	10.81	186	12.81	236	15.84	286	14.84	336	10.81	386	7.81
37	14.84	87	12.84	137	10.81	187	11.81	237	13.84	287	17.84	337	10.81	387	6.81
38	14.84	88	15.84	138	10.81	188	9.81	238	15.84	288	13.84	338	10.81	388	15.81
39	15.84	89	15.84	139	11.81	189	12.81	239	10.84	289	16.84	339	7.81	389	13.81
40	13.84	90	15.84	140	8.81	190	13.81	240	17.84	290	14.84	340	9.81	390	15.81
41	13.84	91	15.84	141	10.81	191	13.81	241	15.84	291	12.84	341	6.81	391	13.81
42	15.84	92	13.84	142	11.81	192	10.81	242	14.84	292	17.84	342	6.81	392	11.81
43	12.84	93	17.84	143	12.81	193	10.81	243	14.84	293	12.84	343	6.81	393	13.81
44	15.84	94	15.84	144	11.81	194	12.81	244	11.84	294	17.84	344	7.81	394	6.81
45	14.84	95	15.84	145	11.81	195	12.81	245	16.84	295	16.84	345	7.81	395	6.81
46	12.84	96	13.84	146	9.81	196	10.81	246	10.84	296	16.84	346	7.81	396	6.81
47	16.84	97	17.84	147	14.81	197	15.81	247	17.84	297	16.84	347	12.81	397	6.81
48	14.84	98	12.84	148	17.81	198	12.81	248	14.84	298	12.84	348	15.81	398	6.81
49	15.84	99	17.84	149	10.81	199	14.81	249	13.84	299	16.84	349	7.81	399	6.81
50	13.84	100	15.84	150	13.81	200	13.81	250	12.84	300	12.84	350	10.81	400	6.81

Note: 'HH' refers to household

Source: Field Survey, 2015-16

CHAPTER 7

FINDINGS AND CONCLUSION

The effect of migration on the individual household in the place of origin and destination is richly document in economic literature at both the national and international level. However, relevant estimates on this account were not available for the state of Nagaland. Thus, the present study has examined the process of urbanisation and migration in Nagaland. The study mainly focussed on economic status of the migrants, reasons or factors of migrations, economic impacts of migration and prominent issues and challenges faced by the migrants in the State, based on household survey conducted during 2015-16. The important findings and observations made from the preceding chapters have been summarised and presented here below.

7.1. SOCIO-ECONOMIC PROFILE OF NAGALAND

The overview of the trends of urbanisation and migration in India with reference to Nagaland has been discussed in chapter 2, and the main observations made in the study are summarized below.

7.1.1. Population Growth Rate in Nagaland

Since the attainment of statehood, Nagaland has been experiencing an ever increasing trend in population growth rate. The highest decadal percentage increase in the State's population was observed during 1951-61with 73.35 per cent. The decadal growth rate for 1961-71, 1971-81, 1981-91 and 1991-2001 were 39.88 %, 50.05 %, 56.08% and 64.41% respectively. However, the last decade 2001-11 has witnessed a negative growth rate of -0.6 per cent.

There was no uniformity in the growth rate even among the districts where some experienced high and positive growth rate while others have negative growth rate during the last decade. During 2001-2011, Dimapur district has the highest growth rate with 23.13 %, followed by Kohima 22.80 %, Phek 10.19%, Peren 10.19%, Tuensang 5.81% and Wokha 3.11%. On the other hand, the remaining 5 districts, viz. Longleng, Kiphire, Mokokchung, Zunheboto and Mon witnessed negative growth rate with -58.39%, -30.54%, -16.77% , 8.79% and 3.83% respectively.

7.1.2. Rural-Urban Population Distribution

According to 2011 Census, the proportion of urban population in Nagaland is 5,70,966 (28.9 %) and 14,07,536 (71.1 %) in rural areas as against the national average of 31.16 % and 68.84 %, respectively. There has been a decreased in the rural population by 2,39,713 and urban population increased by 2,28,179 which resulted in the overall decreased of total population by 11,534 between 2001 and 2011. However, it is observed that the decadal growth rate of urban population in Nagaland was 68.38 %, which is higher than the national average of 31.8 % during the period between 2001 and 2011.

Among the districts, the highest proportion of urban population is Dimapur with 51.77 % while Mon has the lowest with only 13.64 %. On the contrary, Mon has the highest proportion of rural population with 86.36 % and Dimapur has the lowest with 48.24%. However, Mon has the highest growth rate of urbanisation with 109.2 per cent, while Wokha exhibits negative growth rate of urbanisation with -7.04 % during the same decade.

7.2. MIGRATION AND URBANISATION IN NAGALAND AND INDIA

The level of urbanisation in Nagaland during the last four decades shows that the growth trend was steady and less than the national average. In 1981, 15.5 per cent of the people in Nagaland were living in urban areas, against the national average of 23.73 per cent. These figures rose to 28.97 per cent, which is close to all India average of 31.16 per cent in 2011. Among the districts, it was highest in Kohima with 26.9 per cent in 1981. During the same period, Tuensang district was found to be the least urbanised district with only 8 per cent of its population living in the urban areas. It is noticed that Kohima district alone holds about 56 per cent of the total urban population during the same period. The share of Dimapur district to total urban population of the State is about 34 per cent in 2011. This was followed by Kohima (21.5%) and Mokokchung district (9.7%). The State has one each Class-I and Class-II towns, 6 each Class-III and IV towns, 10 Class-V towns and 2 Class-VI town, with nearly 71 per cent of the urban population living in Class-I, II and Class-III towns. Urban population is expected to reach 14.89 lakhs by 2051 at the present growth rate.

As per the census data on migration for the state of Nagaland, the number of migrant population almost remains same during 1981 and 1991 census periods. The share of migrants to total population also decreased from 16.5 per cent in 1981 to 10.5 percent in 1991. It was 19 per cent in 2001 and increased to 28 per cent by 2011 census period. The migrant population has a negative growth of -0.7 per cent during 1981 to 1991 but between 1991 and 2001, migrant population in the state increased by about 197 per cent and 47 per cent during 2001-2011.

According to the 2001 census report, migrants from other States/ Union Territories and other countries constituted about 26.6 percent of the migrant population in Nagaland. It is observed that migrants from 5 States namely; Assam, Bihar, Manipur, Uttar Pradesh and West Bengal constitutes about 70 per cent of the migrants coming from other Indian States/ UTs and other countries. Second group of States consist of immigrants from Kerala, Odisha, Rajasthan, Tripura, Uttarakhand and Jharkhand which accounted nearly 14 per cent of the immigrant population. Immigrants from Assam constituted 39 per cent in 2001, and increased to 44.9 per cent in 2011. It accounted for 9.4 per cent of the total immigrants during 2011. Migrants from other countries composed of 1.2 per cent during 2011. Out of this, Nepalese alone constituted about 72.9 per cent of the immigrants from other countries. Other prominent groups are Bhutanese and Bangladeshi.

By gender and streams, migration from rural to urban areas is highest for males and rural to rural for females in Nagaland, whereas it is rural to urban for males and rural to rural for females in the case of all India level. Next is urban to urban for males and rural to urban for females in Nagaland, while it is rural to rural for males and rural to urban for females in India.

7.2.1. Regression Analysis Result on Urbanisation in Nagaland

Taking migration as an independent and urbanisation as dependent variable, a simple linear regression was run to test the relationship between the two. The result reveals that there is a strong and positive correlation (r = 97) between migration and urbanisation in Nagaland. With R^2 of .951, it reveals that 95 per cent of the variability in urbanisation in Nagaland is accounted for by migration. Since P-value is less than 0.05 per cent level (P< .05), this study is statistically significant at 5 per cent level. The result suggests that with one per cent increased in migrant

population, urban population will increase by 778 persons. Therefore, the hypothesis that there is positive relationship between urban growth and migration is accepted, since 'p' value is < .05. So migration is a significant predictor of the urban population growth in Nagaland. Thus, the first hypothesis which states that there is a positive relationship between urban growth and migration in Nagaland is proved.

7.3. PROFILE OF THE SAMPLE POPULATION

7.3.1. Age and Duration of Migration

The aggregate sample data shows that the younger age group of 26-35 years constituted 40.7 % of the total migrant population, followed by 36-45 years with 24.7 %. This may imply that the younger and middle age groups are more energetic and therefore, more of them were engaged in migration. It also reveals that as the age progress, older people tend to become more static and less mobile as evident from the study that 46-55 years, 55-65 and 65 years and above comprised of only 8.7 %, 2.5 % and 0.7 % respectively.

The largest group of people migrated during early 2000s accounting for 43 per cent. During 2006-10, about 26 per cent migrated into urban areas in Nagaland. Then 31 per cent migrated during 2011-16.

7.3.2. Sex Composition of the Migrants

It was found that male constituted 76% of the total migrants while female accounted for 24 per cent. An analysis of streams of migration reveals that migration from rural origin is quite prominent. Out of the total migrants from rural areas, male accounted for 78 per cent while females constituted 22 per cent only. Out of the total migrants from other urban areas, male constituted for 67 per cent while female accounted only 33 per cent. So males dominate migration to urban areas in the sample data, which represents the migration pattern in Nagaland.

7.3.3. Educational Attainment of the Migrants

Amongst the migrants, the largest group is those with primary level or no formal education accounting for about 26.5 per cent, followed by those who attended high school (23.8 %). In the third place are those with graduate level with 21.7 per cent. This indicates that about 50 per cent of the migrants have educational level

below class 10 represented by middle/ high school and primary levels, whereas the other 50 per cent have education of at least secondary level and above.

7.3.4. Marital Status of the Migrants

The aggregates sample data reveals that majority of the respondents were found to be married accounting for 60 per cent of the total respondents. Of which 48 per cent were found to be male migrants and the remaining 12 per cent were female migrants. Nearly 28 per cent of the un-married migrants were males and the remaining were females**.**

7.3.5. Source of Livelihood

It was observed that the main sources of income for the migrants in Nagaland were wage labour in informal activities and government service. Next is business establishments followed by other source. For migrants from rural areas, wage work in informal sector is the main source of livelihood, followed by private business and government service. Farming and self employment contributes only 6 per cent to income. On the other hand, government service is the most important source for the migrants coming from other urban areas, followed by business and wage labour. Thus, it is understood that formal sector contributed only 28 per cent to income source, while about 62 per cent came from informal source and 10 per cent from other sources.

7.3.6. Possession of Durable Goods

The sample aggregate data show that about 54 per cent of them possessed refrigerator, 81 per cent television, nearly 82 per cent mobile phone. Nearly 22 per cent have two wheelers and 13 per cent four wheelers. Most common use items like water heater and fans were possessed by about 43 per cent and 52 per cent respectively. Computer set and laptops were owned by about 43 per cent and 26 per cent respectively.

7.3.7. Nature of Dwellings

It indicates that the highest proportion of the respondents is those who were staying with their family in rented house, followed by those people who have a shared-type of residence with their friends in towns and those who own house in the city/town. It was found that more than 50 per cent of the respondents who came from rural areas are settled in rented house in the present place of residence.

7.3.8. Nature and Source of Migration

It was evident that majority of the respondents (57.3 per cent) were reported to have moved alone while the rest (i.e., 42.7 %) have migrated with the family. Individual male migration is more prevalent among the rural migrants as compared to rural female migration. Urban origin migration, however, does not show any significant differences among male and female migrants.

7.3.9. Periods of Migration

It was found that 43 per cent migrated during the early 2000s, while 26 per cent migrated during 2006-10 and 31 per cent during 2011-16. Moreover, the sample data reveals that majority of the migrants were from rural areas (79.5%) and only 20.5 per cent were from other smaller towns. It is evident from the study that about 43 per cent were migrated to urban centres during 2000-2005, followed by 31 per cent during 2011-16 and about 26 per cent of them migrated during the period 2006-10.

7.3.10. Place of Origin of the Migrants

More than 45 per cent of the respondents were intra-state migrants from rural place of origin. About 34 per cent of them were inter-state migrants from rural place of origin. About 15 per cent came from within the same state of other smaller towns and another 5 per cent from urban area of outside the state. It is evident that intra-state migration dominates over inter-state migration for both rural and urban migration in Nagaland. Intra-state migration accounts for more than 60 per cent of the migration in Nagaland.

7.3.11. Migration Assistance

The sample aggregate reveals that on average, it is the parents who extend maximum help to their children to migrate and in finding jobs in the city/town. Friends of the migrants are next important group, followed by employers and relatives. Self migration is also equally important in the context of migration in Nagaland.

7.4. FACTORS OF MIGRATION

7.4.1. Push Factors of Migration: Due to developmental deficiencies coupled with limited agricultural practices in the source areas, people were often compelled to take migration decisions. It was found that unemployment and poverty were the main cause of push factors of migration in Nagaland. Unemployment is found to be the most obvious reason for out-migration from the place of origin, followed by income deficiency/ low wages and agricultural stagnation. Lack of educational institutions and health care facilities also contributed significantly towards rural-urban migration in Nagaland. Migration of the family due to transfer of service posting and marriage also act as push factors of migration, although less significant.

Economic factors such as agricultural stagnation, unemployment in the village, relative income/ wage difference etc. accounts for about 63 per cent that formed the major push factors leading them to migrate to the urban centres in Nagaland. Lack of educational and health care facilities accounts for 15 per cent of out-migration from the place of origin. Social and political issues like family problems, marriage, change of work place due to transfer of the government employees and others accounts for about 22 per cent of out-migration in Nagaland. Thus, the above analysis reveals that economic factors play a decisive role on the migration of the people in to the urban areas.

7.4.2. Pull Factors of Migration: Scope for diversified economic activities in addition to finding government jobs in urban areas continues to attract migrants from different corners of the region. Some of the important facilities available in urban areas are educational facilities, market facilities, and opportunities for small businesses activities, wage labour, construction work, domestic helpers and various other unspecified occupations in informal sector jobs act as pull factors for in-migration. From the current study it was found that better employment opportunity and higher expected income formed the most important pull factors for migration in Nagaland. Existence of better educational institutions and health care service system in urban centres in relation to smaller towns in the State also attracted significant proportion of the migrants to Kohima and Dimapur. Wider scope for business activities and for self employment in the two rapidly growing urban centres of Nagaland forms other important pull factors of migration. Other pull factors which

were equally important include urban amenities and transport facilities and other factors.

From the above analysis of the pull factors, it is clear that about 66 per cent of the respondents have migrated to Kohima and Dimapur due to economic reasons. This implies that more opportunities for employment and higher wages and income have attracted the migrants to those urban centres in Nagaland. About 16 per cent of the respondents have been attracted by better urban amenities such as better transport system and other urban amenities in Dimapur and Kohima cities. Education and health care facilities accounted for about 14 per cent of migration in Nagaland.

Economic reasons were found to be the main reason for migration to Kohima and Dimapur city as stated in the first part of hypothesis no. 2. The significance of the factors influencing migration from rural and other urban areas were tested by using Chi-square Test.

7.4.3. Chi-Square Test Result on Push and Pull Factors of Migration

From the above discussion, it is clear that economic factors play a crucial role in migration of the people to urban centres in Nagaland. Further, to test the significance of difference of influence upon rural and urban migrants, a Chi-Square test was run with the push and pull factors of migration. The result reveals that the calculated value of X^2 (14.57) is less than the table value (18.3) for the push factors at 5 per cent level of significance. Hence, the null hypothesis holds true. Thus, there is no difference in the influence of push factors on the migrants between rural and urban origins. On the other hand, at 5 per cent level of significance, the calculated value of X^2 (37.68) for the pull factors is found to be much higher than the table value (18.3) for 10 degrees of freedom, so the null hypothesis is rejected. Hence, the degree of pulling effects on the migrants from rural and urban origins differs significantly.

Therefore, the first part of hypothesis No.2, which states that individual migration decision is based mainly on economic reasons, is proved. However the second part of the hypothesis, i.e., the issue of influence on migrants from rural and urban differs, where there is no significant difference for push factor while for pull factor the difference of influence is significant, where rural migrants are influenced more.

7.5. IMPACT OF MIGRATION

7.5.1. Changes in Occupational Structure after migration

At all India level, as evident from the NSSO data, there was impressive reduction in the proportion of unemployment after migration from 5.5 per cent to 0.9 per cent. Total employment increased from 22.6 to 35.3 per cent after migration. Similarly, the proportion of regular wage and salaried persons also increased from 8.1 to 18.5 per cent after migration.

The analysis on sample data shows that significant changes were observed in the occupational structure of the migration after migration to Kohima and Dimapur city. Those people engaged in private business, government job and wage labourers before migration from rural areas all increased by double after migration. Similarly, the proportion of people engaged in private enterprises/companies also increased from zero to 7.5 per cent after migration to urban centres in Nagaland. On the other hand, those engaged in household industrial activities and farming activities, their proportion decreased by about 50 per cent after migration.

It is noticed that only about 60 per cent of the respondents were actively involved in economic or productive activities before migration. But after migration, all were engaged in productive activities. One notable reason was that of availability of various economic opportunities in urban centres. Another reason was that since some of them were studying in schools or colleges they could not actively engage to or join a full time workforce.

For the time taken to get job after migration to urban centres, the regression result reveals that education, age and social relation have positive influence with the dependent variable. It also reveals that 54 per cent of the variance in the time taken to get job after migration to urban areas is explained by the predictors. Further, it suggests that, with increase in the level of education, age and social relations, time require to get job increased by 5, 7 and 14 months respectively. Positive relationship between education and time require may be due to the reason that highly educated people seek white colour jobs, which is more difficult to get as compare to manual works. Likewise, as age of a person increase, the model suggests that time taken to get job also increases. So is the case with social relation. The P<.000 and ‘t’ values

for education, age and social relation with 5.38, 5.23 and 13.84 respectively, shows that the study is statistically significant.

7.5.2. Changes in Income Distribution after Migration

There were drastic changes in the proportion of the level of earnings/ income before and after migration to urban centres in Nagaland. For instance, the lowest income group before migration constituted more than 52 per cent but reduced to about 5 per cent after migration. All the higher income groups' proportion increased by about 4 times or more except for the group earning ₹ 25000-30000 group, who's increased was about only one per cent after migration. Maximum change was observed for the income group earning less than ₹ 5000 per month. Minimum changed is notice for the group of respondents earning ₹ 25000-30000 per month. The overall positive effect of migration is that the proportion of lower income group declined while that of middle and higher income categories has increased. This a clear indication of improvement in the living condition of the migrants after migration to Kohima and Dimapur.

7.5.3. Income Inequality

The study found that the poorest 46 per cent in pre-migration period had received only 11 per cent of the total income while the richest 35 percent received about 30 per cent of the total income. In post migration period, the poorest 10 per cent received 5 per cent of the total income while the richest 11 per cent obtained 21 per cent of the total earnings. The study also found that an extent of inequality in income distribution for sample aggregate as Gini Coefficient (GC) was 0.25 in pre-migration period and reduced to 0.23 in post-migration period. Thus, it is observed that the inequality in income distribution amongst the migrants has marginally improved after migration to urban centres in Nagaland.

7.5.4. Impact of Education on Income Level

The analysis on the pattern of income distribution based on educational level and age of the migrants reveals that the mean monthly income is highest for the graduates, followed by post graduates and higher secondary levels. On the other hand, migrants with high school level have lowest income. It is observed that education has

positive impact on the earnings of the migrants, where higher educational level has higher mean income than the lower level of education.

By age-wise, the highest mean income is for 45-55 years, followed by 16-25 years and 56-65 years, while the lowest mean income is 36-45 years of age group. Thus, age of the respondents has no uniformity in relation to income distribution pattern.

7.5.5. Regression Analysis on Mean Income of Migrants

The analysis of the sample aggregate data shows that for Nagaland, the correlation (r) between mean income and educational level, age and sex of the respondents were found to be positive with .417, .337 and .140, respectively, which are moderate but positive for education and age. Whereas, it is low for sex although positive. The result indicated that the predictors have positive influence on the level of income. With R^2 of .221, the model predicts that about 22% of the variability in the level of income after migration was explained by the independent variables. $P < .05 = .000$ for education and age, it suggests the model is statistically significant at 5 per cent level. The 't' are significant at 1 per cent for all the three variables, but more significant for education. Further, it suggests that with every increased in educational level, age and sex, income is increased by ₹ 404, ₹ 298 and ₹ 79, respectively. Thus, the impact of education on income is found to be stronger than other variables. Hence, the hypothesis 3, which states that education has higher influence on income than age and sex of the respondents is proved and accepted.

7.5.6. Rural-Urban Linkages and Remittance

Remittance was found to be a positive outcome of migration. Remittance, whether used for direct consumption or investment contributes to improvement in living condition of the households. So it directly affects human development and capital formation. It is observed that there is an increasing trend in the number of people migrating to urban centres for economic motives. This is mainly due to distress agriculture or poverty or better employment in the case of the youth. Amongst the migrants in the sample area, it was found that only 42.4 per cent send remittances to their families. The migrants who migrated in recent years constituted the largest proportion of sending remittance, followed by those who came in during

2006-10 and 2000-2005 respectively. Again, the most recent migrants were found to remit highest amount on average.

In terms of the volume of remittance sent by the urban migrants, it was observed that majority of the respondents send money to the tune of ₹ 30,000 to 40,000 in a year. Major proportion of the remittance were spent by the recipient families on human development and human capital formation related items such as food, health care and education, which accounted for 77.5 per cent of the total remitted amount. Direct investment on capital and durable goods accounted for about 7 per cent. Saving for future, repayment of debts and investment for entrepreneurial activities accounted about 7 per cent. Spending on social activities constituted for 5.5 per cent. This indicates that remittances contribute positively to the improvement in living standards of the households in the place of origin and significantly contributed to human capital formation. It also helped in capital asset creation.

7.5.7. Regression Analysis on Remittance

The result shows that migrant's education, age and income level are significant predictors of the level of remittances, It shows that income level, sex and family size are positively correlated (r) with 0.583, 0.378 and 0.331 respectively, while age (-30%) and educational level (-21%) were negatively correlated to remittance send by the migrants in urban areas. The R^2 is 0.41, which suggest that about 41% of the variability in the amount of remittance send by the migrants is explained by independent variables. Since, the model is statistically significant ($p< .05$) it can be stated that income and age are significant at 1 per cent level ($t=9.23$ and $t=3.58$ respectively) while education is significant at 5 per cent ($t=2.41$). However, sex and family size of the migrants have no significant effect on remittance. The model suggests that with 1 per cent increase in the income level, remittance amount would be increased by ₹ 812. With 1 year increase in age, the remittance would decline by ₹ 425 and every level increase in education will result in decline in remittance by ₹ 293.7. Thus, the hypothesis 4 which states that the migrants with higher level of education are likely to remit more is rejected. But positive relationship between income and remittance amount is accepted.

7.6. ISSUES AND CHALLENGES FACED BY THE MIGRANTS

7.6.1. Water issue

With rapid urbanization in the state, the pressure on availing potable water to the citizens has become intensified in recent times in towns. Therefore, integrated water resource management and conservation of water, rainwater harvesting, coupled with equitable and efficient management has critical roles to play in meeting the urban water requirements especially in hilly towns like Kohima. It was found that nearly 50 per cent of the respondents were facing access to adequate water for consumption. Municipal authority provides only 6.5 per cent and the rest depend on dug wells, private water tapes, tube wells and other source.

7.6.2. Environmental Issue

This pertains to air and water pollution, noise pollution and other filthy environmental issues. It was found that nearly 40 per cent of the respondents reported these are detrimental factors for harmonious co-existence in the urban areas. Crime and safety issues also pose serious problems for the migrants in urban centres. Nearly 29 per cent feels that they have issues with the safety of their women and children.

7.6.3. Access to Educational Institution and Health care facilities

Though the available infrastructure for human development is well developed in urban areas like Kohima and Dimapur, yet a considerable proportion of the migrants were facing problems to have full access to such facilities. About 18 per cent of the respondents have problems with access to educational and health care system in the urban centres in Nagaland.

7.6.4. Transport and Traffic Issue

The problem of urban roads and traffic congestion is rapidly increasing in big towns like Kohima, Dimapur, Mokokchung, etc, partly due to the failure of the concern department and municipalities in maintaining the urban roads and partly due to high density of vehicles couple with absence of civic senses. Likewise, the migrants are facing hardship due to poor road conditions in urban areas, who have to commute daily to their work place.

7.6.5. Housing Issue

The proportion of the migrants living in kutchha house declined from 44 to 17 per cent, while those living in semi kutchha and pucca increased from 14 to 24 per cent and 42 to 59.5 per cent respectively. Thus, the condition of housing improved

over the period. But a significant proportion still lives in kutchha houses, which is still a matter of concern for the migrants in the urban centres in Nagaland. It was found that more than 65 per cent of the respondents were living in rented house. About one-fourth of them lived in their own house and the remaining live in either government quarters or other temporary structures. It was also observed that less than 50 per cent have separate bed room and sitting rooms, less than 40 per cent with attached toilets and only 24 per cent with proper kitchen and chimneys in their present place of residence. As a result, about 38 per cent of the respondents have changed their place of residence once or more due to reasons such as safety issues, remoteness from the bazaar, sanitary problems, high rental charge, etc. While searching a place for residence, the migrants face series of problems such as high rental charges, transport facilities, difficulty in finding a suitable location, etc.

7.6.6. Urban Sanitation Issue

Due to rapid increase of urban population in the State, the existing infrastructure is under serious strain to meet the growing needs of wastes management, disposal system and drainage maintenance, thereby threatening the public health.

(i) Toilet system and Uses: About 62 per cent of the migrants have flush toilets, 19.5 per cent on ventilated toilets and 17.5 per cent with pit latrines in urban areas. It was found that about 2 per cent of the migrants were practicing open defecation. Majority of the migrants have managed to have decent toilet facilities in the State. By the nature of use, 59 per cent are using their own household toilets. About 39 per cent of them are using community toilets and the rest used whatever means avails them.

(ii) Urban Waste and Sewerage Disposal System: It was found that, though the Municipalities manages major portion of the waste yet it could not extend and reached to every parts under their jurisdiction. There are various reasons for failure to cover the entire areas but the major ones are limited resources, technical know-how, inadequate infrastructures and man-powers to efficiently tackle waste management issues. The present study show that about 44 per cent of the migrants let household waste water into nearby roadside drains, 23.5 per cent into streams and ponds and 4.8 per cent to the waste tanks. About 4 per cent do not maintained any proper arrangement for waste water disposal.

(iii) Drainage System: According to Census 2011, only 4.8 per cent in Nagaland have closed drainage system, 45.6 per cent open drainage and 49.83 per cent have no drainage system. Similarly, in Dimapur, only 10.08 per cent have closed drainage, 47.52 per cent open drainage and 42.4 per cent do not have drainage system. The corresponding figure for Kohima is 4.34 per cent, 68.25 and 27.41 per cent respectively. Various factors were indentified for non-satisfactory conditions of the drainage system in urban areas. On average, the highest proportion of the migrants has issues with frequent water loggings of the drainage, followed by non-maintenance and non-coverage drainage system in their localities.

7.6.7. Public Health Issue

On average, majority of the respondents cited shortages of specialised doctors as the main issue in regard to health care in urban areas. For which reason, some patients were compelled go to other metropolis or cities like Guwahati, Kolkata, New Delhi, Mumbai, etc for treatment. On average, Guwahati was found to be the favourite destination, followed by Kolkata and Delhi.

The survey data reveals that only 11 per cent of the respondents were found to be holding health insurance policy. This implies nearly 90 per cent of the respondents did not possess health policy. This implies that about 90 per cent of the migrants did not have proper security of their health in Nagaland. The migrants, being the most vulnerable groups in the community, need to be sensitized about the importance of such health policies especially among the most vulnerable sections like women and children.

7.6.8. Level of Living Standard of the Migrants

To estimate the comparative living standard of the migrants, in the analysis, the composite index score ranging from 6.81 to 17.84 were divided into three categories as high (6-10), moderate (10.1-14) and low (14.1-18) standard of living. The result reveals that majority were in the moderate category with 47.25 per cent (46.5% Dimapur and 48 % in Kohima). Nearly 40 per cent of the migrants were living in high living conditions (36 % in Dimapur and 43.5% in Kohima). The proportion of the migrants with low living standards constitutes 13 per cent on average, with 17.5 per cent in Dimapur and 8.5 per cent in Kohima.

Migration influences the urbanization and vice versa. It is an important livelihood strategy for many, especially from rural area. Improvement in income affects the living conditions of the migrants in the place of destination and families in the place of origin through remittances.

7.7. RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

7.7.1. Recommendations

Cities have the potential to become the drivers of economic[178]. For this to happen, urban planning should be well in placed and managed. This requires inclusive and sustainable urban growth. It includes management of the peripheral areas of the cities and towns. Inclusive urbanisation will addressing the need of the poor, low income groups, marginalised and minority groups, relating to land ownership, access to water, housing, public services, etc[179]. Management involve good governance, especially in the peri-urban areas, innovative and sustainable urban development strategy, where public sectors, private parties and small scale sectors partnered with the informal service providers in communities. So, cities and municipalities have huge responsibilities to address the needs of the urban settlements[180]. On the other hand, the concern municipalities and urban development agencies are facing hardship due to limited resources, capacity and political will. Hence, the concern authorities should try to prioritize its strategy of planning and management, and address the most pressing issues first.

The question today is no longer whether to control migration but rather how to manage migration effectively so as to enhance its positive aspects. The challenge is how to maximise the benefits from migration and gains the origin as well as the destination and the migrants themselves[181]. Elimination and eviction policy on the migrants are not viable options, for it increase marginalisation and insecurity of

[178] Mosel, et al. (2016). Urbanisation, Consequences and Opportunities for the Netherlands' Directorate General for International Cooperation. Overseas Development Institute Report. Netherlands.
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certain group of people[182]. So, policy focus should be on how to manage the well being of the underprivileged groups in urban areas including the poor migrants. The primary motive for migration is found to be economic, though other factors like education, health care and marriage also influence migration in Indian context. So any policy adopted should target the economic aspects of the migrants. Among many, few may be suggested as follows:

1. Since majority of the migrants are originally from rural areas, it may imply that the rural areas have failed to accommodate the increasing population due to weak economic base. Policies must be adopted to promote rural cottage and SSIs, which could boost rural economy and diversify livelihood opportunities. Providing soft loans, incentive for input acquisition and rationing of output prices with proper connectivity and market outlet can enhance livelihood opportunities in rural areas, which will eventually reduce rural-urban migration.

2. Urban housing development is equally important for both urban poor migrants as well as non-migrants. The state has no specific programs for providing affordable housing facilities to its poor communities in urban areas. Thus, a feasible urban housing schemes need to be adopted. The State Government can initiate and try any Chinese model of Social Housing schemes, such as Public Rental Housing Scheme, Affordable Housing Scheme or Low income Rental Housing schemes on pilot basis in Dimapur and Kohima city. This will fulfil one objective of inclusive urbanisation in the State.

3. Urban solid waste management is of utmost importance for healthy environment but the problem arises due to lack of solid waste management which is leading to various environmental and health hazards in urban areas. This is due to lack of resources and also lack of awareness about the adverse consequences among the people. So the concern authorities need to adopt public awareness strategies and educated the urban dwellers though press and social media, awareness campaign, seminars etc.

4. Amongst the migrants, especially the informal sector workers were the most vulnerable groups. Without any health care policy, their health is at risk and need to

[182] Lundius, R. V. et al. (2014). Synthesis Report on Internal Migration and Urbanisation. Retrieved from: http://www.knomad.org/

be insured with formal health policy. Thus, all the informal sector labours should be encourage to register in any one of the pension scheme like Pradhan Mantri Shram Yogi Maan-Dhan (PM-SYM) or health insurance policies for health security and to sustain their family after retirement age.

5. The existing urban water supply capacity is far from enough to meet the requirements of different sections of the society. It is observed that many urban dwellers depend mostly on rain water during monsoon. But when monsoon retreats the problem become more acute especially in hilly towns. So, a portion of the household budget goes to the purchase of water from private agency and the question of water security arises here. The Municipalities should give effort to increased public water supply. It is observed that water sources are depleting, especially in hilly areas. The concern department should explore new sources, add to the existing capacity and at the same time encourage rain water harvesting. This will save the resource of the poor migrants and lead to increase in living standard.

6. The Nagaland State Vision 2030, which was unveiled in December 2016, envisaged boosting the State with Expressway, Trans-Nagaland Highways, four-lane national highways and connecting all district headquarters with two lane national highways, which will be deliverable by 2030[183]. This is a positive policy vision document envisage to eliminate bottlenecks in road and transport sector. The Government need to initiate the program immediately and implement the project in time and phase-wise manner. Above that, quality and timely completion of the projects should be maintained at any cost for good and efficient transport service in the State.

7. At present, none of the urban centres in the state has long-term city master plan. In the absence of this plan, cities and towns are growing in a haphazard manner. For instance, many educational institutions and hospitals are growing and located in most congested areas, giving more problems to the traffic flow and management. This is unviable and unsustainable in future. Therefore, urban master plans need to be formulated and implemented by the concern ministry in collaboration with the urban planning department as soon as possible. If possible, some institutions whether

[183]The Morung Express (2017). Nagaland Vision 2030: Infrastructure and Connectivity. http://morung express.com/ Accessed on 25/08/2017

education, health care, security forces etc. should be relocated at the appropriate areas for smooth flow of traffic and healthy urban environment.

8. The problem of urban infrastructural development is directly link to land holding system in Nagaland (Thematic report, 2009). The Government or the Municipalities have no control over the lands even in its jurisdiction. Thus, it is pertinent to review land holding system in urban areas and explore new ways for urban infrastructure development, particularly for housing and road development. This will pave the way to keep pace with the growing needs of the ever increasing urban population in Nagaland. In addition, municipalities like Kohima need to fully tap the potentials of Smart City Schemes, which was initiated by the Central Government in 2016, for smooth and speedy development of the city.

Urban dwellers and migrants are facing hardship due to shortage of amenities. At this juncture, inclusive urbanisation strategy would pave the way for uplifting the poor and weaker section of the urban dwellers, while exclusion and marginalised urban policy will break down the urban functioning mechanism.

7.7.2. CONCLUSION

The process of urbanisation and migration were found to be closely linked to each other. This is evident from the findings that both are moving at the same pace, though not at the same rate. At the district level in Nagaland, urbanisation trend is not uniform due to physical and economic factors. Consequently, migrants from both rural and smaller urban areas have migrated to the major cities like Kohima and Dimapur. As a result of which, both non-migrants as well as migrants are facing infrastructural congestions and economic hardships. The study indicates that urban population is increasing at a rate faster than the national average. At the same time, migration from rural areas and other smaller towns to main urban centres is increasing in recent decades.

The study is found to be in conformity with Ravenstein's views that economic factors were the main cause of migration and the inverse relationship between distance and the number of migrants. Short distance migration dominates migration to urban areas mainly due to economic reasons and diversified opportunities in Kohima and Dimapur city. Individual migration decision is based mainly on expected

returns from migration (Sjaastad, 1962). But there is no difference in the push factors affecting the migrants from rural and urban origins.

In occupational pattern of the migrants, there was dramatic improvement after migration to urban areas in India as well as in Nagaland. The proportion of unemployed migrants declined, while that of total employed and active economic activities increased significantly after migration. Similarly, income level and income inequality among the migrants improved significantly after migration. Remittance proved to be a positive contributor to human development in the place of origin, through increased in consumption expenditure of the migrant households. In spite of the above positive implications, migrants in the urban areas are facing hardships due to infrastructural deficiencies and socio-economic exclusions. Despite many constraints, the migrants are playing a substantial role in urban labour markets in Nagaland. They provide easy and cheap labour in the market. Easy availability of both skilled and unskilled labours has been a major component for the growth of urban economy in Kohima and Dimapur. For their valuable services, they deserve due care and attention of the community and the municipalities.

Nagaland may not need mega-cities in future but what is important is that it needs to sustain its people in the longer run and following India's urbanisation pattern might not be the most incredible idea. This is because a delicate geography needs a delicate planning.

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